

**MODERATING INFLUENCE OF JOB SATISFACTION ON THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN EMPLOYEE RESOURCING PRACTICES AND PERFORMANCE OF
ACADEMIC STAFF IN KENYAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES**

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DECLARATION

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This Thesis is my original work and has not been previously presented for examination in any other university.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my wife - Mary Adhiambo Nyakwaka - and children - Audrey Hazel Robby, Arshley Eileen Robby and Alexis Patience Robby- whose incessant intercession kept me on track. May you find favour with the Blessed Virgin Mary! May her eyes of grace never wander away from you! May she order every step of yours! May the Spirit of the Lord and his presence accompany you always!

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ABSTRACT

Public universities spur Kenya Vision 2030's pursuit for globally acclaimed education, training and research. However, higher education stakeholders including World Bank, employers, Kenya's Commission for University Education and scholars fault the quality and relevance of their academic programmes, especially during the massification era. Decline, which has negative effects on university graduates, is allegedly attributed to: excess workload; deficient recruitment, promotion and retention criteria; and academic staff's incompetence – all theoretically related to Employee Resourcing Practices (ERP) and Job Satisfaction (JS). Studies on Human Resource Planning Practice (HRPP) and Academic Staff's Performance (AcSP) exclude HRPP descriptors like: Business and Scenario Planning; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning. Recruitment Practice (RP) indicators like: Examining Vacancy; Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates are not comprehensively investigated in the same way as Selection Practice (SP) descriptors like: Candidates' Assessment; Choice and Offer of Employment. Academic Staff's Performance (AcSP) indicators like: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Administration and Responsibilities; and Community Engagement are ignored. Studies on JS/AcSP relationship fail to comprehensively investigate facets of JS like: Achievement; Recognition; Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity; Work Itself and Working Conditions; Comfort With Pay and Benefits; and Company Policy and Administration. Most studies relating HRP, RP and SP to Employee Performance (EP) demonstrate that they account for <60% variation in EP. <100% variance in EP thus possible moderation by JS whose interaction has previously been investigated variously using variables other than current ones. While JS has theoretical relationship with ERP and EP, its moderating influence on relationship between ERP and the AcSP in Kenyan public universities (KPU) has not been empirically demonstrated, hence this study. Specific objectives were to: establish influence of HRPP on AcSP; determine influence of RP on AcSP; assess influence of SP on AcSP; examine the influence of JS on AcSP; and to establish moderating influence of JS on relationship between ERP and AcSP in KPUs. Anchored on Decision Making Theory and supported by Resource Based View; Human Capital Theory; and Two-Factor Theory, the study adopted cross-sectional correlational study design with a target population of 1,653 in 14 chartered public universities established between 2009 and 2019 that were chosen due to staffing challenges therein. Multi-stage sampling technique yielded a final census of 158 academic heads of departments having used 20 in piloting. KPUs which experience greater quality challenges comprise 72% of total university academics. Primary data was collected using semi-structured questionnaire while secondary data obtained from relevant secondary sources. Using Cronbach's α , the questionnaire was consistent at 0.796 (SD=0.067). Content validity was ensured by reviewing literature within study concepts and corroborated by experts. Pearson's r revealed that all items were valid (construct) except one that was excluded from final analysis. Multiple regression analysis revealed that the four variables were significant predictors of AcSP and accounted for variations as follows: HRPP = $F(4,131)=21.650$, $p=.000$, (Adjusted $R^2=.380$); RP= $F(2,133)=9.890$, $p=.000$, (Adjusted $R^2=.116$); SP= $F(2,133)=24.226$, $p=.000$, (Adjusted $R^2=.256$) and JS= $F(7,128)=78.929$, $p=.000$, (Adjusted $R^2=.802$). JS explained 1.4% variance in the ERP/ AcSP relationship ($\Delta R^2=.014$, $\Delta F(1,132)=11.158$, $p=.001$). HRPP, RP and SP significantly influenced AcSP. JS moderated ERP/ AcSP relationship. This implies that KPUs can enhance (AcSP) by effectively acquiring and putting in place effective JS measures since ERP and JS work complementarily. Findings will benefit HRM practitioners and management of public universities in policy formulation and practice. Scholars will gain knowledge and premise future research on these findings. Performance of Academic Staff will be enhanced with the implementation of the study's recommendations. It is recommended that KPUs intensify the following aspects of ERP and JS since they significantly influenced AcSP in KPUs: Demand Forecasting and, Forecasting of Future Requirements and Action Planning; Examining Vacancy; Candidates Assessment and, Candidates Choice and Offer of Employment; Job Satisfaction of Academic Staff having effectively acquired them.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AcSP	:	Academic Staff's Performance
AHoD	:	Academic Heads of Departments.
CUE	:	Commission for university Education
HE	:	Higher Education
HR	:	Human Resource.
HRM	:	Human Resource Management.
HRP	:	Human Resource Planning
HRPP	:	Human Resource Planning Practice
JS	:	Job Satisfaction
KPUs	:	Kenyan Public Universities
LP	:	Lecturers' Performance
NACOSTI	:	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
NCIC	:	National Cohesion and Integration Commission
PEST	:	Political, Economic, Social and Technological.
RP	:	Recruitment Practice
SMEs	:	Small and Medium Enterprises.
SP	:	Selection Practices
UNESCO	:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	:	United Nations Children's Fund

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Academic Heads of Department (AHoDS): Appointed post holders charged with the responsibility of managing an academic department. This study considers Deans and Directors of schools, faculties and institutes AHoDs only in the absence of substantive AHoDs.

Academic Staff: Any person appointed to teach, train or do research at a University i.e. Professor, Associate Professor, Senior Lecturer, Lecturer, Assistant Lecturer, Tutorial Fellow, Graduate Assistant, Instructor or any other person who holds any other teaching or research position recognized by a council as having academic status in the University.

Action Plans: A profile of remedial action that can be taken to correct deficits and surpluses in human resources.

Dean: The academic and administrative head of a school or faculty in a university.

Demand Forecasting: The process of estimating the future numbers of people required and the likely skills and competencies they will need.

Department: An academic division into which a faculty, institute or school is divided for purposes of teaching, examination and administration.

Director: The academic and administrative head of an institute or faculty in a university

Employee Performance: The job-related activities expected of employees, and the execution of these activities.

Employee Resourcing: The process of procuring human resources for an organization which entails Human Resource Planning, recruitment and selection.

Forecast of Future Requirements: The process of matching demand and supply to uncover deficits or surpluses, if any.

Human Resource Planning: The process by which an organization ensures that it has the right number and kinds of people, at the right places, at the right time, capable of effectively and efficiently completing those tasks that will enable an organization achieve its overall objectives.

Job Posting: Publicizing vacancies to the current employees by posting it on the bulletin boards, newsletters etc and listing its attributes and person requirements.

Performance of Academic Staff: Job related behaviours expected of academic staff and how they execute their work.

Massification: the growth of enrolment beyond the capacities of universities.

PEST Approach: An assessment of the political, economic, social and technological factors that might affect the organization.

Psychological Contract: A set of unwritten expectations that exist between individual employees and their employers.

Recruitment: The first part of the process of filling a vacancy which includes: the examination of a vacancy, the consideration of the sources of suitable candidates, making contact with those candidates and attracting applications from them. It concerns publicizing vacancies.

Scenario Planning: An assessment of the environmental changes that are likely to affect the organization so that a prediction can be made of the possible situations that may have to be dealt with in the future.

Selection: The process of assessing candidates by various means, and making a choice followed by an offer of employment.

Structural Delivery Skills: Human interaction skills and characteristics which facilitate clear communication of information, concepts and attitudes and/or promote learning by creating an appropriate and effective learning environment.

Supply Forecasting: measures the number of people likely to be available from within and outside the organization, having allowed for absenteeism, internal movements and promotions, wastages and changes in hours and other conditions of work.

Teacher: is a person who helps students to acquire knowledge, competence or virtue in a formal setting.

Public Universities: Universities maintained or assisted out of public funds.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter highlights the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research hypotheses, significance of the study, scope of the study, and the conceptual framework.

1.1 Background of the Study

Formal recognition of education as a human right dates back to the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. Numerous global human rights treaties have since then re-affirmed it, including the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960); the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1981). While the treaties establish, among others, an obligation to provide equitable access to higher education, the right to education encompasses the obligation to set minimum standards and to improve quality (UNESCO/ UNICEF, 2007). Higher education (also known as Tertiary Education), according to World Bank (2017) spurs growth, creates more job opportunities, enhances competitiveness and can potentially accelerate economic transformation by enhancing basic education, moulding professionals and skilled manpower, and catalyzing research. Accordingly, the Kenya Vision 2030 endeavours to provide education, training and research whose quality is acclaimed globally to facilitate individual development and well being (Republic of Kenya, 2007a) through the intervention of public universities among other institutions.

Global Higher education is characterized by myriad challenges that impact performance and application of education globally (Lemoine, Jenkins and Richardson, 2017). Some of these challenges are manifested in stakeholders' misgivings about the standards and relevance, economic value and resource allocation in the sector (World Bank, 2017). Higher education is a function of all the higher learning institutions including the university (Alemu (2018). Adeyemi (2017) faults the academic quality of the output from the university system which he observes to have consistently taken a downward trajectory in a majority of African

countries. Many scholars have also registered the declining standards in their states (Agaruwhe and Ugborugbo, 2009; Alderman, 2010; Bisht, 2015; Ishaya, 2016) as cited in Adeyemi (2017). The diminishing quality in African universities is evident in poor examination scores, less rigorous recruitment and promotion criteria, declining research and employers' observation that university graduates are incompetent (World Bank, 1996; 2017; Asamoah & Mackin, 2015). Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009) confirm that quality of university education, especially in lower-income African, Asia and Latin American countries has been negatively affected by the rapid expansion of universities as demonstrated by irrelevant curricular and unqualified academic staff.

While one of the objectives of Kenyan university education is to advance knowledge through quality teaching, scholarly research and scientific investigation (Republic of Kenya, 2012; Commission for University Education, 2016), stakeholders express misgivings about the quality and relevance of the programmes offered in Kenyan universities (Yego, 2016; Kaburu and Embeywa, 2014, Martin and Anthony, 2007; and Ajayi, 1996), the increased access to university education notwithstanding. Kenyan university graduates are criticized for lacking the desired skills, knowledge and attitudes (Kala, Tanui and Kalai, 2020; Ponge, 2013; Amimo, 2012; Kamaara, 2011; Riechi, 2010). A World Bank Report on "*Kenya's Education Achievement and Challenges*" actually faults her education system for breeding graduates devoid of the knowledge and skills compatible with Vision 2030 (Wanzala, 2015). Kenyan employers observe only 49% of University graduates are adequately prepared for the job market (Inter-University Council for East Africa, 2014).

Extant literature demonstrates that quality of education, training and learning received by a student is domiciled in the quality of lecturers among other factors (Kala, Tanui and Kalai, 2020) and (UNICEF, 2000) as cited in Wanzala (2013). Oanda and Jowi (2012) gauge quality in terms of calibre and sufficiency of academic staff, learning and teaching facilities, contact hours, entry behaviour of learners and governance structures – variables that they observed to be lacking in universities. Ajao (2001) confirms that the students' academic performance has been linked over time with the effectiveness of the teacher in terms of teaching and learning. While Ngare and Muindi (2008) in Mukhanji, Ndiku and Obaki (2016) attribute the decline in quality to insufficient resources, inability to attract and retain quality teaching staff due to poor remuneration and working conditions, Ngolovoi (2006) attributes it to increased workload and alleged incompetence of thus the interest in their performance amidst the declining quality. Collectively, these mirror the challenges that public universities face with

respect to human resourcing practices, Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff. This study, therefore, sought to examine the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The interest in public universities arose from the fact that they account for 72% of the total university teaching staff (Commission for University Education, 2016) besides having greater quality of education challenges compared to private universities (Gudo, Oanda and Olel, 2011; Kaburu and Embeywa, 2014). Besides being established during the massification period when student enrollment and the number of public universities soared (Kaburu and Embeywa, 2014; Misaro, Jonyo and Kariuki, 2013; Owuor, 2012; Jowi, 2003; Scott, 1995), the chartered public universities established between 2009 and 2019 were targeted because of the staffing challenges they are faced with (Ikama, 2010) and pressure exerted on them to provide employment (Mukhwana, Oure, Too and Some, 2016). Owuor (2012) observes that it was in the year 2009 that student-lecturer ration became more worrisome hence the focus on 2009-2019. It was anchored on Decision-making Theory (Simon, 1945; Mintzberg, 1973; Iyayi, 2002) and supported by The Resource Based View (Barney, 1991); Adam Smith's Human Capital Theory (Terence, 1976) and the Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg, Mauster and Snyderman, 1959).

Employee Resourcing (IV) which is synonymous with People Resourcing, Employee Sourcing or simply Sourcing (Armstrong, 2012) is concerned with ensuring that an organization obtains and retains the people it needs and employs them productively (Armstrong, 2009). While the practices in employee resourcing abound, the proposed study deliberately directed its focus on Human Resource Planning (HRP), Recruitment and Selection Practices given their precedence in the employee acquisition process and importance in ensuring that an organization obtains competent candidates for employment.

HRP is the process by which an organization ensures that it has the right number and kinds of people, at the right places, at the right time, capable of effectively and efficiently completing those tasks that will enable an organization achieve its overall objectives (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1998). According to Cole (2009), it is as much, if not more, concerned with the quality of personnel and with their deployment throughout the organization. It is characterized by Scenario Planning, Demand Forecasting, Supply Forecasting, Forecasting Requirements and Action Planning (Armstrong, 2009). Recruitment is the process of finding and engaging the people that the organization needs (Armstrong, 2009), and is marked by: examination of a vacancy, locating candidates, making contact and attracting applications

from candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998). Selection which is the process of identifying the best candidate or candidates for jobs from among the pool of qualified applicants developed during the recruitment process (DeNisi and Griffin, 1998) involves assessing candidates by various means, making a choice, and offering employment (Graham and Bennett, 1998).

Armstrong (2009) defines Job Satisfaction as the attitudes and feelings that people have about their work. These attitudes and feelings impact on employee performance according to Indermun and Bayat (2013). Job Satisfaction is embedded on the Two-Factor Theory that divides the factors of the work environment into motivators or satisfiers and hygiene or maintenance factors (Graham and Bennett, 1998).

In respect of Performance of Academic Staff, Dugguh and Ayaga (2014) explain that performance is a multi-dimensional construct. Like Brumbach (1998) and Snell (2006), they view it as incorporating both behaviour and results. Employee performance thus refers to the job-related activities expected of employees and how well they execute them (Dugguh and Ayaga, 2014). Performance of Academic Staff was, therefore, conceptualized as the job related behaviours and results expected of them. It was measured by: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Administration and Responsibilities; and Community Engagement and Other Contributions (Commission for University Education, 2014a and 2014b).

Review of empirical literature on the influence of HRP practice on Performance of Academic Staff revealed an effort to examine aspects of HRP, although with variations. While Anya, Umoh, and Worlu (2017); Karia, Omari, Mwanaongoro and Ondieki (2016); Ogunyomi and Ojikutu (2014); Katua, Mukulu and Gachunga (2014); Kamande and Gachunga (2014); Abdulla, Ahsan and Alam (2009) related HRP to Organizational Performance, the three studies that related it to Employee Performance (Mbiu & Nzulwa, 2018; Maina & Kwasira, 2015; Anyadike, 2013) ignored the facets of HRP such as: Business Plans and Scenario Planning; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning which are key activities in HRP (Armstrong, 2009). Moreover, Anyadike (2013) relied purely on document analysis which compromises confidence in his conclusions. Similarly, Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) and Maina and Kwasira (2015) used limited samples that are not sufficiently robust for effective generalization. Maina and Kwasira (2015) deny their study diversity in expertise and job categories and, as a result, their findings are not

appropriate for generalization in a diverse population. Similarly, different studies related Recruitment directly or indirectly to either Employee or Organizational Performance. Saifalislam, Osman and AlQudah (2014) not only related Recruitment to Organizational Performance, which is a function of many other variables, but failed to specify the indicators of Recruitment. On the flip side, Suwanto and Subyantoro (2019); Rahmany (2018); Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018); Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun (2017); Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016); Ombui Mukulu and Waititu (2014) and Mokaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna (2013) all related Recruitment to Employee Performance variously.

Suwanto and Subyantoro (2019) considered: basis for hiring; sources of employees; and recruitment method as the indicators of Recruitment; Rahmany (2018) focused on factors that affect recruitment process which he identified as nepotism; politicization; corruption; patronage; and instability. Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018) whose interest was on ethical issues that affect recruitment basically identified unethical practices that need not characterize Recruitment such as sexual harassment; bribery; nepotism and discrimination. Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun (2017) focused on recruitment strategy that they operationalized to comprise only three methods of recruitment: employee referrals; employment agencies; and host community member recruitment. Mokaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna (2013) considered recruitment sources, recruitment policies and recruitment message as the descriptors of Recruitment Practice. Both Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016) and Ombui, Mukulu and Waititu (2014) are not specific on the elements of Recruitment they studied despite its varied components.

Revealing a positive significant relationship between the various facets of Recruitment and Employee Performance are Rahmany (2018); Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018); and Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016). Ombui Mukulu and Waititu (2014) discovered a positive moderate relationship while Mokaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna (2013) found a positive significant, but weaker relationship. Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun (2017), on the other hand, discovered a significant positive relationship between employee referral recruitment and employment agency recruitment (facets of recruitment strategy), and employee commitment and productivity (facets of employee performance) respectively. However, host community member recruitment revealed no significant relationship with employee efficiency (facets of employee performance). Of greatest disparity were Suwanto and Subyantoro, (2019) who established that Recruitment had no effect on Employee Performance. Consequently, in respect of Recruitment and Employee Performance relationship, none of the reviewed studies

(Suwanto and Subyantoro, 2019; Rahmany, 2018; Murage, Sang and Ngure, 2018; Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun, 2017; Suntanto and Kurniawan, 2016; Ombui, Mukulu and Waititu, 2014; Sifalislam, Osman and AlQuda, 2014; Mikaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna, 2013) comprehensively investigated such facets of recruitment as: Examining Vacancy, Locating And Making Contact, and Attracting Candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998) that the present study considered.

Similarly, reviewed empirical literature related Selection Practice and Employee Performance variously. While Matolo, Iravo, and Waititu (2019); Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije and Akintan (2018); Onyaeghala and Hyacinth (2016); Makhamara, Waiganjo and Kwasira (2016); Mwangale, Gachunga and Mukhweso (2015); and Fahad, Nadeem and Sahu (2014) investigated the relationship between various aspects of selection and employee performance, Munialo and Simiyu (2019); Ekwaoba, Ikeije and Ufoma (2015); and Afiriye and Blankson (2013) investigated the relationship between Selection Practice and organizational performance.

With respect to the study variables specific to Selection Practice and Employee Performance, Matolo, Iravo and Waititu (2019) considered the following as indicators of recruitment and selection: recruitment and selection methods; and matching job descriptions and specifications while employee performance was indicated by: achievement of goals; innovations; creativity; Job Satisfaction and low turnover. Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije and Akintan (2018) indicated job performance by: product knowledge, quality report, absenteeism, schedule adherence, login hours and handling time. Onyeaghalala and Hyacinth (2016) used the following facets of employee selection process: experience, educational achievements, salary requirements, location, skills and gender. Makhamara, Waiganjo and Kwasira (2016) measured strategic recruitment and selection through: internal promotion, transparency in recruitment and selection, qualifications and tests used, and attitude towards work while employee performance was indicated by staff turnover, quality of work, customer feedback reports, and staff attitude. Mwangale, Gachunga and Mukhweso (2015) used selection methods and competencies of managers involved in the selection process as the descriptors of Selection Practice. Fahad, Nadeem and Sahu (2014) adopted the broader concept of human resource practices which comprised: reward, recruitment and selection and training. None of the reviewed studies comprehensively investigated indicators of Selection Practice such as: Candidates' Assessment; and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment (Graham & Bennett, 1998) or those of Performance of Academic Staff such as: Quality of

Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Administration and Other Responsibilities; and Community Engagement and Other Contributions (CUE, 2014b) as in the current study.

Seven empirical studies (Ezeanyim, Ufoaroh and Ajakpo, 2019; Buntaran, Andika & Alfiyana, 2019; Abdulkhaliq & Mohammadali, 2019; Baluyos, Rivera and Baluyos, 2019; Laosebikan, Odepidan, Adetunji & Aderinto, 2018; Lafia, Oravee, Zayun & Kokona., 2018 and Inuwa, 2016) relate Job Satisfaction to employee performance in various contexts. Six of the studies are in contexts other than public (state) universities except Inuwa (2016) whose focus was, however, on non-academic staff. This differentiates it from the current study whose focus is on the academic staff. While the rest of the researchers, who used different facets of Job Satisfaction, demonstrated that Job Satisfaction had a positive significant relationship with employee performance, Baluyos, Rivera and Baluyos (2019) found out that relationship with colleagues, working conditions, pay, responsibility, work itself, advancement and recognition had no effect on teachers' work performance – the equivalent of Performance of Academic Staff in the current study. This hints to mixed results. None of the studies related the varying Job Satisfaction facets with the specific measures of Performance of Academic Staff such as: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication, Community Engagement and Other Contributions, and Administration and Responsibilities (CUE, 2014b).

Review of the studies that related all the three constructs that operationalize Employee Resourcing Practices (HRP, Recruitment and Selection) to Employee Performance (Anya, Umoh & Worlu, 2017; Karia, Omari, Mwanaongoro & Ondieki, 2016; Ogunyomi & Ojikutu, 2014; Katua, Mukulu & Gachunga, 2014; Kamande & Gachunga, 2014; Abdula, Ahsan & Alam, 2009; Maina & Kwasira, 2015; Mbiu & Nzulwa, 2018; Anyadike, 2013; Saifalislam, Osman & AlQudah, 2014; Suwanto & Subyantoro, 2019; Rahmany, 2018; Murage, Sang & Ngure, 2018; Oaya, Ogbu & Remilekun, 2017; Suntanto & Kurniawan, 2016; Ombui Mukulu & Waititu, 2014; Mokaya, Mukhweso & Njuguna, 2013; Matolo, Iravo & Waititu, 2019; Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije & Akintan, 2018; Onyaeghala & Hyacinth, 2016; Makhmara, Waiganjo & Kwasira, 2016; Mwangale, Gachunga & Mukhweso, 2015; & Fahad, Nadeem & Sahu, 2014; Munialo & Simiyu, 2019; Ekwaoba, Ikeije & Ufoma, 2015; Afiriye & Blankson, 2013) demonstrate a direct relationship between certain aspects of HRP, recruitment, selection, and employee performance revealed that none of them accounted for 100% variation in employee performance, with a majority contributing less than 60% variation in

employee performance (the least contributed 14.6% variation). This creates the impression that other extraneous factors play some possible role in the equation and, therefore, grants favour to the possibility of having a moderator variable in such relationships.

Kim, Cable, Kim and Wang (2009) advise that moderating variables be considered on the strength of theoretical support and that the choice of a moderator be guided by logical reasoning as well as prior theoretical support that justifies why the identified variable would affect the hypothesized relationships between a set of variables. Job Satisfaction was specifically chosen as a moderator because of its bidirectional theoretical relationship with the both Human Resource Management Practices and Employee Performance. Theoretically, Job Satisfaction plays an important role in Employee Performance (Dugguh and Ayaga (2014); Indermun and Bayat, 2013; Gu and Chi 2009). Similarly, Human Resource Management Practices have demonstrated a close association with Job Satisfaction (Ting, 1997). Sound human resource practices enhance Job Satisfaction and subsequently Organizational Performance (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000). Kaplan and Norton (2001); Copeland, Koller and Murrin (1991); Lamming and Bessant (1995) and Belcourt and Wright (1998) as cited in Myskonva (2011) agree that Job Satisfaction is connected to usage of human resources and subsequently influences the quality and amount of work done.

The following three perspectives further explain the importance of assessing Job Satisfaction relative to the Performance of Academic Staff: the humanitarian perspective, which suggests fair and respectful treatment of employees; the utilitarian perspective which holds that both Job Satisfaction and dissatisfaction can potentially influence employees' behavior significantly and pose greater ramifications on the functioning and activities of the organization's business. The third perspective vouches for the evaluation of Job Satisfaction in different organizational units since it can facilitate a boost in performance by spelling out necessary organizational unit changes (Spector, 1997). Generally, these three perspectives advocate for the infusion of Job Satisfaction in organizations so as to improve employees' performance and, therefore, elevate its moderating role.

Some studies use Job Satisfaction as a third variable in a range of contexts: Khan, Yusoff, Hussain and Ismail (2019); Jain, Chawla, Arya, Agarawal and Agarawal (2019); Mira, Choong and Thim (2019) and Al-dubai, Gopalan, Alaghbari and Hamood (2019) related it to HRM Practices and Employee Performance. Qureshi, Thebo, Shaikh, Brohi and Qaiser (2019) related it to Employees' Commitment and Job Performance; Uzun and Ozdem (2017)

related it to Teachers Perception of Supervisor Support and Job Performance. Gooshky and Hansanzadesh (2013) related it to Involvement Management and Job Performance. Consequently, the studies by Qureshi, Thebo, Shaikh, Brohi and Qaiser (2019); Uzun and Ozdem (2017); and Gooshky and Hansanzadesh (2013) are premised on independent variables other than Employee Resourcing Practices which this study investigated.

While the current study focused on the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction, Khan, Yusoff, Hussain and Ismail (2019); Mira, Choong and Thim (2019); Uzun and Ozdem (2017) and Gooshky and Hasanzadesh (2013) used Job Satisfaction as a mediating variable using independent and dependent variables other than ERP and Performance of Academic Staff. Qureshi, Thebo, Shaikh, Brohi and Qaiser (2019) examined Job Satisfaction as an ordinary second independent variable and not as a moderator or mediator.

Jain, Chawla, Arya, Agarwal and Agarwal (2019) and Al-dubai, Gopalan, Alaghbari and Hamood (2019) examined Job Satisfaction as a moderating variable but with independent and dependent variables different from the ones in the current study. Furthermore, their findings conflicted. According to the Jain *et al.* (2019), Job Satisfaction positively and significantly moderated the relationship between fairness and employee performance, as it negatively and significantly moderated the relationship between work environment and employee performance. Al-dubai *et al.* (2019), who appeared to have replicated the study elsewhere, established that Job Satisfaction positively and significantly moderated the relationship between both work environment and employee performance, and fairness and employee performance.

Consequently, none of the reviewed studies investigated the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction in the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, especially using the same facets of Employee Resourcing Practices (HRP, Recruitment and Selection) despite their significance in the employee acquisition process.

The findings of the study will benefit HRM practitioners and management of public universities in the formulation of and/or strengthening of effective Employee Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction strategies policy and in practice. Scholars will gain knowledge and premise future research on these findings. The performance and value of Academic Staff will be enhanced with the implementation of the study's recommendations

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Public universities are charged with provision of globally competitive quality education, training and research to the citizenry in accordance with Kenya Vision 2030. However, Higher Education (HE) stakeholders, particularly the World Bank, employers and HE scholars have faulted the quality and relevance of programmes they offer. They relate the decline in quality to graduates that are ill-prepared for the labour market and largely attribute it to increased workload, reduced rigour on recruitment and promotion criteria, alleged lecturers' incompetence and inability to attract and retain quality staff - all theoretically related to Employee Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction. Employee Resourcing Practices entail HRP, Recruitment and Selection. While the universities and CUE have instituted various quality management controls, the quality challenge persists hence the justification for this study. Previous studies that related HRP to Employee Performance ignored descriptors of HRP such as: Scenario Planning, Demand Forecasting and Supply Forecasting, Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning. On the relationship between Recruitment and Performance of Academic Staff, none of the studies comprehensively investigated such facets of Recruitment Practice as: Examining Vacancy; Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates in their entirety as in present study. On the relationship between Selection and Performance of Academic Staff, the studies did not comprehensively focus on the facets of Selection Practice such as: Candidates' Assessment; and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment. On the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff, none of the reviewed studies comprehensively examined facets of Job Satisfaction such as: Achievement, Recognition; Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity; Work Itself and Working Conditions; Comfort With Pay and Benefits; and Company Policy and Administration in relation to Performance of Academic Staff . Furthermore all the studies ignored the descriptors of Performance of Academic Staff such as: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Community Engagement and Other Contributions; and Administration and Responsibilities. Additionally, none of the reviewed studies investigated the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction in the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, especially, using the same constructs of Employee Resourcing Practices (HRP, recruitment and Selection) as in the current study. This study, therefore, seeks to establish the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities as it has not been empirically demonstrated.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective was to examine the nexus between Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The study was guided by the following specific objectives:

- i. To establish the influence of Human Resource Planning practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.
- ii. To determine the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities
- iii. To assess the influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities
- iv. To examine the influence of Job Satisfaction on Academic Staffs' Performance in Kenyan public universities
- v. To establish the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

In the proposed study, the following research hypotheses were tested:

- i. **H₀1:** Human Resource Planning practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities
- ii. **H₀2:** Recruitment Practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities
- iii. **H₀3:** Selection Practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities
- iv. **H₀4:** Job Satisfaction has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.
- v. **H₀5:** Job Satisfaction has no statistically significant moderating influence on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

1.5 Scope of the Study

Cooper and Schindler (2008) view the scope as the breadth and depth of a topic's coverage (by time frame, geography, criteria for inclusion etc). In the proposed study, the scope is reviewed in terms of the subject, area and time. In terms of subject, it is limited to the

discipline of Human Resource Management (HRM). HRM encompasses those activities designed to provide for and coordinate the human resources of an organization (Byars and Rue, 2000). The proposed study limits itself to three variables within the realm of HRM: Job Satisfaction; Employee Resourcing Practices and Employee (Academic Staffs') Performance.

World Bank (2017) expresses the emerging concerns about the quality and relevance of higher education, value for money and resource allocation in the sector. Kenyan university graduates, in particular, have been accused of not exhibiting the desired skills, knowledge and attitudes (Riechi, 2010; Kamaara, 2011; Amimo, 2012 and Ponge, 2013). Extant literature demonstrates that quality of education, training and learning received by a student is domiciled in the quality of lecturers among other factors (UNICEF, 2000) as cited in Wanzala (2013). This brings to question Employee Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction amongst lecturers in her universities. HRP Practices, Recruitment Practices and Selection Practices which operationalize Employee Resourcing Practices were selected on the basis of their precedence and importance in the context of employee acquisition. The study was aimed at examining the nexus between Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. While the concern for Job Satisfaction has heightened in recent times, empirical research on its correlates in the context of Kenyan public universities is insignificant. Much of the available literature is drawn from journalistic accounts, individual experiences, and opinions of scholars and "corridor conversations" which are essentially descriptive pieces without much empirical base and with limited utility for the theory of knowledge.

With respect to geographical (area) scope, the proposed study was conducted in the Republic of Kenya which is between Latitude: 0° 10' 36.73" N and Longitude: 37° 54' 29.98" E. Kenya lies on the equator with the Indian Ocean to the South-East, Tanzania to the South, Uganda to the West, South Sudan to the North-West, Ethiopia to the North and Somalia to the North-East. The country was targeted due to the misgivings that Higher Education stakeholders have expressed regarding the quality of education therein (Mwiria and Nyukuri, 1994; Ngolovoi, 2006; Wangenge-Ouma, 2007; Gudo, Olal and Oanda (2011); Kaburu and Embeywa (2014) and Ayiro (2015).

With respect to time scope, the study was conceived in 2011 when the political leadership of Kenya hinted to a possible double intake of students and the subsequent upgrading and acquisition of tertiary colleges by public universities, amidst reduced government funding.

Double intake is among the factors that have contributed to massification in public universities. Massification, according to Mwiria and Nyukuri (1994), Wangenge-Ouma (2007) and Kaburu and Embeywa (2014) has contributed to diminishing quality of university education owing to its effect on the quality and quantity of the academic staff. Therefore, the study covers the period 2011 to 2020.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will benefit human resource management practitioners and the management of public universities in formulating and strengthening more effective employee resourcing policies and practices, as well as Job Satisfaction interventions. In addition to using the study as a basis for further research, scholars and researchers will benefit from the body of knowledge so created. With the implementation of the findings of this study, the academic staff in Kenyan public universities will experience greater performance that will enhance their value and job security.

1.7 Conceptual Framework

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE
Employee Resourcing Practices

DEPENDENT VARIABLE
Performance of Academic Staff

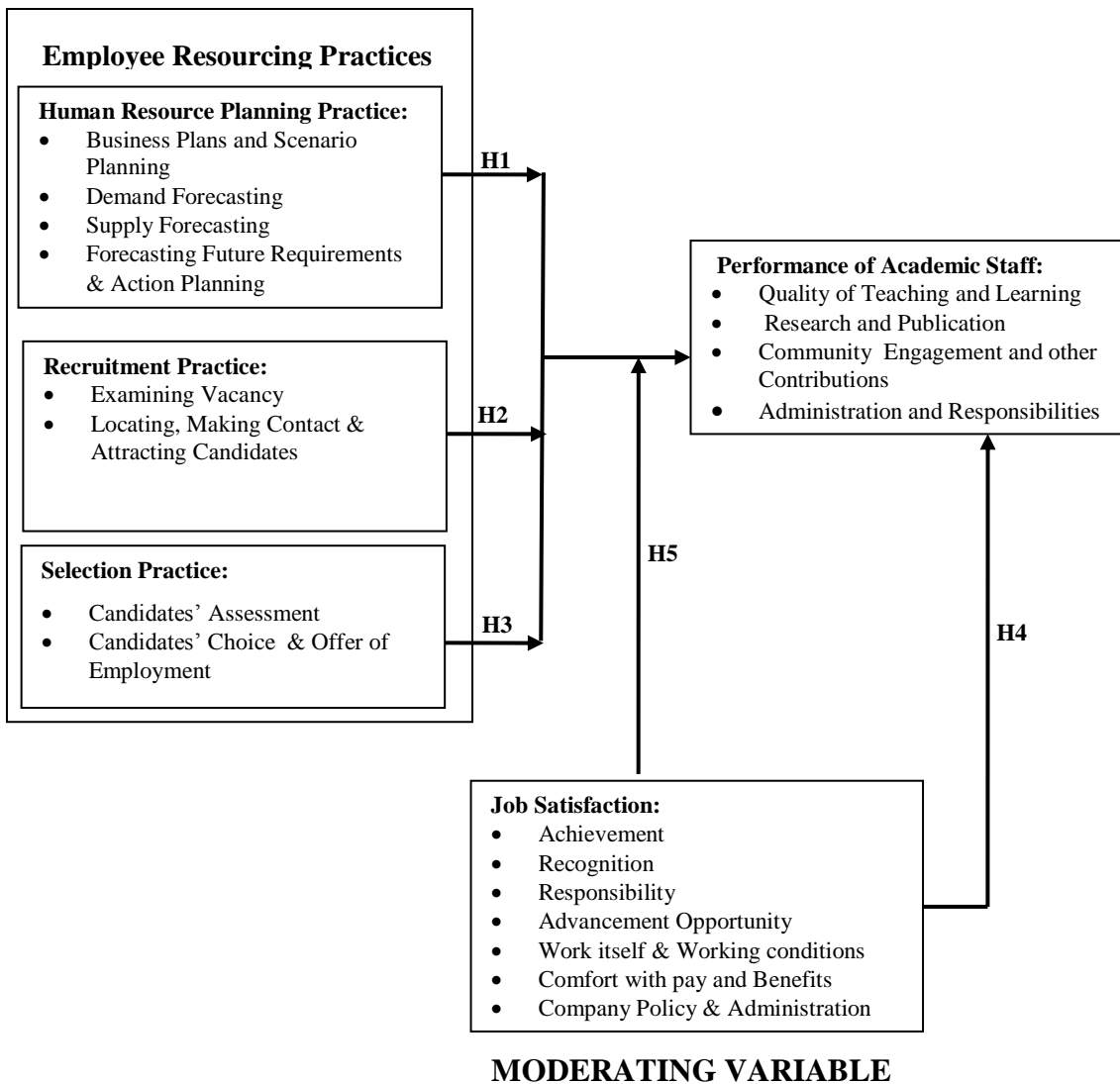


Figure 1.1: Nexus between Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff. Source: Adopted from Simon (1945).

Figure 1.1 gives a framework illustrating how variables in the study are conceptualized and related. The dependent variable (DV) is Performance of Academic Staff while the independent variable is Employee Resourcing. Job Satisfaction is the moderating variable (MV).

Performance of Academic Staff (DV) was measured by the Quality of Teaching and Learning; Ability to carry out Scholarly Research and Publish; Community Engagement and other Contributions; and Administration and Responsibilities (Commission for University Education, 2014b). Employee Resourcing Practices (IV) was operationalized to incorporate: Human Resource Planning, Recruitment and Selection as its proxies. Human Resource Planning was indicated by: Scenario Planning and Organizational Plan; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning (Armstrong, 2009). Recruitment was indicated by: Examining Vacancy; Locating Candidates; Making Contact and Attracting Candidates while Selection was indicated by: Candidates' Assessment, Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment (Graham and Bennett, 1998). Job Satisfaction (MV) was measured using Achievement; Recognition; Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity; Work Itself and Working Conditions; Comfort with Pay and Benefits; Company Policy and Administration (Hezberg, Mausner and Snydermann, 1959; Graham and Bennett, 1998; Armstrong, 2009).

It was proposed that Performance of Academic Staff would be dependent on Employee Resourcing Practices (HRP, Recruitment and Selection) as demonstrated by the following paths. Path H1 hypothesized the direct influence of HRP Practices on Performance of Academic Staff; Path H2 hypothesized the direct influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff; Path H3 hypothesized the direct influence of Selection Practices on Performance of Academic Staff; and Path 4 the direct influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff. Therefore, the three paths (H1 –H3) predicted the direct influence of Employee Resourcing Practices (IV) on Performance of Academic Staff while Path H4 the direct influence of the Job Satisfaction (MV) on Performance of Academic Staff. Additionally, Path H5 predicted the moderating effect of Job Satisfaction in the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff.

Kim, Cable, Kim and Wang (2009) advise that moderating variables be considered on the strength of theoretical support and that the choice of a moderator be guided by logical reasoning as well as prior theoretical support that justifies why the identified variable would affect the hypothesized relationships between a set of variables. Job Satisfaction was specifically chosen as a moderator because of its bidirectional relationship with the both human resource practices and employee performance. Theoretically, Job Satisfaction plays an important role in employee performance (Dugguh and Ayaga (2014); Indermun and Bayat,

2013; Gu and Chi 2009). Similarly, human resource practices have demonstrated a close association with Job Satisfaction (Ting, 1997). Sound human resource practices enhance Job Satisfaction and subsequently organizational performance (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000). Kaplan and Norton (2001); Copeland, Koller and Murrin (1991); Lamming and Bessant (1995) and Belcourt and Wright (1998) as cited in Myskonva (2011) agree that Job Satisfaction is connected to usage of human resources and subsequently influences the quality and amount of work done.

Furthermore, the following three perspectives explain the importance of assessing Job Satisfaction relative to the Performance of Academic Staff: the humanitarian perspective, which suggests fair and respectful treatment of employees; the utilitarian perspective which holds that both Job Satisfaction and dissatisfaction can potentially influence employees' behavior significantly and pose greater ramifications on the functioning and activities of the organization's business. The third perspective vouches for the evaluation of Job Satisfaction in different organizational units since it can facilitate a boost in performance by spelling out necessary organizational unit changes (Spector, 1997). Generally, these three perspectives advocate for the infusion of Job Satisfaction in organizations so as to improve employees' performance and, therefore, elevate its moderating role.

Since academic theories are supposed to provide the conceptual basis for research work, the construction of the conceptual framework was guided by the The Rational Model of Decision-making theory (Simon, 1945) given the importance of decision making in organizations. Miller *et al.* (2003) as cited in Gberevie (2010) posit that one of the theory's assumptions is that organizational decisions are rational and necessary in the smooth running of organizations that are pursuing performance. HRP Practice, Recruitment Practice, Selection Practice and Job Satisfaction all entail management decision making. Gberevie (2006) observes that the greater the quality of a decision made, particularly regarding whom to hire and from what source, the higher their profitability and productivity (performance). Accordingly, managers have to decide on the numbers and kinds of to hire, their sources, the selection criteria to employ, and the Job Satisfaction strategies to pursue in order to attract and retain them and enhance their performance. The framework postulated that the adoption of well thought out decisions in HRPP, Recruitment Practice, SelectionPractice and Job Satisation interventions would enhance Performance of Academic Staff.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews both theoretical and empirical literature on which the study is founded. First is a review of theoretical literature after which a systematic comparative review of empirical literature is executed to expose the gaps that warrant the proposed study.

2.1 Theoretical Literature Review

The review explored the theoretical foundations and concepts of the study, advanced the theories guiding the study, defined the conceptual variables and gave the dimensions of the same. Mugenda (2008) observes that the terms theory and theoretical framework are interchangeable. A theory, according to him, implies a framework of explaining phenomena by stating constructs and the laws that inter-relate these constructs to one another. Cooper and Schindler (2008) define construct as an image or abstract idea specifically invented for a given research and/or theory-building purpose. They explain that constructs are built by combining the simpler, more concrete concepts, especially when the idea or image one intends to convey cannot be observed directly. A concept, in their view, is a generally accepted collection of meanings or characteristics associated with certain events, objects, conditions, situations, and behaviour. Theoretical concepts show commonalities in phenomena that may seem isolated at a glance. From a positivist point of view, the laws of a given theory help make predictions by defining the structural linkages, rhythm and regularity of events.

A theory is a set of systematically interrelated concepts, definitions and propositions that are advanced to explain and predict phenomena (Cooper and Schindler, (2008). It consists of generalizations and hypothesised principles which can be scientifically tested (Mbweza, 2006) According to Gill and Johnson (2010) a theory is a network of hypotheses advanced so as to conceptualize and explain a particular social or natural phenomenon. Each hypothesis presents an assertion about the relationship between two or more concepts in an explanatory fashion. Theoretical literature review offers insightful evaluation of known knowledge which leads naturally to a clarification of the gaps in the field and the way in which the proposed research is intended to fill them.

The study was majorly guided by Decision-making Theory and supported by The Resource Based View, Human Capital Theory and the Two-Factor Theory. Each of these theories is explained subsequently and their role in guiding the study delineated.

2.1.1 Decision-making Theory

The Decision-making Theory, which is the overarching theory in the study, has its roots in the studies by Simon (1945), Mintzberg (1973) and Iyayi (2002) on decision making in organizations. Specifically, the study adopted the Rational Model of Decisions making Theory. The model is useful in making inquiries, studying how individuals and organizations develop goals and values, describe and judge different alternatives, gather and make use of information, and make conclusions – decisions (Bakka and Egil, 1986). It is based on the fact that decision-making is at the very heart of business success in any organization (Gbervie, 2006). Decision making as follows three stages: listing all alternative strategies; determining all the consequences that emanate from each of the strategies; and evaluating the relative sets of consequences. It assumes a rational and completely informed decision maker who knows all possible alternatives and their consequences; has a well organized set of preferences for the consequences; and has computational ability to compare consequences and to determine which is preferred (Turpin and Marias, 2004).

According to Miller *et al.* (2003) as cited in Gbervie (2010), one of the assumptions of the Decision-making Theory is that organizational decisions are rational and necessary in facilitating the smooth running of organizations pursuing performance, and that the whole concept and purpose of organizations revolve around decision making (Tonwe, 1994). Decision-making theorists define decisions as the selection of a proposed course of action (Butler, 1992; Iyayi, 2002).

However, some scholars find the assumption of rationality of human behaviour in decision making theory highly controvertible given the subjectivity with which management teams take decisions (Gbervie, 2010). They reason that it is almost impossible to identify and evaluate all possible alternatives open for a particular action before decisions are taken, given the possible constraints of time and other resources (Tonwe, 1994).

The criticisms notwithstanding, the theory is adopted in the study by virtue of the significance attached to decision making in the areas of recruitment, strategies to be adopted in recruitment and retention of employees for performance (Gbervie, 2010). Management

decisions could be in such areas as HRP, Recruitment, Selection, Job Satisfaction and employee performance which define the variables in this study.

Gberevbie (2006) observes that the greater the quality of a decision made, particularly regarding whom to hire and from what source, the higher their profitability and productivity (Performance). VanScotter, Motowidlo and Cross (2000) observe that organizations need highly performing individuals in order to meet their goals, to deliver the products and services they specialize in and to eventually gain competitive edge. Employee performance is a major contributing factor in organizational performance (Al-Qudah, Osman and Al-Qudah, 2014). Indeed, successful organizations understand the importance of employees as a critical factor that directly affects and contributes to organizational performance.

Cole (2009) observes that HRP is as much, if not more, concerned with the quality of personnel and with their deployment throughout the organization. Accordingly, managers have to review organizational plans and possible scenarios; forecast demand and supply of employees; match demand with supply; make decisions regarding intervention strategies in case of any deficits or surpluses; decide on the numbers and combinations of skills and attitudes to bring on board or even discharge employees in case there are no alternatives. In the context of this study, managers may have to make decisions in the following HRP areas amongst others: the direction that the business is going to take and its attendant implication on the human resources; possible intervention strategies in respect of different scenarios they may have to contend with; the most appropriate demand forecasting technique(s); the most appropriate source(s) of candidates for filling in vacancies; and the most appropriate action plan to take in cases of either surpluses or deficits alongside the retention and/or flexibility strategies to adopt in the best interest of the organization.

Oladipo and Abdulkadir (2011) note that managers and administrators in both private and public organizations are becoming increasingly aware that a critical source of competitive advantage does not often come from products and services, best public relations strategy or state-of-the-art technology but from having an appropriate system of attracting and managing the organization's human resources. Accordingly, managers have to decide on the best recruitment source and technique in relation to the available vacancies. Managers will, therefore, carefully and objectively examine a vacancy and decide whether to source for

candidates from within or outside the organization. They will also have to decide on the most suitable channel of making contact and attracting the potential candidates.

Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2004) posit that through employee selection, organizations make decisions about whom to hire, for instance. Other decisions will be made on the most suitable selection tools and techniques to use in the identification of the best fit in the best interest of the organization. Managers will also decide on the most appropriate means of assessing an individual's qualifications relative to the standards of the job and the extent to which those qualifications best prepare and give an individual the requisite skills and abilities for the position. In addition, decisions will have to be made on the composition of the interview panels and basis for ranking candidates. Further decisions will have to be made on the most appropriate Job Satisfaction interventions as well as elimination of any factors that may cause dissatisfaction. It is believed that prudent decisions facilitate the acquisition and retention of performing employees. Whereas the Decision-making Theory will be the overarching theory, Resource-based View, Human Capital Theory and Herzberg's Two – Factor Theory will also help in guiding the study as follows

2.1.2 Resource-based View

The Resource Based View is attributed to Barney (1991). The theory regards human resources as a key factor towards the attainment of competitive advantage and achievement of goals or targets for organizations (Barney, 2001). The theory holds the view that the strategic capability of an organization is domiciled in its resource capability in the shape of people (Armstrong, 2009). While organizational resources abound, Barney (1991) argues that HRM adds value through the strategic development of the organization's rare, hard to imitate and hard to substitute human resources. The relevance of this theory with respect to this study is its focus on the quality of human resources available to an organization and their ability to adapt more quickly than their competitors (Katua *et al.*, 2014).

Firms, according to Barney (2001), should constantly evaluate their workforce to ensure that they have the right people with the right skills in the right places to ensure sustained competitive advantage. When this is not the case, firms should make-up for the shortfall by employing appropriate recruitment and selection criteria (Ekwaoba, Ikeije and Ufoma, 2015). The study holds the view that competitive advantage is achieved through employee performance manifested in their work behaviour and outcome. Employee Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction as conceptualized are instruments that enable organizations to

acquire and retain employees that can create value and advantage to the organizations through their performance.

While the theory focuses on the quality of human resources and the corresponding advantage so created, it is faulted for laying emphasis on firm performance and not employee performance as envisaged in the proposed study. It can also be argued that it is aimed at attaining “superior performance” in relation to competitors which does not translate to an absolute best “performance or quality” expected of public universities.

2.1.3 Human Capital Theory

Human Capital Theory whose proponent is Adam Smith (Terence, 1976) holds that people are fixed capitals, just like machines given that they have useful skills and abilities that have costs and yield profits (Teixeira, 2002). Armstrong (2006) associates the human capital theory with the Resource Based View of the firm as developed by Barney (1991). The theory intimates that sustainable competitive advantage is attained when the firm has a human resource pool that cannot be imitated or substituted by its rivals. It is premised on the assertion that people and their collective skills, abilities and experience, coupled with their ability to deploy these in the interest of the firm contribute to its competitive advantage and success (Armstrong, 2006). Boxall (1996) refers to this situation as one that confers “human capital advantage”. Firms which recruit and retain exceptional individuals can create competitive advantage for themselves (Boxall, 1998). The competitive advantage is assumed by this study to emanate from employee performance by virtue of their unique qualities.

The theory complements Resource Based View in that, just like Resource Based View, it roots for the adoption of effective HRP, recruitment and Selection Practices as well as Job Satisfaction strategies that will enable a firm obtain, develop and retain a productive workforce thus superior performance. However, just like the Resource Based View, it also focuses on competitive advantage at the corporate level and not individual employee level. It also fails to address the “absolute best performance or quality” expected of public universities, but merely defines best performance in relation to competitors.

2.1.4 Herzberg’s Two –Factor Theory

Job Satisfaction is embedded on the two-factor motivation theory by Herzberg *et al.* (1959) which focuses on satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The theory divides the factors of the work environment into two classes: motivators or satisfiers on the one hand and hygiene or maintenance factors on the other (Graham and Bennett, 1998) that influence employees

working attitudes and level of performance (Robbins, 2009). The theory largely attributes satisfiers to job content (intrinsic) and hygiene factors to job context (extrinsic). The satisfiers include: achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility and the work itself (Armstrong, 2009; Graham and Bennett, 1998). Company policy and administration, supervision, salary and working conditions are hygiene factors meant to prevent dissatisfaction and poor job performance (Armstrong, 2009). Graham and Bennett (1998) identify the hygiene factors as: pay, relation to others, type of supervision, company policy, physical working conditions and fringe benefits. Enhancing motivators enhances employees' performance and maintaining Hygiene factors maintains satisfaction (Yusoff, Kian and Idris, 2013). Motivators such as: Achievement, Recognition, Advancement Opportunities, Responsibility, Work Itself will enhance the performance of academic staff in Kenyan public Universities. Hygiene factors such as: Working Conditions, Comfort with Pay and Benefits, and Company Policy and Administration will maintain employee performance if they are well designed and implemented.

However, the theory is faulted as being subject to bias as it is based on the natural reaction of employees when asked about the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction at work. It is argued that, under such circumstances, employees will blame dissatisfaction on the external factors while crediting themselves for satisfaction. It also lacks a comprehensive measure of satisfaction given that one may find their job satisfying despite hating or objecting to part of their job. Furthermore, it is said to have stressed upon satisfaction at the expense of productivity and overlooked blue-collar workers. Despite these criticisms, the theory continues to thrive partly because it is based on "real life" as opposed to academic abstractions and partly because it convincingly emphasizes the positive value of the intrinsic motivating factors (Armstrong, 2009). It is generally said to provide practical solutions to organizations and, as such, accepted broadly.

Despite the criticisms, this study found it relevant because it is lauded as the most appropriate model when studying job satisfaction and is supported in educational settings (Khan *et. al.*, 2010).

2.1.5 Employee Resourcing Practices

Employee resourcing is synonymous with people resourcing, employee sourcing or simply sourcing (Armstrong, 2012). Dainty, Raiden and Neale (2009) define employee resourcing as the process of matching human resource capabilities to the strategic and operational needs of

an organization. Armstrong (2009) asserts that it is concerned with ensuring that an organization obtains and retains the people it needs and employs them productively, and further relates it to aspects of employment practice that revolve around welcoming people to the organization and releasing them. Making reference to its importance, Kavoo- Linge and Kiruri (2013), in Kemboi and Onyango (2015), posit that employee resourcing holds the key to the success of any organization by ensuring that an organization acquires the right person for a job.

