DETERMINANTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE PERFORMANCE IN PROJECT-ORIENTED ORGANIZATIONS IN KERICHO MUNICIPALITY

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Determinants of human resource performance
DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for examination in any study programme of any institution or university. No part of this work may be reproduced without permission of the author and/ or that of Kenyatta University.

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DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to my parents Mr. and Mrs. Boen for their role in planting a seed of success in my life. Thank you Dad and Mom.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research work would not have been fully accomplished without the valued input from different groups and individuals. While I may not exhaustively mention everybody whose assistance enabled me to finish this work, I am humbled by the value-adding endeavors from my supervisor, family, friends, course colleagues, and study organizations which allowed me collect data from their staff.

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I am grateful also to my friends who took their time to read the study manuscripts and enabled me to brainstorm over the whole study concept. My course colleagues were equally helpful through class discussions and group researches out of which I managed to expand my research knowledge and skill.

It will be impossible to end without a mention of my relatives especially my parents Mr. and Mrs. Boen, Dr and Mrs Sawe’s family for their early efforts of nurturing my potential in life. To them I am highly indebted.

Finally, thanks to the Almighty God for granting me sufficient grace in my academic life.
ABSTRACT

According to Guest (2002), the ideal project-oriented organization has a specific management culture expressed in the efficiency of employee attraction, empowerment, process orientation and teamwork, organizational change, customer orientation, and networking. Therefore, specific competences and skills are needed by the project personnel to successfully work together in projects. In this study, the purpose was to investigate the determinants of human resource performance in the context of project-oriented projects. Specifically, it sought to establish how employee attraction, capacity development, retention efforts, and approach to separation influenced human resource performance. Towards achieving this, the study adopted a descriptive survey design targeting 638 employees working in four project-oriented organizations in Kericho. Data from staff was collected using questionnaires while interviews were used to ascertain information from office directors, after which analysis was accomplished using descriptive statistics and content analysis. Based on findings, it was recommended that project partners work on a detailed contract policy that optimally benefits both the organization and individuals serving within the project context. Also, project-oriented organizations should devise mechanisms of ensuring that staffers are involved in decision making, performance appraisals, collective bargaining, work life balance option broadening, and delegated responsibilities. Finally, it was recommended that a comprehensive pay policy is designed specifying all benefits accruing to employees, including severance payments which should be emphasized to cater for non-employment durations after contract expiry. The project organizations should have an agreeable private pension arrangement or lump-sum pay at the end of individual contracts rather than staggering them together with monthly salaries.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATION

ACTG: AIDS Clinical Trials Group
ADB: Africa Development Bank
AMREF: African Medical and Research Foundation
CAP: College of American Pathologist
CBHC: Community-Based Health Care
EU: European Union
HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HR: Human Resources
IDCRP: Infectious Diseases Clinical Research Program
IMF: World Bank, International Monetary Fund
IRIS: Immune Reconstitution Inflammatory Syndrome
KEMRI: Kenyan Medical Research Institute
KMOD: Kenya Ministry of Defense
LEAP: Local Empowerment for Peace
MC: Mercy Corps
MCH: Maternal Child/Health
NGOs: Non Governmental Organizations
OVI: Objectively Verifiable Indicators
PEPFAR: President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
PMI: Project Management Institute
SET: Social Exchange Theory
SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences
US: United States
USAID: United States Agency for International Development
USAMRU-K: U.S. Army Medical Research Unit–Kenya
WRP: Walter Reed Project
OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Human Resource Attraction:
The process of identifying the employment source, individual competence, and inclusion of a particular group of individuals in the organization’s routine work systems

Human Resource Development:
Encouraging employees to acquire new or advanced skills, knowledge, and viewpoints, by providing learning and training facilities and avenues where such new ideas can be applied.