According to Taylor (2008), employee resourcing embodies core human resource management activities such as recruitment, selection and deployment of employees within the organization. Adding to these activities is Armstrong (2012) who lists Human Resource Planning, recruitment, selection, induction, performance management, learning and development, recognition and reward. Dainty, Raiden and Neale (2009) identify the key ingredients of employee resourcing as: Human Resource Planning, recruitment, selection, team deployment, performance management and human resource administration. Notably, Armstrong (2001) posits that employee resourcing goes beyond obtaining and keeping the number and quality of the required personnel, but incorporates selecting and promoting people who fit the culture and the strategic needs of the organization.

While the activities in employee resourcing abound, the study deliberately directs its focus on three human resource management activities on the basis of their precedence and importance in the employee acquisition process. These are: Human Resource Planning, recruitment and selection. In this context, Human Resource Planning identifies the human resource needs, recruitment publicises the needs and selection facilitates the identification of the best fit. This study, therefore, views employee resourcing in the context of procurement of human resources.

2.1.5.1 Human Resource Planning

Human Resource Planning (HRP) is a formal function in the management of human resources which involves analysing an organization's human resource needs. It attempts to ensure that an organization has the right number and kind of employees in the right place at the required time and as such one of the key ingredients towards an organization's strength and growth (Nzuve, 2010). This stance resonates with the assertion of Waweru (2007) that man power planning (which is synonymous with Human Resource Planning) will involve the determination of the number of employees required as well as the variety of skills that will be

demanded of them. More elaborate is Cole (2009) who defines Human Resource Planning as any rational and planned approach for ensuring the recruitment of sufficient and suitable staff, their retention in the organization, their optimum utilisation, the improvement of their performance and their disengagement, if necessary. In this respect, HRP is concerned with both the quantity and quality of personnel and their deployment throughout the organization. While various definitions exist, the proposed study will adopt the definition by DeCenzo and Robbins (1998) that “Human Resource Planning is the process by which an organization ensures that it has the right number and kinds of people, at the right places, at the right time, capable of effectively and efficiently completing those tasks that will enable an organization achieve its overall objectives” since it highlights the points of convergence. Prudence of the definition is domiciled in an observation by Armstrong (2009) that organizations need to know how many people and what sort of people they should have to meet present and future business requirements, a function that he attributes to HRP. He quotes Bulla and Scott (1994)’s definition of HRP as “the process for ensuring that the human resource requirements of an organization are identified and plans are made for satisfying those requirements”.

Beyond its operational identity, Torrington, Hall and Taylor (2008) identify four specific ways in which Human Resource Planning is critical to strategy. They assert that HRP facilitates the identification of: gaps in capabilities, surpluses in capabilities, poor utilisation of people and developing a talent pool. Armstrong (2006) suggests that HRP should be an integral part of business planning. He elaborates that the strategic planning process should define projected changes in the scale and types of activities carried out by the organization. According to him, HRP should identify the core competencies the organization needs to achieve its goals and therefore its skill requirements. In so far as there are articulated strategic business plans, he argues that Human Resource Planning will interpret them in terms of people requirements.

Waweru (2007) observes that many organizations, unfortunately, take lightly man-power planning function succumbing to the practice of employing a person only when a vacancy occurs. This practice, he points out, has resulted in serious costs to many organizations, including selection of unfit persons to avoid disrupting the production flow. He argues that estimation of, and planning for future labour requirements is particularly essential in a poor economy desirous of rapid development since in such an economy, every saved coin counts. Nzube (2010) advances the significance of HRP in helping management in decision-making

in such areas as: recruitment, training and development, promotions, pay structures, retirement and pension schemes, industrial relations, and labour turnover hence the adoption of the Decision Making Theory as the overarching theory in the proposed study.

In favour of HRP, Farnham (2006) explains its significance in light of: encouraging employers to develop clear and explicit links between their business and HR plans and to integrate the two more effectively; allowing for better control of staffing costs and numbers employed; enabling employers to make more informed judgements about the skills and attitude mix in organizations and also provides a profile of current staff in terms of age, sex, disability, etc so as to move towards being an equal opportunity organization. He, however, expresses misgivings about organizations giving little time to HRP owing to lack of resources and skills, time and effort required and absence of relevant data to do so.

While a number of models explain the process of Human Resource Planning, the proposed study adopts a model by Armstrong (2009) which identifies five activities that characterize HRP and uses them as the dimensions of HRP in the conceptual framework. These are: Business Plans / Scenario Planning, Demand Forecasting, Supply Forecasting, Forecasting Requirements and Action Planning. Initiating the HRP process are business plans which emanate from organizational plans such as expansion, diversification, shrinking etc. Embedded to the business plans is scenario planning which is an assessment of the environmental changes that are likely to affect the organization so that a prediction of the possible situations that may have to be dealt with in the future are made. It is based on systematic environmental scanning possibly using PEST approach.

Following business / scenario planning is demand forecasting which helps estimate the future numbers of people required and the likely skills and competencies they will need. This is then preceded by supply forecasting which measures the number of people likely to be available from within and outside the organization, having allowed for absenteeism, internal movements and promotions, wastages and changes in hours and other conditions of work. The basis of the demand forecast is the annual budget and longer-term business plan, translated into activity levels for each function and department or decisions on “downsizing”. The techniques that can be used to forecast demand requirements are manifold.

Forecast of future requirements, which is the next step, is necessary in analyzing the demand and supply forecasts so as to identify any deficits or surpluses. Action plans derived from the broad resourcing strategies and the more detailed analysis of demand and supply factors are

then identified. The planning activities start with the identification of internal resources available now or which could be made available through learning and development programmes. They continue with plans for increasing the attractiveness of working for the organization by developing an employer brand. Successful HRP identifies HR needs while recruitment marks the first step in meeting the needs.

2.1.5.2 Recruitment

According to Nzuve (2010), recruitment is a fundamental function in the management of human resources in large organizations. Graham and Bennett (1998) assert that it is the first part of the process of filling a vacancy which includes: the examination of a vacancy, locating candidates, making contact and attracting applications from suitable candidates. Agreeing with Armstrong (2009) who defines it as the process of finding and engaging the people the organization needs are DeCenzo and Robbins (1998) who view recruitment as the discovering of potential candidates for actual or anticipated organizational vacancies. They assert that it is aimed at attracting a large number of qualified candidates who will take up the job if offered and suggest that it should provide information so that unqualified applicants can self-select themselves out of the job candidacy (realistic job preview). Taylor (2008) considers it a positive activity that requires employers to sell themselves in the relevant labour markets so as to maximise the pool of qualified candidates from which future employees can be chosen. She explains that it involves actively soliciting applications from potential employees.

Many scholars submit that the roles of recruitment are locating, informing, attracting and creating interest in people to apply for vacancies in an organization. In light of the proposed study, recruitment is operationalized as the process of publicizing an organization's open positions and stimulating qualified candidates to apply. The process of recruitment is only complete in as far as it attracts qualified job applicants (Nzuve, 2010). It only starts after an organization makes a decision on the type and numbers of employees it requires. He suggests a professional approach in which a section, unit or department in need of more personnel fills an employee requisition form through the in-charge and sends to the HR department. The HR department then checks on the right job description and specification and on the basis of the requisition determines whether there are qualified employees within the organization or not hence need to recruit externally.

Graham and Bennett (1998); Armstrong (2009); Nzuve (2010); DeCenzo and Robbins (1998) and DeNisi and Griffins (1998) all contend that recruitment may be internal or external. They perceive internal recruitment as the process of looking inside the organization for existing qualified employees who might be promoted to higher level positions and external recruitment as looking to sources outside the organization for prospective employees. For recruitment to achieve its objective, DeCenzo and Robbins (1998) suggest that recruiting sources should reflect the type of position to be filled.

While both internal and external recruitment have a range of merits and demerits (Armstrong, 2006; Armstrong, 2009; Dessler, 1998; DeNisi and Griffin, 1998; DeCenzo and Robbins, 1998; Beardwell and Claydon, 2007; Graham and Bennett, 1998; Torrington *et al.* 2008; Ivancevich, 2010), Armstrong (2009) opines that consideration should first be given to the internal candidates. As such, external recruitment is only recommended when an organization is unable to get a suitable candidate from within. DeNisi and Griffin (1998) elucidate three methods of internal recruitment: job posting, supervisor recommendations and union halls. Dessler (2008) expands the list by adding personnel records and skill banks. He argues that they are useful in identifying persons who offer potential or with the right background for the jobs. In the same vein, different scholars also identify the most common methods of external recruitment as: online or e- recruitment; advertising; employment agencies (both public and private as well as management consultants or head hunters); referrals, recommendations and walk-ins; educational institutions (schools, college and universities); temporary help services and professional organizations (Armstrong, 2009; Dessler, 1998; DeNisi and Griffin, 1998; DeCenzo and Robbins, 1998; Beardwell and Claydon, 2007; Graham and Bennett, 1998; Torrington *et al.* 2008). They note that each of the methods has its merits and demerits. Whereas recruitment is considered the first step toward meeting an organization's HR needs, selection is regarded as the second step.

2.1.5.3 Selection

The success of selection hinges heavily on the effectiveness of the recruitment process. DeNisi and Griffin (1998) define selection as the process of identifying the best candidate or candidates for jobs from among the pool of qualified applicants developed during the recruitment process. Graham and Bennett (1998) observe that it involves assessing candidates by various means, and making a choice followed by an offer of employment. Armstrong (2009) views selection as the process concerned with deciding which applicants or candidates should be appointed to jobs. He explains that the aim of selection is to assess the

suitability of candidates by predicting the extent to which they will be able to carry out a role successfully. It involves deciding on the degree to which the characteristics of applicants in terms of their competencies, experience, qualifications, education and training match the person specification – this gives credence to the Decision-making Theory as the overarching theory in the proposed study. According to DeCenzo and Robbins (1998), selection involves assessing the applicants against the criteria established in job analysis in order to predict which job applicants will be successful if hired. Nzuve (2010) explains that, in many organizations, it is done by the line managers and that human resource managers only facilitate the process by reducing the numbers of applicants through screening then passing the list to the line managers. Selection, according to Ivancevich (2010), is the process by which an organization chooses from a list of applicants the person or persons who best meet the selection criteria for the position available, considering current environmental conditions. The study views employee selection as the process of identifying the best fit for a vacant position using a variety of instruments embedded on defined criteria.

DeNisi and Griffin (1998) contend that almost every organization has its own selection system. They describe the selection process as generally comprising three steps: gathering information about the pool of qualified applicants; evaluating qualifications of each applicant and making decisions about employment offers. Information is gathered through a variety of methods and techniques and it relates to level of requisite knowledge, skills and abilities possessed by an applicant. The information gathered is either objective or subjective in nature. Evaluation occurs through application of explicit or implicit standards to the information gathered. Actual decision about which candidate or candidates to hire involves a careful assessment of the individual's qualifications relative to the standards of the job and the extent to which those qualifications best prepare and give an individual the requisite skills and abilities for the position. According to Cascio (1998), careful selection of employees facilitates performance.

DeCenzo and Robbins (1998) opine that all selection activities, from the initial screening interview to the physical examination if required, exist for the purpose of making effective selection decisions. They identify two selection approaches: discrete and comprehensive. Discrete approach involves seven steps of which one is eliminated should they fail at any given step. On the other hand, candidates go through all the stages in the comprehensive approach and a decision made based on the cumulative performance. It should be noted that some steps in the discrete approach may be omitted if they do not yield data necessary for

decision making. The seven steps are: initial screening, completion of application form, employment tests, comprehensive interview, background information, physical examination and lastly, making the final decision.

According to Armstrong (2006), the main selection methods are the interview, assessment centres and tests. Interviews may be conducted by an individual, a panel or board. However, they are considered inefficient in predicting success in a job in as much as they are characterized by a number of advantages. Selection tests are hailed as providing more valid and reliable evidence of levels of intelligence, personality characteristics, abilities, aptitudes and attainments that cannot be obtained from an interview. Selection tests, therefore, supplement the information obtained from an interview. Armstrong (2009) describes assessment centres as involving the assembling of a group of candidates and using a range of assessment techniques over a concentrated period (one or two days) with the aim of providing a more comprehensive and balanced view of the suitability of individual members of the group. They provide opportunities for indicating the extent to which candidates match the culture of the organization.

Torrington *et al* (2008) suggest that tests should be used and interpreted by trained or qualified testers given that test results, especially personality tests, require very careful interpretation as some aspects of personality that are irrelevant may be measured. A good test, according to Armstrong (2009), provides valid data which enable reliable predictions of behaviour or performance to be made and, therefore, assists in the process of making objective and reasoned decisions when selecting people for jobs. He further explains that the tests should be: sensitive as to discriminate between subjects; standardized on a representative and sizeable sample of the population for which it is intended to allow interpretation of an individual's score in relation to others; reliable as to always measure the same thing or characteristic when applied to different people at the same or different times or to the same person at different times and lastly, valid as to measure the characteristic it is intended to measure.

Torrington *et.al* (2008) consider these tests as suitable for occupational use: aptitude tests which are meant to measure an individual's potential to develop in either specific or general terms; general intelligence or mental ability tests which are meant to expose the overall mental capacity; special aptitude tests which are meant to measure specific abilities, for instance, spatial, verbal, motor abilities amongst others; trainability tests which are meant to

measure a potential employee's ability to be trained, usually for craft-type work; attainment or achievement tests which are meant to measure skills that have already been acquired and, lastly, personality tests which are meant to unearth a person's personality traits. In addition to the three selection methods identified by Armstrong (2009), DeNisi and Griffin (2009) also identify the following selection techniques: application blanks or forms; background checks; work simulations; references; recommendations and physical examinations. Once an organization has identified the candidate that best fits a job and has actually brought him on board, there is need to ensure that they are satisfied in the interest of their performance and by extension the performance of the organization

2.1.6 Job Satisfaction

Putman (2002) in Alromaihi, Alshomaly and Shaju (2017) underscore the importance of understanding Job Satisfaction with respect to improving overall organizational performance. Organizational performance is a function of employee performance amongst other factors. Indermun and Bayat (2013) espouse a correlation between Job Satisfaction and employee performance. They observe that psychological and physical rewards significantly impact on Job Satisfaction. Therefore, they advocate for rewarding and motivating employees in the interest of Job Satisfaction, and hence efficiency, effectiveness and improved overall performance.

The definitions of Job Satisfaction are varied (Mohamed, Omar and Ibrahim, 2013; Alromaihi, Alshomaly and Shaju, 2017; Aziri, 2011). Hoppock as cited in Aziri (2011) is amongst the first people who gave prominence to the concept of Job Satisfaction. He views it as a blend of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that make one to be satisfied with their job. Saiyadain (2009) as cited in Alromaihi, Alshomaly and Shaju (2017) defined Job Satisfaction as the "end state of feeling" which could either be positive or negative depending on whether needs are satisfied or not. It is the level of contentment a person feels regarding his or her job (Beriales, Permocillo, Bartizo and Porrás, 2017), or the feelings of employees regarding different dimensions of their job (Robbins, 1998).

Job Satisfaction, according to Locke (1969; 1976), is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Simatwa (2011) who views it as an emotional state of feeling that results from performance of work explains that it is positively related to the degree to which one's personal needs are fulfilled in the job situation. Griffin and Bateman (1986) and Hackman and Oldham (1979) regard Job Satisfaction as a

cluster of positive and negative dispositions which are acquired and learnt through experience, positive or negative attitudes based upon a person's genetic inheritance, an outcome of an individual's construction of their workplace reality, experience and mutuality of colleagues and supervisor's evaluation, and an individual's job characteristics and the extent to which an individual attempts to fit in with these characteristics according to his requirements from the job. The study held that Job Satisfaction is the attitudes and feelings that people have regarding their work, and that positive and favourable attitudes result in engagement and, by extension, Job Satisfaction while negative and unfavourable attitudes indicate job dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2009).

There are three perspectives that could explain the importance of assessing Job Satisfaction. The humanitarian perspective suggests fair and respectful treatment of employees. The utilitarian perspective cautions that both Job Satisfaction and dissatisfaction can potentially influence employees' behavior significantly with greater ramifications on the functioning and activities of the organization's business. The third perspective vouches for the evaluation of Job Satisfaction in different organizational units since it can facilitate a boost in performance by spelling out necessary organizational unit changes (Spector, 1997).

Job Satisfaction is embedded on the two-factor motivation theory (Hezberg, Mauster and Snydermann, 1959) which focuses on satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The theory divides the factors of the work environment into two classes: motivators or satisfiers on the one hand and hygiene or maintenance factors on the other hand (Graham and Bennett, 1998). Satisfiers are largely attributed to job content (intrinsic to the job) while hygiene factors attributed to job context (extrinsic to the job). The satisfiers include: achievement, recognition, advancement opportunities, responsibility and the work itself (Armstrong, 2009; Graham and Bennett, 1998) while hygiene factors meant to prevent dissatisfaction and poor job performance are: company policy and administration, supervision, salary and working conditions (Armstrong, 2009). Graham and Bennett (1998) add relation to others and fringe benefits to the list of hygiene factors.

According to Hezberg *et al.* (1959), motivators increase and improve Job Satisfaction while hygiene factors reduce Job Satisfaction when they deteriorate beyond the level acceptable to employees. However, the converse does not hold since optimal job context neither contributes to much positive attitudes nor dissatisfaction. The presence of motivational factors produces satisfaction, but their absence leads to no Job Satisfaction. The opposite of

both job dissatisfaction and Job Satisfaction is no Job Satisfaction (Hezberg, 1966; Hezberg, 2003). The theory recognizes that individuals vary in the relative importance they attach to motivators or hygiene factors.

Byars and Rue (2000) observe that a wide range of both internal and external factors affect an employee's satisfaction. These could be broadly categorized as environmental, individual and psychological. Environmental factors include communication, employee recognition and so on (Krayner and Westbrook, 1986) and (Weiss and Cropazano, 1996); individual factors include emotions, genetics and personality (Cote and Morgan, 2002) while psychological factors comprise one's life, family and community (Wright and Cropazano, 2000).

Other authorities proposed various facets of Job Satisfaction as follows: pay and benefits, perceived fairness in the promotion system, quality of working conditions, leadership and social relationships, and job itself (Singh and Jain, 2013); reward such as pay or fringe benefits, co-workers or supervisors, nature of work itself and the organization itself (Spector, 1997); nature of work, salary, advancement opportunities, management, work groups and work conditions (Aziri, 2011). Weir (1976) and Syptak, Marsland and Ulmer (1999) identified achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and opportunity for advancement or promotion as the key determinants of Job Satisfaction. Achievement demands that employees are helped and placed in positions that use their talent and not set up for failure. This can be realised by setting clear, achievable goals and standards for every position and the employees made aware of the same. In addition, the employees should be given regular and timely feedback on their performance and their jobs designed to provide adequate challenge.

Recognition is defined by the honour, favourable note or attention to employees in light of a job well done or outstanding behaviour. Recognizable success need not be monumental, but the employees should be recognized immediately following their good work. Work itself comprises making employees appreciate the importance and meaningfulness of tasks assigned to them. It is important that goals are set and employees emphatically reminded that their efforts contribute to positive outcomes and goal accomplishments. Unnecessary tasks should be eliminated or streamlined to bring about greater efficiency in the organization. With regard to responsibility, it is suggested that employees are granted additional authority in their activity, enough freedom and power to infuse in them feelings of ownership of results. Opportunities for advancement or promotion involve moving

employees from the present job or position to a higher one or level in the organization. They could be supported in their pursuit for higher certificates.

While several scales have been developed to measure Job Satisfaction, in light of the study's objectives, it adapted the short version of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist, 1967) because of its popularity and stability over time, excellent co-efficient values (ranging between .85 and .91) and, above all having been studied widely and validated by many researchers (Fields, 2002). In addition, it has more of the common facets of Job Satisfaction (Siddiqui and Bisaria, 2021) that were proposed by Armstrong (2009); Graham and Bennett (1998); Herzberg, Mauser and Snydermann (1959). Consequently, the following common facets of Job Satisfaction were used in the study: achievement, recognition, advancement opportunities, responsibilities, work itself and working conditions, company policy and administration, and pay and benefits

Human resource practices are closely associated with Job Satisfaction (Ting, 1997). Sound human resource practices result in better level of Job Satisfaction which subsequent improvement of organizational performance (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000). Kaplan and Norton (2001); Copeland, Koller and Murrin (1991); Lamming and Bessant (1995) and Belcourt and Wright (1998) as cited in Myskonva (2011) agree that Job Satisfaction is connected to usage of human resources and influences the quality and amount of work done.

Arguing for the connection between human resource practices and Job Satisfaction, Aswathappa (2008) suggests that an organization should have better human resource plans to motivate its employees. Weeratunga (2003) observes that sound Human Resource Planning enhances Job Satisfaction by providing opportunities for the employees to participate in planning their own careers. HRP facilitates Job Satisfaction by ensuring ability-job fit. Edwards (1991) posits that right placement of employees enhances their performance. Li and Hung (2010) in Bin Shmailan (2016) acknowledge that right placement of employees earns more commitment, satisfaction, motivation and better overall employee performance. Gu and Chi (2009) also demonstrate a connection between Job Satisfaction and employee performance.

Tzafirir (2006) opines that recruitment and selection processes determine the employability of candidates. He explains that the two practices can improve the fit between employees and the organization, teams and work requirements hence better work environment. Work

environment is known to influence Job Satisfaction. Fernandez (1992) asserts that sophisticated recruitment and selection systems can facilitate a better fit between an individual's abilities and the requirements of an organization. Ability-job fit is one of the ingredients of Job Satisfaction (Robbins, 1998). According to Dugguh and Ayaga (2014), Job Satisfaction anchors employee performance. Organizations need not only highly motivated, but also satisfied and psychologically balanced employees to increase performance and productivity.

2.1.7 Performance of Academic Staff

Performance, according to Dugguh and Ayaga (2014) is a multi-dimensional construct. Cooke (2001) explains that performance in organizational context is broad and has been a subject of study among social scientists from a wide range of disciplines as it is being used synonymously with productivity, efficiency, effectiveness and, more recently, competitiveness. While Bernardin (2008) defines performance as the record of outcomes produced on specified job functions or activities during a specified time period, Dugguh and Ayaga (2014), Brumbach (1998) and Snell (2006) view it as incorporating behaviour and results, a position that the proposed study adopts. Behaviour emanates from performer and transforms performance from abstraction to action.

Employee performance thus refers to the job-related activities expected of employees and how well they execute them (Dugguh and Ayaga, 2014). Talking about Performance of Academic Staff, the proposed study operationalizes Academic Staff as employees of universities whose responsibility is to transform, develop and disseminate knowledge through education, research and community service. Consequently, their performance is primary to the success of a university. Performance of Academic Staff may, therefore, be conceptualized as the job related behaviours and results expected of Academic Staff. The conceptualization agrees with the viewpoint of Dugguh and Ayaga (2014); Brumbach (1998) and Snell (2006). Snell (2006) reiterates that behaviours are not just the instruments for results, but are also outcomes in their own right and that they are the product of mental and physical effort applied to tasks which can be judged apart from results.

Different sources propose different measures or indicators of Performance of Academic Staff. To begin with, Molefe (2010) who defines a measure as a specific quantitative or qualitative representation of capacity, process or outcome deemed relevant to the assessment of performance suggests that Performance of Academic Staff can be measured or indicated by

subject knowledge, testing or assessment procedure, student-teacher relations, organizational skills, communication skills, subject relevance and utility of assignments. On the other hand, Sánchez-Barrioluengo (2013) in World Bank (2017) explains that the higher education community generally identifies three distinct but interrelated missions: teaching and learning, research and community engagement against which the Performance of Academic Staff could be measured. Abba and Mugizi (2018) summarize the performance of academic staff as being indicated by: teaching, research and publication, innovation and community service while the Commission for University Education (2014a and 2014b) wrap Performance of Academic Staff around four thematic areas: quality of teaching and learning; research and publication; administration and responsibilities and community engagement and other contributions. As a policy, the commission has embedded the appointment and promotion of academic staff in public universities in the four areas through a document entitled “*Harmonized Criteria and Guidelines for Appointment and Promotion of Academic Staff in Universities in Kenya*”. While document was declared invalid, null and void by a court of law, the concerns raised by the petitioner (University Academic Staff Union) were specific to lack of stakeholder participation, abolishment of existing grading systems and also undermining the right to collective bargaining and the requirement that Assistant Lecturers obtain Ph.Ds within a strict timeline. The proposed study will, therefore, adapt the Commission for University Education’s indicators, and blend them with relevant dimensions of measures proposed by other researchers in Molefe (2010).

According to Commission for University Education of Kenya (2014a and 2014b), quality of teaching and learning is measured by the following: student evaluation of the instructor and course; the lecturer’s notes; ability to advise and mentor students; training in higher education teaching and post graduate supervision. Whereas student evaluation may court controversy, Balam and Shannon (2010); and Bedggood and Donovan (2012) submit that there is sufficient literature to conclude that they are generally consistent and valid (Arnold, 2008 and Liu, 2012). Related to these is a lecturer’s knowledge-base in the subject (Analoui, 2007) who views it as being fundamental to the creation and enhancement of the student’s opportunity to learn well. Knowledge base encompasses declarative knowledge of facts and concepts; the procedural knowledge of what to do; and the motivation - which could include effort and persistence to excel (Aguinis, 2009). Ganyaupfu (2013) adds the teaching skills of a lecturer to this list. He explains that a lecturer’s teaching skills is based on their ability to comprehend and transform concepts to be imparted to learners. The position is reinforced by

Shulman (1992) who views comprehension as an important element of lecturer competence. Sinclair and Johnson (2000) assert that thorough knowledge of the subject material is essential to accurate instruction and clear communication and content to students. Arreola (2000) opines that the quality of teaching and learning should also include expertise in the content area. In addition to content knowledge, ability to organize, integrate, adjust and adapt this content in ways that make it accessible and thought provoking to the learner are the other parameters of quality of teaching and learning (Gill and Johnson, 1997; White, 2008). Testing or assessment procedure which entails designing, developing and implementing tools and procedures for assessing students' learning outcomes and is part of the instructional design (Molefe, 2010) also contributes to the quality of teaching. Arreola (2000) identifies requisite skills under this dimension as: designing tests; preparing the learning objectives; developing syllabi; preparing handouts and other supporting materials; properly using media and other forms of instructional technology and organizing lectures and presentations for maximal instruction. Hill, Lomus and MacGregor (2003) add feedback to students during the sessions and assignments to this list.

Molefe (2010) further points out the importance of student-teacher relations in teaching and learning. He relates it to the creation and maintenance of student-centred environment that maintains and sustains learning and development. According to him, it is a dimension that is integral to high learner-performance. Arreola (2000) asserts that a teacher who can develop relationships that foster and encourage students will enhance learning. Encouragement of active participation in the classroom creates a supportive environment where questions and class discussions are promoted, which imbues the lecturer with enthusiasm for the subject and facilitates opportunities for generating regular informal feedback on students as well as deeper understanding of the subject matter (Sinclair and Johnson, 2000).

Sinclair and Johnson (2000) opine that organizing skills is another dimension that influences overall student experiences, as well as the quality of teaching. Included herein is also the bureaucratic skills utilised for operating and managing a course including, but not limited to, timely grading of examinations, maintaining published office hours, arranging for and coordinating guest and generally making arrangements for facilities and resources required in the teaching of the course. In support of this stance is Arreola (2000) who asserts that excellent teachers do their work in a well-prepared and well-organized manner by arranging their activities in a way that allows them time to engage in corporate citizenship and community outreach. It is worth noting that corporate citizenship and community outreach

are other measures of Academic Staffs' performance according to the Commission for University Education (2014a and 2014b).

Molefe (2010) further identifies communication as an important aspect of structural delivery skills that enhances teaching and learning. Clarity in exposition, demonstrated enthusiasm, ability to motivate, ability to capture and hold the interest and attention of learners and create an overall learning environment appropriate to the content being taught are all included in communications skill dimension (Arreola, 2000). According to Hill *et al.*, 2003 and White, 2008, subject relevance is another factor that concerns learning and teaching quality. It relates to the appropriateness of the content provided during the lesson and the way in which it is presented to the learners. They suggest that it should entail accuracy of the facts encapsulated in the course content. Relevant assessment instruments used in the course should add to the design of architecture within the frame of reference of the course materials and the real world associated with the subject. Questions should be set at the appropriate level and graded according to the learning outcomes of the module. The text books and reference materials recommended by the , as well as the appropriate use of methods and techniques used in the subject are also of vital importance. The course being offered should also be of value to the workplace.

Towards enhancing the quality of teaching and learning, White (2008) opines that the assignments given to students should be meaningful and ones that enhance their learning and developmental needs. The assignments should be within the frame of reference of the course materials and the real world associated with the subject and socio-economic life within which a student lives. To further enhance utility, Layman, Williams and Staten (2007) suggest that the assignment should reflect its learning objectives and make it interesting and challenging to the student.

Research and publication as an indicator of Academic Staffs' performance generally implies the ability to advance scholarship and generate research as advanced by Gill and Johnson (1997) and White (2008). Implicit in the generation of research is the advancement of knowledge through discovery, integration, dissemination and application of knowledge. Commission for University Education (2014b) suggests that it entails: publication of scholarly books and chapters in books; refereed journals; refereed learning modules; reviewed conference papers; non-reviewed conference papers; short communication in a refereed / scholarly journals; book reviews published in refereed journals; editorship of books

and conference proceedings; scholarly presentations at conferences, workshops or seminars; refereed exhibitions and performances; consultancy and project reports; and patented invention and innovation. While these measures advance a quantitative component (i.e. numbers of), Harvey *et al.* (2010); Long *et al.* (2009) and Stack (2003) in Cadez, Dimovski and Groff (2017) suggest that the quality aspect be interrogated via the impact and quantity of papers published in an exclusive set of high quality journals or by the number of citations.

Administration and Responsibilities as a measure of Academic Staffs' performance encapsulates recognized university administrative positions and any other responsibilities that may be assigned to an Academic Staff. Community engagement and other Contributions, on the other hand, is rated by the ability of an Academic Staff to attract research and development funding; engagement in community service and outreach, professional affiliations and portfolios, recognition, awards and honours amongst others as determined by individual Universities (Commission for University Education, 2014b).

2.2 Empirical Literature Review

This section advances the findings of other scholars in relation to this study. The review creates comparisons that expose the gaps objective by objective. According to Coughlan et al (2013), the purpose of empirical literature review is to summarize and synthesize all previous studies that relate or argue positively with the study's hypothesis. It offers a critical evaluation of extensive research relating to each specific objective of the study.

2.2.1 Human Resource Planning Practice and Performance of Academic Staff

In Kenya, Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) studied the influence of Human Resource Planning on Employee Productivity in County Governments. They employed descriptive survey design on a sample of 55 respondents who were obtained from a population of 216 supervisory employees of the Council of Governors, using stratified random sampling. Human Resource Planning was conceptualized to include recruitment and deployment; training and orientation; talent retention; and succession planning. Data, which was collected using semi-structured questionnaire, was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics (correlation and regression). The findings revealed a positive statistically significant relationship between Human Resource Planning and Employee Productivity. However, the study did not give the regression results to show the extent to which the independent variable influences the dependent variable. Comparatively, the study used facets of Human Resource Planning other than Business Plans and Scenario Planning; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; and

Forecasting of Future Requirements and Action Planning as in the current study which focused on them on the basis of Armstrong (2009) who recommended them as important activities that characterize HRP process.

Anyu, Umoh and Worlu (2017) studied HRP and organizational performance in Oil and Gas firms Port Harcourt, Nigeria. A sample of 70 respondents was drawn from a population of 85 managers and supervisors using Taro Yamane's (1967) formula for determining sample size. Human Resource Planning was conceptualized to include strategic action and forecasting manpower demand while organizational performance was indicated by customer satisfaction and productivity. Spearman rank order (Rho) test was used to determine the relationship among variables. The results of the analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between forecasting manpower and productivity, on the one hand, at $P < 0.05$ ($0.017 < 0.05$), $Rho = 0.210$, and a positive significant relationship between strategic action and productivity, on the other hand, at $P < 0.05$ ($0.000 < 0.05$), $Rho = 0.607$. However, the study does not give the regression results to show the extent to which the independent variable influences the dependent variable. Business Plans and Scenario Planning; Supply Forecasting; and Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning which were identified by Armstrong (2009) as activities that define HRP process were ignored. The focus is also on the broader organizational performance and not employee performance (Performance of Academic Staff) as in the current study.

Studying the role of Human Resource Planning on performance of public water utilities in Tanzania, Karia, Omari, Mwanaongoro and Ondieki (2016) used correlation research design on a sample of 417 drawn from a population of 1355 employees in public water utilities in Tanzania. The sample was obtained using Krejcie & Morgan (1970) table. Both closed ended questionnaire and face to face interview were used to collect data that was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Human Resource Planning was considered in light of: Participation of Employees; Implementation of HRP; and Management Support. One-way ANOVA results revealed that Human Resource Planning is statistically significant in influencing Organizational Performance of public water utilities (ANOVA ($F=2.166$, $df = 5, 19$, $P = 0.101$ and $r(370) = 0.555^{**}$, $P < 0.01$). In addition, correlation results revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between Human Resource Planning and (organizational) performance of public water utilities. This implied that if the organization implemented a human resource plan, then organizational performance would improve by 55%. The study uses proxies of Human Resource Planning other than Business Plans and

Scenario Planning; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; and Forecasting of Future Requirements and Action Planning which were identified by Armstrong (2009) as the activities that mark HRP process. The focus is organizational performance contrary to the current study whose focus is employee performance. Maina and Kwasira (2015) studied the role of Human Resource Planning Practices (specifically employee attraction and retention) on Employee Performance in the Kenya's County Governments using Nakuru County Government. The study adopted a descriptive survey research design on a population of forty-five employees attached to the HR department and opted for a census owing to the small number. Closed ended questionnaires were used to capture relevant data. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to establish the relationship between HRP practices and Employee Performance. The findings revealed a statistically significant relationship between employee attraction and retention, and employee performance ($r = 0.415$; $p < 0.01$). However, regression results that demonstrate influence are not revealed. Furthermore, the study population appears too limited for accurate generalization, both in number and context. In addition, it only considers two HRP practices (attraction and retention) and ignores HRP activities such as: Business Plans and Scenario Planning; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; and Forecasting of Future Requirements and Action Planning that were proposed by Armstrong (2009). County governments in Kenya is a new concept that is characterized by lots of human resource management challenges hence might not have been the best context for a generalizable study.

Ogunyomi and Ojikutu (2014) sought to establish if employee resourcing can be used to predict the performance of Small and Medium Enterprises in Lagos State, Nigeria. Employee resourcing in this context constituted HRP, recruitment and selection and employee retention. The study adopted a survey research design and employed in-depth interview and questionnaires to gather relevant data. A sample of 450 was drawn from a population of 2,670 owners/managers of SMEs operating in Lagos State, Nigeria using stratified sampling technique. Regression analysis revealed that employee resourcing did not make significant contribution to organizational performance considering a p-value of 0.082 which is greater than $\alpha = 0.05$. It was observed that the moderate association ($R = 0.113$) in the independent and dependent variable was by chance given the F-ratio value of 3.044 that indicated that the independent variable (employee resourcing) is a non-predictor of organizational performance of the sampled SMEs. The study concluded that although there was a relationship between employee resourcing and performance of sampled SMEs, it was not strong enough to be used

to predict the performance of sampled SMEs. The questions in the research instruments also reveal that of the three components of employee resourcing in this context, little attention was given to HRP; out of ten items in the questionnaire, only one directly addressed HRP. Furthermore, SMEs might not have provided generalizable results given that a majority of small businesses draw their employees from personal networks of the owners/ managers hence lack formal recruitment schemes and are not tied to any set of recruitment programmes. In this case, vacancies may occur at any time of the year (Cardon and Stevens (2004) and as such HRP being a rare feature therein, it may not have been accurately used to predict the performance of SMEs.

Katua, Mukulu and Gachunga (2014) researched on the effect of employee resourcing strategies on the performance of commercial banks in Kenya. Employee resourcing incorporated recruitment, selection, induction and HRP. Survey research design was adopted. The study population comprised 2,738 employees located at the headquarters of all the 46 banks in Kenya. A sample of 349 employees was selected using both purposive and stratified random sampling. The study revealed that HRP strategies have a significant positive effect on performance of commercial banks in Kenya. Correlation analysis intimated, specifically, that HRP leads to improved profits of commercial banks in Kenya. The focus of this study was organizational performance and not employee performance.

Kamande and Gachunga (2014) studied the influence of Human Resource Planning on organizational performance in the context of International Organization for Migration in Kenya. The study adopted a descriptive case study research design. The target population consisted of 87 senior managers drawn from the various units at the International Organization for Migration in Regional Office for Eastern and Southern Africa, Kenya and Somali Missions. A sample of 48 senior managers was identified with a response rate of 85.4 percent. Primary data was collected using semi-structured questionnaires and multiple linear regression model used for analysis. The study established that Human Resource Planning which comprised employee resourcing, career planning, succession planning and human resource development were statistically significant in influencing organizational performance. The study population and the selected sample is limited, perhaps a larger population and sample might have given different results and heightened the accuracy and generalizability. Anyadike (2013) conducted a study on HRP and employee productivity in Nigerian Public Organizations. The purpose was to investigate the role of HRP in ensuring employee productivity in Nigerian Public Organizations. Data was to be derived from

secondary sources (previous research and analysis of scholars, government documents, newspapers, magazines as well as journal articles that are related to the subject). The study attributed decline in productivity in the Nigerian Public Organizations to the absence of Human Resource Planning. However, he studies HRP in its composite form without specifying its facets. He also relied purely on document analysis without triangulation which may create biases given that documents are written for some other purposes. Abdulla, Ahsan and Alam (2009) investigated the effect of human resource management practices on business performance among private companies in Malaysia. The HRM practices investigated were: training and development, team work, compensation/ incentives, Human Resource Planning, performance appraisal and employee security. Primary data was collected from a sample of 153 private companies through personal administered questionnaire. The response rate was 91.45%. The regression results ($t=3.821$; $p=.001$) demonstrated that HRP has a positive and significant relationship with business performance.

All the reviewed studies examine aspects of HRP, although with variations. Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) focused on recruitment and deployment; training and orientation; talent retention; and succession planning as the descriptors of HRP consequently ignoring Business Plans and Scenario Planning; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; and Forecasting of Future Requirements and Action Planning which are the activities that mark HRP process (Armstrong, 2009). Similarly, Karia, Omari, Mwanaongoro and Ondieki (2016) examined HRP in light of participation of employees; implementation of HRP; and management support while Maina and Kwasira (2015), focused on components of HRP such as employee attraction and retention. Whereas Anya, Umoh and Worlu (2017) operationalized HRP to include strategic action and forecasting manpower demand which comprise some of the aspects of HRP identified by Armstrong (2009), they apparently ignored business plans and scenario planning; supply forecasting; and forecasting future requirements. Ogunyomi and Ojikutu (2014), on the other hand, broadly studied employee resourcing that they operationalized to include HRP, recruitment and selection and employee retention in a similar way to Katua, Mukulu and Gachunga (2014) who also broadly considered employee resourcing strategies as incorporating recruitment, selection, induction and HRP. Capping it off are Kamande and Gachunga (2014) who used employee resourcing, career planning, succession planning and human resource development as descriptors of HRP. It is also worth noting that Abdulah, Ahsan and Alam (2009) and Anyadike (2013) studied HRP as a

composite without specifying its facets. Therefore, none of the studies strictly used all the five facets of HRP in entirety (Armstrong, 2009) as is in the current study.

Six studies (Anya, Umoh and Worlu, 2017; Karia, Omari, Mwanaongoro and Ondieki, 2016; Ogunyomi and Ojikutu, 2014; Katua, Mukulu and Gachunga, 2014; Kamande and Gachunga, 2014 and Abdula, Ahsan and Alam, 2009) related various aspects of HRP to organizational performance contrary to Maina and Kwasira, (2015) who related certain proxies of HRP to employee performance. Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) and Anyadike (2013), on the other hand, relate aspects of HRP to employee productivity. Productivity is equated to performance (Cooke, 2001). Therefore, employee productivity implies employee performance in this context. Much as Maina and Kwasira, (2015); Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) and Anyadike (2013) studied HRP in relation to employee performance or productivity, its descriptors such as business plans and scenario planning, demand forecasting, supply forecasting, forecasting future requirements and action planning (Armstrong, 2009) were not studied.

Furthermore, Anyadike (2013) who studied HRP in relation to employee performance relied on document analysis without empirical evidence which diminishes confidence in his conclusions. In addition, while both Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) and Maina and Kwasira (2015) conducted their studies in the context of employees of county governments, the former limited their study to only 55 respondents based in Nairobi while the latter to only 45 human resource experts in a single department (Human Resource Department). Consequently, the study by Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) is not sufficiently robust considering the limited population. Similarly, Maina and Kwasira (2015) also deny their study diversity in expertise and job categories and, as a result, their findings cannot be appropriate for generalization in a diverse population. Academic Staff, as in the current study, present a diverse range of expertise and cadre within the University setting. The larger sample (158) and diversity in the choice of the sampled universities enhance confidence and generalizability of the findings.

In light of the influence of HRP on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, the reviewed literature, revealed gaps that the current study sought to fill. Whereas a majority of the studies (Mbiu & Nzulwa, 2018; Anya, Umoh & Worlu, 2017; Karia, Omari, Mwanaongoro & Ondieki, 2016; Maina & Kwasira, 2015; Katua, Mukulu & Gachunga, 2014; Kamande & Gachunga, 2014; Anyadike, 2013; Abdulla, Ahsan & Alam, 2009) established a positive significant relationship between HRP and either employee or

organizational performance, Ogunyomi and Ojikutu (2014) found that HRP is a non-predictor of the performance of SMEs. These studies, therefore, gave mixed results.

While Anya, Umoh, and Worlu (2017); Karia, Omari, Mwanaongoro and Ondieki (2016); Ogunyomi and Ojikutu (2014); Katua, Mukulu and Gachunga (2014); Kamande and Gachunga (2014); Abdulla, Ahsan and Alam (2009) related HRP to organizational performance, the three studies that related it to employee performance (Mbiu & Nzulwa, 2018; Maina & Kwasira, 2015; Anyadike, 2013) ignored the facets of HRP such as Business Plans and Scenario Planning; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning which are the key activities in HRP (Armstrong, 2009). Moreover, Anyadike (2013) relied on document analysis purely which compromises confidence in his conclusions. Similarly, Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) and Maina and Kwasira (2015) used limited samples that are not sufficiently robust for effective generalization. Maina and Kwasira (2015) deny their study diversity in expertise and job categories and, as a result, their findings are not appropriate for generalization in a diverse population.

2.2.2 Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff

Examining the effect of recruitment, selection and placement on employee performance at PT Green Glovers in Indonesia, Suwanto and Subyantoro (2019) used Structural Modelling Equation with Partial Least Square approach on a saturated sample of 90 employees. Primary data was collected from these respondents through interview. The study established that recruitment had no effect on employee performance. The indicators of recruitment included: basis for hiring (qualifications), sources of employees and recruitment method while employee performance was indicated generally by quality; quantity; punctuality; effectiveness; and independence. Facets such as: examining vacancy; locating, making contact and attracting candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998) were, therefore, not considered. In addition, employee performance was indicated by general measures as opposed to specific measures of Performance of Academic Staff such as: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Community Engagement and Other Contributions; and Administration and Other Responsibilities (that were by recommended CUE) as in the present study.

Rahmany (2018) studied the effect of recruitment and selection process on employees' performance in Afghanistan civil service. The study employed deductive reasoning research approach and primary data collected from a sample of 120 civil servants in Herat province

using closed-ended questionnaire. Secondary was data obtained from books and journal articles. Both Pearson correlation and regression techniques were used in data analysis. With an Adjusted R-square of .955, the results indicated that the independent variables (recruitment included) accounted for about 96% variability. Moreover, a $\beta = .960$ and $P < 0.05$ demonstrated that employees' performance was strongly related to recruitment process. The study focused on factors that affected recruitment process that he identified as nepotism, politicization, corruption, patronage, instability. The study therefore ignored such recruitment facets as examining vacancy, locating and making contact, and attracting candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998) that the current study addressed.

In an effort to assess how ethical issues in recruitment and selection affect employee performance in public universities in Nyeri County - Kenya, Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018) adopted descriptive research design. Stratified random sampling technique was used to sample 101 non-teaching staff from a population of 335 employees of Dedan Kimathi and Karatina Universities. Primary data was collected using structured questionnaires and regression analysis performed. The findings revealed a positive significant relationship between recruitment and selection, and employee performance at $\beta = 0.348$ and $P = 0.000$ which is less than 0.05. Linear regression revealed that recruitment and selection accounted for 14.6% of employee performance ($R^2 = 0.146$). The focus was on how ethical issues in recruitment and selection influence employee performance and not on the following recruitment process: examining vacancy; locating, making contact and attracting candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998) that the current study addressed. Moreover, the unit of analysis were non-teaching staff from only two public universities, and not academic staff drawn from a wide range of public universities as in the current study.

In Nigeria, Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun (2017) investigated the impact of recruitment and selection strategy on employees' performance in three manufacturing companies. Recruitment strategy was indicated by referrals, employment agencies and host community member methods while employee performance was measured by commitment, employee productivity and job efficiency. One hundred and fifty (150) employees were purposively sampled from an undefined population. Data was collected using questionnaires and inferential statistics (t-test) used in analysis. The study revealed a significant positive relationship between the following: employee referral recruitment method and employee commitment; employment agency recruitment method and employee productivity. However, there was no significant relationship between the use of host community member recruitment

and employees' job efficiency. Host community influence in recruitment was, therefore, revealed to inhibit employee performance. Consequently, the study concluded that a good recruitment strategy enables an organization to acquire suitable and qualified employees who enhance performance. The study limits itself to three methods of recruitment in three manufacturing companies. The following facets of recruitment were not considered: examining vacancy; locating, making contact and attracting candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998). In Indonesia, Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016) studied the impact of recruitment, employee retention and labour relations on employee performance in Batik Industry in Solo City. The population of the study comprised seven hundred and fifteen (715) production employees from which three hundred and seventy (375) respondents were purposively sampled. Partial Least Square Analysis and T-statistics were used in data analysis. The study revealed a significant positive impact of recruitment on employee performance. Moreover, recruitment accounted for 53.11% of employee performance. However, the indicators of recruitment were not revealed. Additionally, the study focused on production employees from only two companies. The present study focused on the following facets of recruitment: examining vacancy; locating, making contact and attracting candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998) in the context of 14 Kenyan public universities.

Examining the influence of recruitment and selection on the performance of employees in research institutes in Kenya, Ombui, Mukulu and Waititu (2014) adopted descriptive and correlational research designs. The target population comprised 760 employees from which a sample of 256 was drawn through stratified sampling technique. Structured questionnaire was used to collect primary data while secondary data was collected from published reports. Pearson correlation revealed a significant linear correlation between recruitment and selection and employee performance. The correlation coefficient was 0.374 ($p= 0.000$). Regression results indicated that recruitment and selection explained 37.4% of variation in employee performance. This was above the recommended 30% (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003) hence a moderate relationship. However, the indicators of recruitment are not revealed. The present study focused on the following facets of recruitment: examining vacancy; locating, making contact and attracting candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998). The study considered the dual input of recruitment and selection simultaneously. The current study treated recruitment as an isolated variable.

Saifalislam, Osman and AlQudah (2014) studied the influence of recruitment and selection, and training and development on the organizational performance of Jordanian Public

Universities. Questionnaire was used in data collection, and correlation and regression techniques used in analysis. The findings revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between recruitment and selection and organizational performance ($\beta = .342, p < .05$). Regression results revealed that recruitment and selection accounted for 35.5% variance in organizational performance. Apart from this study being focused on organizational performance, the influence of recruitment and selection were investigated as single entity. The individual contribution of recruitment is, therefore, unknown. Mokaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna (2013) studied the effects of Recruitment Practices on employee performance in the cooperative sector in Kenya using Kenya Union of Savings and Credit Co-operatives (KUSSCO) as a case. Recruitment Practice was indicated by recruitment sources, recruitment policies and recruitment message. The study adopted a case study research design. Stratified sampling technique was used to draw 89 respondents from a population of 177 employees of KUSSCO and primary data obtained via questionnaires while secondary data through document analysis. Research data was analyzed using both regression and correlation techniques. Correlation analysis revealed that recruitment sources, recruitment policies and recruitment message had a statistically significant, but weaker positive relationship with employee performance. The use of case study design facilitated a detailed examination of the subject under study for conclusive generalizations. Regression results revealed that recruitment sources, recruitment policies and recruitment message affected employee performance considering the adjusted R^2 of 0.662. Facets of recruitment such as: examining vacancy; locating, making contact and attracting candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998) were not considered.

The reviewed studies all relate recruitment directly or indirectly to either employee or organizational performance. Saifalislam, Osman and AlQudah (2014) not only relate recruitment to organizational performance, which is a function of many other variables, but fail to specify the indicators of recruitment. On the flip side, Suwanto and Subyantoro (2019); Rahmany (2018); Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018); Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun (2017); Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016); Ombui Mukulu and Waititu (2014) and Mokaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna (2013) all relate recruitment to employee performance variously.

Suwanto and Subyantoro (2019) consider basis for hiring, sources of employees and recruitment method as the indicators of recruitment; Rahmany (2018) focused on factors that affect recruitment process which he identified as nepotism, politicization, corruption, patronage and instability; Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018) whose interest was on ethical

issues that affect recruitment basically identified unethical practices that need not characterize recruitment such as sexual harassment, bribery, nepotism and discrimination; Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun (2017) focused on recruitment strategy that they operationalized to comprise only three methods of recruitment that follow: employee referrals, employment agencies and host community member recruitment; Mokaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna (2013) consider recruitment sources, recruitment policies and recruitment message as the descriptors of Recruitment Practice. Both Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016) and Ombui, Mukulu and Waititu (2014) are not specific on the elements of recruitment they studied despite its varied components. Therefore, none of them studied the facets of recruitment such as: examining vacancy; locating, making contact and attracting candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998).

Revealing a positive significant relationship between the various facets of recruitment and employee performance are Rahmany (2018); Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018); and Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016). Ombui Mukulu and Waititu (2014) discovered a positive moderate relationship while Mokaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna (2013) found a positive significant, but weaker relationship. Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun (2017), on the other hand, discovered a significant positive relationship between employee referral recruitment and employment agency recruitment (facets of recruitment strategy), and employee commitment and productivity (facets of employee performance) respectively. However, host community member recruitment revealed no significant relationship with employee efficiency (facets of employee performance). Of greatest disparity were Suwanto and Subyantoro, (2019) who established that recruitment had no effect on employee performance.

In respect of Recruitment Practice and employee performance relationship, none of the reviewed studies (Suwanto and Subyantoro, 2019; Rahmany, 2018; Murage, Sang and Ngure, 2018; Oaya, Ogbu and Remilekun, 2017; Suntanto and Kurniawan, 2016; Ombui, Mukulu and Waititu, 2014; Sifalislam, Osman and AlQuda, 2014; Mikaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna, 2013) focused on the facets of recruitment such as: Examining Vacancy; Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates comprehensively (Graham and Bennett, 1998) as the present study. Furthermore, none of the studies used the descriptors of Performance of Academic Staff such as: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Administration and Other Responsibilities; and Community Engagement and Other Contributions as in the current study. As such, the present study was aimed at resolving these knowledge gaps.

2.2.3 Selection and Performance of Academic Staff

Using correlational research design, Matolo, Iravo and Waititu (2019) conducted a study on the relationship between recruitment and selection, and employee performance in technical training institutes (TTIs) in Kenya. Recruitment and selection was indicated by: recruitment and selection methods; and matching job descriptions and specifications while employee performance indicated by: achievement of goals; innovations; creativity; Job Satisfaction and low turnover. The study sample comprised 137 teaching and non-teaching staff drawn from three technical training institutes in Kenya within and adjacent to Nairobi City. Descriptive and inferential techniques (regression) were used to analyze data. Correlation results revealed a weak positive, but statistically significant ($r = 0.436$; $P > 0.01$) relationship between recruitment and selection, and performance of employees of technical training institutes. Regression results indicated that recruitment and selection accounted for 18.4 % variation in employee performance (Adjusted $R = 0.184$). However, recruitment and selection were treated as a single variable thus their distinct relationship with employee performance ignored. The study focused on only three TTIs within Nairobi City CBD and its proximals yet the environment and location of a facility could be having some influence on the performance of the employees therein. The indicators of employee performance (both teaching and non-teaching), just like the indicators of recruitment and selection, differ from the present study's which are specific to Performance of Academic Staff measures: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Administration and Other Responsibilities; and Community Engagement and Other Contributions.