Human Resource Retention:
The various policies and practices which let the employees stick to an organization for a longer period of time

Human Resource Turnover:
The ratio of the number of workers that had to be replaced in a given time period to the average number of workers

Project Management
The planning and organization of an organization’s resources in order to move a specific task, event or duty toward completion

Project-Oriented Organization:
An organization which defines “Management by Projects” as an organizational strategy, applies temporary organizations for the performance of complex processes, manages a project portfolio of different project types, has specific permanent organization structures to provide integrative functions, has an explicit project management culture, and perceives itself as being project-oriented.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction
The chapter presents the study's background information in both contextual and conceptual perspectives, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions, scope of the study, study significance to various stakeholders, and study assumptions.

1.2 Background of the Study
The performance of human resource is of strategic importance in all organizations. It contributes to the success of the organization and creates competitive advantage for the organization. The way Human Resource (HR) practices and policies take shape also affects the employee's experiences of work and the employment relationship. A project-oriented organization is no different in this regard. However, specific features of the project-oriented entity create specific challenges for the performance of human resource with its context (Huselid, 2005).

Gareis (2005) suggests that project-oriented organizations are ones in which the people of the organization define 'management by projects' as their organizational strategy; apply projects and programs for the performance of complex processes; manage a project portfolio of different internal and external project types; have specific permanent organizations like a project portfolio group, or a project manager's office to provide integrative functions; and most importantly view the organization as being project-oriented. According to Sydow et al. (2004), an ideal project-oriented organization is often described as a flat organization with a strong project management culture. In essence, what defines an organization as project-oriented is that they perceive themselves as being project-oriented and shape their policies and practices for working, for organizational culture and for strategy towards the challenge presented by managing projects. A study by Huemann (2004), support the assumption that the project-oriented entity has specific features that in turn produce special requirements in terms of human resource policies and practices.
Turner (2006) argues that in order to make an optimal contribution to firm performance, human resource policies and practices should be integrated both with firm strategy, so-called vertical strategic integration and with each other, so-called horizontal integration.

In addition, the orientation of the human resource function, its goals and aims, need to be aligned with the strategy of the organization. For instance, ‘managing by projects’ as the strategy of the project-oriented company requires that the policies, processes and practices in the project-oriented organization are in some way supportive of project-oriented working and are different from more traditional processes and practices which are designed for the classically-managed organization where the emphasis is not on projects but instead on routine products and services and where the job requirements are well defined and stable (Turner, 2006).

Since projects and programs are temporary organizations, every time a new project or program is started, the human resource configuration of the organization must change. This might create pressure. It certainly impacts the work organization, and creates the need for new processes like assigning personnel onto projects, separation from projects, and processes for linking project assignments to careers (Pfeffer, 2003). Gereis (2005) supplement that project-oriented firms have dynamic boundaries and contexts since the number and the sizes of the projects performed are constantly changing, permanent and temporary resources are employed, and co-operations with clients, partners and suppliers are organized in teams, some of them are virtual. Thus projects and programs entail greater uncertainty, creating a more dynamic environment with more discontinuity.

At any time, according to Butler et al. (2003), a project-oriented company holds a project portfolio of different internal and external project types. That means at any time more or less projects and programs are carried out. A person can work in different projects at the same time, maybe even in different project roles. Or a person can carry a role in a project and at the same time carry another role in the permanent organization. Challenges arise from this in many areas, including multi-resource allocation and role conflict at an individual level (Ibid). The ideal project-oriented organization has a specific management culture expressed in the
efficiency of employee attraction, empowerment, process orientation and teamwork, continuous and discontinuous organizational change, customer orientation, and networking with clients and suppliers (Guest, 2002). Therefore, specific competences and skills are needed by the project personnel to successfully work together in projects.

In Kenya, there is no known particular policy framework that guides operations of the project-oriented organizations. The Non-Governmental Organizations Co-ordination Act of 1990, however, provides related requirements that project based organizations (especially NGOs) must meet prior to registration and their relationship with the Government and citizens. The Act specifies submission of the organization’s constitution, partnership deeds, management structure, and compliance declarations among other requirements to guarantee work permits. Despite the inherent legislative gap, the Government and other locally registered entities have embraced project-oriented forms of organizations to meet time-defined goals. Most often, the government enters into financing agreements with funding agencies such as European Union (EU), Africa Development Bank (ADB), World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF) and other international funders towards executing particular projects whose goals have to be attained within a defined time period. In addition, individual entities are at liberty to enter into legal work partnerships with internal organizations provided concerned Government agencies are versed with their activities (http://www.ngoregnet.org/country_information, accessed on 23rd August 2012).