Munialo and Simiyu (2019) examined the influence of employee resourcing and development strategies on performance of Kibos Sugar and Allied Limited, Kenya. Employee resourcing strategy, in this case, comprised: demand forecasting; supply forecasting, selective hiring, advertising criteria and recruitment procedure while organizational performance indicated by customer satisfaction and revenue generation. The study adopted case study research design. Stratified random sampling technique was used to pick a sample of 75 respondents from a population of 250 employees. Questionnaire was used to collect data that was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential (correlation) statistics. Correlation analysis revealed a moderate positive relationship ($r = 0.522$) between employee resourcing strategy and organizational performance. With respect to influence, employee resourcing and development strategies were found to be good predictors of performance of Kibos Sugar and Allied Limited. While all the indicators of employee resourcing strategy comprised elements of

HRP, recruitment and Selection Practices, little attention was given to selection as denoted by the facet of selective hiring. Furthermore, selective hiring was investigated solely through the validity of selection techniques and procedure instruments. As such, facets of Selection Practices such as candidates' assessment, candidates' choice and offer of employment were not given prominence. The study also focused on organizational performance and not employee performance.

Investigating the effect of recruitment and selection process on job performance in Telecommunication Industry in Nigeria using MTN Customer Service Centre, Abeokuta as a case, Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije and Akintan (2018) adopted a survey research design. Job performance was indicated by: product knowledge, quality report, absenteeism, schedule adherence, login hours and handling time. Simple random sampling technique was employed to select 50 respondents and questionnaire used to collect data from them. Squared multiple correlation values for overall performance ($R^2 = .56$) and key performance indicators (KPIs) ($R^2 = .58$) indicated that the predictor variables captured large percentages of the observed variance in the dependent variables. Standardized path coefficients revealed a positive statistically significant relationship between recruitment and selection, and job performance ($\beta=0.751$; $t=11.269$; $P<0.001$). The indicators of job performance are different from those of Performance of Academic Staff such as: quality of teaching and learning; research and publication; administration and other responsibilities; and community engagement and other contributions.

Examining the effects of employee selection process on (employee) productivity in the public and private sectors in Benue State, Onyeaghala and Hyacinth (2016) employed survey research design and collected data using questionnaires. They drew a sample of 263 respondents randomly from a target population of 392 employees. Employee selection process was indicated by experience, educational achievements, salary requirements, location, skills and gender – which are, essentially, factors influencing selection process. The findings revealed that there was a significant difference between the selection processes employed by private and public sectors, and that the process of employee selection used by either private and public sector enabled them achieve productivity disparately. It was further revealed that there was no significant difference between factors influencing selection process in public and private sectors. The study basically compared selection methods used by public and private sectors in addition to establishing if the respective processes contributed to employee productivity. Indicators of selection process differ from the present

studies: candidates' assessment, candidates' choice and offer of employment (Graham & Bennett, 1998).

Makhamara, Waiganjo and Kwasira (2016) investigated the influence of strategic recruitment and selection on employee performance in the health sector in Kenya. Cross-sectional survey research design was used in a target population comprising 428 employees of four County Hospitals namely: Bungoma, Kajiado, Kangundo and Kakamega. Strategic recruitment and selection was treated as single variable that was indicated by: internal promotion, transparency in recruitment and selection, qualifications and tests used and attitude towards work while employee performance was indicated by: staff turnover, quality of work, customer feedback reports and staff attitude. Simple random sampling was used to select 146 respondents. Both questionnaire and interviews were used to collect data. Data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential techniques. Findings revealed that strategic recruitment and selection had a significant positive influence on employee performance. A unit increase in strategic recruitment and selection resulted in a positive variance of 20.4 % in employee performance. However, the sample of only 4 County hospitals against 47 is not sufficiently representative. Secondly, the focus was on the strategic aspect of recruitment and selection yet strategic human resource management from which the two practices are drawn has greater focus on organizational performance rather than individual employee performance. Strategic human resource management also emphasizes the role of human resource management systems as solutions to business problems rather than individual HR management practices in isolation (Becker and Huselid, 2006). They recommended an evaluation of external factors that influence employee performance which hints to factors other than the ones they investigated.

Mwangale, Gachunga and Mukhweso (2015) studied the effects of Selection Practices on employee performance in Public Universities in Kenya. They employed descriptive survey research design on a census 88 heads of human resources departments and HR officers in the 22 Public Universities in Kenya. Primary data was collected via questionnaires and secondary data derived from related existing literature. Both descriptive and inferential statistics (correlation and regression analyses) were used to analyze data. Selection Practices incorporated selection methods and competencies of managers involved in the selection process as its descriptors. Findings revealed a strong positive correlation with employee performance at a statistical significance of 0.01. Regression results revealed that employee performance was affected by the two constructs of employee Selection Practices given the

adjusted R^2 of 0.721. This meant that employee selection varied employee performance by 72.1%, therefore, the remaining 27.9% can be attributed to other extraneous factors, including Job Satisfaction as a moderator. Facets of selection such as candidates' assessment, candidates' choice and offer of employment (Graham & Bennett, 1998) were ignored.

Ekwoaba, Ikeije and Ufoma (2015) investigated the impact of recruitment and selection criteria on organizational performance using Fidelity Bank Plc, Lagos Nigeria as a case. Survey research design was adopted and structured questionnaires used to collect data. The target population comprised 3,756 full time employees of the bank. Random sampling was used to select 130 respondents. Chi-square was used to test the relatedness of the hypothesis. The results showed that recruitment and selection criteria have significant effect on organizational performance ($\chi^2 = 35.723$; $df = 3$; $p < 0.05$). It was also discovered that the more objective the recruitment and selection criteria, the better the organizational performance ($\chi^2 = 20.007$; $df = 4$; $p < 0.05$). Survey design is appropriate for the study since it facilitates the collection of data from a large number of respondents and at the same time facilitates the collection of a broad range of data (e.g., attitudes, opinions, beliefs, values, behaviour, facts). Random sampling achieves the representativeness of the target population and eliminates bias. Individual impact of recruitment and selection are not revealed yet they are distinct practices. The study was restricted to one bank only and thus may not be sufficiently representative. Focus is on organizational performance which is a function of many other factors; not purely employees' performance.

Fahad, Nadeem and Sahu (2014) sought to establish the impact of human resource management practices on employee performance in Banking Industry of Pakistan. Human resource practices comprised reward, recruitment and selection and training. Survey research design was adopted and survey questionnaires used to collect data from 150 employees who were conveniently sampled. Both regression and correlation analyses were used. Findings revealed a positive statistically significant relationship between recruitment and selection and employee performance. The study is however limited to Lahore banks of Pakistan. Convenient sampling may not have been representative of the study population. Recruitment and selection are also treated as a single variable hence individual influence of either remains unknown, much as they are distinct practices with unique contributions to employee performance.

Studying the effect of recruitment and Selection Practices on the performance of small and medium hotels of Osu Klottey Sub-Metropolitan Assembly of Greater Accra, Afriyie and Blankson (2013) adopted descriptive survey research design. Stratified random sampling was used to identify 200 respondents against a population of 501 workers. Questionnaires, interview and conversation schedules were formulated to gather data. Findings revealed a positive statistically significant influence of recruitment and selection processes on the performance of the hotels. Recruitment and selection are studied as a single variable yet they are distinct. The study that is limited to the performance of small and medium hotels focuses on organizational performance which is a function of several factors. Perhaps larger hotels would have given different results. Simple random sampling may not have given a sufficiently representative sample. Osu Klottey is chosen on the basis of the researcher residing therein and not because of any justifiable scientific reason. It may not have been sufficiently representative for effective generalization. The reviewed empirical literature related Selection Practice and Employee Performance variously. While Matolo, Iravo, and Waititu (2019); Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije and Akintan (2018); Onyaeghala and Hyacinth (2016); Makhamara, Waiganjo and Kwasira (2016); Mwangale, Gachunga and Mukhweso (2015); and Fahad, Nadeem and Sahu (2014) investigated the relationship between various aspects of selection and employee performance, Munialo and Simiyu (2019); Ekwaoba, Ikeije and Ufoma (2015); and Afiriye and Blankson (2013) investigated the relationship between various aspects of recruitment and Selection Practice and organizational performance.

With regards to the results of the studies that examined the relationship of various aspects of Selection Practice and employee performance, five studies (Matolo, Iravo, & Waititu, 2019; Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije & Akintan, 2018; Makhamara, Waiganjo & Kwasira, 2016; Mwangale, Gachunga & Mukhweso, 2015; and Fahad, Nadeem & Sahu, 2014) found positive statistically relationship while one study (Onyaeghala and Hyacinth, 2016) basically compared selection methods between public and private sectors without investigating relationship between the two variables of interest. Furthermore, all these studies were in context other than public universities as in the current studies except Gachunga & Mukhweso (2015) who looked at both the performance of academic and non-teaching staff. The present study was focused on the Performance of Academic Staff and, therefore, looked at performance parameters specific to Academic Staff.

With respect to the study variables specific to Selection Practice and employee performance, Matolo, Iravo and Waititu (2019) considered the following as its indicators of recruitment

and selection: recruitment and selection methods; and matching job descriptions and specifications while employee performance was indicated by: achievement of goals; innovations; creativity; Job Satisfaction and low turnover. Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije and Akintan (2018) indicated job (employee) performance by: product knowledge, quality report, absenteeism, schedule adherence, login hours and handling time. Onyeaghala and Hyacinth (2016) used the following facets of employee selection process: experience, educational achievements, salary requirements, location, skills and gender. Makhamara, Waiganjo and Kwasira (2016) measured strategic recruitment and selection through: internal promotion, transparency in recruitment and selection, qualifications and tests used, and attitude towards work while employee performance was indicated by staff turnover, quality of work, customer feedback reports, and staff attitude. Mwangale, Gachunga and Mukhweso (2015) used selection methods and competencies of managers involved in the selection process as the descriptors of Selection Practice. Fahad, Nadeem and Sahu (2014) adopted the broader concept of human resource practices which comprised: reward, recruitment and selection and training.

None of the reviewed studies (Matolo, Iravo and Waititu, 2019; Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije and Akintan, 2018; Onyeaghala and Hyacinth, 2016; Makhamara, Waiganjo and Kwasira, 2016; Mwangale, Gachunga and Mukhweso, 2015); Fahad, Nadeem and Sahu, 2014) used indicators of Selection Practice such as Candidates' Assessment; and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment (Graham & Bennett, 1998) or those of Performance of Academic Staff such as: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Administration and Other Responsibilities; and Community Engagement and Other Contributions (CUE, 2014b) as in the current study.

2.2.4 Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff

Using a descriptive survey research design, Ezeanyim, Ufoaroh and Ajakpo (2019) investigated the impact of Job Satisfaction on employee performance in selected public enterprises in Anambre State. While Job Satisfaction was indicated by job reward/ pay, promotion, job safety/ security and working conditions; employee performance had employee's morale as its proxy. From a target population of 1000 workers, stratified random sampling technique was used to select 286 respondents using Taro Yamane (1973) formula. Primary data was collected using structured questionnaires, observations and interview. Data was analyzed using ordinary chi-square of goodness of fit test. The research findings revealed that Job Satisfaction had a significant positive relationship with employee performance. The

researchers ignored other important proxies of satisfaction such as: achievement, recognition, responsibility, and company policy and administration (Hezberg and Snyderman, 1959) which the current study considered. Moreover, they also limited themselves to employee morale as the sole proxy of employee performance as opposed to the current study that used four, namely: quality of teaching and learning; research and publication; administration and responsibilities; and community engagement and other contributions (CUE, 2014b) which are specific to Performance of Academic Staff.

Buntaran, Andika and Alfiyana (2019) studied the impact of Job Satisfaction on job performance in Oil Palm Plantations in Kalimantan, Indonesia. Job Satisfaction was indicated by: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, co-worker relationships, nature of work and communication. Questionnaires were used to collect data from 55 office workers who were purposively sampled and regression technique used in data analysis. The research findings revealed that Job Satisfaction had a significant positive influence on employee performance given the R-square of 0.311. Some important components of Job Satisfaction including achievement, recognition, responsibility and company policy (Hezberg & Snyderman, 1959) were ignored. However, they were introduced in the current study. The sample size is also relatively small for generalization.

Abdukhaliq and Mohammadali (2019) studied the impact of Job Satisfaction on employees' performance using Al-Hayat Company- Pepsi employees in Erbil, Kurdistan Region – Iraq as a case. The study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional survey design. Simple random sampling was used to select 173 respondents and questionnaires adopted in data collection. Pearson Correlation Coefficient test was used to examine the relationship between the various facets of Job Satisfaction (which included: Payment system, opportunities for improvement, job type, organizational climate, leadership style, and physical condition) and employee performance. All the dimensions of Job Satisfaction had a positive and significant relationship with employee performance. The overall relationship between Job Satisfaction and employee performance was 0.569 at a significance level of 0.001. The level of error was 0.05. However, the study ignored some important facets of Job Satisfaction such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, comfort with benefits, and company policy (Hezberg & Snyderman, 1959) which the current study addressed.

Baluyos, Rivera and Baluyos (2019) adopted a descriptive correlational research design to study teachers' Job Satisfaction and work performance in the Division of Misamis Occidental

during the school year 2018 – 2019. Questionnaires and Individual Performance Commitment Review Form (IPCRF) were used to collect data from 104 school heads and 313 elementary school teachers, thus a sample of 417 respondents. Teachers Job Satisfaction was indicated by: supervision, security, relationship with colleagues, working conditions, pay, responsibility, work itself, advancement and recognition while teachers work performance indicated by teaching and learning process, pupils' outcome, community involvement, and professional growth and development. Descriptive statistics and multiple regression techniques were used in data analysis. The results indicated that among the nine facets of Job Satisfaction that were assessed in the study, only supervision ($\beta = - 0.09$; $t = 2.93$, $p = 0.004$) and security ($\beta = 0.10$; $t = 2.85$, $p = 0.005$) affected teachers' work performance. As such the rest of the facets were not predictive of teachers work performance. While job security was seen to enhance teachers' work performance, worth noting is the negative effect that supervision had on teachers work performance since one unit increase in supervision resulted in 9% decrease in job performance. Equally important is the fact that with an R-square of 3.98, teachers' satisfaction with supervision and security only accounted for 3.98% of their performance while the remaining 96.02% attributed to other factors outside the study. The study ignored such facets of Job Satisfaction as: achievement, comfort with benefits, and company policy and administration (Hezberg & Snyderman, 1959). Moreover, the specific measures of Performance of Academic Staff such as research and publication, and administration and responsibilities (CUE, 2014b) were also ignored.

Laosebikan, Odepidan, Adetunji and Aderinto (2018) examined the impact of Job Satisfaction on employees' performance in selected micro-finance banks in Osogbo Metropolis, Osun State, Nigeria. Job Satisfaction was indicated by: employees supervisors, personal characteristics factors and pay factors while employee performance indicated by: willingness to perform, employee output and employee commitment. The study adopted a descriptive survey research design and simple random sampling used to select 120 respondents from a population of 149 employees across six micro-finance banks. Questionnaires were used to collect primary data and both descriptive and inferential statistics used in data analysis. Regression analysis revealed that Job Satisfaction had influence on employee performance considering the R-square of 0.7171. However, the study ignored such Job Satisfaction factors as: Achievement; Recognition; Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity; Work Itself and Working Conditions; Comfort With Pay; and Company Policy and Administration (Hezberg & Snyderman, 1959; Siddiqui and Bisaria,

2021). Similarly, measures of performance that are specific to Academic Staff such as: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Community Engagement and Other Contributions; and Administration and Other Responsibilities (CUE, 2014b) were not considered.

Examining the impact of Job Satisfaction on employee performance at the Nasarawa State Water Board in Lafia, Oravee, Zayun and Kokona (2018) took a census of 79 employees therein. While secondary data was obtained from text books, official records and journals, primary data was collected through questionnaires and interviews. Chi-square test revealed that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors significantly influenced employee performance therein. Intrinsic rewards were limited to achievement and advancement while extrinsic rewards indicated by promotion and pay. The study ignored other Job Satisfaction factors as: recognition, responsibility, work itself and working conditions, comfort with benefits, company policy and administration (Hezberg & Snyderman, 1959).

Inuwa (2016) sought to establish the relationship between Job Satisfaction and performance of non-academic staff of Bauchi State University Gadau, Nigeria. The study adopted a cross sectional survey design. Questionnaires were used to collect data from 270 respondents who were selected using systematic random sampling technique. Data analysis employed both descriptive and inferential statistics. In addition to Pearson correlation that revealed a significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and employee performance, multiple regression analysis indicated that Job Satisfaction is positively and significantly correlated to employee performance with ($\beta = 0.710$; $t = 1.647$, $p = 0.005$). This indicates that an enhancement of Job Satisfaction leads to increased performance. The study did not specify the indicators of Job Satisfaction that it considered. The focus was on non-academic staff of a university.

All the seven studies (Ezeanyim, Ufoaroh and Ajakpo, 2019; Buntaran, Andika & Alfiyana, 2019; Abdulkhaliq & Mohammadali, 2019; Baluyos, Rivera and Baluyos, 2019; Laosebikan, Odepidan, Adetunji & Aderinto, 2018; Lafia, Oravee, Zayun & Kokona., 2018 and Inuwa, 2016) relate Job Satisfaction to employee performance in various contexts. Six of the studies are in contexts other than public (state) universities except Inuwa (2016) whose focus was, however, on non-academic staff. This differentiates it from the current study whose focus is on the (academic staff). While the rest of the researchers, who used different facets of Job Satisfaction, demonstrated that Job Satisfaction had a positive significant relationship with

employee performance, Baluyos, Rivera and Baluyos (2019) found out that relationship with colleagues, working conditions, pay, responsibility, work itself, advancement and recognition had no effect on teachers' work performance – the equivalent of Performance of Academic Staff in the current study. This is hints to mixed results.

None of the reviewed studies conformed to the facets of Job Satisfaction such as: Achievement; Recognition; Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity; Work Itself and Working Conditions; Comfort With Pay and Benefits; and Company Policy and Administration (Hezberg and Snyderman, 1959; Siddique and Bisaria, 2021)

comprehensively in their varying contexts. Similarly, none of the studies investigated the measures of specific to the Performance of Academic Staff such as: Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Community Engagement and Other Contributions; and Administration and Responsibilities (CUE, 2014b).

2.2.5 Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff

Baron and Kenny (1986) define a moderator as a quantitative or qualitative variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable. In the context of correlational analysis framework, a moderator is a third variable that affects zero-order correlation between two other variables. In the analysis of variance, a basic moderator effect can be represented as an interaction between a focal independent variable and a factor that specifies the appropriate conditions for its operation. Moderation analysis is aimed at unravelling hidden effects in relationships.

Moderating influence of Job Satisfaction which is hypothesized in the proposed study is premised on the correlation between human resource management practices and Job Satisfaction (Ting, 1997 and Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000) on one hand and the correlation between Job Satisfaction and employee performance (Indermun and Bayat, 2013) on the other hand. Providing further impetus to the hypothesis is Belcourt and Wright (1998) as cited by Myskonva (2011) in their assertion that Job Satisfaction is not only connected to usage of human resources, but also influences the quality and amount of work done.

Review of all the studies that relate all the three constructs of Employee Resourcing Practice (HRPP, RP, SP) to employee performance (Anya, Umoh & Worlu, 2017; Karia, Omari, Mwanaongoro & Ondieki, 2016; Ogunyomi & Ojikutu, 2014; Katua, Mukulu & Gachunga, 2014; Kamande & Gachunga, 2014; Abdula, Ahsan & Alam, 2009; Maina & Kwasira, 2015; Mbiu & Nzulwa, 2018; Anyadike, 2013; Saifalislam, Osman & AlQudah, 2014; Suwanto & Subyantoro, 2019; Rahmany, 2018; Murage, Sang & Ngure, 2018; Oaya, Ogbu & Remilekun, 2017; Suntanto & Kurniawan, 2016; Ombui Mukulu & Waititu, 2014; Mokaya, Mukhweso & Njuguna, 2013; Matolo, Iravo & Waititu, 2019; Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije & Akintan, 2018; Onyaeghala & Hyacinth, 2016; Makhmara, Waiganjo & Kwasira, 2016; Mwangale, Gachunga & Mukhweso, 2015; & Fahad, Nadeem & Sahu, 2014; Munialo & Simiyu, 2019; Ekwaoba, Ikeije & Ufoma, 2015; Afiriye & Blankson, 2013) demonstrate a direct relationship between certain aspects of HRP, recruitment, selection, and employee performance. However, none of them investigated the potential moderating influence of Job Satisfaction in the respective relationships. In addition, the independent variables (HRP, Recruitment and Selection) did not account for 100% variance in employee performance, with a majority contributing less than 60% variation in employee performance (the least contributed 14.6% variation). This creates the impression that other extraneous factors play some possible role in the equation and, therefore, grants favour to the hypothesis that Job Satisfaction could be a moderator in such relationships.

Kim, Cable, Kim and Wang (2009) advise that moderating variables be considered on the strength of theoretical support and that the choice of a moderator be guided by logical reasoning as well as prior theoretical support that justifies why the identified variable would affect the hypothesized relationships between a set of variables. Job Satisfaction was specifically chosen as a moderator because of its bidirectional relationship with the both human resource practices and employee performance. Theoretically, Job Satisfaction plays an important role in employee performance (Dugguh and Ayaga (2014); Indermun and Bayat, 2013; Gu and Chi 2009). Similarly, human resource practices have demonstrated a close association with Job Satisfaction (Ting, 1997). Sound human resource practices enhance Job Satisfaction and subsequently organizational performance (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000). Kaplan and Norton (2001); Copeland, Koller and Murrin (1991); Lamming and Bessant (1995) and Belcourt and Wright (1998) as cited in Myskonva (2011) agree that Job Satisfaction is connected to usage of human resources and subsequently influences the quality and amount of work done.

The following three perspectives explain the importance of assessing Job Satisfaction in this study: the humanitarian perspective, which suggests fair and respectful treatment of employees; the utilitarian perspective which holds that both Job Satisfaction and dissatisfaction can potentially influence employees' behavior significantly and pose greater ramifications on the functioning and activities of the organization's business. The third perspective vouches for the evaluation of Job Satisfaction in different organizational units since it can facilitate a boost in performance by spelling out necessary organizational unit changes (Spector, 1997).

Some studies have, however, investigated either the mediating or moderating role of Job Satisfaction in varied context. Jain, Chawla, Arya, Agarwal and Agarwal (2019) examined the impact of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between human resource management practices (HRM) and employee performance at Bharti Airtel Limited Telecommunication in Moradabad region, Uttar Pradesh – India. The HRM practices incorporated rewards, fairness and work environment. The study adopted a qualitative approach that was implemented by survey. The sample population consisted of 362 employees who were randomly selected and primary data obtained from them by use of questionnaire. Multiple regression analysis revealed that where as Job Satisfaction did not significantly moderate the relationship between reward and employee performance, it positively and significantly moderated the relationship between fairness and employee performance while negatively and significantly moderating the relationship between work environment and employee performance. Ordinarily, when Job Satisfaction is introduced an environment that is conducive for work, employee performance is often enhanced. The negative finding is thus controvertible. Much as Employee Resourcing Practices are components of human resource management practices, the specific practices that were investigated by these researchers differ from the ones in the current study, namely: Human Resource Planning, Recruitment and Selection hence the gap.

Al-dubai, Gopalan, Alaghbari and Hamood (2019) studied the moderating role of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance among telecommunication employees in Sana'a, Yemen. The study used a sample of 260 that was selected from a target population of 800 employees in Public Telecommunication Corporation. Data was collected using questionnaire and subjected to correlation and multiple regression analyses. The results revealed that Job Satisfaction positively and significantly moderated both the relationships between work environment and employee performance as well as fairness and employee performance. It, however, did not moderate the relationship

between reward and employee performance. Just like in Jain *et. al* (2019), the HRM practices that this study examined, were rewards, fairness and work environment which are different from the ones in the current study, namely: Human Resource Planning, Recruitment and Selection hence the gap

Khan, Yusoff, Hussain and Ismail (2019) empirically investigated the mediating effect of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between human resource (HR) practices and employee job performance in the context of higher education sector in Malaysia. The HR practices were recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and compensation. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design that employed questionnaire as data collection tool. Primary data was collected from 300 teaching staff selected using simple random sampling technique. Structural Equation Modelling and Confirmatory Factor Analysis were used in data analysis. Job Satisfaction was revealed to significantly (fully) mediate the relationship between HR practices and employee job performance. While recruitment and selection were used as proxies of HR practices, in the context of public universities, in a similar way to the current study that treats them as facets of Employee Resourcing Practices, the researchers tested mediation and not moderation as in the current study. Furthermore, HRP which is used as an indicator of employee resourcing was ignored. The finding revealed that Job Satisfaction significantly mediated the relationship of between HR practices and employee job performance

Mira, Choong and Thim (2019) analyzed the mediating effect of human resource management (HRM) practices and employee's Job Satisfaction on employee performance at Saudi Ports Authority in Saudi Arabia. The HRM practices comprised training and development, reward, job analysis, social support, recruitment and selection, employee relations and empowerment. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design. Using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) formula, a sample population of 367 cargo employees was derived from a target population of 8,000. Convenience sampling was used to access the respondents and survey questionnaire used to collect data from them. Structural Equation Modelling that was evaluated by path co-efficient, co-efficient of determination (R^2) effect size (f^2) and model fit was used in data analysis. The results revealed that Job Satisfaction had no mediating effect on employee performance. The researchers tested mediation and not moderation as in the current study. Apart from recruitment and selection that were used as proxies of HRM practices, HRP was ignored.

Qureshi, Thebo, Shaikh, Brohi and Qaiser (2019) investigated the nexus of employees' commitment, Job Satisfaction, and job performance using Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) industries as a case. The study strove to examine the role of normative organizational commitment, affective organizational commitment, and continuous organizational commitment in predicting individual's Job Satisfaction, which leads to job performance. Structural Equation Modelling revealed a significant association between the three forms of commitment and Job Satisfaction, in addition to a significant positive relationship between Job Satisfaction and job performance of employees. Notable is the fact that Job Satisfaction was not used as a moderator. Employees' commitment as an independent variable is different from those in the current study's employee resourcing.

Uzun and Ozdem (2017) examined the mediating role of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between teachers' perceptions of supervisor support and job performances. Two hundred and six primary school teachers were drawn from different schools in the Provincial Centre of Giresun via simple random sampling. Forms containing pre-determined supervisor, Job Satisfaction and job performance scales were used to collect data. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to determine mediation. The findings revealed that Job Satisfaction fully mediated the relationship between teachers' perceptions of supervisor support and job performances. The researchers tested mediation. The independent variable also differs from the independent variable of the current study.

Gooshki and Hasanzadesh (2013) conducted a study on Job Satisfaction as a mediator in the relationship between involvement management and job performance among bank employees in Kerman. Descriptive and correlational research design was adopted. One hundred and ninety (190) respondents in the age bracket of 35-50 years were randomly selected from amongst the employees of Kerman Banks and self-administered scales used to collect data. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used in data analysis. The results of multiple regression analysis revealed that Job Satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between involvement management and job performance. The researchers tested mediation. The dependent variable also differs from the dependent variable of the current study.

All the reviewed studies employ Job Satisfaction as a third variable in a range of contexts. While Khan, Yusoff, Hussain and Ismail (2019); Jain, Chawla, Arya, Agarawal and Agarawal (2019); Mira, Choong and Thim (2019) and Al-dubai, Gopalan, Alaghbari and Hamood (2019) related it to HRM practices (which incorporates Employee Resourcing

Practices) and employee performance, Qureshi, Thebo, Shaikh, Brohi and Qaiser (2019) related to employees' commitment and job performance; Uzun and Ozdem (2017) related it to teachers perception of supervisor support and job performance, as Gooshky and Hansanzadesh (2013) related it to involvement management and job performance. Consequently, the studies by Qureshi, Thebo, Shaikh, Brohi and Qaiser (2019); Uzun and Ozdem (2017); and Gooshky and Hansanzadesh (2013) are premised on independent variables other than Employee Resourcing Practices which is the focus of the current study.

While the current study focused on the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction, Khan, Yusoff, Hussain and Ismail (2019); Mira, Choong and Thim (2019); Uzun and Ozdem (2017) and Gooshky and Hasanzadesh (2013) investigated the mediating role of Job Satisfaction in the relationship between diverse variables. Qureshi, Thebo, Shaikh, Brohi and Qaiser (2019) examined Job Satisfaction as an ordinary second independent variable and not a moderator or mediator.

Whereas Jain, Chawla, Arya, Agarwal and Agarwal (2019) and Al-dubai, Gopalan, Alaghbari and Hamood (2019) examined Job Satisfaction as a moderating variable in the relationship between HRM practices (whose proxies were reward, fairness and work environment in both cases) and employee performance, their findings conflict. According to the Jain *et al.* (2019), Job Satisfaction positively and significantly moderated the relationship between fairness and employee performance, as it negatively and significantly moderated the relationship between work environment and employee performance. Al-dubai *et al.* (2019), who appeared to have replicated the study in a different country (Yemen), established that Job Satisfaction positively and significantly moderated the relationship between both work environment and employee performance, and fairness and employee performance. Moreover, none of studies used exactly the same proxies of HRM practices as HRP, Recruitment and Selection as in the current study much as HRM practice is a broader concept from which Employee Resourcing Practices is drawn,.

Consequently, none of the reviewed studies investigated the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter entails the research design, study area, target population, sample size and sample selection, data collection methods, analysis and presentation.

3.1 Research Paradigm

According to Robson (2011), research design begins with the selection of the topic and a paradigm. A paradigm, also called worldview, implies a basic set of beliefs that guide action. The beliefs determine whether one adopts a qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods approach in their research (Creswell, 2009). The study's topic is Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities and the major objective is to to examine the nexus between Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Robson (2011) opines that a paradigm not only provides the research with an idea of assumptions about the social world, but also guides on how a study should be conducted. It suggests legitimate problems, solutions and criteria of proof. Paradigms, therefore, encompass both theories and methods.

Creswell (2009) identifies four different worldviews: Post-positivist/positivist, social construction, advocacy/participatory and pragmatic worldviews. The post-positivist assumptions represent the traditional form of research that holds true more for quantitative research than qualitative research. It holds a deterministic philosophy in which causes probably determine effects or outcomes. Thus, the problems studied by post-positivists reflect the need to identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes. It reduces ideas into small, discrete set of ideas to test, such as the variables that comprise hypotheses and research questions. The social constructivism which is often combined with interpretivism is typically seen as an approach to qualitative research. Social constructivists hold the assumption that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work by developing varied and multiple subjective meanings of their experiences leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The advocacy/participatory worldview holds that research inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and a political agenda and focuses on the needs of groups and individuals in the society that may be marginalized or disenfranchised. Pragmatism as a worldview arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (as in postpositivism)

and is a philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies. Creswell (2014) suggests that a study can adopt a qualitative and/or a quantitative paradigm. The quantitative paradigm is traditional, positivist, experimental or empiricist as opposed to qualitative paradigm that is constructivist, naturalistic, interpretative, post-positivist, experiential or post-modernist (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2009). Creswell (2009) associates quantitative research with correlational studies amongst other experimental and non-experimental designs.

Mbwesa (2006) observes that a considerable body of social science is directed by research methods drawn from the natural sciences, an approach she refers to as positivism. Positivism aims to discover law using quantitative methods and emphasizes empirical facts. It assumes that there is a single objective reality, which can be ascertained by senses and tested subject to the laws of the scientific method. The positivist paradigm to scientific inquiry, whose major tenet is formulation and testing of hypothesis, guided this study (Mugenda, 2008). It helped establish the link between Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities.

3.2 Research Design

Kothari (2004) defines research design as the arrangements of the conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. It is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted, and constitutes the blueprint for collection, measurement and analysis of data. Chava and Nachmias (1996) view it as the blueprint that enables the investigator to come up with solutions to the problems and guides him or her in the various stages in the research. Research designs, according to Creswell (2009) refer to plans and procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis.

Cross-sectional correlational survey research design was used in the collection and analysis of data. Correlational research involves collecting data to establish the existence of a relationship between two or more quantifiable variables (Mbwesa, 2006; Cooper and Schindler, 2008). It was adopted to help establish whether there existed a significant association between Employee Resourcing Practices (IV), Job Satisfaction (MV) and Performance of Academic Staff (DV) (Mugenda, 2008; Kothari and Garg, 2014). Correlational design is generally credited for facilitating predictions (Mbwesa, 2006). Rubin and Babbie (2001) define a survey research design as scientific method of inquiry in which

the researcher selects a sample of respondents and administers a standardized research instrument on them. Cross-sectional survey was preferred because it facilitated the collection of data from various cases at the same time hence a variety of views over the same issue captured in a short time. Questionnaire which is recommended by Creswell (2009) to be appropriate in collecting data in cross-sectional studies was administered on the respondents. Creswell (2009) observes that surveys as forms of quantitative strategies can provide quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. The study used individuals (AHOs) as the unit of analysis.

3.3 Study Area

The study focused on fourteen (14) chartered public universities that were established between 2009 and 2019, but spread across the Republic of Kenya. Kenya lies between Latitude: 0° 10' 36.73" N and Longitude: 37° 54' 29.98" E, and on the equator with the Indian Ocean to the South-East, Tanzania to the South, Uganda to the West, South Sudan to the North-West, Ethiopia to the North and Somalia to the North-East. The country was targeted due to the misgivings that Higher Education stakeholders have expressed regarding the quality of education in her universities (Mwiria and Nyukuri, 1994; Ngolovoi, 2006; Wangenge-Ouma, 2007; Gudo, Olel and Oanda (2011); Kaburu and Embeywa (2014) and Ayiro (2015).

The interest in public universities arose from the fact that they account for 72% of the total university teaching staff (Commission for University Education, 2016) besides having greater quality of education challenges compared to private universities (Gudo, Oanda and Olel, 2011; Kaburu and Embeywa, 2014). Besides being established during the massification period which is characterized by soaring student enrollment and coupled with rapid establishment of more public universities (Kaburu and Embeywa, 2014; Misaro, Jonyo and Kariuki, 2013; Owuor, 2012; Jowi, 2003; Scotts, 1995), the 14 chartered public universities established between 2009 and 2019 were targeted because of the staffing challenges they are faced with (Ikama, 2010) and pressure exerted on them to provide employment (Mukhwana, Oure, Too and Some, 2016). The year 2009 marks the period when the student-lecturer ratio became more worrisome (Owuor, 2012) while the last time a public university was chartered was in 2017 (Commission for University Education, 2021) which comes before 2019. The study, therefore, found the universities established in the ten-year period (2009-2019) which ordinarily covers two cycles of a public institution's strategic plan to be more appropriate.

Appendix X lists the thirty one (31) chartered public universities in Kenya from which the fourteen (14) were sampled.

3.4 Target Population

Asiamah, Oteng-Abayie and Mensah (2017) identify three concepts that are related to research population, but are otherwise often misunderstood: general, target and accessible population. They do not only argue for a researcher's sufficient understanding of the study population, but also a clear definition of the same at the stage of documenting the research. They view the general population as the largest group of potential participants of a study in accordance with Banerjee and Chaudhury's (2010) definition that it comprises the entire group about which some information is required to be ascertained. Bartlett *et al.* (2001) and Creswell (2003) opine that it should share at least an attribute of interest as this is what qualifies participants to be population members. Mugenda (2004) defines population as the entire group of individuals, objects or things that share common attributes or characteristics and may or may not be found within the same geographical location while Kothari (2004) views it as incorporating all items in any field of inquiry. Consequently, the population of this study comprised strictly the 8,737 in the thirty one (31) public universities in Kenya as at 20th October, 2019 (See Appendix X).

With respect to target population, Umar (2018) views it as the population of interest in a given study. It is thus the theoretical population. According to Bartlett *et al.* (2001), target population is the group of individuals or participants with specific attributes of interest and relevance. It is, therefore, the part of general population that is left after refinement that eliminates all individuals whose involvement in the study would breach the research goal, assumptions or context. As such, the target population of the current study comprised 1,653 in the fourteen (14) chartered public universities established between 2009 and 2019. Any Academic Staff outside this specification was consequently excluded.

Accessible population is arrived at after eliminating all individuals who may not participate or who cannot be accessed in the course of the study (Bartlett *et al.*, 2001). It constitutes the final group from which data is collected in whole or as a sample. It, therefore, represents the sampling frame. Accordingly, the accessible population of the current study comprised all (census) the 178 AHoDs/ Deans/Directors of schools or faculties in the 14 Chartered Kenyan public universities established between 2009 and 2019 as captured in Table 3.1 that follows.

Table 3.1: Accesible Population

University	Total No. of	Total No. of AHoDs/Accessible Population
Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology	153	20
Laikipia University	101	13
University of Kabianga	167	17
Karatina University	150	14
University of Eldoret	237	20
Kibabii University	98	14
Kirinyaga University	100	06
Machakos University	150	21
Murang'a University of Technology	121	12
Rongo University	109	14
Taita Taveta University	70	07
The Co-operative University of Kenya	66	05
University of Embu	100	10
Garissa University	31	5
TOTAL	1,653	178

Source: Preliminary Survey, 2019

3.5 Sample Design and Size

Kothari (2004) defines sample design as a definite plan for obtaining a sample from a given population. It is the technique or procedure that a researcher adopts in selecting items for a sample. It may guide the number of items to be included in the sample (i.e. sample size). Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2017) decry the advancement of a false dichotomy with regards to sampling schemes available to quantitative and qualitative researchers. They opine that while random sampling is typically linked to quantitative research and non-random sampling associated with qualitative research (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005), random sampling can indeed be used in qualitative research (Carrese, Mullaney and Faden, 2002) and non-random sampling techniques used in quantitative studies (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2002).

The study adopted multistage sampling technique which is a development from cluster sampling. It was considered appropriate given that the study was scheduled to cover a large geographical area, which was the entire Republic of Kenya (Kothari and Garg, 2014). Multistage sampling involves selecting the sample in stages (Mbwesa, 2006). The study sample was selected in two stages. In the first stage, the study purposively focused the 14 chartered public universities established between 2009 and 2019 with a population of on 1,653 (its target population) from the general / entire population of 8,737 in the 31 chartered public universities in Kenya as at 20th October, 2019. The universities which were established

during the massification period when student enrolment soared and the number of public universities rapidly increased from 17 to 31 within a span of 10 years compared to 17 universities in 38 years (Kaburu and Embeywa, 2014; Misaro, Jonyo and Kariuki, 2013; Owuor, 2012; Jowi, 2003; Scotts, 1995) were selected on the basis of the staffing challenges they are faced with (Ikama, 2010; Kagundu and Marwa, 2017) and the pressure exerted on them to employ (Mukhwana *et al.*, 2016) both of which are in the domain of Employee Resourcing Practices. The year 2009 was identified by Owuor (2012) as the year in which the student-lecturer ratio became more worrisome. The year 2019 was chosen to cover two cycles of a university strategic plan and, at the same time, covering the period that the last public university was chartered (i.e. 2017). The universities were: Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology, Laikipia University, University of Kabianga, Karatina University, University of Eldoret, Kibabii University, Kirinyaga University, Machakos University, Murang'a University of Technology, Rongo University, Taita Taveta University, the Cooperative University of Kenya, University of Embu and Garissa University (see Table 3.1 and Appendix X).

In the second stage, a census of all the academic heads of departments (AHOds) totalling to 178 in the 14 chartered public universities (see Table 3.1) was taken on the basis of the researcher's judgement. The choice of AHOds, who are a "hybrid" of academic staff and administrators, was informed by their participation in HRP, recruitment, selection decisions and other employee procurement activities, and buttressed by the virtue of them being the immediate supervisors of the thus better placed to monitor and assess their satisfaction and performance. Moreover, the AHOds, who represent academic staff at the respective university senates, also play a significant role in facilitating academic staffs' satisfaction on the job in an attempt to enhance their performance. They also play an active role in formulation, approval, implementation and evaluation of university policies, procedures and practices that govern daily operations (including those on JS. Their choice was further qualified by the fact that they are representative of most categories of academic staff considering that they are drawn from disparate ages, gender, academic positions or ranks and qualifications across the universities in addition to being academic staff themselves. The deans and directors of schools and institutes that were not established as departments under existing schools or faculties were considered the AHOds. Given their limited number, a census of 158 AHOds was used after conducting a pilot study on 20 AHOds from Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology (JOOUST). From the population of 14

universities, JOOUST was selected using simple random sampling technique. Monette, Sullivan and Dejong (2002) suggest that a sample of 20 respondents is sufficient for pilot testing in a survey. Table 3.3 that follows demonstrates the use of multistage sampling in the selection of study sample.

Table 3.2: Multistage Sampling Procedure

Stage	No. of Universities	Total No. of	Population Type	Sampling Technique
	31 Chartered Kenyan Public Universities.	8,737	General/Study Population	Entire population of
1.	14 Chartered Kenyan Public Universities established between 2009 and 2019.	1, 653	Target Population	Purposive Sampling
2.	14 Chartered Kenyan Public Universities established between 2009 and 2019.	178 (A census of AHoDs/Deans/Directors)	Accessible Population	Census of AHODs (informed by researcher's judgement to be representative all)

Source: Preliminary Survey, 2019

3.6: Response Rate

Table 3.2 which summarizes the response rate demonstrates that the questionnaires were adequate for analysis.

Table 3.3: Response Rate

Respondents	Questionnaires administered	Questionnaires filled and returned	Return rate (%)
	158	136	86.1

Source: Survey Data (2020)

The questionnaires were administered on 158 Academic Heads of Departments (AHoDs) from 13 Kenyan public universities, having used 20 from Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology in pilot study. Out of this number, a total of 136 questionnaires were returned, translating to an overall response rate of 86.1%. While the researcher had targeted 100% response rate, this was inhibited by the closure of universities that was occasioned by the emergence of Covid-19 pandemic. However, the response rate of 86.1% was still considered excellent based on a recommendation by Creswell (2014) that a response rate of 50% is adequate; 60% is good and; 70% and above is excellent for analysis

and reporting in a survey study. It was, therefore, deemed sufficiently representative of the target population. The response rate recorded was attributed to the fact that the questionnaires were either personally administered by the researcher to the respondents or mailed to the respondents with the assistance of key persons in the respective universities. This was further enhanced by repeat reminders during the prolonged duration of closure that was occasioned Covid-19. In addition, the researcher identified dedicated individuals within the universities who often prompted the individual respondents to fill in and mail back the questionnaires.

3.7 Data Collection Methods

In this section, data sources, data collection procedure and data collection instrument are presented. In addition, tests for reliability and validity of the instruments are discussed.

3.7.1 Data Type and Sources

Data are categorized as being primary or secondary. Primary data are collected afresh and for the first time, and thus original in character while secondary data are those which have been collected, and processed statistically (Kothari and Garg, 2014). Both primary and secondary data were collected in the context of this study. Primary data was collected from the respective AHoDs using semi-structured questionnaires while secondary data extracted from journal articles, human resource records, audit reports, relevant books and institutional websites. Cooper and Schindler (2008) merit primary data for their proximity to the truth and control over error. According to Bowditch and Buono (2000), primary data are generated from a survey executed through the questionnaire method to fulfil the purpose of research. The questionnaire comprised both Simple Attitude and Likert-type Scales. Under simple attitude scale, both simple category scale (dichotomous scale) and multiple-choice, single-response scale was used particularly in demographic profile. The advantages of simple attitude scale include ease to develop, cheapness and specificity. They also provide useful information and are adequate if developed skilfully (Cooper and Schindler, 2008).

Owing to the differing degree of the attributes of the respective variables that were measured, interval scale was used in Section B which gathered data on Employee Resourcing Practices Practice; Section C which gathered data on Job Satisfaction and Section D which gathered data on Performance of Academic Staff. Interval scale has the power of nominal and ordinal scales besides incorporating the concept of equality of interval (Cooper and Schindler, 2008; Mugenda, 2008). Specifically, a five point Likert-type scale was developed to score the responses, except for Part A that gathered data on the demographic characteristics of the

respondents and departments. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), Likert scale is the most frequently used variation of the summated rating scale. It consists of statements that express either a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the object of interest. Likert-type scales are preferable because they are easy to construct; are more reliable given that respondents answer each statement included in the instrument and can be used in respondent-centred and stimulus-centred studies (Kothari, 2004). Cooper and Schindler (2008) merit Likert scale for reliability and provision of a greater volume of data compared to other scales.

3.7.2 Data Collection Procedures

Prior to the administration of the data collection instrument (Appendix IX), the researcher first obtained authorization to collect data from the School of Graduate Studies, Maseno University (Appendix IV); Maseno University Ethical Review Committee (Appendix V); and research permit from NACOSTI (Appendix VI). Permission to collect data was then sought and obtained from the administration of the respective universities that comprised the study sample (Appendix VII). To expedite this process, copies of the authorizations, research permit and a draft questionnaire were attached to the application to authenticate the purpose of the study. This was followed by an informal familiarization visit to the targeted universities to create rapport and locate the relevant offices, and respondents. It is at this point that the researcher obtained tentative dates and time for the administration of the questionnaires at the convenience of the respondents.

The research questionnaire had hitherto been given to a panel of seven experts, in consultation with the researcher's supervisors, for review. The seven experts comprised three human resource management faculty experts, two research methodology experts and two human resource management practitioners all drawn from different accredited universities and industries in Kenya. Having incorporated their suggestions which included summarizing the items that were considered wordy, use of common words, reconstruction of poorly constructed item and blending of negative and positive statements in the questionnaire items, it was then piloted on twenty (20) AHoDs drawn from Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology and their suggestions incorporated too. Monette, Sullivan and Dejong (2002) suggest that a sample of 20 respondents is sufficient for pilot testing in a survey. Accordingly, the questionnaire items were adjusted for reliability and validity based on the pilot results and the AHoDs suggestions. All the proposals that were advanced by the AHoDs were considered. They included shortening of the questionnaire by omitting redundant and overlapping items, simplifying items, summarizing items that appeared

verbose; reconstructing poorly constructed items; and elimination of ambiguities. Pilot study, according to Orodho (2005), helps determine both the validity and reliability of the research instruments. The AHoDs who were used in piloting were ultimately excluded from the main study. For further verification, the instrument and the pilot results were examined by the thesis supervisors, three human resource management faculty experts and two research methodology experts and adjudged fit for actual data collection. Consequently, the questionnaire and its attachments were either sent electronically or personally distributed to the respondents with a request to have them filled in within two weeks. Follow up calls were made after every two weeks and e-mails sent for four months (owing to the disruption of university academic calendar by the Covid 19 pandemic) to prompt the respondents who had not filled in the questionnaires. The returned questionnaires were then verified for completeness and respondents requested to fully process the incomplete ones. Secondary data were obtained by conducting literature search on journal articles obtained from the Internet and CUE audit reports on university staffing, academic ranking and performance. Secondary data helped with the framing of the questionnaire items and in drawing conclusions. Institutional websites and human resource records obtained from the departments were used to populate the lists of AHoDs and the total number of therein. Relevant books were used to frame the questionnaire scales and items.

3.7.3 Data Collection Instruments

According to Mbwesa (2006) and Cooper and Schindler (2008), correlational research involves collection of data to determine if a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. where surveys are performed; whether sample or census, primary data can be obtained either through observation or through direct communication with respondents in one form or another or through personal interviews. Amongst these options, Kothari and Garg (2014) describe the questionnaire as the heart of a survey operation. Consequently, semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect data from the AHoDs. The questionnaire was divided into four sections as follows:

Section A collected such data on the Demographic Profiles of respondents and departments as: the name of the University and department (Optional); the age of the University; the age, gender, highest qualification, academic ranking, administrative position and experience of the respondent. Section B which was divided into three parts collected data on Employee Resourcing Practices. Specifically, Part I collected data on Human Resource Planning Practice in accordance with the following dimensions, as listed in the conceptual framework:

Scenario Planning (the assessment of possible scenarios that may affect the number and quality of it currently has in a timely manner); Business Plans (influence of strategic plans on human resource plans); Demand Forecasting (use of (an) established demand forecasting technique(s) to determine the number and type of that the University may need in future); Supply Forecasting (development of academic staff in order to maintain a steady supply of senior academic staff should vacancies arise in the University); Forecasting Future Requirements (ability to foresee future deficits and surpluses of in a timely manner); Action Planning (prioritizing learning and development programmes to prepare current for envisaged vacancies) amongst others.

Part II collected data on Recruitment Practice in accordance with the following dimensions as listed in the conceptual framework: Examining Vacancy (ensuring that job descriptions comply with the requirements of the Commission for University Education before publicizing vacancies); Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates (my University uses the best media to publicize vacancies of) amongst others..

Part III collected data on Selection Practice in accordance with the following dimensions, as listed in the conceptual framework: Candidate's Assessment (use of the Commission for University Education's standards or any other in the shortlisting of candidates for the position of Academic Staff); Candidate's Choice and Offer of Employment (the role of expert panellist's opinion in the choice of a candidate and offer of employment) amongst others.

Section C collected data on Job Satisfaction determinants that follow: Achievement, Recognition, Responsibility, Advancement Opportunity, Work Itself and Working Conditions, Comfort With Pay and Benefits, and Company Policy And Administration while Section D data on Performance of Academic Staff using measures such as: Quality of Teaching and Learning, Research and Publication, Administration and Responsibilities, Community Engagement and Other Contributions. The questionnaires were preferable because they eliminated interviewer bias; gave respondents time to come up with well thought out responses; and facilitated access to physically inaccessible respondents (Kothari and Garg, 2014). (See appendix IX).

3.7.4 Reliability Tests

According to Cooper and Schindler (2008), a measure is reliable to the degree that it supplies consistent results. It is concerned with estimates of the degree to which a measurement is free of random or unstable error. Reliable instruments can be used with confidence that transient

(temporary) and situational factors are not interfering. Mugenda (2008) defines reliability as a measure of the degree to which a research instrument would yield the same results or data after repeated trials. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) posit that reliability is related to validity in the sense that an instrument cannot be valid unless it is reliable. Reliability, however, does not depend on validity.

Huck (2007) in Tardehoost (2016) advocates for the testing of reliability as it ensures consistency across the parts of a measuring instrument. Internal consistency describes the extent to which all items in a test measure the same concept or construct and hence connected to inter-relatedness of the items within a test (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). High internal consistency of a scale, according to Huck (2007) and Robinson (2009), is manifested in its items “hanging together” and measuring the same construct. The study employed Cronbach’s alpha coefficient analysis (with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software) to examine the internal consistency of the measures since it is the most reliable test of inter-item consistency reliability for Likert scaled or rating scaled measures (Whitley, 2002; Robinson, 2009). McMillan and Schumacher (2006) fortify the choice of Cronbach’s alpha in their assertion that it is the most appropriate test for reliability in survey research.

Cronbach’s Alpha is expressed as a number between 0 and 1 (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). Aila *et al.* (2012) hold that the closer the Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient is to 1, the higher the internal consistency and reliability. Whereas there seems to be no absolute rules for internal consistency as argued by Hinton *et al.* (2004), most scholars peg their minimum coefficient at 0.7 as the general rule of thumb (Whitley, 2002; Robinson, 2009; and Aliata *et al.*, 2012). George and Mallery (2003) whose proposition the study adopted rate the alpha values as follows: between 0.8 and 0.9 as Excellent; between 0.7 and 0.8 as Good; between 0.6 and 0.7 as Acceptable; between 0.5 and 0.6 as Questionable; and below 0.5 as Unacceptable. Notably, they caution that alpha values exceeding 0.90 are indicative of redundancy of items and need to shorten the test length.

With respect to this study, the reliability for multi-item opinion items were computed separately for each of the sub-scales in the questionnaires and the coefficient alpha of these variables reported as in Table 3.4

Table 3.4: Internal Consistency: Cronbach's Alpha Results for the Questionnaire

Scale	No. Items	Cronbach's	Item (s)	Conclusion (Reliable/Unreliable)
Human Resource Planning Practice				
Business Plans and Scenario Planning	4	.798	None	Acceptable
Demand Forecasting	4	.873	1	Good
Supply Forecasting	4	.709	None	Acceptable
Forecasting Future Requirements & Action Planning	4	.834	None	Good
Recruitment Practice				
Examination of Vacancy	4	.736	1	Acceptable
Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates	4	.891	None	Good
Selection Practice				
Candidates' Assessment	4	.768	None	Acceptable
Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment	4	.702	None	Acceptable
Job Satisfaction				
Achievement	4	.871	None	Good
Recognition	4	.875	None	Good
Responsibility	3	.858	None	Good
Advancement Opportunity	3	.797	None	Good
Comfort with Pay and Benefits	3	.833	None	Good
Company Policy and Administration	3	.738	None	Acceptable
Work Itself and Working Conditions	6	.840	None	Good
Performance of Academic Staff				
Quality of Teaching and Learning	6	.718	1	Acceptable
Research and Publication	5	.842	None	Good
Community Engagement and other Contribution	4	.701	None	Acceptable
Mean overall scale reliability		0.796		Acceptable

Scale: Alpha 0.8-0.9 (Excellent); 0.7-0.8 (Good); 0.6-0.7 (Acceptable); 0.5-0.6 (Questionable); and < 0.5 (Unacceptable). (George and Mallery, 2003) **Source:** Survey Data (2020).

Table 3.4 reveals that all the sub-scales attained the recommended level of internal consistency of reliability considering the Cronbach's alpha values ranging from a low of 0.701 (Community Engagement and Other Contributions) to a high of 0.891 (Locating,

Making Contact and Attracting Candidates). The instrument thus had adequate reliability for the study with all the items hanging out well with others in all the sub-scales. They were all within the acceptable range of 0.70 to 0.9, as recommended by Tavakol and Dennick (2011) and George and Mallery (2003). In addition, with an overall scale reliability of 0.796 and a standard deviation of 0.067, the instrument is of an acceptable reliability standard.

3.7.5 Validity Tests

Validity is the extent to which a test measures what it is actually supposed to measure (Cooper and Schindler, 2008; Mbweza, 2006). It is the accuracy of a measure or the extent to which a score truthfully measures a concept (Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin, 2010). Creswell (2014), as cited by Aila and Ombok (2015), asserts that validity is at the heart of study believability. Validity is largely determined by the presence or the absence of systematic error (Mbweza, 2006). According to Drost (2011), there are four types of validity that researchers should consider: statistical conclusion validity, internal validity, construct validity and external validity. Cook and Campbell (1979) define statistical conclusion validity as inferences about whether it is reasonable to presume co-variation given specific alpha level and the obtained variances. With respect to internal validity, Drost (2011) explains that it communicates the validity of the research itself thus determining how valid a research is.

Trochim (2006) in Drost (2011) defines construct validity as how well a concept, idea, or behaviour – that is a construct – has been translated or transformed into a functioning and operating reality, the operationalization. Zikmund *et al.* (2010) assert that construct validity exists when a measure reliably measures and truthfully represents a unique concept. Construct validity is established by the degree to which the measure confirms a network of related hypotheses generated from a theory based on the concepts (Mbweza, 2006). External validity implies generalizing it to other persons, settings, and at times not necessarily to the target population (Aila and Ombok, 2015). According to Turocy (2002), Trochim (2006), Zikmund *et al.* (2010); Drost (2011) and Aila and Ombok (2015), construct validity is expressed in six validity types: face validity, content validity, concurrent and predictive validity, and convergent and discriminant validity.

Face validity, according to Drost (2011) is a subjective judgement on the operationalization of a construct and often viewed as a weak form of construct validity. It implies a researcher's subjective assessments on how presentable, relevant, reasonable, unambiguous and clear the measuring instrument is (Oluwatayo, 2012) as cited in Hamed (2016). Content validity, on

the other hand, is a qualitative type of validity where the domain of the concept is made clear and the analyst judges whether the measures fully represent the domain (Bollen, 1989) in Drost (2011).

Concurrent validity refers to the ability of a test to predict an event in the present while predictive validity the ability of a test to measure some event or outcome in the future (Drost 2011). Thus, concurrent validity assesses a newly developed questionnaire against a highly rated one that already exists while predictive validity assesses the ability of a questionnaire to forecast future events, behaviour, attitudes or outcomes. Convergent validity tests for convergence across different measures or manipulations of the same “thing” while discriminant validity tests for divergence between measures and manipulations of related but conceptually distinct “things” (Cook and Campbell, 1979) in Drost (2011). In convergent validity, different measures of the same concept are used to yield similar results. However, this study generally focused on content and construct validity by virtue of their relevance herein.

Consequently, to ascertain content validity, literature search was conducted to ensure that the items in the questionnaire were within the domain of the study concepts as defined by the researcher (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008; Drost, 2011) and corroborated by a panel of experts (Cooper and Schindler, 2008; Drost, 2011; Aila & Ombok, 2015). The seven experts comprised three human resource management faculty experts, two research methodology experts and two human resource management practitioners all drawn from different accredited universities and industries in Kenya. Dev Von, Block, Moyle-Wright, Ernst Hayden and Lazzara (2007), as cited by Abongo (2015), suggest that content validity may be undertaken by seven or more experts. In consultation with the thesis supervisors, the experts’ suggestions which included summarizing the questionnaire items that were considered wordy, adoption of common words, reconstruction of poorly constructed items, and blending of negative and positive statements in the questionnaire items were incorporated.

Construct validity, on the other hand, was conducted using Pearson Product Moment Correlations with the aid of SPSS version 21.0. According to Western and Robert (2003), researchers typically establish construct validity by presenting correlations between a measure of a construct and a number of other measures that should, theoretically, be associated with it (convergent validity) or vary independently of it (discriminant validity). Consequently, the test was done by correlating scores of each item in the sub-scale with the

total score. Items of the sub-scale that significantly correlated with total score of the sub-scale indicated that the items were valid. Generally, the higher the validity coefficient the more beneficial it is to use the test. Saad, Carter, Rothernberg and Israelson (1999) propose a general guideline for interpreting the validity coefficients as in Table 3.5 that follows and the results summarized as in Table 3.6.

Table 3.5: General Guidelines for Interpreting Validity Coefficients

Validity Coefficient Value	Interpretation
above .35	Very beneficial
.21 - .35	likely to be useful
.11 - .20	Depends on circumstances
Below .11	Unlikely to be useful

Source: Saad, Carter, Rothernberg and Israelson (1999)

Table 3.6: Pearson Product Moment Correlation for Test Validity of Questionnaire

Scale	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Item9
Human Resource Planning Practice									
Business Plans And Scenario Planning	.348*	.782**	.631**	.504**	-	-	-	-	-
Demand Forecasting	.684**	.659**	.729**	.268*	-	-	-	-	-
Supply Forecasting	.768**	.699**	.628**	0.114*	-	-	-	-	-
Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning	.764**	.859**	.671**	0.024	-	-	-	-	-
Recruitment Practice									
Examination of Vacancy	.796**	.788**	.633**	.563**	-	-	-	-	-
Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates	.477**	.514**	.385*	.637**	-	-	-	-	-
Selection Practice									
Candidates' Assessment	.619**	.803**	.787**	.827**	-	-	-	-	-
Candidates' Choice & Offer of Employment	.481**	.566**	.665**	.644**	-	-	-	-	-
Job Satisfaction									
Achievement	.754**	.847**	.800**	.890**	-	-	-	-	-
Recognition	.853**	.825**	.859**	.875**	-	-	-	-	-
Responsibility	.884**	.719**	.843**	-	-	-	-	-	-
Advancement	.823**	.867**	.848**	-	-	-	-	-	-
Opportunity	.805**	.893**	.898**	.815**	.761**	.799**	-	-	-
Work itself & Working Conditions	.701**	.705**	.806**	-	-	-	-	-	-
Comfort with Pay and Benefits	.809**	.839**	.818**	-	-	-	-	-	-
Company Policy and Administration	.557**	.596**	.580**	.800**	.535**	.558**	.663**	.615**	.647**
Performance of Academic Staff	Item 10	Item 11	Item 12	Item 13	Item 14	Item 15	Item 16	Item 17	Item 18
	.706**	.785**	.634**	.580**	.669**	.678**	.778**	.800**	.581**

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Survey Data (2020).

Based on the significant values obtained by the Sig. (2-tailed) < .05, it is evident that all items in each sub-scale significantly correlated with their sub-scale totals, except for item 4 in the Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning sub-scale. This suggested that all other items in each of the sub-scales, with the exception of item 4 in the Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning sub-scale, were valid. The item was excluded from the

final analysis of the data given that it had failed the validity test. Generally, the questionnaire items were of adequate validity since they significantly correlated with their total sub-scales.

3.8 Data Analysis

The collected data were processed and organized for statistical analysis in the order in which the objectives were stated. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Descriptive statistics, such as frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to summarize and describe the data (the views of the respondents on each sub-scale) while inferential statistics was used to make generalizations and arrive at conclusions. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation was used to determine the magnitude and direction of relationship between variables (Cooper and Schindler, 2008) while multiple regression used to predict the influence of the individual Employee Resourcing Practices (HRP; Recruitment and Selection Practices) on Academic Staffs' Performance; influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff; and moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff. All tests of significance were computed at $\alpha=0.05$. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 aided data analysis. Null hypothesis were tested in the order of the objectives using hypothesized equations (3.1 to 3.6) in the sub-sections 3.7.1 to 3.7.5 that follow.

3.8.1 Data Analysis for Objective One

Objective one sought to establish the influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities. This objective was investigated by testing the null hypothesis that: *Human Resource Planning Practice has no influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities*. Human Resource Planning Practice was measured using four sub-scales, namely: Business Plans and Scenario Planning; Demand Forecasting; Supply Forecasting; and Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning. The data for each of the four sub-scales was collected using a 5-point Likert scaled questionnaire. The Likert scale responses were then converted in continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. Accordingly, the multiple regression model that follows in Equation 3.1 was used to explore the hypothetical influence of the various aspects of Human Resource Planning Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The model was adapted from Cooper and Schindler (2008).

$$LP_i = a_0 + \beta_{1i} X_{1i} + \epsilon_i \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation 3.1}$$

Where:

LP_i = Performance of Academic Staff which is the dependent variable had its data measured using a 5-point Likert scaled items which were converted into continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. The measures of Performance of Academic Staff were: Quality of Teaching and Learning, Research and Publication, Administration and Responsibilities, and Community Engagement and Other Contributions.

X_i ($i=1,2,3,4$) = This is a continuous predictor variable extracted from mean response in each item representing perceived Human Resource Planning Practice in which:

X_1 =Business Plans and Scenario Planning,

X_2 =Demand Forecasting,

X_3 =Supply Forecasting

X_4 =Forecasting Future Requirements & Action Planning

β_{1i} = Represents regression co-efficient which is a vector of parameters to be estimated.

ϵ_i = This represents the error term. The error term is an assumed random variable (real number) with a normal distribution i.e. $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

3.8.2 Data Analysis for Objective Two

The second objective was to establish the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities. This objective was investigated by testing the null hypothesis that: *Recruitment Practice has no significant influence of on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities*. Recruitment Practice was measured using two sub-scales, namely: Examination of Vacancy; and Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates. The data for each of the two sub-scales was collected using a 5-point Likert scaled questionnaire and the responses converted in continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. Accordingly, the multiple regression model that follows in Equation 3.2 was used to explore the hypothetical influence of the two aspects of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities. The model was adapted from Cooper and Schindler (2008).

$$LP_i = a_0 + \beta_{2i} X_{2i} + \epsilon_i \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation 3.2}$$

Where:

LP_i = Performance of Academic Staff which is the dependent variable had its data measured using a 5-point Likert scaled items which were converted into continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. The measures of Performance of Academic Staff were: Quality of Teaching and Learning, Research and Publication, Administration and Responsibilities, and Community Engagement and Other Contributions.

X_{2i} ($i=1,2$) = This is a continuous predictor variable extracted from mean response in each item representing perceived Recruitment Practice in which:

X_{21} =Examination of Vacancy

X_{22} =Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates

B_{2i} = Represents regression co-efficient which is a vector of parameters to be estimated.

ϵ_i = This represents the error term. The error term is an assumed random variable (real number) with a normal distribution i.e. $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

3.8.3 Data Analysis for Objective Three

The third objective was to establish the influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities. This objective was investigated by testing the null hypothesis that: *Selection Practice has no influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities*. Selection Practice was measured using two sub-scales namely: Candidates' Assessment; and Candidate's Choice and Offer of Employment. The data for each of the two sub-scales was collected using a 5- point Likert scaled items and the responses converted in continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. Accordingly, the multiple regression model that follows in Equation 3.3 was used to explore the hypothetical influence of the two aspects of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities. The model was adapted from Cooper and Schindler (2008).

$$LP_i = a_0 + \beta_{3i} X_{3i} + \epsilon_i \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation 3.3}$$

Where:

LP_i = Performance of Academic Staff which is the dependent variable had its data measured using a 5-point Likert scaled items which were converted into continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. The measures of Performance of Academic Staff were: Quality of Teaching and

Learning, Research and Publication, Administration and Responsibilities, and Community Engagement and Other Contributions.

X_{3i} ($i=1,2$) = This is a continuous predictor variable extracted from mean response in each item representing perceived Selection Practice in which:

X_{31} =Candidates' Assessment

X_{32} =Candidate's Choice and Offer of Employment

B_{3i} = Represents regression co-efficient which is a vector of parameters to be estimated.

ϵ_i = This represents the error term. The error term is an assumed random variable (real number) with a normal distribution i.e. $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

3.8.4 Data Analysis for Objective Four

The fourth objective of the study investigated the influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. This objective was investigated by testing the null hypothesis that: *Job Satisfaction has no influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*. Job Satisfaction was measured using seven sub-scales namely: Achievement; Recognition; Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity, Comfort with Pay and Benefits; Company Policy and Administration; and Work Itself and Working Conditions. The data for each of the seven sub-scales was collected using a 5-Likert scaled questionnaire and the responses were converted in continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. Accordingly, the multiple regression model that follows in Equation 3.4 was used to explore the hypothetical influence of the seven facets of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The model was adapted from Cooper and Schindler (2008).

$$LP_i = a_0 + \beta_{4i} X_{4i} + \epsilon_i \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 3.4}$$

Where:

LP_i = Performance of Academic Staff which is the dependent variable had its data measured using a 5-point Likert scaled items which were converted into continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. The measures of Performance of Academic Staff were: Quality of Teaching and Learning, Research and Publication, Administration and Responsibilities, and Community Engagement and Other Contributions.

X_{4i} ($i=1,2,\dots,7$) = This is a continuous predictor variable extracted from mean response in each item representing perceived Job Satisfaction in which:

- X_{41} = Achievement
- X_{42} = Recognition
- X_{43} = Responsibility
- X_{44} = Advancement Opportunity
- X_{45} = Comfort with Pay and Benefits
- X_{46} = Company Policy and Administration
- X_{47} = Work Itself and Working conditions

B_{4i} = Represents regression co-efficient which is a vector of parameters to be estimated.

ϵ_i = This represents the error term. The error term is an assumed random variable (real number) with a normal distribution i.e. $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

3.8.5 Data Analysis for Objective Five

The final objective of the study sought to establish the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities. In this objective, Employee Resourcing Practices was used as the independent variable, Job Satisfaction was the moderator variable while the dependant variable was Performance of Academic Staff. Employee Resourcing Practices was computed as composite value of overall means from its three latent variables (Human Resource Planning Practice, Recruitment Practice and Selection Practice). With the variables, three models were nested in hierarchical regression analysis and used to test the null hypothesis that: *Job Satisfaction has no moderating influence in the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities*. The three models represented by Equations 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 were adapted from Helm and Mark (2012).

Model 1: $LP_i = a_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i$ Equation 3.5

This is a simple linear regression model where only Employee Resourcing Practices was regressed on Performance of Academic Staff in order to estimate the level of their relationship.

Model 2 (Additive Model): $LP_i = a_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 M_{2i} + \epsilon_i$ Equation 3.6

The simple linear regression in Model 1 was expanded to a multiple linear regression model as shown in Equation 3.6. The model involved addition of moderator variable, Job Satisfaction ($\beta_2 M_{2i}$), to the equation.

Where:

LP_i = Performance of Academic Staff which is the dependent variable. It had its data measured using a 5-point Likert scaled items which were converted into continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. The measures of the Performance of Academic Staff were: Quality of Teaching and Learning, Research and Publication, Administration and Responsibilities, and Community Engagement and Other Contributions.

a_0 = Constant

β_1 = Represents regression co-efficient which is a vector of parameters to be estimated.

X_i = is a continuous predictor variable extracted from mean response in each item representing perceived Employee Resourcing Practices.

M = is the moderator variable, that is, Job Satisfaction (JS)

i = represents the variables

ϵ_i = This represents the error term. The error term is an assumed random variable (real number) with a normal distribution i.e. $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

The additive model investigated the relationship between the independent variable (Employee Resourcing Practices), the moderating variable (Job Satisfaction) and dependent variable (Performance of Academic Staff).

Model 3 (Multiplicative Model): $LP_i = a_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 M_{2i} + \beta_3 X_i M_{2i} + \epsilon_i \dots \dots \dots$ Equation 3.7

This model combined independent variable (Employee Resourcing Practices), the potential moderating variable (Job Satisfaction) and the cross product interaction term of the independent and the potential moderating variable. Where:

$X_i M_{2i}$ = is the interaction term between Employees Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction
 β_1, β_2 and β_3 = are the regression coefficients.

In order to confirm that Job Satisfaction had a moderating influence on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff, the study needed to demonstrate that the nature of this relationship changes as the value of the moderating variable (Job Satisfaction) changes. This was done by including an interaction

effect in the model and establishing if indeed such an interaction was significant and helped explain the variation in the Performance of Academic Staff better than before. The regression model (block 2, Equation 3.6) predicting Performance of Academic Staff from both the predictor variable X (Employee Resourcing Practices) and the moderator variable M (Job Satisfaction) had to be significant. In addition, the interaction influence added to the subsequent model (block 3) had to have a significant R^2 change. When the interaction term has a p-value less than .05, it is considered that the moderator variable Job Satisfaction has an influence on the relationship between independent variable (Employee Resourcing Practices) and dependent variable (Performance of Academic Staff). The summary of the methods of analysis of the objectives and measurement of variables are as in Tables 3.7 and 3.8 that follow:

Table 3.7: Summary of Methods of Analysis of Objectives

Objective Statement	Methodology/Analysis
To establish the influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.	Multiple regression model was used establish the influence of Human Resource Planning practice on Performance of Academic Staff. F-test under ANOVA in the regression model was used to test the null hypothesis at $p < .05$.
To determine the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities	Multiple regression model was used establish the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff. F-test under ANOVA in the regression model was used to test the null hypothesis at $p < .05$.
To assess the influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities	Multiple regression model was used establish the influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff. F-test under ANOVA in the regression model was used to test the null hypothesis at $p < .05$.
To examine the influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities	Multiple regression model was used establish the influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff. F-test under ANOVA in the regression model was used to test the null hypothesis at $p < .05$.
To establish the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.	Hierarchical regression method of additive and multiplicative models was used to determine moderation. It entailed the addition of the interaction term in the multiple regression model. The moderator variable and all the three variables were first centred to reduce multicollinearity issues and to make interpretation easier. Centring was done using the scale function, which subtracts the mean of a variable from each value in that variable.

Source: Researcher (2020)

Table 3.8: Measurement of Variables

Variable	Constructs/ Measures/Facets	Dimensions/	Source
Human Resource Planning Practice	Business Plans & Scenario Planning Demand Forecasting Supply Forecasting Forecasting Future Requirements & Action Planning		Armstrong (2009)
Recruitment Practice	Examining Vacancy Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates		Graham & Bennett (1998)
Selection Practice	Candidates' Assessment Candidates' Choice & Offer of Employment		Graham & Bennett (1998)
Job Satisfaction	Achievement Recognition Responsibility Advancement Opportunity Work Itself & Working Conditions Comfort with Pay & Benefits Company Policy & Administration		Hezberg & Snyderman (1959) Armstrong (2009) Graham & Bennett (1998) Siddiqui & Bisaria (2021)
Performance of Academic Staff	Quality of Teaching & Learning Research & Publication Community Engagements & Other Contributions Company Policy & Administration		CUE (2014a; 2014b)

Source: Researcher (2020)

3.9 Data Presentation

Data was presented using text, figures and tables. Text was used to explain the results and trends, and provide contextual information. Tables were used to present both quantitative and qualitative information. Tables helped summarize and compare quantitative information on different variables.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Ethical consideration is a fundamental requirement in research. This has prompted many professional associations and agencies to establish codes and policies that guide researchers on ethical behaviour. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), most higher education institutions have established ethics committees that provide guidelines about ethical practice. These committees aim at protecting research participants, researchers and institutions from

the possibility of adverse publicity or legal action being taken against them. To this end, Maseno University has in place the Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC) that meets regularly to review research proposals for ethical compliance.

Research ethics protects the dignity of participants and facilitate the sharing of the information researched through publications (Fouka and Mantzorou, 2011). Diener and Grandal (1978) as cited in Bryman and Bell (2011) identify four areas of ethical consideration in business research and invites researchers to put them into consideration: harm to participants, deception, lack of informed consent, and invasion of privacy. Harm to participants, according to them, entails physical harm, harm to their development or self-esteem, stress, harm to career prospects or future employability and inducing them to perform “reprehensible” acts. Deception, on the other hand, occurs when a researcher represents their research as something other than what it is. Arminger (1997) defines informed consent in the context of a person knowingly, voluntarily, intelligently, and in a clear and manifest way giving their consent. Privacy, according to Levin (1976) in Fouka and Mantzorou (2011), is the freedom of an individual to determine the time, extent, and general circumstances under which private information will be shared with or withheld from others.

Since this study required the participation of human respondents, the research process observed ethical considerations that guaranteed and upheld the rights and protections of respondents. Following the approval of the proposal by the Board of Graduate Studies, an application was made to the Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC) for ethical clearance, after which permission to conduct the study was obtained from both the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) and the management of the targeted universities. This involved explaining the purpose of the study in addition to the envisaged contribution to industry and theory. The requests/ applications were facilitated by a letter of introduction that was obtained from the Dean, School of Graduate Studies – Maseno University.

Once the permissions were granted, the researcher ensured voluntary participation, as indicated by free and informed consent. To this end, the researcher explained to the respondents the purpose of the study and its benefits to the management of the universities, industry and theory (*beneficence*), any possible risks involved and also guaranteed their confidentiality by observing anonymity. Confidentiality was advanced by designing a questionnaire that made no demand on disclosure of the respondent’s name. Generally,

participation in the study adhered to the principle of willingness and voluntary consent (Mugenda, 2003) in Akaranga and Makau (2016). As part of informed consent, the researcher also observed the respondent's right to autonomy (Beauchamp and Childress, 2001).

In addition, the researcher endeavoured to maintain confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents to guard them against any physical, psychological or emotional and occupational harm (*non-maleficence*). Utmost care was taken in writing research findings and publishing so as not to identify or make identifiable individuals and organizations unless permission was given for data to be passed in a form that identified them. Moreover, the respondents were never forced to divulge information that could cause them anxiety or fear, and data obtained used purely to advance the purpose of the study, and kept out of reach of secondary users.

To guard against deception, the respondents were told the absolute truth about the study including its purpose and the fact that they would not be given any direct benefits for participating. They were, however, informed that the findings of the study would be shared with various stakeholders in the spirit of reciprocity and trust. Right to privacy was safeguarded by explaining to the respondents the nature of information, emanating from the research findings that would be shared with other stakeholders. They were not compelled to provide personal information that they regarded as invasion of privacy. Possible impediments to the right to privacy were resolved by the degree to which informed consent was given by the respondents.

The researcher also guarded against all forms of plagiarism (including self-plagiarism and multiple duplications) by maintaining originality and acknowledging the sources of all borrowed information, expressions, and opinions amongst others. The researcher committed not to publish identical material in two or more publications in addition to making appropriate references to his earlier work should there be need to reuse them (Akaranga and Makau, 2016). Finally, the thesis was tested for plagiarism using anti-plagiarism software that was sanctioned by Maseno University (Turnitin) to ensure compliance.

3.11 Assumptions of Regression Analysis

According to Osborne and Waters (2002), most statistical tests rely upon certain assumptions about the variables used in the analysis. They explain that failure to meet the assumptions renders results untrustworthy and often result in Type I or II errors, or over- or under-estimation of significance or effect size(s). Pedhazur (1997) emphasizes the importance of knowing and understanding when violations of assumption lead to serious biases, and when

they are of little consequence in meaningful data analysis. In line with the recommendation of Field (2013), the following diagnostic tests were done to ascertain the suitability of the collected data for multiple regression analysis: normality; absence of perfect multicollinearity; homoscedasticity and heteroscedasticity; and independence of errors.

3.11.1 Normality Test Results

In order to make valid inferences from your regression, the residuals of the regression should follow a normal distribution. The residuals are simply the error terms, or the differences between the observed value of the dependent variable and the predicted value. Non-normally distributed variables (highly skewed or kurtotic variables, or variables with substantial outliers) can distort relationships and significance tests (Osborne and Waters, 2002). The study employed Shapiro-Wilk's test (S-W), in line with the recommendation of Thode (2002); Gravetter & Wallnau (2000); Oso and Onen (2013) and Zar (1999), to examine the normality of the variables. Creswell (2014) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommend Shapiro-Wilk's test in small and medium samples up to $n = 2000$. In addition, the fact that it provides better power than the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test even after the Lilliefors correction (Steinskog, 2007) gave it greater credence. Power, according to Thode (2002), is the most frequent measure of the value of a test for normality. The test is based on the correlation between the data and the corresponding normal scores (Peat and Barton, 2005), with $S-W = 1$ when their correlation is perfectly normal. This means that a significantly ($p < .05$) smaller S-W than 1 implies that normality is not met. Hence, the data is normal when Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) is $\geq .05$. Table 3.9 is the SPSS output showing Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk's tests results.

Table 3.9: Test of Normality of the Data Set

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Human Resource Planning Practice	.070	136	.135	.957	136	.021
RecruitmentPractice	.166	136	.389	.903	136	.341
Selection Practice	.168	136	.059	.895	136	.041
Job Satisfaction	.201	136	.911	.865	136	.082
Performance of Academic Staff	.206	136	.132	.879	136	.101

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Source: Survey Data (2020).

Evident in Table 3.9 is a violation of normality by two variables: Human Resource Planning Practice and Selection Practice given that their $p < .05$ as recommended by Peat and Barton

2005). The first and second blocks in Figures 3.1 and 3.3 demonstrate the violation of normality while Figures 3.2 and 3.4 normally distributed data after transformation.

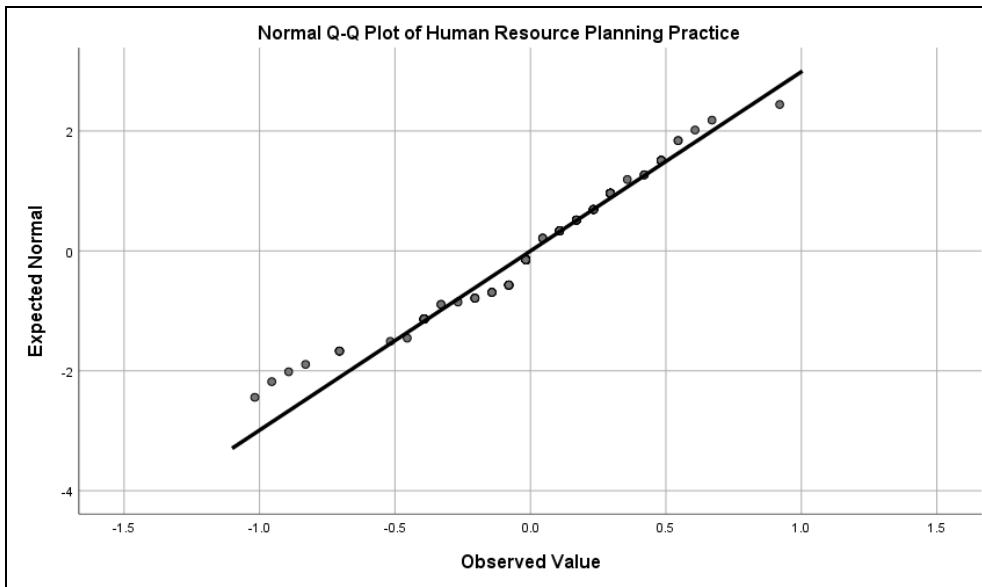


Figure 3.1: Human Resource Planning Practice data before Transformation

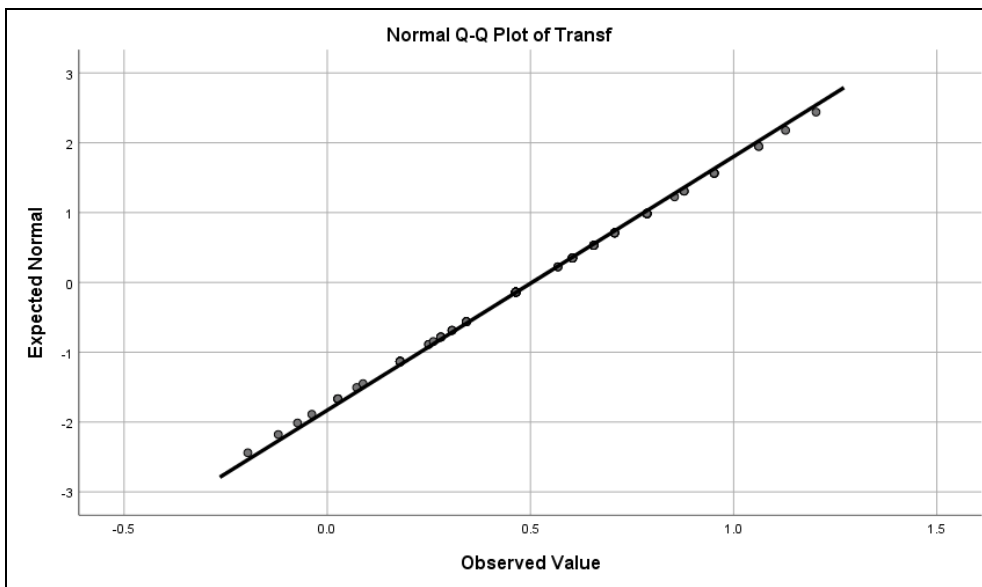


Figure 3.2: Human Resource Planning Practice data after Transformation

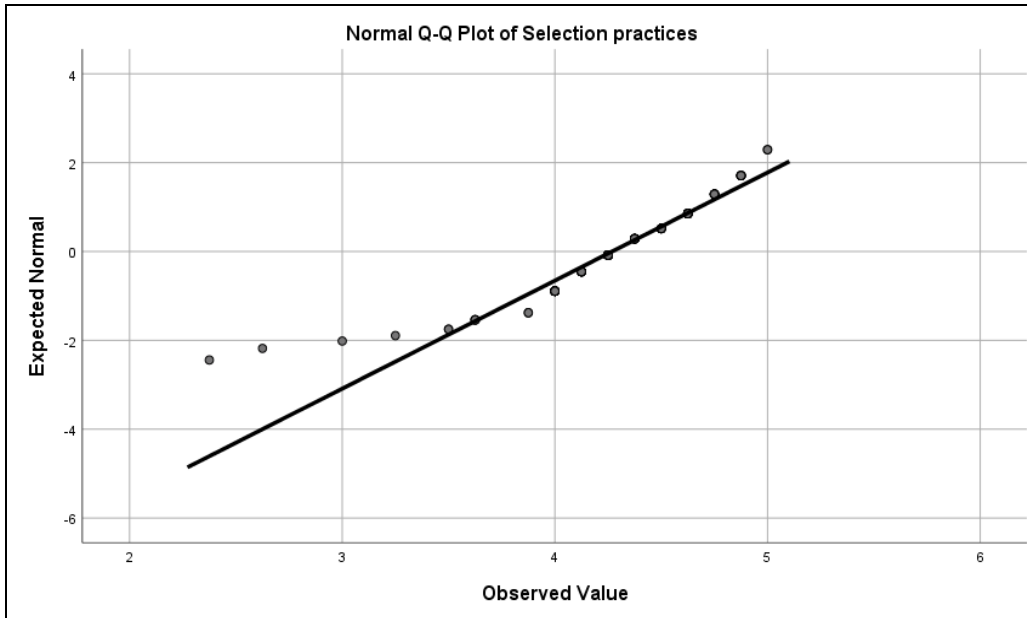


Figure 3.3: Selection Practice data before Transformation

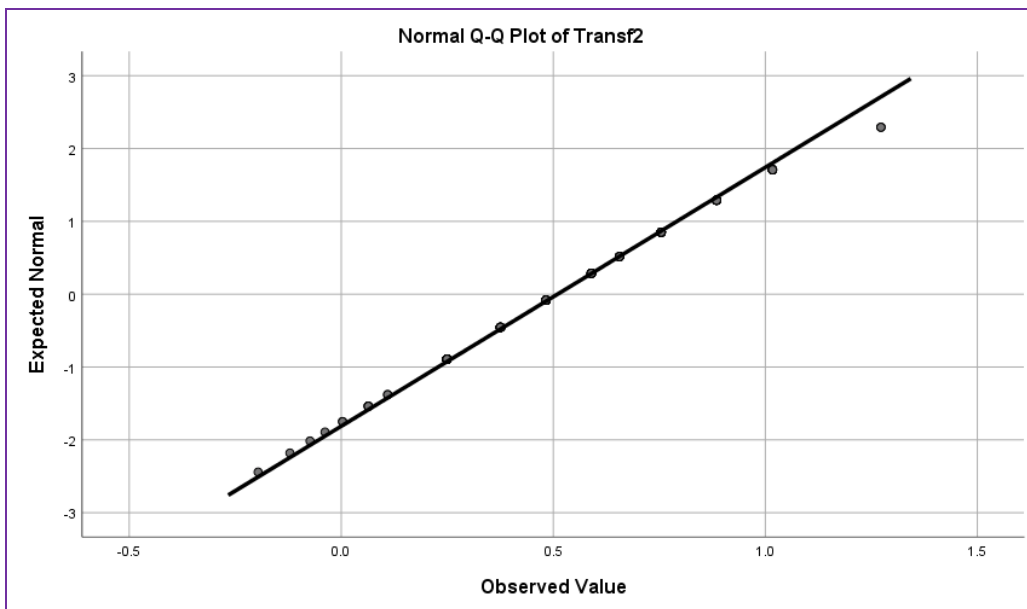


Figure 3.4: Selection Practice data after transformation

On the one hand, Figures 3.1 and 3.3 exhibit the accelerating curvature before transforming data on Human Resource Planning Practice and Selection Practice respectively. The curvature is indicative of skewed residuals and points to the attendant violation of normality. The systematic departure of the dashed lines from the trended expected normal line limits the probability of sampling variation. Consequently, the data had to be transformed to eliminate the observed skewness and make the data suitable for parametric data analysis methods that assume approximate normality distribution before being subjected to inferential statistics.

Data transformation was aimed at changing their distribution by applying a mathematical function to each participant's data value (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000). The data that was negatively skewed was transformed using arcsine of the square root of the two variables ($\arcsin X_i^{1/2}$). On the other hand, Figures 3.2 and 3.4 demonstrate the absence of the accelerating curvature (indicative of skewed residuals) since the significant majority of the cases are on the dashed line thus indicating normal distribution.

Nevertheless, the rest of the variables demonstrated normal distribution given that there were no statistically significant differences ($\text{sig.} < .05$) noted in any of the variables with their corresponding normal scores. Recruitment Practice had p -value of .341, Job Satisfaction was at $p=.082$ and Performance of Academic Staff was at a p -value of 0.101, all of which are greater than the prior set significant value of .05.

3.11.2 Assumptions of Multi-Collinearity

Multicollinearity implies that two or more items measure the same entity and are consequently identical (Ahire, Golharand Waller., 1996). It refers to a situation in which a predictor variable in a multiple regression model could be linearly predicted from the other variables with a substantial degree of accuracy (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It creates redundancy given that what a regressor explains about the response is overlapped by what another regressor or a set of other regressors explain (Yoo, Mayberry, Bae, Singh, Peter and Lillard, 1998). Gravetter and Wallnau (2000) view multi-collinearity as unreasonably high level of inter-correlation among the independent variables in a study to the extent that the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable cannot be separated from each other. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) observe that while correlation matrix can be used to investigate the pattern of inter-correlation among the variables, its use is inadequate. Therefore, Tolerance and Variance Inflationary Factor (VIF) were used to investigate the assumption of multicollinearity in this study (O'Brien, 2007). Tolerance below 0.10 or a VIF greater than 10 would be indicative of serious multicollinearity problems (Field, 2000; Hair Anderson, Tatham and Black. 1998). Kothari and Garg (2014) define tolerance as the reciprocal of VIF. Table 3.10 provides the SPSS output indicating Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factors.

Table 3.10: Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) Statistics

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Human Resource Planning	.717	1.395
1 Recruitment Practice	.650	1.538
Selection Practices	.562	1.779
Job Satisfaction	.551	1.814

a. Dependent Variable: Performance of Academic Staff

Source: Survey Data (2020).

The proportion of variance in the predictor that cannot be accounted for by the other predictors defines tolerance. Cohen & Cohen (1983) are of the view that a small tolerance value indicates that the variable under consideration is almost a perfect linear combination of other independent variables already in the equation hence should not be added to the regression equation because it is insignificant. The variable's tolerance is $1-R^2$, while VIF is its reciprocal. Table 3.10 indicates that multicollinearity conditions were met, given that each of the variables had adequate tolerance (tolerance value > 0.10) and Variance Inflation Factor ($VIF < 10$), indicating that there was no violation of multi-collinearity assumptions which is a requirement for multiple regression analysis.

3.11.3 Homoscedasticity and Heteroscedasticity

The study also investigated the assumption of homoscedasticity. According to Osborne and Waters (2002), homoscedasticity means that the variance of errors is the same across all levels of the independent variable. They posit that when the variance of errors differs at different values of the independent variable then heteroscedasticity is indicated. Berry and Feldman (1985) and Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) opine that slight heteroscedasticity has little effect on significance tests, but when marked then serious distortion of findings and serious weakening of the analysis can be experienced thus heightening the possibility of a Type I error.

In line with the recommendation of Osborne and Waters (2002,) the assumption of homoscedasticity was checked by visual examination of a plot of the standardized residuals (the errors) by the regression standardized predicted value. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2000), if a model is well-fitted, then there should be no pattern to the residuals plotted against the fitted values. Non-constant variance of the residuals would, therefore, imply heteroscedasticity. This was demonstrated graphically by fitting residuals versus fitted (predicted) values, as in Figure 3.1 that follows.

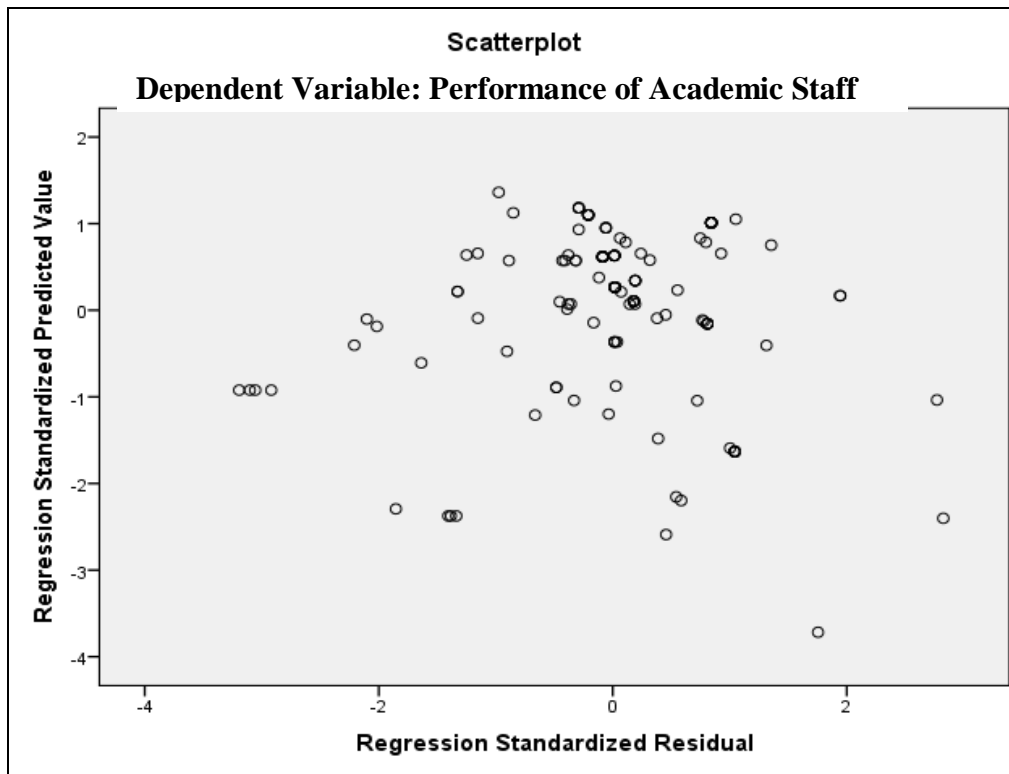


Figure 3.5: Scatter Plot of Standardized Residuals against Standardized Predicted Values: Source: Survey Data (2020).

Figure 3.1 shows that the data points nearly formed a patternless cloud of dots characterizing heteroscedasticity or absence of Homoscedasticity. Heteroscedasticity is implied when the scatter is not even and have no definite patterns (Gravetter and Wallnau, 2000). Consequently, the assumption of Homoscedasticity, which refers to equal variance of errors across all levels of the independent variables, was not significantly violated. Therefore, the assumption that errors were spread out consistently between the variables, indicating that the variance around the regression line was the same for all values of the predictor variables, was upheld. As a result regression and correlation analyses were deemed fit.

3.11.4 Test for Independence of Errors

According to Chatterjee and Hadi (2012); Fox (1997) and Weisberg (2005) in Williams, Grajales and Kurkiewicz (2013), errors are assumed to be independent. Chatterjee & Hadi,(2012) posit that breach of this assumption leads to biased estimates of standard errors and significance, though the estimates of the regression coefficients remain unbiased, yet inefficient. This assumption holds that the observations in the sample are independent from each other, meaning that the measurements for each sample subject are in no way influenced

by or related to the measurements of other subjects. In accordance with the recommendations of Kothari and Garg (2014) and Fox (1991), the Durbin Watson to examine independence of errors at a range of 1.50 - 2.50 as proposed by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and Keppel & Zedeck (1989). Table 3.11 provides the test results.

Table 3.11: Test of Independence: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.716 ^a	.512	.498	.43765	1.692

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job Satisfaction , Recruitment Practice, Human Resource Planning, Selection Practices

b. Dependent Variable: Performance of Academic Staff

Source: Survey Data (2020).

It is evident in Table 3.11 that the data was not auto-correlated; therefore, the assumption of independence was not violated as demonstrated by the Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.692 which is between 1.5 and 2.5.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the findings, interpretation and discussion of the objectives of the study. The findings are presented on the basis of the study objectives and hypotheses. Data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics helped describe the views of the respondents on each sub-scale, while the inferential statistics aided in making inferences and drawing conclusions. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was used to investigate the relationship between the variables while regression analysis their influence. All tests of significance were computed at $\alpha = 0.05$ and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 used to analyze the data.

4.1 Demographic Information

The study sought to investigate the background information of the universities and Respondents (Academic Heads of Department) who took part in the study. This was considered necessary in determining whether they were sufficiently representative in terms of their demographic characteristics to allow the generalization of the results of the study. The demographic information investigated included: Age of the University (in which the respondents were serving); Respondents' Gender, Age, Academic Position / Ranking, Academic Qualification, Administrative Position in the University and Experience in their Current Administrative Position. The results are in Table 4.1 that follows.

Table 4.1: Respondents Background Information

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Age of the University		
Below 4 years	0	0
4-8 years	81	59.6
Above 8 years	55	40.4
Total	136	100.0
Respondents' Gender		
Male	108	79.4
Female	28	20.6
Total	136	100.0
Age of Respondents		
Below 30 Years	0	0.0
30 – 39 Years	36	26.5
40 – 49 Years	56	41.2
50 – 59 Years	36	26.5
60 – 69 Years	4	2.9
70 and Above	4	2.9
Total	136	100.0
Respondents' Highest Academic Qualification		
Bachelor's Degree	0	0.0
Master's Degree	35	25.7
PhD/ Doctorate	101	74.3
Total	136	100.0
Respondents' Academic Position/Ranking		
Graduate Assistant		0
00		
Assistant Lecturer/ Tutorial Fellow		0
00		
Lecturer	94	69.1
Senior Lecturer	30	22.1
Associate Professor	10	7.4
Professor	2	1.5
Total	136	100.0
Respondents' Administrative Position in the University		
Chair/ Head of Department	131	96.3
Dean/ Director	5	3.7
Total	136	100.0
Experience in the Current Administrative Position		
Below 3 Years	48	35.3
3 Years and above	88	64.7
Total	136	100.0

Source: Survey Data (2020)

The analysis of the background information of the respondents indicated that, majority (59.6%) of the universities in this study were between 4 to 8 years of age while 40.4% were

above 8 years since establishment. Therefore, they were all within the range that was described as having staffing challenges (Ikama, 2010; Kagondou and Marwa, 2017) and pressure to provide employment (Mukhwana *et al.*, 2016). With regards to the respondents' gender, it emerged that a large number (79.4%) of the respondents were males as opposed to 20.6% females. This intimates to gender imbalance among the public university teaching staff as in the findings of CUE (2016). On their ages, the results of the study established that a majority (41.2%) of them were in the age group of 40-49; about a quarter (26.5%) of them were between 30 to 39 years of age and a similar proportion of them were in 50-59 years age category. Those who were in the age group of 60 years and above accounted for the least number (5.8%) of the respondents. The majority (94.2%) of the respondents were, therefore, in their prime working age, in respect of the official retirement age of academic staff in public universities and assumed to be capable of exhibiting adequate judgement and performance.

On the respondents' highest academic qualifications, the results of the survey demonstrated that about a quarter of them were holders of Master's degree. This was reflected by 25.7% of AHoDs as opposed to 74.3% who were holders of PhD/Doctorate qualifications. The relatively higher number of respondents with PhD qualification intimates to the fact that most universities appoint qualified people to administrative positions in order to provide both academic and administrative direction to their juniors. It further reflects the efforts put by academic staff in public universities to remain relevant in light of government recommendation on PhD as the minimum qualification required of university academic staff. The respondents (AHoDs) were, therefore, qualified both academically and administratively to respond to the questionnaire items.

On the respondents' academic ranking, a majority (80.9%) of the respondents were either lecturers or senior lecturers while 8.9% of them were either associate professors or full professors. This suggests that many of the study participants had the right experience to appropriately respond to the questionnaire items. Generally, the study findings suggest that the highest number of respondents were at the rank of lecturer (69.1%) and the least at rank of professor (1.5%). This implies right placement of academic staff in administrative positions given that the position of AHoDs are in the middle level in the university hierarchy, just like the position of lecturer that is equally in the middle level of academic career.

Regarding their administrative position in the university, a significant majority of 131 translating to 96.3% of the respondents who took part in the study were Chairs/ Heads of Departments while 3.7% of them were Deans/ Directors. The researcher was, therefore, able to access majority of the principal respondents. The study also shows that 64.7% of the respondents had more than three years of experience in their current administrative position. Only 35.3% of them had experience below three years. This finding further reveals that a majority of respondents had sufficient experience to reliably participate in the study owing to adequate knowledge on Job Satisfaction, Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff gathered over the years in their respective universities.

4.2 Findings on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The study sought to investigate the level of Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. As postulated in the conceptual framework, Performance of Academic Staff (DV) is influenced by Employee Resourcing Practices (IV) namely: Human Resource Planning practice, recruitment and Selection Practices. Job Satisfaction (MV) is hypothesized to moderate the relationship.

A 5-point Likert-type rating scale was used to collect the views of AHoDs on the Performance of Academic Staff in their departments. The respondents (AHoDs) were presented with four measures of Performance of Academic Staff namely: Quality of Teaching and Learning, Research and Publication, Administration and Responsibilities, and Community Engagement and Other Contributions. A total of 18 items were formulated to operationalize the four measures and the respondents asked to give their views on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5), where 1 was translated to indicate very low level Academic Staffs' performance and 5 to represented very high level of Academic Staffs' performance. The data was interrogated rigorously through descriptive analysis using frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation. The interrogation was done thematically and the results summarized as in Table 4.2 that follows.

Table 4.2: Frequency Response on Performance of Academic Staff (n=136)

Indicator		Extent of Agreement [f (%)]					M	SD
		1	2	3	4	5		
Quality of Teaching and Learning								
1	Academic Staff in my department demonstrate adequate knowledge of content in their thematic area.	0(0.0)	2(1.5)	2(1.5)	69(50.7)	63(46.3)	4.42	.60
2	Academic Staff in my department are able to organize, integrate, adjust and adapt their content in a way that can be understood by the learner.	1 (0.7)	0(0.0)	4(2.9)	54(39.7)	77(56.6)	4.52	.63
3	Academic Staff in my department are able to design appropriate tests for the learners.	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	2(1.5)	64(47.1)	69(50.7)	4.48	.57
4	Academic Staff in my department mark and grade the examinations in the courses they teach within the stipulated time lines.	0(0.0)	6(4.4)	12(8.8%)	68(44.1)	58(42.6)	4.25	.79
5	Academic Staff in my department adhere to the published office hours to facilitate consultation by the learners.	4(2.9)	30(22.1)	10(7.4)	56(41.2)	36(26.5)	3.66	1.17
6	Academic Staff in my department demonstrate clarity in the exposition of course content.	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	9(6.6)	79(58.1)	48(35.3)	4.28	.58
Research and Publication								
7	Academic Staff in my department demonstrate ability to advance scholarship and generate research.	1(0.7)	1(0.7)	20(14.7)	68(50.0)	46(33.8)	4.15	.75
8	Academic Staff in my department actively publish recognized academic books and teaching modules for the University and scholarship in general.	7(5.1)	2(1.5)	26(19.1)	99(72.8)	2(1.5)	3.64	.77
9	Academic Staff in my department actively publish peer reviewed journal articles.	7 (5.1)	0(0.0)	16(11.8)	91(66.9)	22(16.2)	3.89	.86
10	Academic Staff in my department publish with exclusive set of high quality publishers.	7 (5.1)	8(5.9)	20 (14.7)	97(71.3)	4(2.9)	3.61	.85
11	Academic Staff in my department have their work creating reasonable impact in academia e.g. by virtue of being extensively cited.	4 (2.9)	0(0.0)	25(18.4)	95(69.9)	12(8.8)	3.82	.71
Administration and Responsibilities								
12	Academic Staff in my department are appointable, using a set of minimum criteria, to a range of recognized administrative positions in the University.	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	12(8.8)	69(50.7)	55(40.4)	4.32	.62
13	Academic Staff in my department demonstrate willingness to be assigned a range of job related responsibilities in the University.	0(0.0)	4(2.9)	13(9.6)	86(63.2)	33(24.3)	4.08	.67
14	Academic Staff in my department perform satisfactorily in the areas they have been assigned.	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	10(7.4)	80(58.8)	45(33.1)	4.24	.61
Community Engagement and Other Contributions								

15	Academic Staff in my department attract research and development funding.	10(7.4)	16(11.8)	30(22.1)	64(47.1)	16(11.8)	3.44	1.08
16	Academic Staff in my department engage in community service and outreach.	0(0.0)	6(4.4)	21(15.4)	72(52.9)	37(27.2)	4.03	.77
17	Academic Staff in my department subscribe to relevant professional bodies where necessary.	4(2.9)	8(5.9)	5(3.7)	54(39.7)	65(47.8)	4.24	.98
18	Academic Staff in my department have been recognized, honoured and/or awarded for exemplary service to the University and the nation generally.	10(7.4)	16(11.8)	34(25.0)	74(54.4)	2(1.5)	3.31	.96

Overall Mean Score

4.01 0.62

Key: 1-Strongly Disagree; 2-Disagree; 3-Moderate; 4-Agree and 5-Strongly Agree; **M**-mean; **SD**-Standard deviation. **Source:** Survey Data (2020).