For the purpose of this study, four project-oriented organizations with operations centered at Kericho Municipality were studied. These include Walter Reed Project (WRP), Mercy Corps (MC), African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF), and United States Agency for International Development (USAID).

1.1.1 Walter Reed Project (WRP)
WRP was the local name for United States (US) Military HIV Research Program activities executed in Kenya. All WRP activities in Kenya were conducted under the U.S. Army Medical Research Unit–Kenya (USAMRU-K), which was on the campus of the Kenyan
Medical Research Institute (KEMRI) in Nairobi. The project-organization had extensive expertise and infrastructure to support HIV vaccine and therapeutic research as well as an expansive HIV prevention, care and treatment program (http://www.hivresearch.org/network.php?, accessed on 3rd July, 2012).

1.1.2 Mercy Corps (MC)

Mercy Corps’ role in Kenya was widespread and varied, from working with youth to address the heart of conflict causing issues to responding to the drought crisis that has affected the Horn of Africa. Currently, Mercy Corps was implementing a two year Local Empowerment for Peace program (LEAP II) to build upon gains in peace building efforts in Rift Valley by addressing key remaining challenges. The programme sought to strengthen the ability of local, district, and provincial structures to address the causes of post-election violence and promote sustainable peace and reconciliation (www.mercycorps.org/countries/kenya accessed on 18th August 2012).

1.1.3 African Medical and Research Foundation (AMREF)

AMREF was officially founded in 1957 to deliver mobile health services and to provide mission hospitals with surgical support. In the early 1960s, ground-based mobile medical services were added, along with ‘flight clinics’ for the under-served and remote areas in the Rift Valley districts of Kenya. At Kericho Municipality, AMREF provided mobile clinical and maternal child/health (MCH) services. It also focused on Community-Based Health Care (CBHC) and training community health workers to deliver primary health care (http://www.amref.org/who-we-are/our-history/ Accessed on 18th August 2012).

1.1.4 United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

USAID was an independent federal government agency that received overall foreign policy guidance from the Secretary of State. Its work supported long-term and equitable economic growth and advances U.S. foreign policy objectives by supporting: economic growth; agriculture and trade; global health; democracy; and conflict prevention and humanitarian assistance (http://kenya.usaid.gov/what-we-do accessed on 18th August 2012).
1.3 Problem Statement

Project-based organizations are structured around the particular needs of the project, including team and reporting structures, processes and strategies used. The structure involves all internal and external resources needed to complete the project, including both in-house and consulting specialists (Turner, 2006). The uniquely defined structures emphasize a chain of command that places specialist project managers or coordinators at the top and origin of performance instructions. This may be injurious to some extent if the human resource function is relegated to perform peripheral and preliminary roles, and core day-to-day roles remain a direct responsibility of respective project or unit managers. This arrangement subsequently may subject the human resource factor to possible abuses and/or unprofessional administration of processes such as task allocation, capacity enhancement, performance appraisal, wage determination, job design and separation.

By virtue of their operational structure, the project-oriented organizations based in Kericho Municipality managed their human resources in an interplay framework involving four key actors; namely line managers, project managers, individual workers and at a lesser extent HR specialists. This interplay, as reported by Gareis (2006), was a central challenge in similar work protocols due to its high possibility of generating conflict and mismanagement of human resource potential. Further, none of the four candidate organizations considered the human resource factor at a strategic or top level. Structurally, each project organization is headed by a Project Manager/Director with technical competencies as those considered core by the financiers. The next lower level constitutes divisions which were headed by Assistant Directors. As a consequence, human resource specialists were placed in the third level with obligations of reporting to Assistant Director(s) in the division of Administration. This arrangement definitely excluded the human resource input at the policy; a factor which may critically influenced employee output.