4.2.1 Quality of Teaching and Learning

The results of the study revealed that the Quality of Teaching and Learning, which had a mean average of 4.27 ($SD=.53$), varied from one university to another and from one department to the other. Generally, the ratings ranged from moderate to very high. For example, on whether the academic staff demonstrated adequate knowledge of content in their thematic area, close to a half 63 (46.3%) of the respondents agreed that the academic staff in their departments demonstrated sufficient knowledge in their areas of specialization as more than a half of them 69 (50.7%) strongly agreed with the same. A paltry 4 (3.0%) of the respondents believed that some academic staff in their departments do not exhibit adequate knowledge of content in their areas specialization. The questionnaire item was interpreted at a mean of 4.42 ($SD=.60$), implying that a majority of the respondents were generally in agreement that the academic staff in their departments had above average knowledge of content in their areas specialization.

The findings of the study concur with those of Kara, Tanui and Kalai (2020) and Wambui, Ngari and Waititu (2016) that lecturers in Kenyan public universities are knowledgeable in their areas of specialization as to facilitate quality teaching service. Sinclair and Johnson (2000) identify lecturers' expertise in content area as one of the measures of their performance. They consider content knowledge as a necessity in accurate instruction and clear communication of content to students. In the same vein, Analoui (2007) observes that a lecturer's knowledge base in a subject is fundamental to the creation and enhancement of students' opportunity to learn.

At a mean rating of 4.52 ($SD=0.63$), a significant majority 131 (96.3%) of the respondents were in agreement that the academic staff in their department are able to organize, integrate, adjust and adapt their content in a way that can be understood by the learners, only 5 (3.6%) of them held a contrary opinion. According to Arreola (2000), lecturer's expertise in the content area is not limited to content knowledge, but also constitutes the ability to organize, integrate, adjust and adapt the content in a way that makes it accessible and thought provoking to the learner. Zaki and Rashid opine that lecturers should be able to transfer the curriculum to make it meaningful and beneficial to learners and other stakeholders as opposed to being mere transporters of information. To this extent, the performance of academic staff was sufficient.

While the findings agree with those of Wambui, Ngari and Waititu (2016) that most internal and external part-time lecturers are able to connect content knowledge with the knowledge of how students' learn, the findings conflict with those of Kara, Tanui and Kalai (2020) who faulted ' preparedness to teach. They cited poor pay and understaffing that is occasioned by rapid expansion of public universities as a factor that encourages lecturers to engage in part-teaching elsewhere in order to increase their income. Consequently, such lecturers experience burn out and go to class unprepared to deliver. Furthermore, they discovered that reliance on the insufficient salary alone compromised the motivation and commitment levels of lecturers and by extension their preparedness to deliver courses.

The study obtained a mean rating of 4.48 ($SD=0.57$) on whether the academic staff are able to design appropriate tests for the learners, with a majority of 133 which translates to 97.8% of the respondents being in full agreement that the academic staff in their departments are able to design appropriate tests for the learners. This findings support those of Kara, Tanui and Kalai (2020) that lecturers in Kenyan public universities set assessment tasks that challenge students to learn. Molefe (2010) affirms that the testing procedure that is adopted by lecturers is one of the dimensions that can be used to measure their performance. Arreola (2000) lists the skills under this dimension as including the following, amongst others: designing tests, preparing learning objectives and developing syllabi. With respect to this dimension, the performance of academic staff was adequate.

With a mean rating of 4.25 and a standard deviation of 0.79, a majority 126(86.7%) of the respondents were in agreement that academic staff in their departments mark and grade examinations in the courses they teach within the stipulated timelines. Sinclair and Johnson

(2000) argue for the inclusion of lecturers' organization skills as a dimension in measuring their performance. Organizational skills, according to them, is manifested in a range of bureaucratic skills necessary in operating and managing a course such as timely grading of examinations and maintaining office hours amongst others. They vouch for the organization of the course materials and other academic activities considering their effect on the learners' ability to succeed in their area of learning. While it was observed that many of the academic staff, 92(67.7%), follow the published office hours to facilitate consultation by the learners, one out of every four 34 (25.0%) of the AHoDs who took part in the survey indicated that some colleagues in their departments do not adhere to the published office hours to facilitate consultation by the learners.

The findings affirm those of Kara, Tanui and Kalai (2020) who found out that academic staffs' engagement in part-time often ate into the time that would otherwise be used for students' consultation and mentorship. This was further reflected by a mean rating of 3.66 with a standard deviation of 1.17. Whereas the performance of academic staff in the area of examination marking and grading was adequate, their performance in observing office hours was relatively poor and requires reinforcement.

The results of the survey show that most of the academic staff exhibit clarity in the exposition of course content. This was mirrored by a mean rating of 4.28 ($SD=0.58$), with 127 (93.4%) of the respondents agreeing that academic staff in their department demonstrate clarity in the exposition of course content. Arreola (2000) views clarity in exposition as evidential to communication ability. Communication, they argue, is an aspect of structural delivery skills necessary in facilitating clear communication of information, concepts and attitudes. The findings are, therefore, in congruence with those of Kara, Tanui and Kalai (2020) that lecturers in Kenyan public universities had relevant communication skills as to perform their teaching roles effectively.

4.2.2 Research and Publication

Migosi, Muola and Maithya (2012) view research as a key pillar of a university system that defines it as a producer of new knowledge. However, with a mean average of 3.82 ($SD=.65$), the survey results intimate that academic staff in Kenyan public universities may not have done well in this area relative to their performance in the dimensions of Quality of Teaching and Learning, and Administration and Responsibilities. This is against the backdrop that many of them have the ability to advance scholarship and generate research, as was held by

more than four out of every five 114 (83.8%) of the respondents ($M = 4.15$; $SD = .75$). Interestingly, 20 (14.7%) of them were unsure whether the academic staff in their departments really demonstrate adequate ability to advance scholarship and generate research. This could be as a result of the large span of control that the AHoDs have to bear as it is likely to compromise supervision. Absence of clear criteria or system that can help evaluate research success (Tash, 2006) could also be a contributing factor in this regard. Gill and Johnson (1997) and White (2008) identify lecturers' ability to advance scholarship and to generate research as one of the key competencies that define their subject knowledge.

Asked if academic staff in their departments actively publish recognized academic books and teaching modules for the university and scholarship in general, 9 (6.6%) of the respondents objected while 26 (19.1%) of them were unsure. However, 101 (74.3%) responded in the affirmative. This translated to a mean agreement of 3.64 ($SD = .77$). On the same note, academic staffs' participation in publication of peer reviewed journal articles attracted a mean rating of 3.89 ($SD = 0.86$) in the scale of 1 to 5, with only 7 (5.1%) of the respondents strongly objecting to the assertion that academic staff in their departments actively publish peer reviewed journal articles. While some 16 (11.8%) respondents were unsure, 113 (83.1%) intimated that academic staff in their departments enthusiastically publish peer reviewed journal articles. Accordingly, the findings concur with those of Muia and Oringo (2016) who established that research productivity in Kenyan universities is at a fair level like in many African countries, much as it still lags behind. They attributed this anomaly to resource constraints, institutional constraints, and cultural constraints amongst others. Commission for University Education (2014b) brings into the ambit of research and publication dimension the following: publication of scholarly books and chapters in books; refereed journals; refereed learning modules; reviewed conference papers; non-reviewed conference papers; short communication in a refereed/scholarly journals; book reviews published in refereed journals; editorship of books and conference proceedings; scholarly presentations at conferences, workshops or seminars; refereed exhibitions and performances; consultancy and project reports; and patented invention and innovation.

Whereas 101 (74.2%) respondents were in agreement (mean=3.61; $SD = 0.85$) that academic staff in their departments publish with exclusive set of high quality publishers, some 15 (11.0%) held a contrary opinion. Another 20 (14.7%) were non-committal on this matter. In addition, asked whether the published work really creates reasonable impact in academia, only 12 (8.8%) strongly agreed as 95 (69.9%) of the respondents simply agreed. On the

contrary, 4 (2.9%) of the respondents held a very strong belief that publication by the academic staff in their department hardly create any impact in academia even by virtue of being extensively cited, translating to a mean rating of 3.82 ($SD=.71$). These findings contradict those of Coan (2017) who faulted African scholars for turning to predatory journals that generate minimal or no scholarly value for the scholars. According to Kwanya (2018), lecturers resort to predatory journals which have little quality control (Clark and Smith, 2015) due to frustrations associated with peer review against the backdrop of the clarion call to “publish or perish”. Harvey *et al.* (2010); Long *et al.* (2009) and Stack (2003) in Cadez, Dimovski and Groff (2017) suggest that the quality aspect be interrogated via the impact and quantity of papers published in an exclusive set of high quality journals or by the number of citations.

4.2.3 Administration and Responsibilities

The results of the survey show that a sizeable proportion of the AHoDs who took part in the study rated the performance of academic staff well above average as reflected by a mean average of 4.22 ($SD=.54$). More than nine out of ten, 124 (91.1%) of the respondents were in agreement that academic staff in their departments are appointable, using a set of minimum criteria, to a range of recognized administrative positions in the University. Only 12 (8.8) of the respondents remained undecided on this matter, translating to a mean rating of 4.32 with a standard deviation of 0.62. The willingness of academic staff to be assigned responsibilities was rated at a mean of 4.08 ($SD=0.67$), with 119 (87.5%) of the respondents indicating the academic staff in their departments demonstrate willingness to be assigned a range of job related responsibilities in the University. A paltry 4 (2.9%) were, however, in disagreement.

A question on the performance of academic staff in the assigned administrative duties yielded a mean rating of 4.24 ($SD=0.61$), with 125 (91.9%) of the respondents confirming that the academic staff in their departments perform satisfactorily in the areas they have been assigned. Manzoor (2013) and Voss and Gruber (2006) identify administrative service quality as one of the dimensions of educational service quality in universities, in addition to quality of academic resources, teaching quality, and quality of student support services. The educational services are largely provided by academic staff. According to Commission for University Education (2014b), Administration and Responsibilities as a measure of academic staffs’ performance incorporates recognized university administrative positions and any other responsibilities that may be assigned to academic staff.

4.2.4 Community Engagement and Other Contributions

According to Commission for University Education (2014b), Community engagement and other Contributions are rated on the following bases: the ability of academic staff to attract research and development funding; engagement in community service and outreach; professional affiliations and portfolios; recognition, awards and honours amongst others as may be determined by individual universities. With a mean of $M=3.75$ ($SD=.76$), the results of the study exhibit mixed reactions in respect of the Academic Staffs' community engagement and other contributions.

The ability of the academic staff to attract research and development funding received a rating of 3.44 ($SD=1.08$), with 26 (19.2%) of the respondents maintaining that academic staff in their departments hardly attract any research and development funding and another 30 (22.1%) being unsure. However, 80 (58%) agreed that academic staff in their departments attract research and development funding. This alludes to a dire situation given the argument by Lertputtarak (2008) that the success of many research universities is dependent on their abilities to secure research funding, and that such grants can help a university to compensate her professors besides hiring other key staff and professionals who would help teach and conduct effective research. This is against the backdrop of decreasing ratio of financial allocation to universities from the Government (Gudo, 2014). Nevertheless, the findings conform with those of Baro, Bosa and Obi (2017) whose study on Nigerian tertiary institutions revealed that only a few academic staff had received research grants that would have helped find solutions to societal problems through evidence-based research.

While 109 (80.1%) of the respondents were in agreement ($M=4.03$; $SD=0.77$) that some academic staff in their departments engage in community service and outreach, 21 (15.4%) remained non-committal on the matter as 6 (4.4%) advanced the opinion that academic staff in their departments do not engage in community service and outreach. According to Oaks, Franklin and Bargestock (2009), outreach, engagement, community involvement, student engagement and economic development all point to the fact that higher education institutions are responding to the society's increasing requirements for accountability.

On subscription to relevant professional bodies, where necessary, the rating was at a mean of $M=4.24$ ($SD=0.98$). Close to nine out of ten, represented by 119 (87.5%), of the academic staff sampled were in agreement that their colleagues in the departments subscribe to relevant professional bodies where necessary. However, 12 (8.8%) of them held a contrary opinion.

The findings are contrary to a report by Valin (2005) that only 10% of potential members are estimated to actually apply for membership to professional bodies generally. According to the Professional Associations Research Network as cited in Green (2015), professional bodies are dedicated to the advancement of the knowledge and practice of professions through developing, supporting, regulating and promoting standards for technical and ethical competence.

Asked whether the academic staff in their departments are recognized for exemplary service to the University and the nation, 76 (55.9%) responded in the affirmative. However, 26 (19.2%) disagreed as 34 (25%) remained non-committal. This translated into a mean rating of 3.31 ($SD=0.96$). The findings which reveal moderate recognition agree with those of Kiplangat (2017) in which he established that Kenyan universities recognized their academic staff for work well done in a timely manner. Arguing for employee recognition, Saunderson (2004) asserts that it boosts employee morale and creates a connection to the organization by instilling greater satisfaction and loyalty, which tend to correlate with greater productivity.

Regarding Community Engagement generally, Akpan, Minkley and Thakrar (2012) posit that government mandates, pressures from civil society and the business sector, coupled with socio-economic realities of neighbourhood have driven universities into activities that transcend their traditional function. The universities have, therefore, embraced the practice of community engagement that also goes by the synonyms such as community service, university-community partnership, and academic citizenship, amongst others. Similarly pointing to the emerging practice is Barker (2004) who calls it the scholarship of engagement and shares the view of Boyer (1996) that it incorporates outreach functions which demand that scholars communicate to and work both for and with communities.

Generally, the performance of academic staff was summarized in four sub-scales which the researcher used as its dimensions. The sub-scales were; Quality of Teaching and Learning, Research and Publication, Administration and Responsibilities, and Community Engagement and Other Contributions. Table 4.3 indicates the summary of Academic Staffs' Performance ratings in means and standard deviation.

Table 4.3: Summary of Sub-Scales of Performance of Academic Staff

Sub-Scales in Performance	Mean	SD
Quality of Teaching and Learning	4.27	0.53
Research and Publication	3.82	0.65
Administration and Responsibilities	4.22	0.54
Community Engagement and Other Contributions	3.75	0.76
Overall Mean Rating	4.01	0.62

Source: Survey Data (2020).

From Table 4.3, it is evident that the overall academic staffs' performance in Kenyan public universities was above average. Using the scale of 1 to 5, the study established an overall rating of 4.01 (SD=0.62) indicating a fairly strong level of performance among the academic staff. Quality of Teaching, as a dimension of performance, had the highest rating at 4.27 with a standard deviation of 0.53, implying that academic staff performed best in Teaching and Learning compared to other dimensions of performance. This was closely followed by Administration and Responsibilities at 4.22 with a standard deviation of 0.54. Research and Publication came third with a mean rating of 3.82 (SD=0.65) while Community Engagement and Other Contributions came last with mean rating of 3.75 (SD=0.76). Considering the above average means in all the dimensions, Kenyan university academic staff generally performed well in discharging their duties. The findings support those of Kara, Tanui and Kalai (2020) who established that a majority of lecturers in Kenyan public universities had the desired professional quality and engaged in quality instructional practices.

4.3 Human Resource Planning Practice and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

The first objective of the study was to establish the influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. To achieve this objective, Human Resource Planning practice was assessed through four main dimensions, namely: Business Plans and Scenario Planning, Demand Forecasting, Supply Forecasting, and Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning (Armstrong, 2009). These measures being the main activities that characterize Human Resource Planning were deemed important and, therefore, used as its proxies. Sixteen questionnaire items that underlie the four indicators in the respective circumstances were formulated and measured on a 5-point Likert type scale.

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics on Human Resource Planning Practice

Generally, the influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities was analyzed through descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analyses. Table 4.4 shows the statistical results for Human Resource Planning Practices based on 16 opinion statements rated using the following scale: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4=Agree and 5=Strongly Agree. The Likert type scale responses were converted into continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. This enabled the researcher to compute means per item for comparison between the items of the sub-scale, as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4 4: Descriptive Statistics on Human Resource Planning Practice (n=136)

Indicator	Extent of Agreement [f (%)]					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
Business Plans and Scenario Planning							
My University's human resource plans are guided by its strategic plans.	1(0.7)	0(0.0)	9(6.6)	48(35.3)	78(57.4)	4.49	0.69
My University's future teaching and research work load determine the number and type of academic staff to engage in different academic departments.	11 (8.1)	6(4.4)	7(5.1)	57(41.9)	55(40.4)	4.02	1.17
My University assesses the possible scenarios that may affect the number and quality of academic staff it currently has in a timely manner.	4 (2.9)	5(3.7)	36(26.5)	82(60.3)	9 (6.6)	3.64	0.76
My University's human resource plans cannot be amended in respect of any scenarios that may arise unexpectedly.	56(41.2)	52(38.2)	17(12.5)	6(4.4)	5(3.7)	1.91	1.02
Demand Forecasting							
My university uses (an) established demand forecasting technique(s) to determine the number and type of academic staff it may need in future.	1(0.7)	23(16.9)	18(13.2)	62(45.6)	32(23.5)	3.74	1.03
The demand forecasting technique(s) used by my University enable(s) it get the academic staff they need in a timely manner.	2(1.5)	23(26.9)	16(11.8)	76(55.9)	19(14.0)	3.64	0.97
My University decides on the number and type of academic staff it may need in future at the planning stage.	0(0.0)	4(2.9)	25(18.4)	73(53.7)	34(25.0)	4.00	0.75
My University does not base the number and type of academic staff it may need on its annual budget.	51(37.5)	51(37.5)	17(12.5)	12(8.8)	5(3.7)	2.04	1.09
Supply Forecasting							
My University maintains a skills inventory that it uses to determine the current academic staff who qualify for higher academic positions and/or administrative assignments.	13(9.6)	12(8.8)	26(19.1)	59(43.4)	26(19.1)	3.54	1.17
My University promotes development of its academic staff in order to maintain a steady supply of senior academic staff should vacancies arise.	15(11.0)	14(10.3)	21(15.4)	61(44.9)	25(18.4)	3.49	1.22

My University only engages academic staff from outside when satisfied that no one qualifies from the current employees.	30(22.1)	19(14.0)	14(10.3)	56(41.2)	17(12.5)	3.08	1.39
My University does not conduct regular staff reviews to make available a steady supply of senior academic staff should vacancies arise.	66(48.5)	46(33.8)	4(2.9)	19(14.0)	1(0.7)	1.85	1.06
Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning							
My University is able to foresee future deficits and surpluses of academic staff in a timely manner.	16(11.8)	25(18.4)	25(18.4)	60(44.1)	10(7.4)	3.17	1.17
My University prioritizes learning and development programmes to prepare current academic staff for envisaged vacancies.	15(11.0)	20(14.7)	25(18.4)	56(41.2)	20(14.7)	3.34	1.22
My University implements lawful strategies in resolving surpluses of academic staff (e.g. in terminating academic staff on contract).	13(9.6)	20(14.7)	30(22.1)	57(41.9)	16(11.8)	3.32	1.15
My University does not observe the labour laws whenever it opts for part time and/or overtime contracts to resolve deficit of academic staff .	65(47.8)	33(24.3)	20(14.7)	6(4.4)	12(8.8)	2.02	1.27
Overall Mean						3.21	0.76

Key: 1-Strongly Disagree; 2-Disagree; 3- Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4-Agree and 5-Strongly Agree; **M**-mean; **SD**-Standard deviation. **Source:** Survey Data (2020).

4.3.1.1 Business Plans and Scenario Planning

Schweteje and Vaseghi (2007) argue for business plans in institutions. According to them, a systematically elaborated and regularly repeated business plans, with a profound insight into all business matters, helps management to efficiently plan the company's development and prepare the necessary modification measures in a structured way. With regards to scenario planning, Arafet and Ali (2018) and Bennett, Kadfak and Dearden (2016) credit it for providing innovative and robust solutions to address complex problems and uncertain futures.

In the context of Business Plans and Scenario Planning, the survey results exhibit mixed opinions despite the average mean rating of 3.52 ($SD=0.87$). For instance, the significant majority 126 (92.7%) of the AHoDs who participated in the survey confirmed that their universities' human resource plans are guided by their strategic plans, translating to a mean rating of 4.49 ($SD=0.69$). This conforms to Armstrong (2009) who argues that linking human resource plans to business plans helps interpret the plans into people requirements. In essence, it guides the universities in terms of the quantity and quality of academic staff to hire to eliminate heavy workloads that might compromise the performance of the existing academic staff. Similarly, Kumar and Sing (2017) credit human resource plans for according an organization competitive advantage by providing competitive talent based on the organization's strategic plan.

Decisions on the way academic staff are engaged was rated at 4.02 ($SD=1.17$) in the scale of 1 to 5, with a majority of 112 equivalent to 82.3% of the respondents agreeing that their universities' future teaching and research work load determine the number and type of academic staff to be engaged in different academic departments. However, 17 (12.5%) respondents were of contrary opinion implying that some universities engage academic staff in the absence of needs assessment. The findings are contrary to the findings of Guda, Olel and Oanda (2011) who observed that universities have adopted increased workload for faculty to remedy the severe shortages in academic staff. The shortage could be a pointer to the disregard of future teaching and research work loads as a determinant of the quality and quantity of academic staff.

Generally, Higher Education in Kenya is characterized by massification and proliferation of universities (Wambui, Ngari and Waititu, 2016). Consequently, massive shortage of academic staff is a common phenomenon (Yego, 2013; Guda *et al.*, 2011) which raises questions as to whether academic staffs' possible workload is given due consideration in the planning and eventual hiring. Arguing against heavy workload, Ngolovoi (2006) observes that increased workload and incompetence of some academic staff could be affecting the delivery of quality education to students in Kenyan universities. Alluding to the need for using future workload as a basis for hiring, many other researchers suggest that heavy workloads could lead to lots of negative outcomes (Ganster and Rosen, 2013; Nixon, Mazzola, Krueger and Specto, 2011; Jehangir, Kareem, Jan and Soherwardi, 2011; Atanda and Jaiyeoba, 2009). Armstrong (2009) hints to the importance of considering employee workload in the context of managerial judgement which is a demand forecasting technique in which he proposes that managers should sit down, think about future workloads and decide how many people they need.

Whereas about two thirds, 91 (66.9%), of the AHoDs who took part in the survey believed that their universities assess the possible scenarios that may affect the number and quality of academic staff they currently have in a timely manner, some 9 (6.6%) felt otherwise as 36 (26.5%) of them were unsure. This translated to a mean rating of 3.64 ($SD=0.76$). According to Rieley (1997) higher education is marked by a wide range of potential future scenarios not limited to economic downturns, shrinking resources, technological advancement and increased enrolment. To this end, he argues scenario planning provides higher education institutions with the opportunity to explore and possibly expand their mental models of what the future could be in addition to measures to take as it approaches. Concurring is

Wilkinson (1996) who views scenario planning as transcending pinpointing specific future events, but providing a large scale view of forces that are likely to drive the future into different directions. Accordingly, the universities need to give it more attention with greater involvement of AHoDs.

Similarly, on whether universities are flexible with respect to human resource plans given different scenarios that may arise, the findings of the study revealed that majority of them are. This was confirmed by close to four fifth, 108 (79.4%), of the respondents who registered disagreement with the assertion that their universities' human resource plans cannot be amended in respect of any scenarios that may arise unexpectedly. They, therefore, confirmed that their universities are fairly flexible and can easily amend their human resource plans in respect of any circumstances that may arise unexpectedly. Review of human resource plans enable organizations to address emerging issues (Republic of Kenya, 2016). The findings are in consonance with the opinions of Gugan (2008) as cited in Fotr, Spacek, Soucek and Vacik (2014) that scenarios provide alternative views of the future and, therefore, facilitate the formulation of strategies that can be used to challenge future uncertainties. Supporting the notion is O'Brien *et al.* (2007) who credits scenario planning for fostering creative foresight to rethink strategies and plans especially in times of accelerated or anticipated changes.

4.3.1.2 Demand Forecasting

With respect to Demand Forecasting, Nzuve (2010) argues that human resource needs forecast should be based on the organization's objectives, production plans, changes in technology and operating methods. According to him, it enables an organization to arrive at the numbers, mix, cost, skills and job categories of the employees required. However, despite these benefits, the universities appeared not to have performed very well in this area considering the average mean of 3.36 ($SD= 0.92$). Nevertheless, Suntanto (2000) maintains that demand forecasting contributes to the success of an organization in predicting the number and quality of employees to be hired thus the best people for the right places. Consequently, it is recommended that public universities improve in this aspect.

Specifically, the survey results established that a sizeable proportion of the universities have (an) established technique(s) that they use to determine the number and type of academic staff that they may need in future as was rated at 3.74 ($SD=1.03$) in the scale of 1 to 5. This is further depicted by 94 (69.1%) of the AHoDs who supported the assertion. On the contrary were 24 (17.6%) of the respondents who disagreed with the statement. Bernadin (2007) and

Suntanto (2000) identify a number of demand forecasting techniques that they categorize as qualitative or quantitative. Qualitative methods do not rely on any vigorous mathematical models as opposed to quantitative methods that involve statistical computations. Suntanto (2000) assert that organizations can adopt either or employ a blend depending on their environment and size, perceived uncertainty in labour markets and economy, and competition. According to him, of greatest importance is the fact that a pattern exists concerning the predictors of labour and supply.

Asked if the demand forecasting technique(s) adopted by the respective universities enabled them get the academic staff they required in a timely manner, 25 (28.4%) of the respondents disagreed while 95 (69.9%) of them responded in the affirmative. Non-committal on the matter were 16 (11.8%) of the respondents. This translated into a mean rating of 3.64 ($SD=0.97$). Wurim (2013) observes that an organization's success and strength is a function of its ability to engage the right quality and quantity of employees. He cautions that failure to maintain optimum staff mix invites surpluses or deficits that may lead to unmanageable staffing costs, inefficiency, and absenteeism, turnover and productivity problems. Consequently, he recommends the adoption of a strategy that combines both qualitative and quantitative methods of demand forecasting.

The survey results further revealed that many universities decide on the number and type of academic staff they may need in future at the planning stage. This was confirmed by a mean rating of 4.00 ($SD=0.75$), with nearly four fifth 107 (78.7%) of the AHoDs conceding that this is the trend in their universities. However, 4 (2.9%) of them were in disagreement and another 25 (18.4%) not certain. On the same footing, the study findings show that although some universities do not rely on their annual budget when employing staff, a majority of them do. This was confirmed 102 (75.0%) respondents who disagreed with the statement: "My University does not base the number and type of academic staff it may need on its annual budget", and a low mean rating of 2.04 ($SD=1.09$) on the same statement. On the flip-side, 17 (12.5%) were in agreement with some 17 (12.5%) being uncertain. The findings on the two items conform to the assertions of Armstrong (2009) that the basis of demand forecasting is the annual budget and longer term business plans, converted into activity levels for each function and department or decisions on downsizing.

4.3.1.3 Supply Forecasting

The study revealed a rather low rate of application of supply forecasting in the universities as evident by the average mean of 2.99 ($SD=0.98$). This suggests that not all the universities make estimation of supply of their human resources by taking into consideration the analysis of their current human resources inventory and future availability. However, the role of supply forecasting in the acquisition of human resources cannot be underestimated. According to Lunenburg (2012), it involves determining what people will be available from internal and external sources. Similarly, Armstrong (2009) observes that it measures the number of people likely to be available from within and outside the organization, having allowed for absenteeism, internal movements and promotions, wastages and changes in hours as well as other conditions of work.

The study revealed that not all the universities maintain a skills inventory. This was evidenced by a low mean rating of 3.54 ($SD=1.17$), with only 85 (62.2%) of the AHoDs being certain that their universities maintain a skills inventory that they use to determine the current academic staff who qualify for higher academic positions and/or administrative assignments. Some 25 (18.4%) of the respondents indicated that their universities do not maintain a skills inventory while another 26 (19.1%) were unsure. However, Sulyman (2019) argues for up-to-date skills inventory that he applauds for facilitating efficient evaluation and comparison of information on several employees within the organization thus influencing decisions on promotions, trainings and future recruitment, amongst others. Ulferts, Wirtz and Peterson (2009) propose that the skills inventory should incorporate all the skills that each employee has.

With respect to promoting development of academic staff, the study findings demonstrate that whereas 86 (63.3%) of the AHoDs were in agreement that their universities promote development of its academic staff in order to maintain a steady supply of senior academic staff should vacancies arise, more than a fifth 29 (21.3%) were of dissenting opinion. Some 21 (15.4%) respondents, however, remained non-committal on the matter. This translated to a mean response rating of 3.49 ($SD=1.22$). In favour of employee development are Charan, Drotter and Noel (2001) who observe that effective organizations establish an all inclusive set of evaluation and improvement which facilitates the flow of talent across the organization as opposed to those that focus on replacement planning. Ozurumba and Amasumo (2015) buttress this position in their attribution of the quality of education system to the way the

skills of staff are enhanced through staff development programmes. The implication is that staff development not only enhances delivery but also facilitates succession planning.

Additionally, whereas 73 (53.7%) of the AHoDs alluded to the stance that their universities only engage academic staff from outside when satisfied that no one qualifies from the current employees, 49 (36.1%) of them believed that their universities sometimes engage academic staff from outside without considering whether one qualifies from the current employees. Another 14 (10.3%) respondents remained uncertain on this matter. This translated into a mean response rate of 3.08 ($SD=1.39$). Armstrong (2009) suggests that consideration be given to the internal candidates followed by persuading former employees to return or obtaining suggestions from existing employees before resorting to external recruitment. Randhawa (2007) credits internal recruitment for raising the morale of employees, promoting employee loyalty, providing employees with a sense of recognition, and providing them with a sense of job security as well as the opportunity for advancement besides being a retention strategy.

Lastly, the results of the survey established that even though a majority 112 (82.3%) of the AHoDs agreed that their universities do conduct regular staff reviews to make available a steady supply of senior academic staff should vacancies arise, some 20 (16.9%) of them confirmed that their universities rarely conduct staff reviews with the intention of creating steady supply of senior academic staff should vacancies arise. This suggests that some universities never take stock of present inventory of skills, experiences, values and capabilities of their current staff in order to arrange for future availability of such resources (succession planning). Jamye, Johnson, Fraught and Street (2013) view succession planning as a long term preparation process that ensures that the replacement for key positions are developed in favour of continuing leadership in an organization. Both Ahmad and Keerio (2020) and Barden (2009) observe an impending leadership crisis in higher education institutions and root for the establishment of a formal succession planning to ensure continuity in leadership. Rothwell (2005) proposes a seven steps succession planning model in which he hails promotion from within and suggests that organizations establish some means for replacing key job incumbents as vacancies occur in their positions. To this end, internal reviews are a key ingredient.

4.3.1.4 Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning

According to Armstrong (2009), analysis of demand and supply forecasts help identify possible deficits or surpluses. Action planning, which spells out remedies for such surpluses or deficits, start with the identification of currently available internal resources or the ones who can be made available through learning and development programmes, and continue with plans for enhancing the attractiveness of working for the organization by developing employer brand and employee value proposition, taking steps to reduce employee turnover and absenteeism as well as increasing employment flexibility. George (2019) justifies the matching of personnel requirements with personnel availability and considers it important because it helps in identifying the staffing situation that will confront the organization in the future in addition to suggesting possible actions that can be taken to equate the demand for and supply of human resources.

With regards to Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning, the results of the survey reveal that some of the universities do not give prominence to strategic human resource planning as it relates to staffing needs. For instance, when the surveyed AHODs were asked whether their universities are able to foresee future deficits and surpluses of academic staff in a timely manner, 70 (51.5%) of them responded in the affirmative while 41 (30.2%) of them were of a contrary opinion. This yielded a mean of 3.17 ($SD=1.17$). This suggests that some universities do not either engage in human resource planning or confine themselves to their strategic or human resource plans and as such are not able to foresee future deficits and surpluses of staffs in a timely manner. Lunenburg (2012) lauds human resource planning for identifying staffing needs, forecasting available personnel, and determining what additions or replacements are required to maintain a staff of the desired quantity and quality to achieve the organization's goals. In agreement, Armstrong (2009) credits human resource planning for linking human resource plans to business plans. This implies that, depending on their business plan, they are able to foresee future deficits or surpluses and initiate corrective action in good time.

On the same note, the study established that not all universities prioritize learning and development programmes to prepare their current academic staff for envisaged vacancies. This was confirmed by a mean rating of 3.34 ($SD=1.22$), with only 76 (55.9%) of the respondents agreeing with the statement. However, more than one out of every four 35 (25.7%) of the academic staff who took part in the survey believed that their universities hardly prepare their current academic staff for envisaged vacancies. Another 25(18.4%) of

them were, however, not certain. According to Nyangau (2014) and Munene (2016), the funding crisis in Kenyan public universities has led to poorly trained lecturers. This hints to the inability of the universities to prioritize learning and development of lecturers on account of financial constraints. However, Mgijima (2014) recommends the establishment of regulated and structured continuing professional development programmes to enable lecturers upgrade their qualifications in terms of a prescribed basic competency framework.

Whether the universities implement lawful strategies in resolving surpluses of academic staff yielded mean rating of 3.32 ($SD=1.15$). This was demonstrated by 73 (53.7%) of the AHoDs agreeing while another 33 (24.3%) of them dissenting. Some 30 (22.1%) were, however, non-committal. The Employment Act, [2012] 2007 of Kenya, which is a legal document governing the employment contract, sets out the procedures to be followed in termination of employees on account of redundancy (Republic of Kenya, 2007b). In addition, a majority of the respondents 98 (72.1%) were of the opinion that their universities observe the labour laws whenever they opt for part time and/or overtime contracts to resolve deficit of while 18 (13.2%) of them disagreed. However, 20 (14.7%) of them were unsure. Apart from the respective Human Resource Policies and Procedures Manual required of public universities, both the Employment Act, [2012] 2007 and the Labour Institutions Act [2012] 2007 provide guidance on the engagement and compensation of employees on part-time and over-time basis (Republic of Kenya, 2007b; Republic of Kenya, 2007c).

The four sub-scales of Human Resource Planning Practice were summarized using means and standard deviations. The findings were presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Summary of Human Resource Planning Practice

Sub-scales/Dimensions of HRP Practice	Mean	Standard Deviation
Business Plans and Scenario Planning	3.52	0.87
Demand Forecasting	3.36	0.92
Supply Forecasting	2.99	0.98
Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning	2.96	1.02
Overall Mean rating of Human Resource Planning Practice	3.21	0.76

Source: Survey Data (2020).

From Table 4.5, it is evident that public universities in Kenya, in general, have above average rating in their Human Resource Planning Practices. This was reflected by an overall mean rating of 3.21 with a standard deviation of 0.76 in a scale of 1 to 5. This suggests that, on

average, administrations of public universities in Kenya have more than average abilities in identifying current and future academic staffs' needs for their universities. The sub-scale of Business Plans and Scenario Planning received the highest rating ($Mean=3.52$; $SD=0.87$). This implies that the universities, on average, did not employ haphazardly but on the basis of organizational plans and possible scenarios. It was followed by Demand Forecasting which received a mean rating of 3.36 ($SD=0.92$), reflecting that the management of public universities are fairly effective in estimating the future quantity and quality of the academic staff required.

Supply Forecasting, and Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning received almost similar rating at 2.99 ($SD=0.98$) and 2.96 ($SD=1.02$) respectively. This suggests that public universities project the possible sources of employees they hire before matching demand and supply to reveal employee surpluses and deficits. On the basis of the surpluses or deficits, the organizations decide on the remedial action to adopt. However, the performance of public universities in these two dimensions requires more reinforcement given the respective means that are barely above average.

4.3.2 Relationship between Human Resource Planning Practice and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The study investigated the relationship between Human Resource Planning Practice and Performance of Academic Staff. The investigation was done using Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis to establish the magnitude and direction of the relationships between the individual aspects of Human Resource Planning Practices and Performance of Academic Staff. Accordingly, the means of each aspect of Human Resource Planning Practice as well as that of the overall Human Resource Planning Practice were correlated with Performance of Academic Staff. The significance value was set at 0.05; implying that a p-value less than 0.05 would lead to conclusion that there is statistically significant relationship between the variables, while p-value greater than 0.05 would lead to conclusion that the correlation is not statistically significant. The correlation results are summarized in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Correlation of Human Resource Planning Practice and Performance of Academic Staff

Indicator	n	r	p-value
Business Plans and Scenario Planning	136	.028	.075
Demand Forecasting	136	.538	.000
Supply Forecasting	136	.054	.053
Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning	136	.428	.000
Overall rating of Human Resource Planning Practice	136	.528	.000

Source: Survey Data (2020).

It is evident that although the four dimensions of Human Resource Planning Practice exhibited positive correlation with Performance of Academic Staff, the magnitude of correlations varied with some being statistically insignificant. On the one hand, Demand Forecasting recorded the strongest correlations at $r=.538$; $p=.000$ followed by Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning at $r=.428$; $p=.000$. Both of them had statistically significant relationship with Performance of Academic Staff given $p=.000$. On the other hand, Business Plans and Scenario Planning ($r=.028$, $p=.075$), and Supply Forecasting ($r=.054$, $p=.053$) which had positive correlation with Performance of Academic Staff were not statistically significant. The insignificant results might have arisen due to the anxiety that came with certain proposed re-organizations within universities in response to the challenges of emergence of Covid-19 at the point of data collection. For instance, there was the probability of merging certain universities, merging some departments and even eliminating some programmes and schools.

Nonetheless, overall Human Resource Planning Practice had statistically significant positive, but moderate correlation ($r=.528$, $p=.000$) with the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Thus, an improvement in Human Resource Planning Practice raises the level of Performance of Academic Staff and vice versa. The findings of the study are consistent with those of Maina and Kwasira (2015) and Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) much as their studies restricted the descriptors of Human Resource Planning Practice to employee attraction and retention on the one hand; and recruitment and deployment, training and development of talent, talent retention and succession planning on the other hand.

In order to establish the influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on the Performance of Academic Staffs in Kenyan public universities, the research data was further subjected to multiple regression analysis as in Table 4.7.

4.3.3 The Influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on Performance of Academic Staff Public Universities in Kenyan

H₀1: Human Resource Planning Practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

To establish the influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, the null hypothesis that “*Human Resource Planning practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” was tested. Human Resource Planning Practice was measured using four dimensions, namely: Business Plans and Scenario Planning, Demand Forecasting, Supply Forecasting, and Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning. Mean response across a set of Likert-type scale responses in each item was computed to create an approximately continuous variable within an open interval of 1 to 5 as determined to be suitable for the use parametric data by Johnson and Creech (1983) and Sullivan and Artino (2013). High scale rating was interpreted to imply a corresponding high implementation of Human Resource Planning Practice that would influence Performance of Academic Staff.

The study adopted multiple regression analysis with the investigated null hypothesis being $H_0: \beta_1=\beta_2=\beta_3=\beta_4=0$ and the corresponding alternative hypothesis being H_1 : at least one $\beta_i \neq 0$. If the null hypothesis is true, then from $E(Y_i)=\beta_0 + \beta_{i=1,2,3,4} X_{i=1,2,3,4}$ the population mean of Y_i is β_i for every X_i value which indicates that X_i (Human Resource Planning Practice) has no influence on Y_i (Performance of Academic Staff) in Kenyan public universities, and the alternative being that X_i (Human Resource Planning Practice) influences Y_i (Performance of Academic Staff) in Kenyan public universities. The priori significance level was set at 0.05, such that if the p-value was less than 0.05 then the null hypothesis would be rejected and a conclusion reached that a significant difference exists. On the other hand, if the p-value was greater than 0.05, then it would be concluded that a significant difference does not exist. Table 4.7 shows the results of the regression model summary.

Table 4.7: Regression Model on Influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on Performance of Academic Staff

Variable	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig.	95% CI	Part
Constant	0.825	0.42		1.962	0.052	(-0.007, 1.656)	
Business Plans and Scenario Planning	-0.009	0.08	-0.008	-0.114	0.909	(-0.168, 0.150)	.008
Demand Forecasting	0.538	0.08	0.474	6.691	0.000	(0.379, 0.697)	.454
Supply Forecasting	0.021	0.061	0.023	0.338	0.736	(-0.100, 0.141)	.023
Forecasting Future Requirements & Action Planning	0.299	0.064	0.333	4.702	0.000	(0.173, 0.425)	.319

$R=.631$, Adjusted R Square = .380 (SE =.4863), $F(4, 131) = 21.650$, $p=.000$, $df(df_1= 4, df_2= 131)$

Dependent Variable: Performance of Academic Staff. **Source:** Survey Data (2020)

Table 4.7 estimates Equation 3.1 and can be depicted as Equation 4.1 with p -values in parentheses.

$$\hat{Y}_i = .825 + -.009X_1 + .538X_2 + .021X_3 + .299X_4 \dots \text{Equation 4.1}$$

(.052)
(.909)
(.000)
(.736)
(.000)

The model reveals that Human Resource Planning Practice, as measured by the four sub-scales, accounted for 38.0% (Adjusted $R^2=.380$) of the variation in Performance of Academic Staff in the Kenyan public universities. This implies that 38.0% of variation in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities is explained by the composite change of the four dimensions of Human Resource Planning Practice. Furthermore, the four dimensions revealed a fairly strong joint correlation ($R=.631$) with Performance of Academic Staff. It is also evident in the ANOVA output results that Human Resource Planning Practice, as measured by the four dimensions, is indeed a significant predictor of Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, $F(4, 131)=21.650$, $p=.000$. The fairly low value of F suggests that the variability within each of the variables was generally smaller than variation between the variables, implying that the difference in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities is not by chance but as a result of difference in Human Resource Planning Practice. Consequently, the knowledge on the level of each dimension of Human Resource Planning Practice in Kenyan public universities can be used to significantly predict Performance of Academic Staff therein.

The analysis further revealed that the four dimensions of Human Resource Planning Practice had varying influence on Academic Staffs' Performance. For instance, whereas two of the dimensions had significant positive un-standardized coefficients, some other two had

insignificant un-standardized coefficients. On the one hand, Demand Forecasting dimension had a un-standardized coefficient value of 0.538 within a 95% C.I (0.379, 0.697) while Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning dimension had a un-standardized coefficient value of 0.299 within a 95% C.I (0.173, 0.425), which were all significant. On the other hand, the coefficients values for Business Plans and Scenario Planning dimension ($B=-0.009$; $t=-0.114$, $p=0.909$) and Supply Forecasting dimension ($B=0.021$; $t=0.338$, $p=0.736$) were insignificant. However, given that two of the dimensions had significant un-standardized co-efficient values, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis ($H_0: \beta_1=\beta_2=\beta_3=\beta_4=0$). Therefore, the alternative hypothesis was supported with the conclusion that Human Resource Planning Practice has statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The insignificant results might have arisen due to the anxiety that came with certain proposed re-organizations within universities in response to the challenges of emergence of Covid-19 at the point of data collection. For instance, there was the probability of merging certain universities, merging some departments and even eliminating some programmes and schools. Duncan (1975) argues for the use unstandardized (not betas) regression coefficients to measure the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

More specifically, Demand Forecasting dimension had the greatest influence on Performance of Academic Staff. A unit improvement in Demand Forecasting would result in improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .538 units, when other factors are held constant. Similarly, when the university administration improves in Demand Forecasting by one standard deviation, the level of Performance of Academic Staff would improve by .474 standard deviations. The second dimension in terms of influence was Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning which had an un-standardized value of .299 within a 95% *CI* (.173, .425). This implies that for one unit improvement in Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning dimension, there is a corresponding improvement in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities by .299 units, when other factors are held constant. Similarly, one standard deviation improvement in Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning results in a corresponding improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .333 standard deviations.

The third dimension was Supply Forecasting. The results indicate that improvement in Supply Forecasting dimension by one unit would translate into an improvement in Academic Staffs' Performance by .021 units. Similarly, when the university administration improves in

Supply Forecasting by one standard deviation, the level of Performance of Academic Staff would improve by .023 standard deviations. Business Plans and Scenario Planning dimension reflected the least effect on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Conversely, a unit increase in Business Plans and Scenario Planning would result in a decrease in Performance of Academic Staff by .009 units (as depicted by -.009 in Table 4.7), which is negligible. Decrease in Performance of Academic Staff could be occasioned by, among others, plans that have perceived negative perceived ramifications on lectures (for instance, closure of campuses and learning centres, reorganization of departments and schools or faculties, reduction of programmes, introduction of new technology, amongst others). The effects of both Business Plans and scenario Planning, and Supply Forecasting dimensions were not statistically significant ($p > .05$) in the regression model. Field (2016) contends that a rough indication of the relative importance of the variables could be arrived at by comparing the absolute values of standardized regression coefficients, which is expressed in terms of standard deviations.

Equally important is the part correlation coefficients, which indicates the contribution of each aspect of Human Resource Planning Practice to the total R squared. The results demonstrate that Demand Forecasting had a part correlation coefficient of .454, Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning of .319, Supply Forecasting of .023 and Business Plans and Scenario Planning of -.008. Squaring these values would indicate how much of the total variance in Performance of Academic Staff in the Kenyan public universities is uniquely explained by each variable and how much R squared would drop if it were not included in the model.

Accordingly, Demand Forecasting which has the largest contribution to the model uniquely explains 20.6% of the variance in Performance of Academic Staff in the Kenyan public universities and Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning uniquely explains 10.2% of variance. However, Supply Forecasting, and Business Plans and Scenario Planning only accounted for a negligible amount (<1%) of the variance in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. It is noteworthy that total R Squared value for the model (0.380 or 38 % explained variance) was not equal to the sum total of all the squared part correlation values because overlaps or shared variance were removed. Nonetheless, it was concluded that Human Resource Planning Practice regression model was adequate in predicting Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The model was

statistically significant at $F(4, 131)=21.650$, $p=.000$, accounting for 38.0% (Adjusted $R^2=.380$) of the variation in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

These findings concur with various theoretical arguments, especially the Decision Making Theory (Simon, 1945; Mintzberg, 1973; Iyayi, 2002) in addition to the findings of other empirical studies. Nzuve (2010) points to the importance of HRP in helping management in decision-making in such areas as: recruitment, training and development, promotions, pay structures, retirement and pension schemes, industrial relations, and labour turnover – all of which have a theoretical relationship with employee performance. Farnham (2006) explains that apart from HRP encouraging employers to develop clear and explicit links between their business and HR plans and integrating the two effectively, it also enables employers to make more informed judgements about the skills and attitude mix in organizations hence prudent deployment of employees.

Armstrong (2009) posits that linking of HR plans to corporate or business planning not only interprets these plans in terms of people requirements, but may also influence the business strategy by drawing attention to ways in which people could be developed and deployed more effectively to enhance the achievement of business goals as well as focusing on problems that might have to be resolved to ensure that the people required will be available and will be capable of making the necessary contributions. Generally, prudent decisions on the skills and attitude mix enhance prudent recruitment, training and development, deployment, resourcing and retention strategies thus enhanced employee and corporate performance.

Decision Making Theory (Simon, 1945; Mintzberg, 1973; Iyayi, 2002) which draws its significance from the role of decision making in the areas of recruitment, strategies to be adopted in recruitment and retention of employees for performance (Gberville, 2010) is premised on the fact that decision-making is at the very heart of business success in any organization (Gberville, 2006). Tonwe (1994) views the Decision-making Theory as assuming that the whole concept and purpose of organizations revolve around decision making. According to decision-making theorists, decisions are the selection of a proposed course of action (Butler, 1992; Iyayi, 2002). HRP practices entail management decision making in such areas as business plans and scenario planning, demand and supply forecasting, forecasting future requirements, and action planning.

The Resource Based View (Barney, 1991) considers human resources as a key factor in enabling a firm to attain competitive advantage and achieve its goals or targets. Through

Human Resource Planning, firms will ensure that they obtain the right people with the right skills and deploy them in the right places to ensure sustained competitive advantage (Barney, 2001) and optimum performance. Human Capital Theory (Adam Smith, 1723 – 1790) intimates that firms attain sustainable competitive when it has a human resource pool that cannot be imitated or substituted by its competitors (Armstrong, 2006). HRP facilitates the acquisition of competent and suitable pool that can perform satisfactorily.

Empirically, the findings of the study concur with those of Mbiu and Nzulwa (2018) who established a positive statistically significant relationship between Human Resource Planning and employee productivity in County Governments in Kenya. However, unlike in the current study, Human Resource Planning incorporated recruitment and deployment, training and orientation, talent retention, and succession planning as its descriptors. Similarly, Chege and Nasieku (2018) discovered a positive statistically significant relationship between Human Resource Planning and employee performance in public hospitals in Kenya. The descriptors of Human Resource Planning included: succession planning; staff replacements; matching of skills with jobs and qualification which distinguishes it from the present study. In the same vein, Maina and Kwasira (2015) discovered a positive statistically relationship between Human Resource Planning practice (whose descriptors were employee attraction and retention strategies) and employee performance. Also in support of the study is Anyadike (2013) who associated decline in employee productivity to the absence of Human Resource Planning practice in the Nigerian public service. Despite the conceptual variations, all the studies, just like the current study demonstrate the positive influence that Human Resource Planning has on employee performance or productivity.

4.4 Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The second objective of the study was to determine the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Generally, the influence was explored through descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analyses.

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics on Recruitment Practice

Recruitment Practice was assessed through two main measures, namely; Examination of Vacancy; and Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates. Eight items whose constructs underlie the two measures were investigated using a 5-point Likert-type rating scaled statements. The Likert scale responses were converted into continuous scale data by

computing the mean response in each item. Table 4.8 shows the statistical results for Recruitment Practice based on eight opinion statements rated using: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree. This enabled the researcher to compute means per item for comparison between the items of the sub-scale.

Table 4.8: Frequency Response on Recruitment Practice (n=136)

Recruitment Practice	Extent of Agreement [f (%)]					<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	1	2	3	4	5		
Examination of Vacancy							
My University ensures that job descriptions comply with the requirements of the Commission for University Education or other Senate approved criteria before publicizing vacancies.	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	1(0.7)	25(18.4)	109(80.1)	4.78	0.48
My University ensures that job specifications comply with the requirements of the Commission for University Education or other Senate approved criteria before publicizing vacancies.	1(0.7)	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	31(22.8)	103(75.7)	4.73	0.55
My University ensures job descriptions and specifications are an accurate reflection of Academic Staff's job.	0(0.0)	1(0.7)	3(2.2)	54(39.7)	78(57.4)	4.54	0.58
In addition to the basic requirements by the Commission for University Education or Senate, my University includes other relevant attributes in the job profile.	0(0.0)	8(5.9)	9(6.6)	56(41.2)	63(46.3)	4.28	0.83
Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates							
My University evaluates whether to source for Academic Staff internally or externally before publicizing vacancies of .	0(0.0)	6(4.4)	16(11.8)	86(63.2)	28 (20.6)	4.00	0.71
My University uses the best media to publicize vacancies of Academic Staff.	1(0.7)	4(2.9)	17(12.5)	73(53.7)	41(30.1)	4.09	0.78
My University does not make a deliberate effort to attract the best candidates for a vacant position of Academic Staff.	45(33.1)	58(42.6)	9(6.6)	13(9.6)	11(8.1)	2.17	1.22
My University provides useful and sufficient information to the potential applicants while publicizing vacancies.	7(5.1)	7(5.1)	9 (6.6)	50(36.8)	63(46.3)	4.14	1.08
Overall Mean						4.02	0.77

Key: 1-Strongly Disagree; 2-Disagree; 3- Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4-Agree and 5-Strongly Agree; *M*-mean; *SD*-Standard deviation. **Source:** Survey Data (2020)

4.4.1.1 Examination Vacancy

The results of the survey established a fairly strong implementation of sound Recruitment Practice in many of the Kenyan public universities with intention of locating and attracting the best candidates for an open position. This was reflected by the respondents' ratings on the dimensions of Examination of Vacancy; and Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates. Suffice to say, the mean ratings of the indicators of Examination of Vacancies were from a low of 4.28 to a high of 4.78, demonstrating that most who took part the survey

were generally satisfied with attributes put in the job descriptions and specifications in respect of position of Academic Staff. Graham and Bennett (1998) opine that the process of recruitment begins with the examination of a vacancy. This implies that recruiters analyze the vacancy with a view to establishing or reviewing its description as well as the specification to enable them locate and attract the best candidates. Al-Marwai and Subramaniam (2009) advocate for proper writing and constant updating of job descriptions in light of the constant changes organizations undergo in addition to other strategic benefits.

Asked whether their universities always ensure that job descriptions comply with the requirements of the Commission for University Education or other Senate approved criteria before publicizing the vacancies, 134 (98.5%) of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed. This yielded a rating of 4.78 ($SD=0.48$). Randhawa (2007) credits job description for providing information on job identification, distinctive characteristics, specific operations and tasks as well as materials and equipment used in the performance of the job amongst others. Job description, therefore, enables the potential candidates to evaluate themselves relative to the job's duties, responsibilities, accountabilities, reporting relationships, compensation packages, and working environment. According to DeCenzo and Robbins (1998), job descriptions are important resources for describing a job to the potential candidates. Thus, they may decide whether to apply for the vacancy or not. Al-Marawai and Subramaniam (2009) argue that possession of a job description would effectively make the job of looking for the right person, interviewing the right person and hiring the right person much easier.

With regards to job specifications complying with the requirements of the Commission for University Education or other Senate approved criteria, more than three out of four, 103 (75.7%) and over a fifth 31 (22.8%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed, respectively. This translated into a mean rating of 4.73 ($SD=0.55$). According to DeCenzo and Robbins (1998), job descriptions state the minimum acceptable qualifications required of an incumbent in order to perform a job satisfactorily. They, therefore, furnish candidates with a realistic preview of a given job in terms of its human requirements and enable them decide whether to apply for the job or opt out. This in turn eases and refines the selection process by eliminating the obviously unqualified candidates at the very onset.

The statement that their universities always make sure that job descriptions and specifications are an accurate reflection of academic staffs' job was reinforced by a mean rating of 4.54 ($SD=0.58$), with a significant majority of 132 (97.1%) the confirming. Al-Marwai and

Subramaniam (2009) suggest that organizations constantly review their job descriptions to eliminate reliance on obsolete ones. They recommend job analysis in such contexts to facilitate the preparation of job descriptions based on the actual job duties. In a similar fashion, Rudman (2003) argues for the updating of job descriptions so as to remain relevant on the face of changing nature of jobs. Theoretically, valid job descriptions sire valid job specifications. Universities should, therefore, endeavour to update the job descriptions and specifications to validly reflect Academic Staffs' job.

Asked if the universities include other relevant attributes in the job profile in addition to the basic requirements by the Commission for University Education or Senate, a sizeable proportion of respondents, 119 (97.1%) were in agreement. This is confirmed by a mean rating of 4.28 ($SD=0.83$). While the commission for University Education and Senate establish the minimum qualifications for the academic staff, the Constitution of Kenya, 2010 outlines the national values and principles of governance expected of both state and public officers (Republic of Kenya, 2010). These include: human dignity, equity, social justice, inclusiveness, integrity, accountability amongst others (Republic of Kenya, 2010). Similarly, the Public Officer Ethics Act, 2003 which classifies public university employees as public officers outlines the general code of conduct and ethics that the officers are expected to abide by. These incorporate: professionalism, efficient and honest provision of services, obedience to the rule of law, protection of property entrusted in their care, political neutrality, submission of declarations, guarding against sexual harassment amongst others (Republic of Kenya, 2003). Accordingly, public universities may in their own unique ways include these aspects in the respective job profiles e.g. most public institutions expects applicants to meet chapter six of the Constitution of Kenya.

4.4.1.2 Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates

According to Graham and Bennett (1998), recruitment entails examination of a vacancy, consideration of sources of suitable candidates, making contact with those candidates and attracting applications from them. Consequently, with regards to locating, making contact and attracting candidates, the results of the survey show that a majority of the respondents were satisfied with this process considering its mean rating which ranged from a low of 2.17 to a high of 4.14. This was further corroborated by an overall mean of 3.47 ($SD=1.03$).

On whether or not the universities evaluate whether to source for academic staff internally or externally before publicizing vacancies, 114 (83.8%) of the respondents were in agreement

thus translating into a mean response rate of 4.00 ($SD=0.71$). Armstrong (2009) asserts that attracting candidates is primarily a matter of identifying, evaluating and using the most appropriate sources of candidates. He, however, proposes that priority is given to internal candidates followed by persuading former employees to rejoin the organization or seeking referrals from the current staff, and only going out if all these approaches fail. According to DeCenzo and Robbins (1998), recruitment is more likely to achieve its objective if recruitment sources reflect the type of position to be filled since certain sources are more effective in filling certain types of jobs relative to others.

Use of best media to publicize vacancies of academic staff was rated at 4.09 ($SD=0.78$), with only 5 (3.6%) of the respondents disagreeing. A significant number of the respondents totaling to 114 (83.8%) confirmed that their universities always use the best media to publicize vacancies of academic staff. According to Ekwaoba, Ikeije and Ufoma (2015), the choice of a recruitment channel is dependent on the job position, company's employer brand, and resources available to the company, and recruitment budget amongst other factors. They advise that a company adopts the one that best suits them since each channel has its unique benefits and limitations in light of the prevailing situations within and without the company. They further propose that a company collects real-time metrics on the recruitment channels and decide on the one that best works for them. Affirming this perspective are Sinha and Thaly (2013) who propose that recruiters consider both market flow and share of applications when settling on the recruitment channel to use since some do not have the capacity to reach all potential candidates.

In addition, whereas only 24 (17.7%) respondents held a contrary opinion, 103 (75.7%) of them agreed that their universities always make a deliberate effort to attract the best candidates for a vacant position of the academic staff. This yielded a mean rating of 2.17 ($SD=1.22$). Ideally, on the basis of the dynamics of surpluses and deficits of qualified people in the labour market, it would benefit an organization if a deliberate effort is made to ensure that candidates offered employment has the highest person-job fit as well as person-organization fit. Taylor (2008) views recruitment as involving organizations actively soliciting applications from potential employees. According to Goodman and Svyantek (1999), person-organization fit and person-job fit are established predictors of performance. It is, therefore, prudent that organizations deliberately provide a realistic preview of both the job and the organization in their recruitment efforts to enable the potential applicants examine the values they hold in relation to the values held by the organization (Cable and Judge,

1996) in addition to comparing their abilities and personality with the job’s requirements, and what the job offers (Edwards, 1991) in order to make an informed decision on whether to apply for a vacancy or not. In order to attract the people that an organization needs, Linos and Reinhard (2015) propose the following deliberate recruitment strategies: Improving job advertisements, enhancing candidate outreach activity and using one’s etworks to publicize vacancies.

Similarly, at a rating of 4.14 ($SD=1.08$), more than four out of five, 113 (83.1%) respondents who participated in the survey were satisfied that their universities always provide useful and sufficient information to the potential applicants while publicizing vacancies. Only 14 (10.2%) of them held a contrary opinion. Baur, Buckley and Bagdasarov (2014) reiterate the need to provide information about the content of the work that is needed to be performed. This information is essential in helping workers to successfully prepare for both the organization and the specific duties of the employment position. They propose that this information is provided during the recruitment stage in order to help ensure a better fit between the organization and the employees. Reinforcing the stance is DeCenzo and Robbins (1998) who suggest that an organization provides such information so that unqualified applicants can self-select themselves out of the job candidacy. The two sub-scales of Recruitment Practice were summarized using means and standard deviations. The findings were presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.9: Summary of Recruitment Practice

Sub-scales	Mean	Standard Deviation
Examination of Vacancy	4.58	0.53
Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates	3.47	1.03
Overall Mean rating of Human Resource Planning	4.02	0.77

Source: Survey Data (2020)

From Table 4.9, it is evident that public universities in Kenya, in general, have above average rating in their Recruitment Practices. This was reflected by an overall mean rating of 4.02 with a standard deviation of 0.77 in the scale of 1 to 5. This gives intimates that, on average, many of the respondents who took part in the study were satisfied with the Recruitment Practice in their universities. Specifically, the dimension of Examination of Vacancy received the highest rating ($Mean=4.58$; $SD=0.53$), suggesting that many of the universities do better in this respect as compared to Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates which yielde a mean rating of 3.47($SD=1.03$).

4.4.2 Relationship between Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff

The study sought to establish the relationship between Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff. To this extent, Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was used to uncover the magnitude and direction of the relationships between the individual aspects of Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff as well as that of the overall Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff, as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Correlations between Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff

Indicator	n	r	P
Examination Vacancy	136	.351	.000
Locating, Making contract and Attracting Candidates	136	.188	.029
Overall Recruitment Practice	136	.324	.000

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Table 4.10, which shows the relationship between Recruitment Practices and Performance of Academic Staff, reveals that all the aspects of Recruitment Practice are positively correlated with Performance of Academic Staff. The findings indicate that the strongest relationship was between Examination of Vacancy and Performance of Academic Staff, as was reflected by a significant positive correlation coefficient value of 0.351 ($p=.000$). Comparatively, Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates, recorded a relatively weaker positive correlation with Performance of Academic Staff. However, it was significant ($r=.188$, $p=.029$) given that the p -value $<.05$.

Overall, the correlation between Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff was established to be positive and significant ($r=.324$, $p=.000$). This suggests that there is a positive association between the two variables, such that when the overall Recruitment Practice is improved then there would be a corresponding positive improvement in Performance of Academic Staff. It is, therefore, concluded that Recruitment Practice in Kenyan public universities is positively associated with the Performance of Academic Staff, such that more than one out of every ten cases of variance in Performance of Academic Staff is accounted for by their perceived level of Recruitment Practice in their university. The findings of the study are in conformity with those of Saifaislam, Osman and AlQudah (2014), Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016), Rahmany (2018) and Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018) who established a significant positive relationship between the two variables although their studies

ignored such facets of Recruitment Practice as Examination of Vacancy, and Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates that the current study considered.

The research data was further subjected to multiple regression analysis (Table 4.11) to establish the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staffs in Kenyan public universities.

4.4.3 The Influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

H₀2: Recruitment Practice has no influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities

To investigate the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, the null hypothesis that “*Recruitment Practice has no influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” was tested. This was done using multiple regression analysis, with the investigated null hypothesis being $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$, implying that neither variable has any influence, and the corresponding alternative hypothesis being H_1 : at least one $\beta_i \neq 0$. If the null hypothesis is true, then from $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_{i=1,2} X_{i=1,2}$ the population mean of Y_i is β_0 for every X_i value, which indicates that X_i (Recruitment Practice) has no influence on Y_i (Performance of Academic Staff) in Kenyan public universities, and the alternative being that X_i (Recruitment Practice) influences Y_i (Performance of Academic Staff) in Kenyan public universities.

Mean response across a set of statements of Likert-type scale responses in the measure of Recruitment Practice was computed to create an approximately continuous variable, within an open interval of 1 to 5 as determined to be suitable for the use of parametric data by Johnson and Creech (1983) and Sullivan and Artino (2013). High scale ratings implied high perceived Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff. The priori significance level was set at 0.05, such that if the p -value was less than 0.05, then the null hypothesis would be rejected and conclusion reached that Recruitment Practice has statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff. If the p -value was greater than 0.05, it would be concluded that a significant difference does not exist. Table 4.11 shows the results of the regression model.

Table 4.11: Regression Model Summary on Influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff

Variable	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig.	95% CI	Part Correlation
(Constant)	.942	.594		1.587	.115	(-.232, 2.116)	
Examination of Vacancy	.484	.128	.325	3.795	.000	(.232, 0.737)	.307
Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates	-.106	.111	.082	-.959	.339	(-.113, 0.326)	.078

$R=.360$; *Adjusted R Square*= .116 ($SE=.58036$); $F(2, 133)=9.890$, $p=.000$, $df(df_1=2, df_2=133)$
Dependent Variable: Performance of Academic Staff. **Source:** Survey Data (2020).

Table 4.11 estimates Equation 3.2 and can be depicted as Equation 4.2 with *p-values* in parentheses.

$$\hat{Y}_i = .942 + .484X_1 + -.106X_2 \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation 4.2}$$

(.115)
(.000)
(.339)

The model summary shows that Recruitment Practice, as measured by Examination of Vacancy, and Locating, Making Contact and Attracting candidates, accounts for 11.6% ($Adjusted R^2=.116$) of the variation in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. This implies that 11.6% of the variability in the performance academic staff in Kenyan public universities is explained by the combined changes of the two dimensions of Recruitment Practice: Examination of Vacancy, and Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates. However, the two dimensions had a fairly weak joint correlation ($R=.360$) with Academic Staffs' Performance. Nevertheless, the ANOVA output results confirm that the level of Recruitment Practice is a significant predictor of performance among the academic staff in Kenyan public universities, $F(2, 133)=9.890$, $p=.000$. The low value of F suggests that the variability within each of the dimensions of Recruitment Practice and Performance of Academic Staff was generally smaller than variation between the variables, implying that the differences in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities is not by chance but as a result of differences in Recruitment Practice. Consequently, the level of Recruitment Practice in Kenyan public universities can significantly predict Performance of Academic Staff.

It is also evident that the two dimensions of Recruitment Practice reflected different levels of influence on Performance of Academic Staff. On the one hand, Examination of Vacancy had a significant p-value ($t=3.795$; $p=.000$), un-standardized coefficient value of 0.484 within a 95% C.I.(.232, .737). On the other hand, the coefficients value for Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates was not significant ($B=-0.106$; $t=.959$, $p=.339$). Nonetheless, given that one of the two dimensions had significant un-standardized co-efficient value, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis ($H_0: \beta_1=\beta_2=0$) because at least one $\beta_i \neq 0$. Hence, the alternative hypothesis was supported and it was concluded that Recruitment Practice has statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The insignificance in Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates might have been occasioned by the respondents' perception of some university managers involving in nepotism and patronage to favour potential candidates of their choice at the point of recruitment as some of them have previously been accused of the same. Duncan (1975) argues for the use unstandardized (not betas) regression coefficients to measure the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

Scrutiny of the standardized coefficient values confirms that the dimension of Examination of Vacancy had a relatively higher influence on Performance of Academic Staff than Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates. On the one hand, an improvement in Examination of Vacancy, as a dimension of Recruitment Practice, by one standard deviation would result in an improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .325 standard deviations. On the other hand, one standard deviation improvement in Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates results in an improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by only .082 ($Beta=0.082$) standard deviations. Field (2016) advances the comparison of the absolute values of standardized regression coefficients to give a rough indication of the relative importance of the variables.

In addition, the study explored part correlation coefficients, which indicate the contribution of each of the aspects of Recruitment Practice to the total *R*-squared. The results show that the dimension of Examination of Vacancy has a part correlation coefficient of .307, while the dimension of Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates has a part correlation of .078. This demonstrates that Examination of Vacancy has a larger contribution to the model because it uniquely explains 9.4% of the variance in Performance of Academic Staff. However, the dimension of Locating, Making Contract and Attracting Candidates uniquely explains less than 1% of the variance in Performance of Academic Staff. The percentages

were obtained by squaring the part correlation values. It is noteworthy that the summed up value of the squared part correlation was lower than total R squared value for the model (11.6 per cent explained variance) because the overlaps or shared variance were removed. Nonetheless, it was concluded that the Recruitment Practice regression model was adequate to predict Performance of Academic Staff among public universities in Kenya. The model was statistically significant $F(2, 133)=9.890$, $p=.000$, accounting for 11.6% (Adjusted $R^2=.116$) of the variation in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

The findings of the study affirm various theoretical arguments, for instance the Decision-making Theory (Simon, 1945; Mintzberg, 1973; Iyayi, 2002) which is the overarching theory, as well as the findings of other previous studies. The theory is premised on the fact that decision-making is at the very heart of business success in any organization (Gberville, 2006). In the context of recruitment, decisions could be made with specific reference to strategies to be adopted in recruitment and retention of employees for performance (Gberville, 2010). With regards to the influence of recruitment on Performance of Academic Staff, it can be argued that prudent decisions on the construction of valid job descriptions and specifications; identification of the most appropriate sources of candidates; identification of the best media to publicize vacancies; determination of the deliberate strategies that would yield the best candidates among others would lead to the attraction of sufficient and competent pool of applicants from which the best fit can be obtained, thus optimum performance.

Various empirical studies reiterate the influence of Recruitment Practice on employees' performance. In Afghanistan Civil Service, Rahmany (2018) established that recruitment process, among other variables, accounted for 95% variability in employees' performance, much as the study ignored recruitment facets such as: Examining Vacancy, and Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates (Graham and Bennett, 1998) that the current study addressed. Most importantly, the variation in his finding is greater than the 11.6% (Adjusted $R^2=.116$) of the variation in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities as is in the current study. This could be because of the former examining the influence of recruitment alongside other variables.

In Kenya, using linear regression, Murage, Sang and Ngure (2018) found out that recruitment and selection accounted for 14.6% of employees' performance in public universities in Nyeri County. The focus was, however, on ethical issues in recruitment and selection as opposed to the facets of recruitment such as: Examining Vacancy, and Locating, Making Contact and

Attracting Candidates which characterize the current study (Graham and Bennett, 1998). Moreover, the unit of analysis was non-teaching staff and not academic staff as in the current study. This would probably create disparities owing to different measures of performance used to gauge the two categories of university employees. Furthermore, the contribution of recruitment and selection were not established in isolation.

Examining the influence of recruitment and selection on the performance of employees in research institutions in Kenya, Ombui, Mukulu and Waititu (2014) established that recruitment explained 37.4 of variation in employees' performance. The unique contributions of recruitment and selection were not established. Furthermore, the descriptors of recruitment were not revealed. The other studies that demonstrated positive influences of recruitment on employee performance are Mokaya, Mukhweso and Njuguna (2013), and Suntanto and Kurniawan (2016). According to the latter, Recruitment accounted for 53.11% variation in performance in Batik Industry in Solo City, Indonesia. However, just like the other studies, they ignored the facets of recruitment such as: Examining Vacancy, and Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates which characterize the current study (Graham and Bennett, 1998). On the flip side, examining the effect of recruitment, selection and placement on employee performance at PT Green Glovers in Indonesia, Suwanto and Subyantoro (2019) established that recruitment had no effect on employee performance. However, the study relied on a saturated sample of only 90 respondents in a one company which may not be suitable for generalization.

4.5 Selection Practice and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The third objective of the study was to determine the influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Generally, the influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities was analyzed through descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analyses. Henry and Temtine (2009) observe that selection is crucial to the extent that it facilitates the hiring of the right people for purposes of organizational success and reputation. To this end, it helps identify the most suitable candidate for a given position from a pool of applicants (Randhawa, 2007). Neeraj (2012) advocates for selecting the right candidate due to its implications on performance, cost and in fulfilling legal obligations.

4.5.1 Descriptive Statistics on Selection Practice

Selection Practice was assessed through two main measures, namely: Candidates' Assessment, and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment. Eight items that underlie the two measures were investigated using a 5-point Likert-type rating scaled statements. The Likert scale responses were converted into continuous scale data by computing the mean response in each item. Table 4.12 shows the percentage frequencies of response for Selection Practice centred on eight opinion statements rated using: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree.

Table 4. 12: Frequency Response on Selection Practice (n=136)

Selection Practices	Extent of Agreement [f (%)]					<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	1	2	3	4	5		
Candidates' Assessment							
My University uses the Commission for University Education's or other Senate approved standards in the shortlisting of candidates for the position of Academic Staff.	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	2(1.5)	14(10.3)	120(88.2)	4.87	0.38
My University uses the most suitable and relevant selection tools to assess the suitability of candidates for the positions of Academic Staff.	0(0.0)	3(2.2)	3(2.2)	50(36.8)	80(58.8)	4.52	0.66
My University incorporates at least one interviewer with expertise in the thematic area whenever they are screening candidates.	0(0.0)	0(0.0)	4(2.9)	43(31.6)	89(65.4)	4.63	0.54
My University uses a standardized score sheet to award marks to candidates in the process of screening candidates.	1(0.7)	1 (0.7)	3 (2.2)	16(11.8)	115(84.6)	4.78	0.59
Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment							
My University offers employment to academic staff based on merit.	0(0.0)	6 (4.4)	5(3.7)	46(33.8)	79(58.1)	4.46	0.76
Employment of the disadvantaged groups compromises the choice of qualified and competent candidates.	25(18.4)	38(27.9)	33(24.3)	28(20.6)	12 (8.8)	2.74	1.23
The head of user the department has a say on the candidate to be offered employment.	0(0.0)	4(2.9)	29(21.3)	74(54.4)	29(21.3)	3.94	0.74
The expert panellist's opinion counts in the choice of a candidate.	2(1.5)	1(0.7)	6(4.4)	83(61.0)	44 (32.4)	4.22	0.70
Overall Mean						4.27	0.43

Key: 1-Strongly Disagree; 2-Disagree; 3- Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4-Agree and 5-Strongly Agree; *M*-mean; *SD*-Standard deviation. **Source:** Survey Data (2020)

4.5.1.1 Candidates' Assessment

Assessment of candidates is a component of the employee selection process (Graham and Bennett, 1998). The results of the study show a general concurrence in opinion of the respondents who took part in the survey that the assessment of candidates was above board. For example, on Candidates' Assessment, it was clear that most of the universities use the Commission for University Education's or other Senate approved standards in the shortlisting of candidates for positions of academic staff. This was reflected by a mean rating of 4.87 ($SD=0.38$), with the bulk of respondents 134 (98.5%) strongly agreeing. Graham and Bennett (1998) argue for shortlisting of applicants in accordance with a desirable criteria in order to eliminate the unqualified.

Similarly, 130 (95.6%) respondents confirmed that their universities use the most suitable and relevant selection tools to assess the suitability of candidates for position of academic staff, reflecting a high rating ($M=4.52$; $SD=0.66$). According to Radhawa (2007), the success of a good selection process is defined by its ability to obtain competent, qualified and committed employees. He advises that organizations periodically audit their selection procedure through non-human resource department members to evaluate their suitability. Armstrong (2009) identifies the most important criterion in the choice of the best selection method as the predictive validity of the method as revealed by its predictive validity co-efficient.

Incorporation of thematic experts in the interview panels was rated at mean $M=4.63$ ($SD=0.54$), with a significant majority of 132 (97.0%) respondents agreeing that their universities incorporate at least one interviewer with expertise in the thematic area whenever they are screening candidates for the position of Academic Staff. Nyanjui (2009) applauds the inclusion of experts in a thematic area as members of a selection panel. This is because of their specialized knowledge on the specific job requirements. Cardona (2006) supports the inclusion of both internal and external experts who specialize in the area that the job position is domiciled.

Likewise, at a mean rating $M=4.78$ ($SD=0.59$), an overwhelming majority of 131 (96.4%) respondents were in agreement that their university uses a standardized score sheet to award marks to candidates in the process of screening. Generally, score sheets are adopted by organizations to ensure that candidates are evaluated objectively, fairly, consistently and on the dimensions relevant to the job in question.

4.5.1.2 Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment

A majority of the respondents who took part in the survey were of the general opinion that candidates' choice and offer of employment were generally done within the confines of best practice in HRM. For instance, on whether universities offer employment to based on merit, only a paltry 6 (4.4%) respondents held contrary opinion while a notable majority of 125 (91.9%) were in agreement. Some 5 (3.7%) were, however, undecided on this matter. This translated into a mean of 4.46 ($SD=0.76$). According to Graham and Bennett (1998), offer of employment should be given to the candidate who emerges the best in the selection process.

On the flip side, divergent opinions were expressed on whether the employment of disadvantaged groups compromises choice of qualified and competent candidates. This was mirrored by a low mean of 2.74 with a fairly large standard deviation of 1.23. Whereas 63 (46.3%) of the surveyed respondents felt that it does compromise the best choices, 40 (29.4%) respondents were of contrary opinion. Another 33 (24.3%) respondents were noncommittal. These findings reflect different perceptions on affirmative action in organizations (Delgado, 1998). While some perceive it positively as the society's efforts to address continuing problems of discrimination (Ochuka, 2018), its implementation in the context of employee selection till raises a number of questions. For instance, some of its opponents fault it for placing underqualified people into jobs or slots at the expense of more qualified one including in universities (Carloff, 2002; Delgado, 1996; Delgado, 1998).

The influence of the head of the department on employment of academic staff in the department received above average rating ($M=3.94$; $SD=0.74$). While the majority of 103 (75.7%) respondents agreed that the heads of user departments have a say on the candidate to be offered employment, 29 (21.3) respondents seemed unsure. Only 4 (2.9%) were categorical in disagreement. This to a limited extent highlights the dilemma regarding the role of user departments in the employment of academic staff. However, Nzuve (2010) contends that the actual selection should be the role of the line managers, and that human resources department should only facilitate the process by reducing the number of applicants through screening then pass the list to the line managers.

There was a general agreement ($M=4.22$; $SD=0.70$) that the expert panellist's opinion counts in the choice of a candidate. This was confirmed by 127 (93.4%) of the respondents who generally agreed that expert panellist's opinion counts in the choice of a candidate in their university although some 3 (2.2%) of them were not in agreement. Arguing for the inclusion

of such experts in the selection panel is Nyanjui (2009). Generally, experts contribute their technical knowledge that guides the decisions of the election panels.

The two sub-scales of Selection Practice were summarized using means and standard deviations. The findings were presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Summary of Selection Practice

Sub-scales	Mean	Standard Deviation
Candidates' Assessment	4.70	0.54
Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment	3.84	0.86
Overall Mean rating of Selection Practice	4.27	0.43

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Survey results in Table 4.13 demonstrate that public universities in Kenya generally have very high rating in their Selection Practices. This was mirrored by an overall mean rating of 4.27 with a standard deviation of 0.43 in a scale of 1 to 5. This implies respondents' satisfaction with their universities' employee Selection Practices. The dimension of Candidates' Assessment received the highest rating ($Mean=4.70$; $SD=0.54$), suggesting that many of the universities effectively screen candidates to determine their suitability for the specific academic staff positions in consideration. Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment, as a dimension of Selection Practice, received a mean rating of 3.84($SD=0.86$) which is a fairly strong rating. This is suggestive of the fact that the universities appoint candidates on the basis of merit. Relative to Candidates Assessment, the low rating could be as a result of the contention that accompanies universities' efforts to enhance affirmative action therein.

4.5.2 Relationship between Selection Practice and Performance of Academic Staff

The study sought to investigate the relationship between Selection Practice and Performance of Academic Staff. Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was used to establish the magnitude and direction of the relationships between the individual aspects of Selection Practice and Performance of Academic Staff, and a similar relationship between the overall Selection Practice and Performance of Academic Staff. The significance value was set at 0.05; hence, a p-value less than 0.05 would lead to the conclusion that the correlation is not statistically significant. The results are summarized in Table 4.14 that follows.

Table 4.14: Correlations between Selection Practice and Performance of Academic Staff

Indicator	N	r	p
Candidates' Assessment	136	.491	.000
Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment	136	.420	.000
Overall Selection Practice	136	.507	.000

Source: Survey Data (2020)

It is evident from Table 4.14 that both aspects of Selection Practice are directly correlated with Performance of Academic Staff. A stronger relationship was between Candidates' Assessment, as a dimension of Selection Practice, and Performance of Academic Staff. This was reflected by a significant correlation coefficient ($r=.491, p=.000$) which was positive, but moderate. Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment recorded a comparatively low correlation with Performance of Academic Staff, but the correlation was positive and significant ($r=.420, p=.000$).

When the correlation between the overall measure of Selection Practice and Performance of Academic Staff was sought, the results showed that it was higher than in each of its individual aspects. This suggests that the combined constructs have a higher association with Performance of Academic Staff than when they are dealt with individually. The coefficient value of their combined correlation was ($r=.507, p=.000$) suggesting a fairly moderate positive association between the two variables, such that when the overall Selection Practice is enhanced in Kenyan public universities then there would be a corresponding positive improvement in Performance of Academic Staff. The findings are in concurrence with those of Matolo, Iravo and Waititu (2019); Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije and Akintan (2018); and Makhamara, Waiganjo and Kwasira (2016) although they used different indicators of recruitment and treated recruitment and selection as single variable.

Further, regression analysis was used to establish the influence of Selection Practice on 'Performance in Kenyan public universities, as shown in Table 4.15.

4.5.3 Influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

H₀₃: Selection Practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

To establish whether Selection Practice has any influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, the null hypothesis that “*Selection Practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” was tested. Since the selection process was measured using two dimensions: Candidates’ Assessment, and Candidates’ Choice and Offer of Employment, a multiple regression analysis was employed, with the investigated null hypothesis being $H_0: \beta_1=\beta_2=0$ and the corresponding alternative hypothesis being H_1 : at least one $\beta_i \neq 0$. If the null hypothesis is true, then from $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_{i=1,2} X_{i=1,2}$ the population mean of Y_i is $\beta=0$ for every X_i value, which indicates that X_i (Selection Practice) has no influence on Y_i (Performance of Academic Staff) in Kenyan public universities, and the alternative being that X_i (Selection Practice) influences Y_i (Performance of Academic Staff) in Kenyan public universities.

Mean response across a set of statements of Likert-type scale responses in the domain of Selection Practice was computed to create an approximately continuous variable, within an open interval of 1 to 5 as determined to be suitable for the use of parametric data by Johnson and Creech (1983) and Sullivan and Artino (2013). High scale ratings implied high perceived Selection Practice and Performance of Academic Staff. This was done after reversing all the negatively worded statements. The priori significance level was set at 0.05, such that if the p -value was less than 0.05, then the null hypothesis would be rejected and conclusion reached that Selection Practice has statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff. If the p -value was larger than 0.05, it would be concluded that a significant difference exists. Table 4.15 shows the results of the regression model.

Table 4.15: Regression Model Summary on Influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff

Variable	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig.	95% CI	Part correlation
(Constant)	.020	.519		.039	.969	(-1.007, 1.047)	
Candidates' Assessment	.246	.113	.200	2.170	.032	(.022, 0.470)	.161
Candidates' Choice & Offer of Employment	.549	.136	.373	4.050	.000	(.281, 0.817)	.301

$R=.517$; *Adjusted R Square* = .256 ($SE=.53254$); $F(2, 133) = 24.226$, $p = .000$, df ($df_1 = 2$, $df_2 = 133$)

Dependent Variable: Performance of Academic Staff. **Source:** Survey Data (2020).

Table 4.15 estimates Equation 3.3 and can be depicted as Equation 4.3 with p -values in parentheses.

$$\hat{Y}_i = .020 + .246X_1 + .549X_2 \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation 4.3}$$

(.969)
(.032)
(.000)

The model summary shows that Selection Practice, as measured by Candidates' Assessment, and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment accounts for 25.6% (Adjusted $R^2=.256$) of the variation in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Disparity in the level of performance among academic staff in Kenyan public universities would, therefore, be explained by differences in Selection Practices, as measured by Candidates' Assessment, and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment. Furthermore, the two dimensions of Selection Practice: Candidates' Assessment, and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment had a moderate joint correlation ($R=.517$) with Academic Staffs' Performance. In addition, the ANOVA output results show that the level of Selection Practice, as measured by Candidates' Assessment, and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment, is a significant predictor of performance among in Kenyan public universities, $F(2, 133)=24.226, p=.000$. Therefore, knowledge on the level of Selection Practice in Kenyan public universities can significantly be used to predict Performance of Academic Staff.

Furthermore, the two dimensions of Selection Practice reflected different levels of influence on Performance of Academic Staff. Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment had a higher influence on the Performance of Academic Staff in public universities as indicated by a significant p -value ($t=4.050; p=.000$), unstandardized coefficient value of .549 within a 95% $C.I.(.281, .817)$. This suggests that when Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment, as a dimension of Selection Practice, is improved by one unit there would be a corresponding improvement in the Performance of Academic Staff by 0.549 units. Similarly, one standard deviation improvement in Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment results in an improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .373 ($Beta=0.373$) standard deviations only.

While Candidates' Assessment had a relatively lower influence on Performance of Academic Staff, its influence was significant ($t=2.170, p=.032$). This was reflected by an unstandardized coefficient value of .246. This means that when Candidates' Assessment is improved by one unit, there would be an ensuing improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .246 units. Likewise, one standard deviation improvement in Candidates' Assessment would result in an improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .200 ($Beta=0.200$) standard deviations only. While Duncan (1975) argues for the use unstandardized (not betas)

regression coefficients to measure the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, Field (2016) contends that a rough indication of the relative importance of the variables could be arrived at by comparing the absolute values of standardized regression coefficients, which is expressed in terms of standard deviations.

Using part correlation coefficients, the results of the study revealed that the two aspects of Selection Practice have varied contribution to the total Adjusted R squared. The results revealed that Candidates' Assessment has a part correlation coefficient of .161 while Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment has a part correlation coefficient of .301. Squaring these values show how much of the total variance in the Performance of Academic Staff is uniquely explained by the variable and how much R squared would drop if it was removed from the model. For instance, Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment uniquely contributes 9.1% to the model, while Candidates' Assessment uniquely explains 2.6% of the variance in Performance of Academic Staff. The sum of all the squared part correlation values is less than the total Adjusted R^2 value of .256 (25.6%) since overlaps or shared variance were removed in each case. Nonetheless, given that the two dimensions had significant unstandardized co-efficient values, there was sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis ($H_0: \beta_1=\beta_2=0$) because $H_0: \text{at least one } \beta_1 \neq 0$. Subsequently, the alternative hypothesis was supported and it was concluded that Selection Practice has statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

The findings support various theoretical arguments, for instance the Decision-making Theory (Simon, 1945; Mintzberg, 1973; Iyayi, 2002) which is the overarching theory, in addition to the findings of other past studies. The theory is based on the fact that decision-making is at the very heart of business success in any organization (Gberville, 2006; Tonwe, 1994). Decision-making theorists hold that decisions are the selection of a proposed course of action (Butler, 1992; Iyayi, 2002) which could be in the area of selection among others. Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2004) posit that through employee selection, organizations make decisions about whom to hire, for instance. Other decisions will be made on the most suitable selection tools and techniques to use in the identification of the best fit in the best interest of the organization. Managers will also decide on the most appropriate means of assessing an individual's qualifications relative to the standards of the job and the extent to which those qualifications best prepare and give an individual the requisite skills and abilities for the position. In addition, decisions will have to be made on the composition of the

interview panels and basis for ranking of candidates. It is believed that prudent decisions facilitate the acquisition and retention of performing employees.

There are also empirical studies that corroborate the findings of this study. In Kenya, for instance, Matolo, Iravo and Waititu (2019) found a weak, but statistically positive relationship between recruitment and selection, and performance of employees of technical training institutes. Regression results also revealed that recruitment and Selection Practice accounted for 18.4% of variation in Performance of Academic Staff although the two variables were treated as one entity. It is, however, worth noting that they used indicators other than candidates' assessment, and candidates' choice and offer of employment as in the current study. In Nigeria, Jolaosho, Shodiya, Oladije and Akintan (2018) also established that recruitment and selection process accounted for some variance in job performance in the telecommunication industry. While a positive statistically significant relationship between the two variables was also unearthed, the study used indicators of recruitment and selection other than Candidates' Assessment, and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment as in the current study. Similarly, the indicators of job performance were different from Quality of Teaching and Learning; Research and Publication; Administration and Other Responsibilities; and Community Engagement and Other Contributions as in the current study. Moreover, the study did not decouple recruitment and selection as to establish the direction and/or extent of individual correlation or influence as in the current study.

In another study in Kenya, Mwanagale, Gachunga and Mukhweso (2015) established a strong positive correlation with employee performance. The regression results also revealed that Selection Practices accounted for 72% variance in employee performance in public universities. However, the descriptors of Selection Practice were different from Candidates' assessment, and Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment as in the current study. The disparity of contribution could, therefore, be attributed to contextual and conceptual differences. This implies that Selection Practice can be used to predict Performance of Academic Staff. Fahad, Nadeem and Sahu (2014) also found a positive statistically significant relationship between recruitment and selection and employee performance, but just like in some of the studies so far discussed, recruitment and selection were treated as a single variable unlike in the current study in which they have been decoupled.

4.6: Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. To achieve this objective, seven facets of Job Satisfaction were adapted from Siddiqui and Bisaria (2021) and Herzberg, Mausner and Snydermann (1959) in order to capture the specific circumstances of the study.

4.6.1 Descriptive Statistics on Job Satisfaction

The facets of Job Satisfaction which included: Achievement; Recognition; Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity; Work Itself and Working Conditions; Comfort with pay and Benefits; and Company Policy and Administration were, therefore, used as proxies of Job Satisfaction. Twenty six questionnaire items that underlie the seven measures were generated from theoretical literature on Job Satisfaction and measured on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale. The views of the respondents in each facet of Job Satisfaction were investigated separately and summarized into percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviation. Table 4.16 shows the statistical results of Job Satisfaction founded on 26 opinion statements rated using: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree 4=Agree and 5=Strongly Agree.

Table 4.16: Response Frequency on Job Satisfaction (n=136)

Indicators	Extent of Agreement					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
Achievement							
Academic Staff in my department are placed in positions that use their skills, knowledge, abilities and talents; and not deliberately set up for failure.	2(1.5)	0(0.0)	6(4.4)	54(39.7)	74(54.4)	4.46	0.72
Clear and achievable goals and standards are mutually set by the academic staff and their supervisors.	1(0.7)	7(5.1)	6(4.4)	76(55.9)	46(33.8)	4.17	0.79
Academic Staff in my department are given regular and timely feedback on their performance.	2(1.5)	17(12.5)	11(8.1)	79(58.1)	27(19.9)	3.82	0.94
Efforts are made to help the academic staff in my department improve their performance.	1(0.7)	15(11.0)	7(5.1)	76(55.9)	37(27.2)	3.98	0.91
Recognition							
Academic Staff in my department are recognized for a job well done or outstanding performance.	4(2.9)	6(4.4)	15(11.0)	61(44.9)	50(36.8)	4.08	0.95
Recognition of academic staff in my department is immediate following a job well done or outstanding performance.	4(2.9)	8(5.9)	27(19.9)	65(47.8)	32(23.5)	3.83	0.95
Recognition of academic staff is	2(1.5)	15(11.0)	42(30.9)	50(36.8)	27(19.9)	3.62	0.97

objective across my University.

Recognition of academic staff is equitable across my University.	4(2.9)	15(11.0)	45(33.1)	51(37.5)	21(15.4)	3.51	0.98
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Responsibility

Academic Staff in my department are given authority in respect of their assignments.	1(0.7)	12(8.8)	5(3.7)	53(39.0)	65(47.8)	4.24	0.94
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Academic Staff in my department are given sufficient freedom to make decisions in the context of their jobs.	2(1.5)	11(8.1)	6(4.4)	54(39.7)	63(46.3)	4.21	0.96
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Academic Staff in my department take responsibility for the outcome of their assignments.	1(0.7)	11(8.1)	16(11.8)	75(55.1)	33(24.3)	3.94	0.87
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Advancement Opportunity

Academic Staff in my department are given reasonable support in their pursuit of their assignments.	6(4.4)	21(15.4)	11(8.1)	70(51.5)	28(20.6)	3.68	1.10
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Academic Staff in my department are given equal opportunity for promotion.	2(1.5)	12(8.8)	12(8.8)	58(42.6)	52(38.2)	4.07	0.98
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My University regularly reviews qualified academic staff in my department to the next job grade/ scale.	5(3.7)	30(22.1)	19(14.0)	55(40.4)	27 (19.9)	3.50	1.15
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Work Itself and Working Conditions

Academic Staff in my department are given assignments that offer adequate challenge to arouse interest and encourage career growth.	2(1.5)	5(3.7)	8(5.9)	92(67.6)	29(21.3)	4.03	0.74
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Academic Staff in my department are made aware of the importance and meaningfulness of tasks assigned to them.	2(1.5)	1(0.7)	7(5.1)	87(64.0)	39(28.7)	4.17	0.68
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Goals and standards set for the academic staff are aligned to the work they do.	1(0.7)	9(6.6)	8(5.9)	89(65.4)	29(21.3)	4.00	0.78
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My University endeavours to provide academic staff with safe and healthy physical working environment.	3(2.2)	12(8.8)	9(6.6)	100(73.5)	12(8.8)	3.77	0.81
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My University endeavours to provide academic staff with resources they need to perform their jobs.	1(0.7)	17(12.5)	15(11.0)	95(69.9)	8 (5.9)	3.67	0.79
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My University encourages positive co-worker relations.	2(1.5)	11(8.1)	23(16.9)	66(48.5)	34(25.0)	3.87	0.93
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Comfort with Pay and Benefits

Academic Staff in my department are compensated at the prevailing market rates.	8(5.9)	16(11.8)	33(24.3)	69(50.7)	10(7.4)	3.41	0.99
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The compensation system in my University is equitable.	8(5.9)	4(2.9)	17(12.5)	80(58.8)	27(19.9)	3.83	0.97
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My University provides welfare facilities to the academic staff.	8(5.9)	5(3.7)	28(20.6)	77(56.6)	18(13.2)	3.67	0.95
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Company Policy and Administration

My University addresses academic staffs' concerns and grievances promptly.	8(5.9)	16(11.8)	33(24.3)	69(50.7)	10(7.4)	3.42	0.99
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My University involves academic staff in decision making directly or through their representatives.	8(5.9)	4(2.9)	17(12.5)	80(58.8)	27(19.9)	3.84	0.98
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My University's policies and regulations are friendly to the academic staff.	8(5.9)	5(3.7)	28(20.6)	77(56.6)	18(13.2)	3.68	0.96
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Mean average level of Job Satisfaction among the university						3.85	0.61
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Key: **1**-Strongly Disagree; **2**-Disagree; **3**- Neither Agree nor Disagree; **4**-Agree and **5**-Strongly Agree; **M**-mean; **SD**-Standard deviation. **Source:** Survey Data (2020)

The study findings established varied levels of satisfaction among academic staff in Kenyan public universities in the context of their job. The mean average of 3.85 ($SD=0.61$) suggests that although some of the academic staff felt satisfied others were not. Their perceived satisfaction differed in light of the different facets of Job Satisfaction, namely: Achievement; Recognition; Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity; Work Itself and Working Conditions; Comfort with Pay and Benefits; and Company Policy and Administration were, therefore, used as proxies of Job Satisfaction (Siddiqui and Bisaria, 2021; Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959).

4.6.1.1 Achievement

The overall rating on achievement was 4.11 ($SD=0.84$) which reflects a general satisfaction by a majority of respondents. Achievement is enhanced when employees are helped and placed in positions that use their talent and not set up for failure. Furthermore, by setting clear and achievable goals and standards for every position and making employees aware of the same, achievement can be realised. In addition, the employees should be given regular and timely feedback on their performance and their jobs designed to provide adequate challenge (Weir, 1976; Syptak, Mrsland and Umer, 1996). Employees draw satisfaction from the sense of achievement that they obtain from their jobs (Start and Hovland, 2004) in Raihan (2020).

A majority of the respondents, 128 (94.1%), exhibited satisfaction ($M=4.46$; $SD=0.72$) with the manner in which academic staff are placed in positions of responsibility. They confessed to being placed in positions that allow them to use their skills, knowledge, abilities and talents without being deliberately set up for failure. However, some 2 (1.5%) of them expressed dissatisfaction. Kavoo-Linge and Kiruri (2013) consider employee placement as an important ingredient in employees' performance.

Likewise, a majority of respondents, 122 (89.7%), confirmed that clear and achievable goals and standards are mutually set by the academic staff and their supervisors. This translated into a mean rating of 4.17 ($SD=0.79$). On the contrary, 8 (5.8%) of them were expressed dissatisfaction with another 6(4.4) remaining non-committal. Since employees' performance is manifested by how effectively and efficiently employees achieve goals and objectives (Sousa, Aspinwall, Samapaio and Rodrigues, 2005), Goal Setting Theory advocates for

having employees pursue clear, yet difficult goals for greater performance (Locke *et al.*, 1990). Goal clarity enhances performance (Anderson and Stritch, 2015).

On provision of feedback on performance, 106 (78.0%) respondents believed that academic staff in their departments are given regular and timely feedback on their performance. This yielded a mean rating of 3.82 with a standard deviation of 0.94. However, 19 (14%) were of a dissenting opinion. According to Bandura and Cervone (1983), provision of feedback encourages performance. The survey also sought to establish whether there was a deliberate effort to help academic staff improve their performance of which 113 (83.11%) of the respondents were affirmative while 16 (11.7%) were of a contrary opinion. This translated into mean rating of 3.98 ($SD=0.91$). Trinova (2015) suggests that organizations motivate and reward employees in order to improve their performance.

4.6.1.2 Recognition

The study investigated the respondents' satisfaction with recognition as a facet of Job Satisfaction. Recognition is defined by the honour, favourable note or attention to employees in light of a job well done or outstanding behaviour. Recognizable success need not be monumental, but the employees should ideally be recognized immediately following their good work (Weir, 1976; Syptak, Mrsland and Umer, 1996). The results of the survey revealed that a majority of the respondents felt satisfied with how their universities recognized them. This was reflected by an overall mean rating of 3.76 ($SD=0.96$). Those who expressed dissatisfaction faulted their universities for failing to promptly acknowledge and appreciate their work.

While 111 (81.7%) of the respondents were in agreement ($M=4.08$; $SD=0.95$) that academic staff in their department are recognized for a job well done or outstanding performance, 10 (7.3%) others alluded to non-recognition. According to Imran, Ahmad, Nisar and Ahmad (2014), employee recognition not only motivated employees, but also energized them towards meeting organizational goals and objectives. Moreover, it positively impacts on employee performance (Rahim & Daud, 2013; Hussain, Khaliq, Nisar, Kamboh and Ali, 2019). Amaotemaa and Kyeremeh (2016) encouraged managements of Ghanaian universities to invest in employee recognition in conformity with Miller (2011) in Amaotemaa and Kyeremeh (2016) who vouches for the dedication of the required financial and human resources for the success of recognition programmes.

At a mean rating of 3.83 ($SD=0.95$), a significant majority, 97 (71.3%) of the respondents were in agreement that recognition of academic staff in their department was immediate following a job well done or outstanding performance. Some 12 (8.8%) disagreed while close to a fifth 27 (19.9) were non-committal. Amaotemaa and Kyeremeh (2016) recommended to the managements of Ghanaian universities that they have employees recognized immediately following desired behaviour or achievements in order to help them relate recognition with the behaviour being recognized (Schacter, 2001).

Objectivity in recognition of academic staff was supported by 77 (56.7%) of the surveyed as reflected by a mean rating of 3.62 ($SD=0.98$). A notable 42 (30.9) of the respondents seemed unaware of what constitutes objective recognition. This implies that the universities are probably not clear on the criteria or scale they use to recognize their academic staff. Similarly, at a mean rating of 3.51 ($SD=0.98$), 72 (52.9%) of the respondents agreed that recognition of academic staff is equitable across their universities. More than a quarter 45 (33%) of the respondents were, however, non-committal. This could mean that some universities may not have publicized recognition policies within the workforce or may not be having in place recognition policies that would infuse equity therein. In a survey on the effects of rewards and recognition on employee performance in public educational institutions, the respondents who were drawn from Kenyatta University opined that rewards be premised on an objective criteria of performance that employees perceive as being fair (Ndungu, 2017). For effective implementation of recognition programmes, Amaotemaa and Kyeremeh (2016) advocate for the establishment of well written policies and procedures on employee recognition. They propose that organizations prioritize consistency, fairness, and equality while formulating and implementing recognition programmes.

4.6.1.3 Responsibility

With regards to responsibility, an overall mean rating of 4.13 with a standard deviation of 0.92 was obtained, reflecting high satisfaction among the in respect of this facet. For example, 118(86.8%) of the respondents were in agreement ($M=4.24$; $SD=0.94$) that academic staff in their departments are given authority in respect of their assignments. However, 13 (9.5%) were of contrary opinion. The high level of satisfaction reflects the confidence that some universities have on their academic staff. Authority gives teachers dominance in the classroom, and, therefore, should be given any person allocated any responsibility to enable them accomplish the tasks of the position they hold (Esmaeili, Mohamadrezai and Mohamadrezai, 2015). Mesrabadi, Badri and Vahedi (2010) in Esmaeili,

Mohamadrezai and Mohamadrezai (2015) explain that by virtue of their position, teachers are entitled to legal authority to make decisions regarding classroom activities; speciality authority as a result of their expertise; reward authority to reward and advantage group members; reference authority courtesy of respect and affection to learners; and punishment authority to punish offenders.

Asked whether academic staff in their departments are given sufficient freedom to make decisions in the context of their jobs, most of the respondents, 117 (86.0%), were in agreement at a mean rating of 4.21 ($SD=0.96$). This means that most of the universities treasure employee empowerment as a strategy towards enhanced performance. Only 13 (9.6%) faulted the degree of freedom given to academic staff. Owusu- Ansah (2015) observes that autonomy and academic freedom are indispensable in optimizing university activities. Academic freedom contributes immensely towards the attainment of goals that advance knowledge, quality of research and encouragement and support of initiative (Rostan, 2010). Academic freedom demands that individuals, authorities and government facilitate scholarly work without restraint and prohibit any interference with this freedom (Owusu- Ansah, 2015).

On whether academic staff take responsibility for the outcome of their decisions, 108 (79.4) respondents were in agreement. This translated into a mean rating of 3.94 ($SD=0.87$). Those who disagreed were 12 (8.8) while 16 (11.8) were undecided. According to Kumar and Kumar (2017), organizations that empower employees by enriching their jobs and transferring to them authority and control expects them to take responsibility for the outcome and efforts. Empowerment in this context implies giving academic staff the latitude to act and tasking them to remain accountable and responsible for their actions and decisions (Honold, 1997). The disagreement could, therefore, be accounted for by the employees feeling that they were neither given authority nor freedom to make choices. Consequently, they probably felt that they could not take responsibility for the outcome of actions that resulted from being micro-managed. It is, therefore, suggested that academic staff be granted sufficient authority, freedom and power in their activities to infuse in them feelings of ownership of results.

4.6.1.4 Advancement Opportunity

Researchers agree that job and career satisfaction is a function of such factors as career advancement opportunities, the level of job control and the relationship with the co-workers. University employees being career-oriented should ideally be accorded not only opportunities

for career growth and advancement, but personal development opportunities as well (Dorasamy and Letoane, 2015). Opportunities for advancement or promotion involve moving employees from the present job or position to a higher level in the organization. In this regard, academic staff could be supported in their pursuit for higher certificates (Weir, 1976; Syptak, Mrsland and Umer, 1996). The study sought to investigate the level of satisfaction with advancement opportunity as a dimension of Job Satisfaction. The overall rating was above average at 3.75 ($SD=1.08$). When the respondents were asked if academic staff in their departments are given reasonable support in their pursuit for extra and/or higher qualifications, a majority of 98 (72.1%), that translated into a mean rating of 3.68 ($SD=1.10$), were of the affirmative opinion. On the contrary, 27 (19.8%) respondents disagreed. This could mean that the support the academic staff are accorded is perceived as being insufficient. Advancement opportunities pegged on performance is quite satisfying and motivating to academic staff, and instills in them them devotion (Baloch, 2009). In a survey carried out in Aegan region in Turkey, Karaca and Erdem (2014) recommends that management of universities support ' career progression by sponsoring their studies abroad for professional development; facilitating them to attend scientific meetings; and being given incentives for innovation and inventions.

On whether, academic staff are given equal opportunity for promotion, 110 (80.8%) were in agreement thus attracting a mean rating of 4.07 ($SD=0.98$). Some 14 (10.3%) of the sampled academic staff were, however not persuaded that this was the case. Waswa and Katana (2008) observed inequality in appointment to administrative positions Kenyan public universities, much as all the academic staff had equal opportunity to compete and prove their academic leadership. Robbins and Judge (2013) advocate for the provision of opportunity for promotion in organizations as it facilitates employees' self-advancement in addition to ensuring higher levels of responsibility and social standing relative to an employee's abilities, skills and work. People prefer jobs that offer both challenge and prospects for promotion (Ngethe, Iravo, & Namusonge, 2012). Park (2008) suggests that organizations offer fair promotional opportunities to employees in order to to accelerate organizational performance.

Convinced that their universities regularly review qualified academic staff in their departments to the next job grade were 82 (60.3%) respondents thus a mean rating of 3.50 ($SD=1.15$). Around a quarter of the respondents, 35 (25.8%), were in disagreement, and another 19 (14%) being unsure. In all, the survey results highlight the irregular pattern of

reviews that characterize the universities. Promotion has been found to be the most valued reward by employees, and has the potential of enhancing their performance (Salmuni, Mustaffa and Kamis, 2007) in Archibong, Effiom, Omioke and Edet (2010) as it carries with it both money and recognition of an employee's performance (Santhapparaj and Alam, 2005). This is echoed by Maicibi and Nkata (2005) who argue for promotions on the basis of them enhancing employees' self-worth, earnings and status in the organization. It is, therefore, prudent that management of Kenyan public universities give it due attention.

4.6.1.5 Work Itself and Conditions of Work

Work itself comes out as a predominant feature on Job Satisfaction (Mac-Ozigbo and Daniel, 2020). It has to do with having employees appreciate the significance of the tasks assigned to them. Goals should be set and employees reminded that their efforts contribute to positive outcomes and goal accomplishments. Unnecessary tasks should be eliminated or streamlined to bring about greater efficiency in the organization (Weir, 1976; Syptak, Mrsland and Umer, 1996). Hackman and Oldham (1975) who came up with the Job Characteristics Model proposed that the job itself be designed in a way that it carries fundamental characteristics required to create conditions that enhance work motivation, satisfaction and performance. Job characteristics such as: skill variety, task identity, autonomy and feedback motivate employees and enhance their job performance (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). As regards conditions of work, employees prefer pleasant working conditions that are free from any danger (Robbins, 1998). Since working conditions influence employee performance, organizations should endeavour to provide pleasant and safe environments devoid of physical and psychological risks (Bakotić and Babić, 2013).

The study investigated the level of satisfaction derived from the nature of work itself and conditions of work. The study findings revealed that, on average, the are fairly satisfied with the nature of work itself and conditions of work, as reflected by an overall mean of 3.92 (SD=0.79). Specifically, asked about academic staff in their departments being given assignments that offer adequate challenge, many respondents, 121 (88.9%), at mean rating of 4.03 (SD=0.74), were of the opinion that in their departments are given assignments that offer adequate challenge to arouse interest and encourage career growth. However, a paltry 7 (5.2%) respondents believed that the assignments do not offer the envisaged challenge. Generally, involving, interesting, rewarding and challenging jobs with optimistic features bring enhance Job Satisfaction (Mac-Ozigbo and Daniel, 2020). Theoretically, a less challenging job would not require as much use of variety of skills as a challenging one. Low

skill variety manifests itself when a worker is performs the same tasks cyclically (Juhdi, Samah and Saad, 2007). Consequently, public universities should intensify their efforts in making jobs more challenging to make them more interesting by eliminating boredom that it occasioned by monotony of tasks.

Asked if the academic staff in their departments are made aware of the importance and meaningfulness of tasks assigned to them, an overwhelming majority of 126 (92.7%) were in agreement. This attracted a mean rating $M=4.17$ ($SD=0.68$), implying that the universities made the academic staff understand their value to the organization. Furthermore, it reflects the academic staffs' level of agreement with Recruitment Practices in respect of the development of job descriptions and specifications thus a realistic job preview. According to the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), task significance and meaningfulness of work enhance job performance (Blake Ryan, and Bryan, 2016). Task significance or the degree to which one's work helps other people is a function of meaningfulness of work, and has previously been linked to greater job performance (Grant, 2007, 2008). Other studies that have previously shown that a significant task is meaningful are (Allan, Autin, and Duffy, 2014; Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgeson, 2007). Kenyan public universities should, therefore, explain to the therein the significance of their tasks (for instance, quality teaching and learning, community service, research and publication as well as administrative work assigned to them) to the university and the nation at large to enable them draw meaning from the same.

Whether goals and standards set are aligned to the work done by academic staff yielded a mean rating of 4.00 ($SD=0.78$) with a majority 118 (86.7%) being in agreement. This implies that performance standards are set well within the reach of academic staff hence enhanced satisfaction. Only 10 (7.3%) respondents were of contrary opinion. Goals and standards are normally set during the performance and development agreements stage of the performance management cycle. The performance agreements emanate from the analysis of role requirements and performance review. The role profile defines not only the key result areas, but also what the role holders need to know and are able to do (i.e. within their technical competencies), as well as the required behavioural competencies. Much as the goals or objectives set at this stage are expected to be challenging, they should be within the reach of the employee (Armstrong, 2009). Latham and Locke (1979) through the Goal Theory observe that motivation and performance are enhanced when individuals are given goals that are specific, difficult, but acceptable, and when they are given feedback on performance. They

advocate for mutual participation in setting such performance agreements and higher goals. Mutual goal setting will ensure that the goals set are within the scope of the academic staffs' job. Kenyan public universities are, consequently, encouraged to set mutually agreeable objectives with the employees (for instance, the number of publications in refereed journals per year) against which their performance will be gauged.

In respect of working conditions, a majority of respondents 112(82.3%) at mean rating of 3.77 ($SD= 0.81$) were in agreement that their universities endeavoured to provide safe and healthy physical working environment. Other 15(11%) respondents were, however, of a contrary opinion. This implies that most universities made efforts towards affording their employees better working conditions amidst reduced government funding and reduced number of self-sponsored students that would otherwise generate extra funding towards this endeavour. A conducive physical working environment enhances employees' satisfaction (Tio, 2014; Kukiqi, 2017) and performance (Chandrasekar, 2011; Hansen, 2017). Such environment is defined by internal and external office layout, temperature, lighting, ventilation, noise, furniture, spatial layouts, comfort levels amongst others (Vischer, 2011). Accordingly, Kenyan public universities should work towards improving the physical working conditions of their academic staff despite the challenges created by massification amidst reduced funding. The academic staff themselves should intensify the search for development funding to ease the financial burden on the management.

Asked whether, the universities endeavour to provide academic staff with necessary resources, 103 (75.8%) were in agreement, attracting a mean rating $M=3.67$ ($SD=0.79$). However, 18 (13.2%) of the respondents who took part in the survey were of a contrary opinion and another 15 (11%) non-committal. This implies that while a large number of the academic staff appreciate the spirit by the university to provide resources, some feel that the effort is inadequate. The limited resources could be as a result of the limited funding that the universities receive from the government and their inability to generate more. Owoko (2010) in Okongo Ngao, Rop and Nyongesa (2015) views resources as not only being limited to teaching methods and materials, but as incorporating the time available for instruction and teachers knowledge and skills acquired through training and experience. Teaching and learning resources also include: peripatetic services, support staff (for instance, sign language interpreters and Braille transcribers) among others (Oyugi and Nyaga 2010), especially to lecturers with special needs. Others are such physical facilities as: classrooms, lecture theatres, auditoriums, administrative block, libraries, laboratories, workshops, play grounds,

assembly halls, and special rooms like clinics, staff quarters, students' hostels, kitchen, cafeteria, and toilet amongst others DFID (2007) in (Okongo *et al.*, 2015). Dangara (2016) divides the resources into material, financial, time, human and community resources as well as information and communication technology. Since a positive relationship between such resources, and the extent of teaching and learning has been established (Dangara, 2016; Okongo *et al.*, 2015), Kenyan public universities should focus more effort towards the provision of resources given the importance of organizational resources in the success of firms (Ombaka, Awino, Machuki and Wainaina, 2015). Moreover, availability of resources has been found to be having a significant positive impact on employees' Job Satisfaction (Mehta, 2020).

On co-workers relations, 100 (73.5) respondents felt that their universities encouraged positive co-worker relations at a mean rating of 3.87 ($SD=0.93$). Thirteen (9.6%) respondents were, however, unconvinced and another 23 (16.9%) unsure. This implies that whereas a majority are positive in this aspect some fault or are not aware of such efforts, which calls for investment on deliberate or overt team building initiatives given the importance of team work. Herzberg (1966) identifies three different groups of workplace relationship: relationship with peers, relationship with supervisor, and relationship with subordinates. Social relations at the workplace could make significant contributions to employees' Job Satisfaction (Armstrong, 2009; Hodson, 1997) productivity and well-being (Hodson, 1997).

4.6.1.6 Pay and Benefits

Pay and benefits are sub-sets of employee compensation. Employee compensation is generally aimed at, among other objectives, enhancing employees' motivation and satisfaction by reducing incidents of grievances, absenteeism and turnover for optimum performance (Randhawa, 2007). Attractive and competitive remuneration packages are ranked as one of the key factors that affect Job Satisfaction since they fulfil the financial and material desires of employees (Shoaib, Noor, Tirmizi and Bashir, 2009). Pay and benefits as a facet of Job Satisfaction drew an overall rating of 3.64 ($SD=0.97$), which indicates a moderate level of satisfaction. Slightly over a half of the respondents, 79 (58.1%), who took part in the study indicated that their universities compensated them at the prevailing market rates as demonstrated by a mean rating of 3.41 ($SD=0.99$). However, 24 (17.7%) disputed this assertion with another 33 (24.3%) being unsure. This implies that most of the universities do not conform to the tenets of external equity. The evident disparity in compensation rates points to the relative strength of bargaining units in the respective universities with respect to

the allowances within the scope of internal collective bargaining agreements. In addition, the fact that some respondents were undecided as to whether the compensation system was equitable across universities points to the lack of awareness that is probably occasioned by the failure of trade unions to either educate or inform their membership about the current trends in compensation. Ordinarily, compensation in a given organization is influenced by the rates paid by similar organizations in the same industry. Conformity with industry rates helps attract and retain competent employees in addition to reduction of industrial disputes (Randhawa, 2007). Adams (1965) proposed the equity theory which is premised on exchange relationship. According to the theory, employees contribute to the organization expecting equivalent returns relative to a reference person or group. Greenberg (1999) observes that perception of equity or inequity could motivate or demotivate employees. Accordingly, perception of inequity could lead to lower productivity, reduced quality, absenteeism or resignations. Comparison of one's pay with the referent other within and outside the organization will determine their satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Ronen, 1986; Goodman, 1974). Therefore, Kenyan public universities should endeavour to pay within the tenets of external equity.

On whether the academic staff are compensated equitably in the respective universities, 107 (78.7%) respondents were in agreement. This yielded a mean rating of 3.83 ($SD=0.97$). However, 12 (8.8%) of them disagreed. Universities, therefore, appear to uphold the tenets of internal equity at the expense of external equity, although both are important in view of employee satisfaction and performance. According to Adams (1963), how an employee perceives fairness relative to others influences their motivation and Job Satisfaction. Employees will perceive equity in pay and benefits if it corresponds to their qualifications, experience effort and skills relative to that of other employees in comparable positions. Kenyan public universities should, therefore, establish compensation systems that observe distributive equity across cadres. Seniwoliba (2015) advocates for equity in pay as it delights and motivates employees thus unleashing their potentials in the interest of university. He recommends that universities embrace transparency to eliminate perceptions of inequity.

As to whether the universities provide welfare facilities to their academic staff, 95 (69.8) respondents were in agreement with 13 (9.6 %) disagreeing and 28 (20.6%) being undecided. This was reflected by a mean index of 3.67 ($SD=0.95$). The low mean highlights the slow pace with which the universities are investing on welfare facilities amidst financial challenges that appear to be the new normal in public universities. Employee welfare services have been

found to facilitate Job Satisfaction (Kumar, 2020). Muruu, Were and Abok (2016) established that welfare programmes in the form of workers compensation, health and safety affected employee satisfaction. Kuria (2012) established that employee welfare programmes affected employee satisfaction in the Kenyan flower industry. Njeru, Moguche and Mutea (2016) found a strong relationship between non-monetary welfare programmes (particularly occupational health and safety, and pension and retirement schemes) and the performance of non-teaching staff in Kenyan institutions of higher learning. Kenyan public universities should, therefore, endeavour to provide more and better employee welfare facilities in order to tap into their benefits.

4.6.1.7 Company Policy and Administration

Company policies are extrinsic factors that are aimed at preventing dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2009; Robbins and Judge, 2009). Satisfaction with company policy and administration as a facet of Job Satisfaction attracted mean rating of 3.65 ($SD=0.98$) which above average. This implies that the public universities endeavour to establish fair and friendly administrative procedure and practices as well as policies.

With regards to academic staffs' concerns and grievances, 79 (58.1%) of the respondents confirmed that their universities address academic staffs' concerns and grievances promptly, translating to satisfaction index of 3.42 ($SD=0.99$). Some 24 (17.7%) felt otherwise with another 33 (24.3%) being unsure. The average number of respondents in agreement points to the possible infidelity to human resource policies and procedures in the respective universities. It could also hint to the failure by the trade unions chapters in the respective universities to enforce adherence to the policies and procedures. The number of respondents who are unsure points to lack of awareness that should otherwise be created by the respective union officials. Reiterating the need to settle employees concerns and grievances promptly, Cole (2002) opines that a good grievance handling procedure should be able to settle possible grievances in the earliest opportunity possible. Promptness, therefore, is one of the desirable qualities of a good grievance handling procedure (Randhawa, 2007). Grievances should be dealt with as soon as they are reported in order to eliminate the possible negative consequences of unresolved grievance (Onyebuchi and Uchechu, 2019). Grievance handling procedures address employee issues and concerns and are key in enhancing satisfaction and productivity (Huselid 1995; and Huselid, Jackson, and Schuler, 1997). Randhawa (2007) suggests that organizations adopt an open door policy that facilitates communication within the organization as to allow employees and their managers to share any concern that has the

potential of becoming a grievance. In terms of decision making, it emerged that not all universities involve their academic staff in decision making, either directly or through representatives. This was indicated by a mean rating of 3.84 ($SD=0.98$). While 107 (78.7%) were in agreement, 12 (8.8%) of the respondents disagreed. This hints to the possible unilateral decisions that the management of some universities take with respect to their functions. Kenyan public universities should intensify participative decision making given its positive influence on Job Satisfaction (Pathak and Reeta, 2012; Zohori, Razai, and Jargi, 2008; Mohsen and Sharif, 2020; Muhindi, 2011).

In light of the university policies and regulations being friendly to the academic staff, at mean rating of 3.68 ($SD=0.96$), ninety five (69.8%) respondents were in agreement. Some 28 (20.6) remained non-committal while another 13 (9.6) disagreed, The category that were undecided could mean that some of the universities have not developed, implemented or circulated formal human resource policies and regulations to create awareness in their employees. The proportion that disagreed could be reflective of the management of some universities failing to involve employees in the formulation of the policies and procedures thus coming up with unfriendly ones. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) suggest that a misfit between organizational policies and employee's expectation will lower Job Satisfaction. Alam and Mukherjee (2013) observed that employee friendly human resource policies contribute to employee retention and competitiveness. Therefore, Kenyan public universities should intensify the formulation of policies and regulations that are friendly to the academic staff. The seven subscales of Job Satisfaction were summarized using means and standard deviations as in Table 4.17 that follows.

Table 4.17: Summary of the Level of Job Satisfaction among University

Facets of Job Satisfaction	N	Mean	SD
1. Achievement	136	4.11	0.84
2. Recognition	136	3.76	0.96
3. Responsibility	136	4.13	0.92
4. Advancement Opportunity	136	3.75	1.08
5. Comfort with Pay and Benefits	136	3.92	0.79
6. Work itself and Working Conditions	136	3.64	0.97
7. Company Policy and Administration	136	3.65	0.98
Overall Job Satisfaction	136	3.85	.061

Key: Highly satisfied (4.21-5.00); Satisfied (3.61-4.20); Neither (2.61-3.60); Dissatisfied (1.81-2.60); Highly Dissatisfied (1.00-1.80). **Source:** Survey Data (2020)

On a scale of 1 to 5, Table 4.17 shows that the academic staff Kenyan public universities, on average, have a Job Satisfaction level of 3.85 with a small standard deviation of 0.061. The small standard deviation shows that the levels of Job Satisfaction among the academic staff in various universities/departments do not differ with a big margin, suggesting that many of them hold almost uniform perception on their satisfaction on the job. However, it is evident that their level of satisfaction varied with respect the different facets of the job. On the one hand, Company Policy and Administration ($M=3.65$; $SD=0.98$), and Work Itself and Working Conditions ($M=3.64$; $SD=0.97$) generated the least satisfaction or highest dissatisfaction among the academic staff in Kenyan public universities. On the other hand, the academic staff recorded highest Job Satisfaction index in Achievement ($M=4.11$; $SD=0.84$) and Responsibility ($M=4.13$; $SD=0.92$). The findings imply that while a majority of the academic staff were generally satisfied with their job, a reasonable proportion was not. The main sources of dissatisfaction was established to be poor Company Policy and Administration, and lack of Comfort with Pay and Benefits, while the reasons for satisfaction were mainly explained by Responsibility and Achievement in the university.

4.6.2 Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff

The study sought to investigate the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. To this end, Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis was used to find out the magnitude and direction of the relationships between the individual seven facets of Job Satisfaction as well as that of the overall Job Satisfaction measure and Performance of Academic Staff, as shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Correlations between Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff

Indicators	<i>n</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>p</i>
Achievement	136	.474	.002
Recognition	136	.543	.000
Responsibility	136	.562	.000
Advancement Opportunity	136	.660	.000
Comfort with Pay and Benefits	136	.556	.000
Work Itself and Working Conditions	136	.569	.000
Company Policy and Administration	136	.671	.000
Overall Job Satisfaction	136	.726	.000

Source: Survey Data (2020)

Table 4.18 shows that all the facets of Job Satisfaction are positively correlated with Performance of Academic Staff. Although the direction of relationship between the individual facets of Job Satisfaction and Academic Staff's Performance was positive in all cases, the magnitude of relationship differed. The strongest relationship was between Company Policy and Administration and Performance of Academic Staff, as reflected by a significant positive correlation coefficient value of 0.671 ($p=.000$). As a facet of Job Satisfaction, it accounted for 45.0% ($R^2=.450$) of the variability in Performance of Academic Staff. On the flip side, Achievement accounted for the least variation (22.5%) in Performance of Academic Staff. This was reflected by the fact that it recorded the least Pearson product moment correlation coefficient $r=.474$ ($p=.002$) translating to R Square value of .225. However, given the p -value of 0.002 which is less than the acceptable alpha level of 0.05, the correlation between Achievement and Job Satisfaction is significant. The correlation between Advancement Opportunity and Performance of Academic Staff was the second highest in magnitude. It was positive and significant ($r=.660$, $p=.000$), implying a statistically significant linear correlation between the two variables. Advancement Opportunity explained 43.6% ($R^2=.436$) of the variance in the Performance of Academic Staff in public universities in Kenya. Equally, the study findings show that Work Itself and Working Conditions, as a facet of Job Satisfaction, had a statistically significant correlation with Performance of Academic Staff ($r=.569$, $p=.000$). It accounted for 32.4% ($R^2=.324$) of the variance in Performance of Academic Staff in public universities in Kenya. On the same note, Responsibility explained 31.5% ($R^2=.315$) of the variability of Performance of Academic Staff, as interpreted from Pearson product moment correlation coefficient $r=.562$ ($p=.000$). Likewise, a statistically significant positive correlation ($r=.556$, $p=.000$) was also established between the Job Satisfaction facet of Comfort with Pay and Benefits, and Performance of Academic Staff. Therefore, slightly more than thirty percent (30.9%, $R^2=.309$) of the variance in the level of performance among the academic staff in Kenyan public universities was accounted for by variability in the level in which the academic staff felt satisfied with Pay and Benefits in their university.

When the facets of Job Satisfaction were bundled together, they exhibited a stronger association with Performance of Academic Staff as opposed to when they were treated individually. The correlation coefficient $r=.726$ ($p=.000$), suggests that there is a fairly stronger positive association between the two variables. The subsequent impression given is that an improvement in the overall Job Satisfaction leads to greater improvement in

Performance of Academic Staff, than when one facet is improved. The findings are in conformity with those of Ezeanyim, Ufoaroh and Ajakpo (2019); Buntaran, Andika and Alfiyana (2019); Abdulkhaliq and Mohammadali (2019); Inuwa (2016) among others who established a positive significant relationship between Job Satisfaction and Employee Performance in diverse settings. Worth noting is that these studies were in contexts other than Kenyan public universities. Moreover, none of them used the seven sub-scales of Job Satisfaction in entirety as in the current study. Similarly, none of them used the measures of Performance of Academic Staff such as Quality of Teaching and Learning, Research and Publication, Community Engagement and Other Contributions, and Administration and Responsibilities as in the current study.

To establish the influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, the research data was further subjected to regression analysis as in Table 4.19.

4.6.3 Influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public

H₀₄: Job Satisfaction has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

To establish the influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, the null hypothesis that “*Job Satisfaction has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” was tested. Job Satisfaction was measured using seven dimensions namely; Achievement, Recognition, Responsibility, Advancement Opportunity, Comfort with Pay and Benefits, Work itself and Working Conditions, and Company Policy and Administration. The study adopted multiple regression analysis with the investigated null hypothesis being; $H_0: \beta_1=\beta_2=\beta_3=\beta_4=\beta_5=\beta_6=\beta_7=0$ and the corresponding alternative hypothesis being H_1 : at least one $\beta_i \neq 0$. If the null hypothesis is true, then from $E(Y_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_{4i=1,2,3,4,5,6,7}X_{4i=1,2,3,4,5,6,7}$ the population mean of Y_i is β_i for every X_i value which indicates that X_i (Job Satisfaction) has no influence on Y_i (Performance of Academic Staff) in Kenyan public universities, and the alternative being that X_i (Job Satisfaction) influences Y_i (Performance of Academic Staff) in Kenyan public universities.

Mean response across a set of questions of Likert–type scale responses in the measure of Job Satisfaction was computed to create an approximately continuous variable, within an open

interval of 1 to 5 as proposed to be suitable for the use parametric data by Johnson and Creech (1983) and Sullivan & Artino (2013), where high scale ratings implied high perceived Job Satisfaction and Performance of Academic Staff. This was done after reversing all the negatively worded statements. The priori significance level was set at 0.05, such that if the p-value was less than 0.05 then the null hypothesis would be rejected and a conclusion reached that a significant difference exists. On the other hand, if the p-value was greater than 0.05, then it would be concluded that a significant difference does not exist. Table 4.19 shows the results of the regression model.

Table 4.19: Regression Model Summary on Influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff

Variable	B	SE	Beta	T	Sig.	95% CI	Part correlation
(Constant)	-.399	.183		-2.181	.031	(-.760, -.037)	
Achievement	.139	.031	.190	4.495	.000	(.078, 0.201)	.172
Recognition	.187	.028	.287	6.697	.000	(.132, .243)	.257
Responsibility	.036	.018	.071	2.000	.044	(.027, .044)	.054
Advancement Opportunity	.112	.027	.227	4.140	.000	(.059, .166)	.159
Comfort with Pay and Benefits	.037	.018	.075	2.055	.047	(.025, .048)	.054
Work Itself and Working conditions	.119	.033	.173	3.652	.000	(.055, .184)	.140
Company Policy and Administration	.325	.042	.352	7.751	.000	(.242, .408)	.297

$R = .901$; Adjusted R Square = .802 ($SE = .19992$); $F(7,128) = 78.929$, $p = .000$

Dependent Variable: Performance of Academic Staff. **Source:** Survey Data (2020).

Table 4.19 estimates Equation 3.4 and can be depicted as Equation 4.4 with *p-values* in parentheses.

$$\hat{Y}_i = -.399 + .139X_1 + .187X_2 + .036X_3 + .112X_4 + .037X_5 + .119X_6 + .325X_7 \dots \text{Equation 4.4}$$

(.031)
(.000)
(.000)
(.044)
(.000)
(.047)
(.000)
(.000)

4.4

The model summary reveals that Job Satisfaction in the model explains 80.2% of the variation in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, as indicated by the Adjusted $R^2 = .802$. Disparity in the level of performance among academic staff in public universities in Kenya can be explained by the differences in Job Satisfaction in the universities at 80.2% as perceived by the respondents. The ANOVA output results demonstrate that Job Satisfaction is a significant predictor of Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, $F(7,128) = 78.929$, $p = .000$. Therefore, the knowledge of the

level of Job Satisfaction is important in predicting the Performance of Academic Staff in public university in Kenya.

It is evident that the seven facets of Job Satisfaction had different levels of influence on the Performance of Academic Staff although they all had significant positive unstandardized coefficients values as follows: Achievement ($B=.139$; $t=4.495$, $p=.000$), Recognition ($B=.187$; $t=6.697$, $p=.000$), Advancement Opportunity ($B=0.112$; $t=4.140$ $p=.000$), Work Itself and Working Conditions ($B=.119$; $t=3.652$, $p=.000$) and Company Policy and Administration ($B=.325$; $t=7.751$, $p=.000$), Responsibility ($B=0.036$; $t=2.000$, $p=.044$), and Comfort with Pay and Benefits ($B=0.037$; $t=2.055$, $p=.047$). Although the coefficients values for Responsibility, and Comfort with Pay and Benefits were small in magnitude, they were significant.

Given that all the dimensions had significant unstandardized co-efficient values, there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis ($H_0: \beta_1=\beta_2=\beta_3=\beta_4=\beta_5=\beta_6=\beta_7=0$). Hence, the alternative hypothesis was supported and a conclusion made that Job Satisfaction has statistically significant influence on the performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Duncan (1975) argues for the use unstandardized (not betas) regression coefficients to measure the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

It emerged that the Company Policy and Administration had the highest influence on Performance of Academic Staff with an unstandardized value of .325 within a 95% *CI* (.242, .408). Therefore, a unit improvement in Company Policy and Administration, as a facet of Job Satisfaction, would result in improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .325 units. Similarly, when the university administration improves in Company Policy and Administration by one standard deviation the level of Performance of Academic Staff would improve by .352 standard deviations.

The second Job Satisfaction facet, in terms of influence, was Recognition that had an unstandardized coefficient value of .187 within a 95% *CI* (.132, .243), implying that for each one unit improvement in Recognition, there would be an ensuing improvement in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities by .187 units, when other factors are held constant. Equally, one standard deviation improvement in Recognition would result in an improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .287 standard deviations.

The third facet, in terms of influence, was Advancement Opportunity with an unstandardized coefficient value of .112 within a 95% *CI*(.059, .166), implying that for each one unit improvement in Comfort with Pay and Benefits, there would be a corresponding improvement in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities by .112 units, when other factors are held constant. Equally, one standard deviation improvement in Advancement Opportunity would result in an improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .227 standard deviations.

The fourth facet, in terms of influence, was Achievement with an unstandardized coefficient value of .139 within a 95% *CI*(.007, .336), implying that for each one unit improvement in Achievement, there would be a corresponding improvement in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities by .139 units, when other factors are held constant. Equally, one standard deviation improvement in Achievement would result in an improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .190 standard deviations.

The fifth facet, in terms of influence, was Work Itself and Working Conditions with an unstandardized coefficient value of .119 within a 95% *CI*(.055, .184), implying that for each one unit improvement in Achievement, there would be a corresponding improvement in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities by .119 units, when other factors are held constant. Equally, one standard deviation improvement in Achievement would result in an improvement in Performance of Academic Staff by .173 standard deviations.

The influence of Comfort with Pay and Benefits ($B=.037$, $p=.047$), and that of Responsibility ($B=.036$, $p=.044$) as facets of Job Satisfaction were relatively low though statistically significant ($p<.05$) in the regression model. One unit improvement in Comfort with Pay and Benefits would result in a corresponding improvement in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities by .037 units only, when other factors are held constant. Equally, one standard deviation improvement in Comfort with Pay and Benefits would lead to an improvement in the Performance of Academic Staff by only .075 standard deviations. Similarly, one unit improvement in Responsibility would result in a corresponding improvement in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities by .036 units, when other factors are held constant. Equally, one standard deviation improvement in Responsibility would lead to an improvement in the Performance of Academic Staff by .071 standard deviations. Field (2016) contends that a rough indication of the relative importance

of the variables could be arrived at by comparing the absolute values of standardized regression coefficients, which is expressed in terms of standard deviations.

Furthermore, the study explored part correlation coefficients which reflected the contribution of each facet of Job Satisfaction to the total *R* squared of the model. The results revealed that each of the facets contributes uniquely to the model. For example, whereas Company Policy and Administration had a part correlation coefficient of .297 which translates to 8.8% of the unique contribution to *R*-squared, Responsibility, and Comfort with Pay and Benefits collectively reflected almost a negligible (<1%) contribution to the model. Recognition uniquely explains about 7%; Achievement explains about 3%; Advancement Opportunity explains 2.5%; and Work Itself and Working Conditions explain about 2% of the variance in the Performance of Academic Staff. Nonetheless, it was concluded that Job Satisfaction regression model was adequate to predict the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The model was statistically significant accounting for 80.2% (Adjusted $R^2=.802$) of the variation in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

The findings agree with various theoretical arguments, especially the Decision-making Theory (Simon, 1945; Mintzberg, 1973; Iyayi, 2002), in addition to some previous studies. Decision-making is at the very heart of business success in any organization (Gberevie, 2006). Decisions are the selection of a proposed course of action (Butler, 1992; Iyayi, 2002) which could be in several areas including Job Satisfaction. Decisions may be made on the most appropriate Job Satisfaction interventions as well as elimination of any factors that may cause dissatisfaction. Generally, prudent decisions facilitate the acquisition and retention of performing employees.

Empirically, the findings of the study affirm those of Ezeanyim, Ufoaroh and Ajakpo (2019) who established that Job Satisfaction had a significant positive relationship with employees in selected public enterprises in Anambra State, Nigeria. Buntaran, Andika and Alfiyana (2019) also discovered that Job Satisfaction had a significant positive influence on job performance in Oil palm Plantations in Kalimantan, Indonesia. Similarly, Abdulkhaliq and Mohammadali (2019) ascertained that Job Satisfaction had a positive and significant relationship with employee performance in Al-Hayat Company-Pepsi in Kurdistan Region, Iraq. Laosebikan, Odepidan, Adetunji and Aderinto (2018) found out that Job Satisfaction had a positive influence on employee performance in selected micro-finance banks in Osogbo Metropolis,

Osun State, Nigeria. Oravee, Zayun and Kokona (2018) established that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards influenced employee performance in Nasarawa State Water Board in Lafia, Nigeria. Inuwa (2016) discovered that Job Satisfaction was positively and significantly correlated with performance of non-academic staff at Bauchi State University Gadau, Nigeria.

At variance is a study by Baluyos, Rivera and Baluyos (2019) who established that among nine facets of Job Satisfaction that they assessed (supervision, security, relationship with colleagues, working conditions, pay, responsibility, work itself advancement and recognition), only supervision and security affected teachers work performance. While job security enhanced teachers' performance by 3.9%, a unit increase in supervision decreased job performance by 9 percent.

It is noteworthy that all the studies had their limitations. None of them, for instance, used the facets of Job Satisfaction in entirety as conceptualized in the current study (achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement opportunity, work itself and working conditions, comfort with pay and benefits, and company policy and administration (Herzberg and Snyderman, 1959). Instead, each study used a set of unique descriptors. Similarly, none of the studies used the descriptors that are specific to Performance of Academic Staff such as quality of teaching and learning, research and publication, community engagement and other contributions, and administration and responsibilities (Commission for University Education, 2014a; 2014b). It is light of the foregoing that the current study contributes to knowledge.

4.7 Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

Moderation is considered to have taken place when the effect of a predictor variable on an outcome variable is dependent on the level of a third variable (moderator variable) which interacts with the independent variable (Edwards and Lambert, 2007).

The study sought to investigate the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The null hypothesis tested was, *“Job Satisfaction has no statistically significant moderating influence on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities”*. Accordingly, Performance of Academic Staff was perceived as a function of both Employee Resourcing Practices (as a predictor variable) and Job Satisfaction (as a moderator variable).

A moderator analysis was, therefore, conducted to determine whether the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff is moderated by Job Satisfaction. Specifically, a hierarchical regression method of three models was used to establish the existence of moderation. It entailed the use of the basic simple linear regression model, additive model and multiplicative model. The variables were centred first to reduce multi-collinearity issues and to make interpretation easier. Centering was done using the scale function, which subtracts the mean of a variable from each value in that variable.

Using a simple linear regression model (Block 1), Employee Resourcing Practices (Independent variable) was regressed with Performance of Academic Staff (Dependent Variable). Secondly, additive regression model (Block 2) was run to predict the outcome variable Y (Performance of Academic Staff) from both the predictor variable X (Employee Resourcing Practices) and the moderator variable M (Job Satisfaction) as in Equation 3.6. Both effects as well as the model in general (R^2) was expected to be significant. Thirdly, the interaction term (multiplicative) was added to the model (Block 3) as in Equation 3.7 and examined for significant R^2 change as well as significant influence by the interaction term. If both were significant, then moderation was considered to have occurred. If the predictor and moderator were not significant with the interaction term added, then complete moderation was considered to have occurred. If the predictor and moderator were significant with the interaction term added, then moderation was considered to have occurred, however the main effects would also be significant.

4.7.1 Regression Analysis Model for the Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff.

Table 4.20 that follows shows the regression Analysis Model Summary for the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff.

Table 4.20: Regression Analysis Model Summary: Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
						F Change	df1	df2	
1	.749 ^a	.561	.558	.29848	.561	171.295	1	134	.000
2	.907 ^b	.822	.819	.19089	.261	194.640	1	133	.000
3	.914 ^c	.836	.832	.18399	.014	11.158	1	132	.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Resourcing Practices

b. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction

c. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction , Interraction

Source: Survey Data (2020).

Table 4.20 shows that model 1 is significant ($R^2=.561$, $p=.000$) implying that Employee Resourcing Practices (ERP) alone explains 56.1% of the variation in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The additive model (Model 2) which comprised ERP(Independent Variable) and Job Satisfaction (Moderating Variable) accounted for 82.2%, as indicated by coefficient of $R^2=.822$, of the variation in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. This suggests that when Job Satisfaction is added in the model, the predictors additionally accounted for 26.1% of the variation in Performance of Academic Staff.

Further, upon introduction of the interaction term, the coefficient of determination (R^2) changed from .822 in Model 2 to .836 in Model 3, therefore, giving a variation change of .014, which is significant at 95% confidence level ($p=0.001$). That is, with the inclusion of Job Satisfaction (Moderator Variable) as an interaction term, Model 3 now explained a total of 83.6% ($R^2=.836$) of variation in the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. R-Square change ($\Delta R^2=.014$) in Model 3 reflects a positive variation that is explained by the addition of the interaction term. This means that when the interaction term between Employee Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction was added to the regression model, it accounted for a significant proportion (1.4%) of the variance in the the Performance of Academic Staff in public universities, $\Delta R^2=.014$, $p=.001$. The increase in R^2 depicts how much variance in the dependent variable is attributable to the product term and, thus the moderator effect (Aguinis 2004). Falk and Miller (1992) recommend $R^2 \geq 0.01$ in order to consider any variance adequate. Consequently, $\Delta R^2=.014$, $p=.001$ is considered adequate.

While Cohen (1998) suggests that R^2 value be assessed as: 0.26 (substantial); 0.13 (Moderate) and 0.02 (Weak), previous studies have reported very minimal interaction effect. For instance, a meta-analysis by Aguinis *et al.* (2005) over a 30 years period revealed that the average effect size (of moderators) is generally low. The weak interaction effect has, however, been attributed to the low reliability of the product terms that comprise factors afflicted with measurement errors in some instances (Cohen *et al.* 2003; Jaccard and Turrisi, 2003).

Given the statistical significance ($p=0.000$), the null hypothesis that “*Job Satisfaction has no moderating influence on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” was rejected. It was, consequently, concluded that there is a statistically significant moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

The findings suggest that infusion of Job Satisfaction with Employee Resourcing Practices enhances Performance of Academic Staff. Baron and Kenny (1986) view a moderator as a variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a criterion variable. Accordingly, Job Satisfaction emerges as a moderator variable by accounting for a statistically significant proportion (1.4%) of the variance in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities when added to the equation. Public universities are, therefore, advised to leverage Job Satisfaction alongside Employee Resourcing Practices in order to enhance the Performance of their Academic Staff.

4.7.2 Analysis of Variance on Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

The significance of the model was tested using the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the results presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21: Analysis of Variance on Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	15.261	1	15.261	171.295	.000 ^b
	Residual	11.938	134	.089		
	Total	27.199	135			
2	Regression	22.353	2	11.177	306.734	.000 ^c
	Residual	4.846	133	.036		
	Total	27.199	135			
3	Regression	22.731	3	7.577	223.827	.000 ^d
	Residual	4.468	132	.034		
	Total	27.199	135			

a. Dependent Variable: Performance of Academic Staff

b. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Resourcing Practices

c. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction

d. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction, Interaction

Source: Survey Data (2020).

The ANOVA results (Table 4.21) indicate that all the three models are significant. Model 1, which comprised of Employee Resourcing Practices without both the additive and interaction term, was significant, $F(1, 134) = 171.295, p=.000$. Similarly, Model 2 (the Additive Model) which comprised ERP and Job Satisfaction (Moderating Variable) was also significant, $F(2, 133) = 306.734, p=.000$. This confirms that the addition of Job Satisfaction as a predictor alongside Employee Resourcing Practices elicits a statistically significant rise on the influence that Employee Resourcing Practices on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Finally, Model 3 intimates that the interaction term is also statistically significant, $F(3, 132) = 223.827, p=.000$. This indicates that there is a statistically significant moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

4.7.3 Coefficient Output of the Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The study used regression analysis to establish a linear model that could be used to describe the optimal level of the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities given Employee Resourcing Practices as the independent variable and Job Satisfaction as a moderator. The multiple-regression did not only help to investigate how well variables were able to predict the level of Performance of Academic Staff, but also provided information

about the relative contribution of Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction and their interactions. Each variable was evaluated in terms of its predictive power, over and above that offered by all the other independent variables. It provided the understanding on how much unique variance in the Performance of Academic Staff is accounted for by Employee Resourcing Practices, Job Satisfaction and their interactions. This was shown by coefficient values in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Coefficient Output: Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.293	.026		11.456	.000		
Employee Resourcing Practices	1.176	.090	.749	13.088	.000	.662	1.511
2 (Constant)	.293	.016		17.915	.000		
Employee Resourcing Practices	.496	.075	.316	6.583	.000	.582	1.719
Job Satisfaction	.420	.030	.670	13.951	.000	.582	1.719
3 (Constant)	.269	.017		15.488	.000		
Employee Resourcing Practices	.628	.083	.400	7.596	.000	.449	2.227
Job Satisfaction	.434	.029	.692	14.807	.000	.569	1.757
Interraction	.185	.055	.155	3.340	.001	.580	1.723

a. Dependent Variable: Performance of Academic Staff

Source: Survey Data (2020).

An examination of the coefficient values in model 3 discloses that Employee Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction contributed uniquely in influencing the Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Job Satisfaction, on its own had a statistically significant influence ($B=.434$, $Beta=.692$) on the Performance of Academic Staff. This implies that improving Academic Staffs' level of Job Satisfaction by one standard deviation would result in an improvement in their performance by .692 standard deviations. Similarly, an improvement of the same by one unit would elicit a corresponding improvement in the performance of Academic Staff by .434 units. In the same vein, Employee Resourcing Practices had a statistically significant influence ($B=.628$, $Beta=.400$) on the Performance of Academic Staff. This suggests that improving the level of Employee Resourcing Practices by one unit improves the Performance of Academic Staff by .682. Similarly, improving the same by one standard deviation improves the Performance of Academic Staff by .400 standard

deviations. The interaction effect between Job Satisfaction and Employee Resourcing Practices also recorded significant influence on the level of Academic Staffs' Performance ($B=.185$, $Beta=.155$, $p=.001$). Duncan (1975) argues for the use unstandardized (not betas) regression coefficients to measure the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

Table 4.22 reflects the general regression model as:

$$\text{Performance of Academic Staff} = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \beta_2 M_{2i} + \beta_3 X_i M_{2i} + \epsilon_i$$

$$\hat{Y}_i = \underset{(.000)}{.269} + \underset{(.000)}{.628X_1} + \underset{(.000)}{.434X_2} + \underset{(.001)}{.185X_3} \dots \dots \dots \text{Equation 4.5}$$

From the model, the coefficients indicate how much Academic Staffs' Performance improves with a change in an independent variable when all other variables are held constant. For example, for each one unit rise in the level of Employee Resourcing Practices, there is a subsequent rise in the level of Performance of Academic Staff by .628 units. Likewise, for each one unit improvement in Job Satisfaction there is a corresponding improvement in Academic Staffs' Performance by .434 units.

Given that that the interaction term has a p-value of 0.001 which is lower than 0.05, it was concluded that the moderator variable, Job Satisfaction, has a significant influence on the relationship between, Employee Resourcing Practices (independent variable) and the Performance of Academic Staff (dependent variable).

Generally, the model was adequate to predict the level of Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. It was statistically significant $F(3, 132) = 223.827$, $p=.000$, Adjusted $R^2=.832$. This confirms that Employee Resourcing Practices jointly with Job Satisfaction is a significant predictor of Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The Employee Resourcing Practices accounted for about 83.2% of variability in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities with the inclusion of the moderator (Job Satisfaction, was included).

Kim, Cable, Kim and Wang (2009) advise that moderating variables be considered on the strength of theoretical support and that the choice of a moderator be guided by logical reasoning as well as prior theoretical support that justifies why the identified variable would affect the hypothesized relationships between a set of variables. The findings, which are in

conformity with various theoretical arguments and empirical studies, suggest that applying Job Satisfaction with Employee resourcing practices will enhance Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Indermun and Bayat (2013) noted a correlation between Job Satisfaction and employee performance. Job Satisfaction significantly impacts positively on the efficiency and effectiveness of employees, thus better overall performance. Similarly, Ting (1997) posits that human resource practices are closely associated with Job Satisfaction. Sound employee resourcing practices result in better level of Job Satisfaction which ultimately improves organizational performance (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000). According to Kaplan and Norton (2001); Copeland, Koller and Murrin (1991); Lamming and Bessant (1995) and Belcourt and Wright (1998) as cited in cited by Myskonva (2011), Job Satisfaction is not only connected to usage of employee resourcing practices, but also influences the quality and amount of work done.

Reiterating the relationship between employee resourcing practices practices and Job Satisfaction, Aswathappa (2008) suggests that an organization adopts better human resource plans to motivate its employees. Weeratunga (2003) observes that sound Human Resource Planning enhances Job Satisfaction by providing opportunities for the employees to participate in planning their own careers. In light of Human Resource Planning objective of ensuring that an organization has the right number and kinds of people, at the right places, at the right time, capable of effectively and efficiently completing those tasks that will enable an organization achieve its overall objectives (DeCenzo and Robbins, 1998), HRP facilitates Job Satisfaction by ensuring ability-job fit. Right placement of employees enhances their performance (Edwards, 1991). Li and Hung (2010) in Bin Shmailan (2016) assert that right placement of employees earns more commitment, satisfaction, motivation and better overall employee performance.

Tzafirir (2006) credits recruitment and selection, which are human resource practices, as processes that determine the employability of candidates. They can improve the fit between employees and the organization, teams and work requirements hence better work environment. Theoretically, work environment influences job satisfaction. Fernandez (1992) asserts that sophisticated recruitment and selection systems can facilitate a better fit between the abilities of an individual and the requirements of an organization. Ability-job fit is one of the ingredients of Job Satisfaction (Robbins, 1998). According to Dugguh and Ayaga (2014), Job Satisfaction anchors employee performance. Organizations need not only highly

motivated, but also satisfied and psychologically balanced employees to increase performance and productivity.

Decision-making Theory (Simon 1945; Mintzberg, 1973; Iyayi (2002) is based on the fact that decision-making is at the very heart of business success in any organization (Gberville, 2006). It assumes that the whole concept and purpose of organizations revolve around decision making (Tonwe, 1994). Decision-making theorists define decisions as the selection of a proposed course of action (Butler, 1992; Iyayi, 2002). Management decisions could be in such areas as HRP, recruitment, selection, Job Satisfaction and any other human resource management practice or a set of practices that would enhance employee performance and the attendant organizational performance. Accordingly, managers may have to decide on how to intergrate Job Satisfaction strategies with Employee Resourcing Practices in order to enhance lecturers' performance in Kenyan public universities.

The Resource Based View (Braney, 1991) which is one of the theories that augment Decision-making Theory lays emphasis on human resources as a key ingredient towards the attainment of of competitive advantage (Armstrong, 2009). The quality of human resources and their performance is theoretically a function of Employee Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction amongst other variables. Human Capital Theory, just like Resource Based View, intimates that competitive advantage is attained when a firm has inimitable and unsubstitutable human resource pool (Armstrong, 2006). Effective HRP, recruitment, selection and Job Satisfaction interventions enable firms to acquire, develop and retain competent and productive employees who are capable of performing optimally. Boxall (1998) asserts that firms which recruit and retain exceptional individuals can create competitive advantage for themselves. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory that underpins Job Satisfaction divides the factors of the work environment into two classes: motivators or satisfiers and hygiene or maintenance factors (Graham and Bennett, 1998). Satisfiers are attributed to job content (intrinsic) while hygiene factors are attributed to job context (extrinsic). The satisfiers include which are aimed at enhancing Job Satisfaction are: achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility and the work itself (Armstrong, 2009; Graham and Bennett, 1998). Company policy and administration, supervision, salary and working conditions are considered hygiene factors meant to prevent dissatisfaction and poor job performance (Armstrong, 2009). By blending effective Employee Resourcing Practices with the Job Satisfaction factors, Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities will be enhanced.

Previous studies that have investigated the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and employee performance are scanty. For example, Jain, Chawla, Agarawal and Agrawal (2019) investigated the impact of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between human resource management practices and employee performance in the telecommunication industry. They established that Job Satisfaction did not significantly moderate the relationship between reward and employee performance although it positively and significantly moderated the relationship between fairness and employee performance. Interestingly, it negatively and significantly moderated the relationship between work environment and employee performance contrary to ordinary expectations. Worth noting is that the human resource practices investigated are different from the Employee Resourcing Practices that the current study considered, namely: Human Resource Planning practices, Recruitment Practices and Selection Practices. Nonetheless, they support the Two-Factor Theory since they recognize that individuals vary in the relative importance they attach to motivators or hygiene factors.

Al-dubai, Gopalan, Alaghbari and Hamood (2019) who appeared to have replicated the study by Jain *et al.* (2019), established that Job Satisfaction positively and significantly moderated the relationship between work environment and employee performance as well as the relationship between fairness and employee performance. It, however, did not moderate the relationship between reward and employee performance. Similarly, the human resource practices investigated are different from the Employee Resourcing Practices that the current study considered, namely: Human Resource Planning practices, Recruitment Practices and Selection Practices. Nevertheless, they support the Two-Factor Theory since they recognize that individuals vary in the relative importance they attach to motivators or hygiene factors.

Other studies that investigated the role of job satisfaction as third variable in various relationships are: Khan, Yusoff and Ismail (2019); Uzun and Ozdem (2017); Miraa, Choong and Thim (2019), and Gooshki and Hasanzadesh (2013) who used it as a mediator. Qureshi, Thebo, Shaikh, Brohi and Qaiser (2019) used it as third independent variable, but not as a moderator or mediator.

The present study has made a major contribution by establishing the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and employee performance in Kenyan public universities. Unlike the previous studies that focused on other facets of Job Satisfaction, the current study focused on: Achievement; Recognition;

Responsibility; Advancement Opportunity; Work Itself and Working Conditions; Comfort with pay and Benefits; and Company Policy and Administration.

With the findings indicating that Job Satisfaction significantly moderates the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities, this study adds knowledge by revealing the nexus between Job Satisfaction, Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides an overview of the study relative to the findings as expressed in the previous chapter. It summarizes key findings in the thesis with respect to research hypothesis and draws conclusions from the discussions of the results. The chapter also makes recommendations and suggestions for further research on the basis of findings and limitations.

5.1 Summary of Findings

This section generally summarizes the findings on the influence of each of the following Employee Resourcing Practices (Human Resource Planning Practice, Recruitment Practice & Selection Practice) on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities; Influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities and, finally, the moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practice and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The summary is done objective by objective, from the first to the last.

5.1.1 Influence of Human Resource Planning Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities.

In the first objective, the study sought to establish the influence of Human Resource Planning practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Multiple regression analysis that was used to test the hypothesis that “*Human Resource Planning Practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” established that Human Resource Planning Practice accounted for a significant variation in Performance of Academic Staff in the Kenyan public universities. In terms of the unique individual contributions of the facets of Human Resource Planning Practice, Demand Forecasting contributed the highest while Business Plans and Scenario Planning the least. Nonetheless, the ANOVA output results revealed that Human Resource Planning Practice is a significant predictor of Performance of Academic Staff. Therefore, the enhancement of Human Resource Planning Practice would enhance Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities and the vice versa.

5.1.2 Influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The second objective sought to determine the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Multiple regression analysis that was used to test the hypothesis that “*Recruitment Practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” revealed that Recruitment Practice accounted for a significant variation in Performance of Academic Staff in the Kenyan public universities. Examination of Vacancy had both greater contribution to and influence on Performance of Academic Staff as compared to Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates. All notwithstanding, the ANOVA output results indicate that Recruitment Practice is a significant predictor of Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Consequently, the enhancement of Recruitment Practice would enhance Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

5.1.3 Influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The third objective sought to assess the influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Multiple regression analysis that was used to test the hypothesis that “*Selection Practice has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” revealed that Selection Practice accounted for a significant variation in Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Candidates’ Choice and Offer of Employment had both greater contribution to and influence on Performance of Academic Staff as compared to Candidates’ Assessment. Consequently, the enhancement of Selection Practice would enhance Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Nonetheless, the ANOVA output results indicate that Selection Practice is a significant predictor of Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

5.1.4 Influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The fourth objective sought to examine the influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Multiple regression analysis that was used to test the hypothesis that “*Job Satisfaction has no statistically significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities*” revealed that Job Satisfaction accounted for a significant variation in Performance of Academic Staff in the Kenyan public

universities. Company Policy and Administration had the greatest influence on Performance of Academic Staff while Responsibility the least. Generally, the enhancement of Job Satisfaction would, therefore, enhance Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. The ANOVA output results demonstrate that Job Satisfaction is a significant predictor of Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

5.1.5 Moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities

The fifth objective sought to establish the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Employee Resourcing Practices incorporated Human Resource Planning Practice, Recruitment Practice and Selection Practice. To test the hypothesis that Performance of Academic Staff is a function of multiple predictor factor, and more particularly, that *“Job Satisfaction has no statistically significant moderating influence on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities”*, a hierarchical regression technique was conducted using three models: simple linear regression, additive and multiplicative models. R-square change in model 3 revealed a significant variation that was attributed to the interaction term. Furthermore, the ANOVA output results indicated that the three models were significant and, therefore, it was concluded that job satisfaction has a statistically significant moderating influence on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Consequently, it was concluded that if Kenyan public universities carry out effective employee resourcing practices at the point of hiring academic staff and establish effective job satisfaction interventions then the performance of academic staff would be enhanced.

5.2 Conclusions

Five major conclusions can be drawn based on the preceding evidence as hereunder objective by objective:

Firstly, Human Resource Planning Practice which demonstrated a significant positive influence on the Performance Academic Staff revealed itself as significant predictor of the same in Kenyan public universities. The dimension of Demand Forecasting demonstrated the greatest influence while Business Plans and Scenario Planning the least which was also negative. The negative influence could be attributed to the perceived negative ramifications

that Business Plans and Scenario Planning could create (e.g. closure of no-productive learning centres, campuses or colleges; re-organization of departments, introduction of new technology etc). However, the study holds that the adoption of effective and efficient Human Resource Planning Practice would enhance Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

Similarly, Recruitment Practice which demonstrated a significant positive influence on the Performance of Academic Staff came out as a significant predictor of the same in Kenyan public universities. The dimension of Examination of Vacancy exhibited a greater influence on Performance of Academic Staff compared to Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates. This could be as a result of the universities failing to exert deliberate effort to attract the best candidates for vacant positions of . Nonetheless, the study holds that the adoption of effective and efficient Recruitment Practice by Kenyan public universities would enhance the Performance of Academic Staff therein.

Selection Practice which also displayed a significant positive influence on Performance of Academic Staff emerged as a significant predictor of the same in Kenyan public universities. The dimension of Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment demonstrated greater influence compared to Candidates' Assessment. Fidelity to effective and objective Selection Practice would, therefore, enhance Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities.

In a similar pattern, Job Satisfaction showed a significant positive influence on the Performance of Academic Staff and surfaced as a significant predictor of the same in Kenyan public universities. Company Policy and Administration displayed the greatest influence on Performance of Academic Staff.

Lastly, Job Satisfaction exhibited a statistically significant moderating influence on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. Introduced as an interaction term, it accounted for some positive variation in the Performance of Academic Staff.

5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of the study:

With respect to the first objective that sought to establish the influence of Human Resource Planning practice on Performance of Academic Staff, it is recommended that the

management of the Kenyan public universities intensify Demand Forecasting and Forecasting of Future Requirements and Action Planning further since they exhibited significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff.

In light of the second objective which sought to determine the influence of Recruitment Practice on Performance of Academic Staff, it is recommended that Kenyan public universities give greater attention to Examination of Vacancy as it elicited significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff.

Regarding the third objective which sought to determine the influence of Selection Practice on Performance of Academic Staff, it is recommended that Kenyan public universities enhance Candidates Assessment and Candidates Choice and Offer of Employment as they yielded significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff.

On the fourth objective which sought to determine the influence of Job Satisfaction on Performance of Academic Staff, it is recommended that Kenyan public universities enhance their Company Policies and Administration; Recognition, Work and Working Conditions; and create more Achievement and Advancement Opportunities since they exhibited significant influence on Performance of Academic Staff.

On the fifth objective which sought to establish the moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff, it is recommended that Kenyan public universities bend effective ERP with Job Satisfaction interventions as the two work complementarily tyo enhance the Performance of Performance of Academic Staff.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

Like any other empirical study, the current study encountered the following limitations:

While 100% response rate would have given more credence to the study, data collection was constrained by the closure of universities that was occasioned by the emergence of Covid-19 pandemic. Consequently, the study realized only 86% response rate. However, it was still considered excellent based on a recommendation by Creswell (2014) that a response rate of 50% is adequate; 60% is good and; 70% and above is excellent for analysis and reporting in a survey study. It was, therefore, deemed sufficiently representative of the target population.

Secondly, the study sampled only 14 chartered public universities established between 2009 and 2019. These universities could be experiencing unique challenges due to their age and

consequently may not have been absolutely representative of the universities that had been established earlier. However, the researcher found them more appropriate on the basis of the staffing challenges they are faced with (Ikama, 2010) and pressure exerted on them to provide employment (Mukhwana, Oure, Too and Some, 2016). It is a fact that a majority of them have not reached optimum staff establishment and are, therefore, actively resourcing.

Thirdly, the study respondents were limited to Academic Heads of Departments much as there are other academic and administrative officers who are directly or indirectly involved in their resourcing and satisfaction. This might be viewed as a possible source of bias. However, the researcher considered them information rich considering that they are academic staff themselves with supervisory responsibility over the others. By virtue of the fact that the AHoDs sit in university senate where far reaching administrative and academic decisions are made, and procedures and policies are discussed and approved, the researcher felt that they were better placed to provide more reliable information due to their “multiple faces” as opposed to other officers who would have been more conflicted. Besides the AHoDs being directly involved in the resourcing of academic staff, they are also privileged to access the information on their performance through student evaluations as well as appraisal results from the Quality Assurance officers. The chain of command in universities enable them access unlimited information on academic staffs’ satisfaction.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

The study has adequately established a moderating influence of Job Satisfaction on the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities. However, the study could be replicated in a wider context to establish if the inclusion of other Employee Resourcing Practices that the current study left out could give similar or conflicting results.

A study could be carried out on the moderating influence of other possible variables in the relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan public universities given that Job Satisfaction only accounted for 30.9 percent variation in Performance of Academic Staff, much as the other independent variables did not account for 100% variation in Performance of Academic Staff.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Work Plan

ACTIVITY	MONTH & YEAR												
	Dec., 2019	Jan., 2020	Feb., 2020	Mar., 2020	Apr., 2020	May, 2020	June, 2020	July, 2020	Aug., 2020	Sep., 2020	Oct., 2020	Nov., 2020	Dec., 2021
Piloting and Adjustment of Data Collection Instrument													
Data Collection													
Coding, Entry & Verification of Data													
Data Analysis & Draft Report													
Writing of Journal Articles & Draft Thesis													
Submission of Draft Thesis													
Oral Examination													
Revision of Thesis													
Final Submission and Certificate of Completion													

Appendix II: Research Budget

ITEM DESCRIPTION	COST (Kshs)
Proposal Development and Data Collection	
Printing of Questionnaires for Piloting 30 Copies @ Ksh. 50 each	1,500
Printing of Secondary Data	5,000
Travelling and Subsistence (Reconnaissance and Administration of Draft Questionnaires)	45,000
Sub Total	51,500
Field Work	
Printing of Questionnaires 200 Copies @ Kshs. 50 each	10,000
Research Assistants 4 @ Ksh. 20, 000	80,000
Supervision of Research Assistants/ Follow - up	15,000
Sub Total	105,000
Data Analysis	
Data Coding	15,000
Data Transcription and Cleaning	15,000
Data Analysis (Acquisition of Software)	50,000
Statistician Fee	40,000
Sub Total	120,000
Production of Draft and Final Thesis	
Report Writing and Editing	30,000
Publication of Findings in Refereed Journals	24,000
Printing and Binding of 6 copies of Final Thesis	12,000
Sub Total	66,000
Researcher's Subsistence	30,000
Grand Total	372, 500

Appendix III: Letter of Introduction



**MASENO UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
OFFICE OF THE DEAN**

Tel: +254-057-351622; 351008; 351011	Private
Bag	
Fax: +254-057-351221; 351153	MASENO

Date: 18th June, 2019

To:.....

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION – ROBBY OTIENO WYCKLIFFE: ADM. No. PG/PHD/050/2011

The above named is a student pursuing Doctor of Philosophy degree in Business Administration at the School of Business and Economics, Maseno University and currently collecting data for his study entitled: “Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities”. Towards this end, he has designed a questionnaire for data collection and identified you as a respondent.

Kindly read the questions carefully and respond according to the instructions given to enable him achieve the objectives of the study. Note that you are not required to write your name. The information you provide is purely for academic purposes and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. In case you are interested, an abstract of the research findings will be availed to you.

Should you have any queries, reach us through the contacts provided.

Thank you.

Dr. Destings Nyongesa
DEAN, SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS

Appendix IV: Approval Letter - SGS, Maseno University



MASENO UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

Office of the Dean

Our Ref: PG/PHD/050/2011

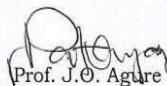
Private Bag, MASENO, KENYA
Tel:(057)351 22/351008/351011
FAX: 254-057-351153/351221
Email: sgs@maseno.ac.ke

Date: 7th June, 2019

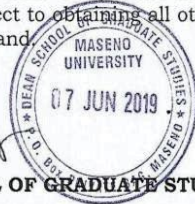
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

**RE: PROPOSAL APPROVAL FOR ROBBY OTIENO WYCKLIFFE —
PG/PHD/050 /2011**

The above named is registered in the Doctor of Philosophy Programme in the School of Business and Economics, Maseno University. This is to confirm that his research proposal titled "Moderating Role of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Lecturers' Performance in Public Universities in Kenya." has been approved for conduct of research subject to obtaining all other permissions/clearances that may be required beforehand.


Prof. J.O. Agure

DEAN, SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES



Appendix V: Approval Letter MUERC



MASENO UNIVERSITY ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Tel: +254 057 351 622 Ext: 3050
Fax: +254 057 351 221

Private Bag – 40105, Maseno, Kenya
Email: muerc-secretariat@maseno.ac.ke

FROM: Secretary - MUERC

DATE: 29th October, 2019

TO: Robby Otieno Wycliffe
PG/PHD/00050/2011
Department of Business Administration
School of Business and Economics
Maseno University
P. O. Box, Private Bag, Maseno, Kenya

REF: MSU/DRPI/MUERC/00755/19

RE: Moderating Role of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Lecturers' Performance in Public Universities in Western Kenya. Proposal Reference Number MSU/DRPI/MUERC/00755/19

This is to inform you that the Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC) determined that the ethics issues raised at the initial review were adequately addressed in the revised proposal. Consequently, the study is granted approval for implementation effective this 29th day of October, 2019 for a period of one (1) year. This is subject to getting approvals from NACOSTI and other relevant authorities.

Please note that authorization to conduct this study will automatically expire on 28th October, 2020. If you plan to continue with the study beyond this date, please submit an application for continuation approval to the MUERC Secretariat by 15th September, 2020.

Approval for continuation of the study will be subject to successful submission of an annual progress report that is to reach the MUERC Secretariat by 15th September, 2020.

Please note that any unanticipated problems resulting from the conduct of this study must be reported to MUERC. You are required to submit any proposed changes to this study to MUERC for review and approval prior to initiation. Please advise MUERC when the study is completed or discontinued.

Thank you.

Dr. Bernard Guyah
Ag. Secretary,
Maseno University Ethics Review Committee.



Cc: Chairman,
Maseno University Ethics Review Committee.

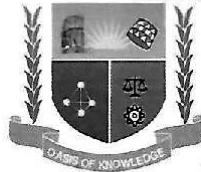
MASENO UNIVERSITY IS ISO 9001:2008 CERTIFIED



Appendix VI: NACOSTI Research Permit

 REPUBLIC OF KENYA	 NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION
Ref No: 528219	Date of Issue: 16/January/2020
RESEARCH LICENSE	
	
<p>This is to Certify that Mr. Wyckliffe Robby of Maseno University, has been licensed to conduct research in Baringo, Bomet, Bungoma, Busia, Elgeyo-Marakwet, Embu, Garissa, Homabay, Isiolo, Kajiado, Kakamega, Kericho, Kiambu, Kilifi, Kirinyaga, Kisii, Kisumu, Kitui, Kwale, Laikipia, Lamu, Machakos, Makeni, Mandera, Marsabit, Meru, Migori, Mombasa, Muranga, Nairobi, Nakuru, Nandi, Narok, Nyamira, Nyandarua, Nyeri, Samburu, Siaya, Taita-Taveta, Tanariver, Tharaka-Nithi, Transzoia, Turkana, Uasin-Gishu, Vihiga, Wajir, Westpokit on the topic: MODERATING ROLE OF JOB SATISFACTION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE RESOURCING PRACTICES AND LECTURERS' PERFORMANCE IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA for the period ending : 16/January/2021.</p>	
License No: NACOSTIP/20/589	
528219 Applicant Identification Number	 Director General NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION
	Verification QR Code 
<p>NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.</p>	

Appendix VII: Sample Approval Letters from Targeted Universities



**JARAMOGI OGINGA ODINGA
UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR (ACADEMIC AFFAIRS)**

Tel.: 057 250 1804, Fax: 057 252 3851
Email: dvcaa@jooust.ac.ke
Web: www.jooust.ac.ke

P. O. Box 210-40601
BONDO

OUR REF: JOUST/ACA/1/2

4th December, 2019

Mr. Robby Otieno Wyckliffe
Rongo University
P.O. Box 103-40404
RONGO

Dear Mr. Otieno,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA

This is to acknowledge receipt of your letter dated 15th November 2019, in which you expressed your request to collect data at Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology.

Approval has been granted for you to conduct research on "*Moderating Role of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Lecturers' Performance in Public Universities in Kenya*" at the university.

Kindly arrange to share your findings with undersigned

Yours sincerely,

Prof. Joseph Bosire, PhD
DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR (AA)

Copy to: Vice chancellor
Deputy vice chancellor (PAF) To note on file
Deputy vice chancellor (RIO)
Registrar (AA)



KARATINA UNIVERSITY

Po Box 1957, 10101 Karatina, Kenya
Tel: +25420-2176713
+2547988983
www.karu.ac.ke

REF: KarU/DRIE/02/Vol.1

Date: 23rd January, 2020

Robby Wyckliffe Otieno
Rongo University
P.O BOX 103-40404
RONGO

Email: robirowa@gmail.com
Tel: 0723-515858

SUBJECT: DATA COLLECTION REQUEST

This is in response to your request to collect research data for the purpose of educational qualification. You are invited to undertake your data collection exercise from January, 2020 or any other time that you will propose.

During your stay at the University, you will be required to arrange for your accommodation and have sufficient financial resources to enable you have all the materials that you will require. In addition, you are obliged:

- a) To furnish Karatina University with the final report of your work for our library through the Office of the DVC (ARSA)
- b) To recognize Karatina University in any seminar, symposia or Publications arising from the work conducted at Karatina University

When you report, kindly see the undersigned, with your original documents.

Thank you.

Prof. Michael N.I. Lokuruka, Ph.D., EBS
Director, Research, Innovation & Extension
Cc Deputy Vice Chancellor, ARSA
Dean, SOB



TAITA-TAVETA UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR (ACADEMIC, RESEARCH & OUTREACH)
P.O.BOX 635-80300 – Voi; Tel: 0774-222064; Email: dvc-aro@ttu.ac.ke; Website: www.ttu.ac.ke

7th January 2020

TTU/02/02/053

Robby Otieno Wyckliffe
Rongo University
P.O. BOX 103-40404
RONGO
Email: robirowa@gmail.com

Dear Wyckliffe,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA AT TAITA TAVETA UNIVERSITY

Your letter dated 13th November 2019 on the above refers.

Taita Taveta University has approved your request but it requires that all information generated be shared with the undersigned which should include the following:

- i. A copy of the Final Thesis
- ii. Publication arising from the study



Prof. Christine A. Onyango
Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic, Research & Outreach)



TTU is ISO 9001:2008 Certified
Home of Ideas



KIBABII UNIVERSITY
Knowledge for Development

Tel: 020 – 2028660 / 0708 – 085934 / 0734 - 831729
P.O. Box 1699 – 50200
Bungoma
Kenya

E-mail: enquiries@kibu.ac.ke /
administration@kibu.ac.ke
Website: http://www.kibu.ac.ke

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY REGISTRAR (ADMINISTRATION & HUMAN RESOURCE)

Ref: KIBU/ADM/CORR.90/VOL.2/47

Date: 5th December, 2019

Mr. Robby Otieno Wyckliffe,
Rongo University,
P.O. Box 103 - 40404

RONGO.

Dear Mr. Otieno,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA ON MODERATING ROLE OF JOB SATISFACTION ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE RESOURCING PRACTICES AND LECTURERS' PERFORMANCE IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA.

Reference is hereby made to your letter dated 13th November, 2019, 2019 on the above subject. I am pleased to inform you that your request for permission to collect research data on Moderating Role of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship Between Employee Resourcing Practices and Lecturers' Performance in Public Universities in Kenya was approved.

I take this opportunity to wish you success as you undertake this Academic Assignment within our University.

Yours sincerely,

Mr. Charles Wsike,

IN-CHARGE (ADMINISTRATION & HR)

/jhw

Copy to: - Vice Chancellor
- Deputy Vice Chancellor (PPRI)



To note on file



Kibabii University ISO 9001:2015 Certified
Knowledge for development

LAIKIPIA

P.O. Box 1100-20300,
NYAHURURU,
KENYA



UNIVERSITY

Cell: +254 – (0) 20 2588555
dvc@laikipia.ac.ke; www.laikipia.ac.ke

**OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
ACADEMIC RESEARCH AND STUDENT AFFAIRS**

LU/ACA/DVC (ARSA)/103/VOL.1/34

21ST JANUARY, 2020

ROBBY OTIENO WYCKLIFFE
RONGO UNIVERSITY,
P.O. BOX 103 -40404,
RONGO.

Dear Wyckliffe,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA AT LAIKIPIA UNIVERSITY

The above refers.

This is to acknowledge receipt of your letter requesting for permission to collect data on your PhD degree on the research topic, “**Moderating Role of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Lecturers’ Performance in Public Universities in Kenya**”.

Permission is hereby granted.

When you come please, liaise with Prof. Goro Kamau, Director, Research, Innovation and Consultancy.

Thank you for choosing Laikipia University and all the best in your studies.

Prof. Wanjiku Chiuri. PhD
DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR (ARSA)



Vision : A University for Valued Transformation of Society

Mission: To serve students and society through research, education, scholarship, training, innovation, outreach and consultancy

Laikipia University is ISO 9001:2015 and ISO/IEC 27001:2013 Certified



MURANG'A UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

*Office of the Registrar
(Administration & Planning)*

Cell: 254-0771370824
E-mail: registrar-ap@mut.ac.ke
Website: www.mut.ac.ke

P.O. Box 75 - 10200
Murang'a, Kenya

REF: MUT/GC/REG.AP/45/2016/VOL.2/74

DATE: 17th December, 2019

Robby Otieno Wyckliffe
P.O Box 37931-00100
Nairobi
Tel: 0723515858

Dear Mr. Otieno,

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA AT MURANG'A UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Your letter dated 13th November, 2019 refers.

Your request to collect data at Murang'a University of Technology on "Moderating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between employee resourcing practices and lecturers' performance in public universities in Kenya" has been granted.

Kindly treat the information you will obtain in strict confidence and thereafter share the findings of your study with us for information purposes.

Yours sincerely,

**Joseph Gachanja
Ag. Registrar A&P**

Copy to: Vice Chancellor
Deputy Vice Chancellor, ASA
Registrar ASA
Dean SEd
Dean SCIT

RONGO UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
(ADMINISTRATION, FINANCE AND PLANNING)

INTERNAL MEMO

FROM: Deputy Vice-Chancellor (AFP)

DATE: 27th January 2020

TO: Mr. Robby Wycliffe

REF: RU/DVC-AFP/16/2020

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA AT RONGO UNIVERSITY

The above subject refers to your letter dated 13th November 2019.

Rongo University Management Board in its 48th Regular Meeting held on 23rd January 2020, considered and approved your request to collect research data at Rongo University. This approval is premised on condition that the data will be used for the ~~purpose of research only~~.

Please liaise with undersigned for further guidance on this matter.



Eng. Prof. Stanley Shitote
Deputy Vice-Chancellor (AFP)

CC: Vice-Chancellor

Head of Human Resource



THE CO-OPERATIVE UNIVERSITY OF KENYA

P.O BOX 24814-00502, Karen-Nairobi Tel:020-2430127/2679456 Fax:0202470638
Email:dvc-cdri@cuk.ac.ke Website:www.cuk.ac.ke

**OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR
(CO-OPERATIVE DEVELOPMENT, RESEARCH & INNOVATION)**

CUK/A/1/VOL. VI (69)

10th February, 2020

Robby Otieno Wycliffe
Maseno University
P O Box Private Bag
Mobile 0723515858
MASENO.

Dear Mr. Otieno,

RE: AUTHORIZATION TO COLLECT RESEARCH DATA

Reference is hereby made to your letter dated 13th November, 2019 which you sought permission to collect data for your doctorate research entitled '*Moderating Role of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Lecturers' Performance in Public Universities in Kenya.*'

Approval has been granted on the understanding that all raw data collected will be kept confidential throughout the research and even after completion of the research. You are required to submit a copy of your final research report to the University.

Yours sincerely,

**PROF. EMILY AKUNO
AG. DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR, CDRI &
PROFESSOR OF MUSIC**

Copy to: Vice Chancellor
Deputy Vice Chancellor, AA
Deputy Vice Chancellor (FPA)

SM/ren



QUALITY CO-OPERATIVE TRAINING
CUK is ISO 9001:2015 CERTIFIED

**OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
(PLANNING, RESEARCH & EXTENSION)**

REF: UoE/D/DVPRE/NACO/074

31st January, 2020

Robby Otieno Wyckliffe,
P.O Box 103-40404,
RONGO, KENYA

Dear Sir,

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

We refer to your application to carry out research on 'Moderating Role of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Lecturer's Performance in Public Universities in Kenya' and are pleased to inform you that your request has been approved.

You are advised to report to the Deputy Vice- Chancellor (PRE) on arrival at University to commence your research. The permission is also granted on condition that you will share the findings with the University once you complete your studies.

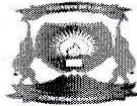
Yours faithfully,



Deputy Vice Chancellor
Planning, Research & Extension
University Of Eldoret

PROF. P. O. RABURU

DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR (PLANNING, RESEARCH & EXTENSION)



UNIVERSITY OF EMBU
OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR
(ACADEMICS, RESEARCH & EXTENSION)

P.O. Box 6 – 60100
 EMBU - KENYA
 Email: registrar-are@embuni.ac.ke
 Website: www.embuni.ac.ke

Tel: +254 020 2444136
 +254 0706528876
 +254 0743936436

Ref: UoEm/REG(ARE)/DATA/VOL.1/09

Date: 3rd January, 2020

Mr. Robby Otieno Wyckliffe,
 Rongo University,
 P.O. Box 103-40404,
 RONGO.

Dear Mr. Otieno,

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Reference is made to your letter on the above subject.

Permission is hereby granted to you to collect data for your research project at the University of Embu on the following conditions:

1. The information gathered should be used strictly for academic purposes.
2. Confidential information that may come your way during the study should not be revealed to a third party.
3. You shall not mention any interviewee by name without a written approval from the University.
4. You will deposit the final copy of your project with the Librarian, University of Embu.
5. You must obtain a personal accident insurance policy while working at the University.
6. You will indemnify the University incase anything happens to you while in the University compound.
7. At all times adhere to the code of conduct as shall be brought to your attention by the Human Resource Manager, University of Embu.

Before starting your research, you are advised to visit the undersigned for guidance on the University expectations and assistance on how to make your way around.

If you agree to these conditions, please sign in the space provided below, and return a copy of this letter to the undersigned.

Thank you.

DR. JACKSON WACHIRA
REGISTRAR (ACADEMICS, RESEARCH AND EXTENSION)

JMW/da



I..... agree to abide by the above conditions while collecting data for my research project at the University of Embu.

Signature Date

Copies to:

- Vice-Chancellor
- Deputy Vice-Chancellor (ARE)

Director Research
 Librarian



ISO 27001:2013 Certified

Knowledge Transforms



ISO 9001:2015 Certified



UNIVERSITY OF KABIANGA
ISO 9001:2015 CERTIFIED
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR OF RESEARCH, LINKAGES & EXTENSION

Tel. No. +254 20 217 2665

P.O. BOX 2030-20200

Email address:- research@kabianga.ac.ke

KERICHO

REF: UoK/DIR/RLE/RNA/10VOL.3/066

DATE: 12TH MARCH, 2020

MR. ROBBY OTIENO WYCKLIFFE,
RONGO UNIVERSITY,
P.O. BOX 103-40404,
RONGO.

Dear Mr. Otieno,

SUBJECT: AUTHORIZATION TO COLLECT DATA AT UNIVERSITY OF KABIANGA (UoK)

In reference to the above, your request to collect data at UoK is gladly acknowledged. In addition, your interest to carry out part of your PhD research at the University is very much appreciated.

By this letter, you are granted authorization to collect data at UoK as requested. However, this authorization is only effective on the fulfillment of the following, on your part:

This authorization is only valid after your consultation with the Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Planning, Research and Development) prior to start of data collection and signing a commitment document/ letter for you to submit to UoK a copy of final report/ approved thesis on conclusion of the work. This will ensure that UoK benefits from the findings/ recommendations of your work with regard to research outputs and improvement of service delivery to our customers, in particular the students.

On behalf of UoK Management, I take this opportunity to wish you success in your research work and overall, your future career.

Yours sincerely,

PROF. PETER G. N. NJAGI, PhD
DIRECTOR: RESEARCH, LINKAGES & EXTENSION

PGN/ck



Appendix VIII: Informed Consent Form

Name of University:.....

Department:.....

This informed consent form is for the Academic Heads of Department who have been identified to participate in a research study entitled: **“Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities”**.

Principal Investigator: Robby Otieno Wyckliffe

Affiliation: Maseno University

Part I: Information Section

a) Introduction

My name is Robby Otieno Wyckliffe, a Ph.D. student at Maseno University. I am carrying out a study on the: **“Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities”**. I am, therefore, inviting you to participate in the study by providing the information required in the attached questionnaire. You could contact me on 0723515858 or robirowa@gmail.com or wrobby@rongovarsity.ac.ke should you have any queries.

b) Purpose of the Study

Kenya Vision 2030 envisions the provision of globally competitive quality education, training and research to the citizenry. Public universities are major contributors in this respect. However, Higher Education stakeholders such as World Bank, employers and some scholars fault the quality and relevance of programmes they offer. The decline in quality has been attributed to increased workload, reduced rigour on recruitment and promotion criteria, inability to attract and retain quality staff, and ' incompetence – all theoretically related to Employee Resourcing Practices and Job Satisfaction. The study, therefore, seeks to establish the Moderating Role of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Public Universities in Kenya.

c) Participant Selection

You have been selected by virtue of your supervisory and administrative responsibility over the in your department as well as your direct involvement in employee resourcing processes and Job Satisfaction interventions.

d) Voluntary participation, Confidentiality, Anonymity and Sharing of the Results

Note that your participation is voluntary and that any information you provide will be accorded utmost confidentiality, and used purely for academic purposes. However, the findings of the study may be shared with other stakeholders. Note that you do not need to write your name on the questionnaire.

Part II: Certificate of Consent

I have read the foregoing information and I consent voluntarily/ do not consent to be a respondent in this study (*cross whichever is not applicable*).

Sign:..... Date:.....

Appendix IX: Research Questionnaire

Introductory note

My name is Robby Otieno Wyckliffe, a Ph.D. student at Maseno University. I am carrying out a study on the “**Moderating Influence of Job Satisfaction on the Relationship between Employee Resourcing Practices and Performance of Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities**”. In order to fulfil the objectives of the proposed study, this questionnaire has been designed. It comprises **Two Sections** and six parts. **Section A** will collect data on the Demographic Profile of Respondents and Departments; **Section B** will gather data on Employee Resourcing Practices; **Section C** data on Job Satisfaction; **Section D** data on Performance of Academic Staff. More specifically, **Section B** which is further sub-divided into **Three Parts** will gather data as follows: **Part I** will collect data on Human Resource Planning Practice; **Part II** will collect data on Recruitment Practice; **Part III** will collect data on Selection Practice.

Kindly spare a few minutes of your time and fill in as instructed. You could contact me on **0723515858** or robirowa@gmail.com should you have any queries.

Thank you.

For purposes of this questionnaire/ study, note the following meanings:

- i. Academic Staff:** Implies Professor, Associate Professor, Senior lecturer, Lecturer, Assistant Lecturer, Tutorial Fellow, Graduate Assistant, Instructor or any person who holds any other teaching or research position recognized by a council as having academic status in the University.
- ii. Type of Academic Staff:** defined by their Quality (Knowledge, Skills, Abilities, Attitudes and Competencies).
- iii. Number of Academic Staff:** refers to their Quantity (how many).

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Kindly fill in or tick as appropriate

1. Name of your University
(Optional) _____
2. Name of your Department
(Optional) _____
3. Age of your University (*including as a Constituent College*):

- () Below 4 Years () 4 – 8 Years () Above 8 Years
4. Your Gender:
 () Male () Female
5. Your Age (Respondent's):
 () 20 – 29 Years () 30 – 39 Years () 40 – 49 Years
 () 50 – 59 Years () 60 – 69 Years () 70 and Above
6. Your Highest Academic Qualification:
 () Bachelor's Degree () Masters Degree () PhD/ Doctorate
7. Your Academic Position / Ranking:
 () Graduate Assistant () Assistant Lecturer/Tutorial Fellow/Junior Research Fellow
 () Lecturer/ Research Fellow () Senior Lecturer / Senior Research Fellow
 () Associate Professor () Professor
8. Your Administrative Position in the University:
 () Chair/ Head of Department () Dean/ Director
9. Your Experience in the Current Administrative Position
 () Below 3 Years () 3 Years and above

SECTION B: EMPLOYEE RESOURCING PRACTICES

PART I: HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING PRACTICE

The following are elements of Human Resource Planning practice. Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree with the listed statements by marking the corresponding cell. Use the scale that follows: 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree.

HUMAN RESORCE PLANNING PRACTICES		EXTENT OF AGREEMENT				
Business Plans and Scenario Planning		1	2	3	4	5
10.	My University's human resource plans are guided by its strategic plans.					
11.	My University's future teaching and research work load determine the number and type of Academic Staff to engage in different academic departments.					
12.	My University assesses the possible scenarios that may affect the number and quality of Academic Staff it currently has in a timely manner.					
13.	My University's human resource plans cannot be amended in respect of any scenarios that may arise unexpectedly.					
Demand Forecasting		1	2	3	4	5
14.	My University uses (an) established demand forecasting					

	technique(s) to determine the number and type of Academic Staff it may need in future.					
15.	The demand forecasting technique(s) used by my University enable(s) it get the Academic Staff they need in a timely manner.					
16.	My University decides on the number and type of Academic Staff it may need in future at the planning stage.					
17.	My University does not base the number and type of Academic Staff it may need on its annual budget.					
Supply Forecasting		1	2	3	4	5
18.	My University maintains a skills inventory that it uses to determine the current Academic Staff who qualify for higher academic positions and/or administrative assignments.					
19.	My University promotes development of its academic staff in order to maintain a steady supply of senior academic staff should vacancies arise.					
20.	My University only engages Academic Staff from outside when satisfied that no one qualifies from the current employees.					
21.	My University does not conduct regular staff reviews to make available a steady supply of senior academic staff should vacancies arise.					
Forecasting Future Requirements and Action Planning		1	2	3	4	5
22.	My University is able to foresee future deficits and surpluses of Academic Staff in a timely manner.					
23.	My University prioritizes learning and development programmes to prepare current Academic Staff for envisaged vacancies.					
24.	My University implements lawful strategies in resolving surpluses of Academic Staff (e.g. in terminating Contractual Academic Staff).					
25.	My University does not observe the labour laws whenever it opts for part time and/or overtime contracts to resolve deficit of Academic Staff.					

PART II: RECRUITMENT PRACTICE

The following are elements of Recruitment Practice. Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree with the listed statements by marking the corresponding cell. Use the scale that follows: 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree.

RECRUITMENT PRACTICES		EXTENT OF AGREEMENT				
		1	2	3	4	5
Examination Vacancy						
26.	My University ensures that job descriptions comply with the requirements of the Commission for University Education or other Senate approved criteria before publicizing vacancies.					
27.	My University ensures that job specifications comply with the requirements of the Commission for University Education or other Senate approved criteria before publicizing vacancies.					
28.	My University ensures job descriptions and specifications are an accurate reflection of a Academic Staff Academic Staff's job.					
29.	In addition to the basic requirements by the Commission for University Education or Senate, my University includes other relevant attributes in the job profile e.g. communication skills					
Locating, Making Contact and Attracting Candidates		1	2	3	4	5
30.	My University evaluates whether to source for Academic Staff internally or externally before publicizing such vacancies.					
31.	My University uses the best media to publicize vacancies of Academic Staff.					
32.	My University does not make a deliberate effort to attract the best candidates for a vacant position of Academic Staff.					
33.	My University provides useful and sufficient information to the potential applicants while publicizing vacancies.					

PART III: SELECTION PRACTICE

The following are elements of Selection Practice. Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree with the listed statements by marking the corresponding cell. Use the scale that follows: 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree.

SELECTION PRACTICES		EXTENT OF AGREEMENT				
		1	2	3	4	5
Candidates' Assessment						
34.	My University uses the Commission for University Education's or other Senate approved standards in the shortlisting of candidates for the position of Academic Staff.					
35.	My University uses the most suitable and relevant selection tools to assess the suitability of candidates for the position of Academic Staff.					
36.	My University incorporates at least one interviewer with expertise in the thematic area whenever they are screening candidates.					
37.	My University uses a standardized score sheet to award marks to candidates in the process of screening candidates.					
Candidates' Choice and Offer of Employment		1	2	3	4	5
38.	My University offers employment to Academic Staff based on merit.					
39.	Employment of the disadvantaged groups compromises the choice of qualified and competent candidates.					
40.	The head of user the department has a say on the candidate to be offered employment.					
41.	The expert panellist's opinion counts in the choice of a candidate.					

SECTION C: JOB SATISFACTION

The following are elements of Job Satisfaction. Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree with the listed statements by marking the corresponding cell. Use the scale that follows: 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree.

JOB SATISFACTION		EXTENT OF AGREEMENT				
		1	2	3	4	5
Achievement		1	2	3	4	5
42.	Academic Staff in my department are placed in positions that use their skills, knowledge, abilities and talents; and not deliberately set up for failure.					
43.	Clear and achievable goals and standards are mutually set by the Academic Staff and their supervisors.					
44.	Academic Staff in my department are given regular and timely feedback on their performance.					
45.	Efforts are made to help the Academic Staff in my department improve their performance.					
Recognition		1	2	3	4	5
46.	Academic Staff in my department are recognized for a job well done or outstanding performance.					
47.	Recognition of Academic Staff in my department is immediate following a job well done or outstanding performance.					
48.	Recognition of Academic Staff is objective across my University.					
49.	Recognition of Academic Staff is equitable across my University.					
Responsibility		1	2	3	4	5
50.	Academic Staff in my department are given authority in respect of their assignments.					
51.	Academic Staff in my department are given sufficient freedom to make decisions in the context of their jobs.					
52.	Academic Staff in my department take responsibility for the outcome of their decisions.					
Advancement Opportunity		1	2	3	4	5
53.	Academic Staff in my department are given reasonable support in their pursuit for extra and/or higher qualifications.					
54.	Academic Staff in my department are given equal opportunity for promotion.					
55.	My University regularly reviews qualified Academic Staff in my department to the next job grade/ scale.					
Work Itself and Working Conditions		1	2	3	4	5
56.	Academic Staff in my department are given assignments that offer adequate challenge to arouse interest and					

	encourage career growth.					
57.	Academic Staff in my department are made aware of the importance and meaningfulness of tasks assigned to them.					
58.	Goals and standards set for the Academic Staff are aligned to the work they do.					
59.	My University endeavours to provide Academic Staff with safe and healthy physical working environment.					
60.	My University endeavours to provide Academic Staff with resources they need to perform their jobs.					
61.	My University encourages positive co-worker relations.					
Comfort with Pay and Benefits		1	2	3	4	5
62.	Academic Staff in my department are compensated at the prevailing market rates.					
63.	The compensation system in my University is equitable.					
64.	My University provides welfare facilities for the Academic Staff.					
Company Policy and Administration		1	2	3	4	5
65.	My University addresses Academic Staff' concerns and grievances promptly.					
66.	My University involves Academic Staff in decision making directly or through their representatives.					
67.	My University's policies and regulations are friendly to the Academic Staff.					

SECTION D: PERFORMANCE OF ACADEMIC STAFF

The following are elements of Performance of Academic Staff. Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree with the listed statements by marking the corresponding cell. Use the scale that follows: 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree.

PERFORMANCE OF ACADEMIC STAFF		EXTENT OF AGREEMENT				
Quality of Teaching and Learning		1	2	3	4	5
68.	Academic Staff in my department demonstrate adequate knowledge of content in their thematic area.					
69.	Academic Staff in my department are able to organize, integrate, adjust and adapt their content in a way that can be understood by the learner.					
70.	Academic Staff in my department are able to design appropriate tests for the learners.					
71.	Academic Staff in my department mark and grade the examinations in the courses they teach within the stipulated time lines.					
72.	Academic Staff in my department adhere to the published office hours to facilitate consultation by the learners.					
73.	The Academic Staff in my department demonstrate clarity in the exposition of course content.					
Research and Publication		1	2	3	4	5
74.	Academic Staff in my department demonstrate ability to advance scholarship and generate research.					
75.	Academic Staff in my department actively publish recognized academic books and teaching modules for the University and scholarship in general.					
76.	Academic Staff in my department actively publish peer reviewed journal articles.					
77.	Academic Staff in my department publish with exclusive set of high quality publishers.					
78.	Academic Staff in my department have their work creating reasonable impact in academia e.g. by virtue of being extensively cited.					
Administration and Responsibilities		1	2	3	4	5
79.	Academic Staff in my department are appointable, using a set of minimum criteria, to a range of recognized administrative positions in the University.					
80.	Academic Staff in my department demonstrate willingness to be assigned a range of job related responsibilities in the University.					
81.	Academic Staff in my department perform satisfactorily in the areas they have been assigned.					
Community Engagement and Other Contributions		1	2	3	4	5
82.	Academic Staff in my department attract research and development funding.					

83.	Academic Staff in my department engage in community service and outreach.					
84.	Academic Staff in my department subscribe to relevant professional bodies where necessary.					
85.	Academic Staff in my department have been recognized, honoured and/or awarded for exemplary service to the University and the nation generally.					

Thank you.

Appendix X: Chartered Public Universities in Kenya

S. No.	University	Year of Establishment	Year of Award of Charter
1.	University of Nairobi	1970	2013
2	Moi University	1984	2013
3	Kenyatta University	1985	2013
4	Egerton University	1987	2013
5	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology	1994	2013
6	Maseno University	2001	2013
7	Chuka University	2007	2013
8	Dedan Kimathi University of Technology	2007	2013
9	Kisii University	2007	2013
10	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology	2007	2013
11	Pwani University	2007	2013
12	Technical University of Kenya	2007	2013
13	Technical University of Mombasa	2007	2013
14	Maasai Mara University	2008	2013
15	Meru University of Science and Technology	2008	2013
16	Multimedia University of Kenya	2008	2013
17	South Eastern Kenya University	2008	2013
18	Jaramogi Oginga Odinga University of Science and Technology*	2009	2013
19	Laikipia University*	2009	2013
20	University of Kabianga*	2009	2013
21	Karatina University*	2010	2013
22	University of Eldoret*	2010	2013
23	Kibabii University*	2011	2015
24	Kirinyaga University	2011	2016
25	Machakos University*	2011	2016
26	Muranga University of Technology*	2011	2016
27	Rongo University*	2011	2016
28	Taita taveta University*	2011	2016
29	The Co-operative University of Kenya*	2011	2016
30	University of Embu*	2011	2016
31	Garissa University*	2011	2017

* Universities established between 2009 and 2019

Source: Adapted from Commission for University Education (2021). Available online at: [https://www.cue.or.ke/images/phocadownload/Accredited Universities Kenya June2021.pdf](https://www.cue.or.ke/images/phocadownload/Accredited%20Universities%20Kenya%20June2021.pdf)

APPENDIX IX: DATA EXCERPT

Code	NO UNI	AGE OF UNIVERSIT Y	AG E	RAN K	Qual .	Pos .	GENDE R	Exp .	BPS P	FFRA P	Perf .	HRPPtran s	SPtran s	JStran s	PerTrans f	HRPJ S	RPJ S	SPJS
1	E1	1	3	1	2	2	1	2	3.00	2.25	1.74	-0.39	0.36	-0.90	-1.81	0.35	-0.14	-0.32
2	E2	2	3	2	2	1	1	1	2.50	2.25	2.83	-0.96	-0.27	-1.49	-0.72	1.42	0.69	0.40
3	E3	1	3	3	3	1	1	2	4.00	3.25	3.33	0.67	0.23	0.13	-0.22	0.09	0.05	0.03
4	E4	2	2	3	3	1	1	2	3.50	2.75	3.28	0.11	0.36	0.31	-0.27	0.03	0.01	0.11
5	E5	2	3	1	2	1	1	1	4.00	3.00	3.83	0.30	0.73	0.29	0.29	0.09	0.12	0.21
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	D1	2	2	4	3	1	1	2	3.75	2.25	3.00	-0.08	-1.02	-0.51	-0.55	0.04	0.24	0.52
7	D2	2	3	4	3	1	2	2	2.75	3.00	3.17	-0.46	-0.27	-0.43	-0.38	0.19	0.09	0.11
8	D3	2	3	2	2	1	1	1	3.25	3.25	3.38	0.17	-0.14	0.01	-0.17	0.00	0.00	0.00
9	D4	1	2	3	2	1	1	1	3.50	3.25	3.06	-0.02	-0.02	0.22	-0.49	0.00	-0.02	0.00
10	D5	3	5	3	3	1	1	1	3.00	2.25	1.78	-0.39	0.36	-0.90	-1.77	0.35	-0.14	-0.32
11	D6	2	2	3	3	1	2	1	3.50	3.25	3.06	-0.02	-0.02	0.22	-0.49	0.00	-0.02	0.00
12	D7	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	3.00	2.25	1.80	-0.39	0.36	-0.90	-1.75	0.35	-0.14	-0.32
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
20	MURANG' A 1	2	4	2	3	1	1	2	3.00	4.00	1.72	0.55	-1.89	-1.42	-1.83	-0.77	0.84	2.68
21	MURANG' A 2	2	3	3	3	1	2	1	2.75	2.75	3.06	-0.52	-0.64	-0.72	-0.49	0.37	0.15	0.46
22	MURANG' A 3	2	3	1	2	1	2	1	3.50	3.25	3.39	0.23	-0.02	-0.04	-0.16	-0.01	0.00	0.00
-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
34	KIBABII 5	2	4	4	3	1	1	2	4.00	1.25	3.94	-0.02	0.11	0.72	0.40	-0.01	-0.52	0.08
35	KIBABII 6	2	4	3	3	1	1	2	4.00	3.75	3.72	0.55	-0.27	-0.34	0.18	-0.18	0.16	0.09
36	KIBABII 7	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.50	3.50	4.47	0.48	0.36	0.20	0.93	0.10	0.03	0.07
37	KIBABII 8	2	3	3	2	1	1	2	3.50	2.50	2.94	-0.39	-0.64	-0.45	-0.61	0.18	0.26	0.29
38	KIBABII 9	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	4.00	1.25	3.94	-0.02	0.11	0.72	0.40	-0.01	-0.52	0.08
39	KIBABII 10	2	5	5	3	1	1	2	4.00	1.25	3.94	-0.02	0.11	0.72	0.40	-0.01	-0.52	0.08
40	KIBABII 11	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	4.00	3.25	3.94	0.42	0.61	0.46	0.40	0.19	0.02	0.28
41	KIBABII 12	2	4	4	3	1	1	2	4.00	3.25	3.94	0.42	0.61	0.46	0.40	0.19	0.02	0.28

42	KABIANG A 1	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.75	1.75	1.89	-	-0.71	-0.27	-1.75	-1.66	1.23	0.16	0.47
43	KABIANG A 2	3	3	4	3	1	1	2	3.75	1.75	1.91	-	-0.71	-0.27	-1.75	-1.64	1.23	0.16	0.47
44	KABIANG A 3	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.75	1.75	2.40	-	-0.71	-0.27	0.25	-1.15	-0.18	-0.02	-0.07
45	KABIANG A 4	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	3.50	3.75	3.41	-	0.30	-0.02	0.43	-0.14	0.13	0.07	-0.01
46	KABIANG A 5	3	4	4	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.78	-	0.17	-0.02	0.25	0.24	0.04	0.01	0.00
47	KABIANG A 6	3	5	5	4	1	1	2	3.75	3.50	3.67	-	0.30	-0.14	0.11	0.13	0.03	0.05	-0.02
48	KABIANG A 7	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.25	2.50	3.41	-	-0.02	0.11	0.04	-0.14	0.00	0.01	0.00
49	KABIANG A 8	3	4	3	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.78	-	0.17	-0.02	0.25	0.24	0.04	0.01	0.00
50	KABIANG A 9	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.50	3.67	-	0.30	-0.14	0.11	0.13	0.03	0.05	-0.02
51	KABIANG A 10	3	4	4	3	1	1	2	3.50	2.50	3.39	-	-0.14	-0.14	-0.16	-0.16	0.02	-0.01	0.02
52	KABIANG A 11	3	2	3	2	1	1	2	3.25	2.50	3.42	-	-0.02	0.11	0.04	-0.13	0.00	0.01	0.00
53	KABIANG A 12	3	4	4	3	1	1	2	3.50	2.50	3.39	-	-0.14	-0.14	-0.16	-0.16	0.02	-0.01	0.02
54	KABIANG A 13	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	3.50	3.75	3.61	-	0.30	-0.02	0.43	0.06	0.13	0.07	-0.01
55	KABIANG A 14	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.50	3.75	3.62	-	0.30	-0.02	0.43	0.08	0.13	0.07	-0.01
56	KABIANG A 15	3	3	3	2	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.78	-	0.17	-0.02	0.25	0.24	0.04	0.01	0.00
57	UE1	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	3.75	3.50	3.67	-	0.30	-0.14	0.11	0.13	0.03	0.05	-0.02
58	UE2	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.25	2.50	3.64	-	-0.02	0.11	0.04	0.10	0.00	0.01	0.00
59	UE3	2	4	4	3	1	2	1	3.50	3.75	3.66	-	0.30	-0.02	0.43	0.12	0.13	0.07	-0.01
60	UE4	2	4	5	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.78	-	0.17	-0.02	0.25	0.24	0.04	0.01	0.00
61	UE5	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.50	3.67	-	0.30	-0.14	0.11	0.13	0.03	0.05	-0.02
62	UE6	2	4	4	3	1	2	1	3.50	2.50	3.39	-	-0.14	-0.14	-0.16	-0.16	0.02	-0.01	0.02
63	UE7	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	3.50	2.75	3.78	-	0.11	0.36	0.32	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12
64	UE8	2	4	5	3	1	1	2	3.25	1.75	3.28	-	-0.39	-0.27	-1.17	-0.27	0.46	0.10	0.31
65	UE9	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22
66	UE10	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.14	0.31	0.13	-0.01	-0.03	-0.05
67	UE11	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	3.75	3.25	3.83	-	-0.02	-0.27	-0.03	0.29	0.00	0.01	0.01

68	UE12	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	4.00	2.50	3.94	-	0.23	0.48	0.57	0.40	0.13	-0.05	0.28
69	UE13	2	4	4	3	1	2	1	3.25	1.75	3.28	-	-0.39	-0.27	-1.21	-0.27	0.47	0.11	0.32
70	UE14	2	4	5	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.50	3.83	-	0.48	-0.02	0.36	0.29	0.18	0.06	-0.01
71	UE15	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22
72	UE16	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.50	2.75	3.78	-	0.11	0.36	0.32	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12
73	UE17	2	4	4	3	1	2	1	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
74	UE18	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	3.75	3.25	3.83	-	-0.02	-0.27	-0.03	0.29	0.00	0.01	0.01
75	C1	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	4.00	2.50	3.94	-	0.23	0.48	0.57	0.40	0.13	-0.05	0.28
76	C2	3	2	2	2	1	2	1	3.50	2.75	3.78	-	0.11	0.36	0.32	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12
77	C3	2	4	3	3	1	1	2	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22
78	C4	3	2	3	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
79	C5	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	3.75	3.50	3.83	-	0.04	-0.27	-0.03	0.29	0.00	0.01	0.01
80	C6	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
81	C7	3	3	3	3	1	2	2	3.25	1.75	3.28	-	-0.39	-0.27	-1.21	-0.27	0.47	0.11	0.32
82	C8	1	2	3	2	1	1	1	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22
83	C9	2	4	6	3	1	1	1	3.25	1.75	3.28	-	-0.39	-0.27	-1.21	-0.27	0.47	0.11	0.32
84	C10	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	3.75	3.50	3.83	-	0.48	-0.02	0.36	0.29	0.18	0.06	-0.01
85	C11	2	6	4	3	2	1	2	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22
86	C12	2	2	3	3	1	1	1	3.50	2.75	3.78	-	0.11	0.36	0.32	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12
87	C13	2	3	2	2	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
88	C14	2	2	2	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.83	-	-0.02	-0.27	-0.03	0.29	0.00	0.01	0.01
89	C15	2	2	3	3	1	2	1	4.00	2.50	3.94	-	0.23	0.48	0.57	0.40	0.13	-0.05	0.28
90	C16	2	6	4	3	1	2	2	4.00	3.75	3.66	-	0.61	0.48	-0.39	0.12	-0.23	-0.01	-0.19
91	C17	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	4.00	2.50	3.94	-	0.23	0.48	0.57	0.40	0.13	-0.05	0.28
92	C18	2	3	4	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.50	3.83	-	0.48	-0.02	0.36	0.29	0.18	0.06	-0.01
93	C19	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
94	C20	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.25	1.75	3.28	-	-0.39	-0.27	-1.21	-0.27	0.47	0.11	0.32
95	B1	2	2	3	3	1	1	1	3.25	1.75	3.28	-	-0.39	-0.27	-1.21	-0.27	0.47	0.11	0.32
96	B3	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	3.75	3.50	3.83	-	0.48	-0.02	0.36	0.29	0.18	0.06	-0.01
97	B4	2	2	3	3	1	1	1	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22

98	B6	2	3	3	2	1	1	2	3.50	2.75	3.78	-	0.11	0.36	0.32	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12
99	B7	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
100	EM1	2	3	1	2	1	1	1	3.25	1.75	3.28	-	-0.39	-0.27	-1.21	-0.27	0.47	0.11	0.32
101	EM2	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	4.00	2.50	3.94	-	0.23	0.48	0.57	0.40	0.13	-0.05	0.28
102	EM3	2	4	4	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.83	-	-0.02	-0.27	-0.03	0.29	0.00	0.01	0.01
103	EM4	2	4	4	3	1	1	1	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
104	EM5	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	3.50	2.75	3.78	-	0.11	0.36	0.32	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12
105	EM6	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22
106	EM7	2	4	3	3	1	2	1	3.75	3.50	3.83	-	0.48	-0.02	0.36	0.29	0.18	0.06	-0.01
107	G1	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	3.75	3.50	3.83	-	0.48	-0.02	0.36	0.29	0.18	0.06	-0.01
108	G2	2	4	5	3	2	2	2	3.75	3.25	3.83	-	-0.02	-0.27	0.00	0.29	0.00	0.00	0.00
109	G3	2	4	4	3	1	2	1	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
110	G4	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	3.50	2.75	3.78	-	0.11	0.36	0.32	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12
111	KIRI1	2	3	2	3	1	1	2	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22
112	KIRI2	2	4	4	3	1	1	2	3.50	2.75	3.78	-	0.11	0.36	0.32	0.24	0.03	0.05	0.12
113	KIRI3	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	2.50	3.75	4.36	-	-0.02	0.23	0.96	0.82	-0.02	0.40	0.22
114	KIRI4	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	3.75	3.25	3.67	-	-0.02	-0.02	0.27	0.13	0.00	-0.02	-0.01
115	KIRI5	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	4.00	2.50	3.94	-	0.23	0.48	0.57	0.40	0.13	-0.05	0.28
116	KIRI1	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	3.75	3.25	3.83	-	-0.02	-0.27	-0.03	0.29	0.00	0.01	0.01
117	KIRI2	2	3	4	3	1	1	2	3.50	2.50	3.40	-	-0.14	-0.14	-0.16	-0.15	0.02	-0.01	0.02
118	KIRI3	2	4	5	3	1	1	2	3.25	2.50	3.66	-	-0.02	0.11	0.04	0.12	0.00	0.01	0.00
119	KIRI4	2	3	3	2	1	2	2	3.75	3.50	3.67	-	0.30	-0.14	0.11	0.13	0.03	0.05	-0.02
120	KIRI5	2	4	5	3	1	1	2	3.50	3.75	3.66	-	0.30	-0.02	0.43	0.12	0.13	0.07	-0.01
121	P2	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	3.00	3.50	4.47	-	-0.21	0.36	0.20	0.93	-0.04	0.13	0.07
122	P3	2	4	3	3	1	1	2	4.25	3.00	2.94	-	-0.08	-0.64	-0.45	-0.61	0.04	0.15	0.29
123	P4	3	2	3	3	1	1	2	3.00	2.25	3.94	-	-0.39	0.11	0.72	0.40	-0.28	-0.16	0.08
124	P5	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	5.00	2.25	3.94	-	-0.02	0.11	0.72	0.40	-0.01	-0.16	0.08
125	P7	3	3	3	3	1	1	2	2.75	4.25	3.94	-	-0.08	0.61	0.46	0.40	-0.04	0.13	0.28
126	P8	1	2	3	2	1	1	1	2.50	4.25	3.94	-	-0.33	0.61	0.50	0.40	-0.17	0.14	0.31
127	P9	2	4	6	3	1	1	1	2.25	2.75	2.56	-	-0.83	-0.27	0.25	-0.99	-0.21	0.10	-0.07

128	P10	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2.75	2.75	2.58	-	-0.21	-0.27	0.25	-0.97	-0.05	0.10	-0.07
129	P11	2	6	4	3	2	2	2	5.00	2.75	2.58	-	-0.08	-0.27	0.25	-0.97	-0.02	0.10	-0.07
130	P12	2	2	3	3	1	2	1	4.75	3.25	2.60	-	-0.21	-1.27	-1.80	-0.95	0.37	1.96	2.28
131	P13	2	3	2	2	1	1	2	3.00	3.50	4.47	-	-0.21	0.36	0.20	0.93	-0.04	0.13	0.07
132	P14	2	2	3	3	1	1	2	4.25	3.00	2.94	-	-0.08	-0.64	-0.45	-0.61	0.04	0.15	0.29
133	P15	2	2	3	3	1	1	1	3.00	2.25	3.94	-	-0.39	0.11	-0.28	0.40	0.11	0.06	-0.03
134	P16	2	6	4	3	1	1	2	5.00	2.25	4.24	-	-0.02	0.11	0.72	0.70	-0.01	-0.16	0.08
135	P17	2	3	3	3	1	1	2	2.75	4.25	4.24	-	-0.08	0.61	0.46	0.70	-0.04	0.13	0.28
136	P18	2	3	4	3	1	1	2	2.50	4.25	4.24	-	-0.33	0.61	0.50	0.70	-0.17	0.14	0.31