Against the peripheral role that the project human resource experts were required to play, there are critical human resource challenges that uniquely defined the project work environment, thus requiring strategic redress. Core project assignments required a high caliber
specialization and competency modeling towards attaining the project-timed targets. The further fact that employees were enlisted for time-defined deliverables, their competence development and career structures were of significant consideration so as to avoid allocating too many resources for dismal returns. Moreover, it was not difficult to easily slide into short-circuit recruitments and new placements due to turnovers if appropriate human resources endeavors were not sufficiently incorporated. Notably, employees were required to work within risky environments with possible short-notice dismissals, infections for those in health fields and individual responsibility loads in cases of non-performance.

To minimize possible dysfunctions, project oriented organizations needed a re-energized focus on how well they could meet the high knowledge/experience requirements, competency appreciation, sustainability of service delivery, and mitigated exit effects. On this basis, taking the context of Kericho Municipality, this study was justified for the purpose of generating deductions regarding key determinants of human resource performance given the uniqueness spelt in project-oriented organizations. Further to this, no substantive study had been conducted in a similar field to establish how best to integrate the human resource contribution in boosting individual and overall performance.

1.4 Purpose of the Study
The purpose of this study was to analyze the determinants of human resource performance in the context of project-oriented organizations operating in Kericho Municipality.

1.5 Research Objectives
Specifically, the study sought to:

(i) Establish the extent to which attraction of the project working team influences human resource performance at the project-oriented organizations in Kericho Municipality;
(ii) Explore how the adopted capacity development practices affect human resource performance at the project-oriented organizations at Kericho Municipality;
(iii) Determine the relation project-team retention programmes and human resource performance at the project-oriented organizations at Kericho Municipality; and
(iv) Analyze the extent to which employee turnover affected human resource performance at the project-oriented organizations at Kericho Municipality.

1.6 Research Questions

To achieve the study’s objectives, the following four research questions were adopted:

(i) To what extent does attraction of project working team influence human resource performance at the project-oriented organizations at Kericho Municipality?

(ii) How do the adopted capacity development practices alter human resource performance at the project-oriented organizations at Kericho Municipality?

(iii) What is the influence of project-team retention on human resource performance at the project-oriented organizations at Kericho Municipality?

(iv) To what extent does employee turnover affect human resource performance at the project-oriented organizations at Kericho Municipality?

1.7 Scope of the Study

The study geographically concentrated at the South Rift region that was purposively served by a target of four project oriented projects whose co-ordination offices are at Kericho Municipality town. The highland town, which was one of the most populated in Kenya, is about 425km south west of the country’s city of Nairobi. In total the four organizations had a total staff establishment of 638 who were mainly engaged on contract terms and predominantly served the whole of the South region of the Rift and sparingly the whole Rift Valley province. With this target source, the study focused on significant factors that influenced the output of the human resources working for the projects. In particular, the intent was to analyze the relationship between employee attraction, development, retention and turnover on work-related performance.
1.8 Significance of the Study

Findings of this study would be of profound significance to a number of partners such as government of Kenya, project-oriented management and staff, financing partners, general public and scholars. The Kenyan government, through the Ministry of Labour, would access essential information regarding unique project-oriented human resource practices and management for the purpose of checking and ensuring conformity with the relevant employment standards and provisions. The project management would benefit by holding the findings as an independent audit to laying grounds for corrective actions, while the staff would gain from the revised human resource approach. The financing agencies would be placed at a higher level of understanding on how effective the projects’ blueprints were implemented and achievement accomplished for the ultimate benefits of the general public. Scholars who want to advance this study or investigate related fields would use the derived recommendations as basis for renewed analyses.

1.9 Study Assumptions

It was assumed that all employees at the project-oriented organizations were knowledgeable enough to provide information that was essential to the derivation of generalizations regarding human resource performance within the context of project-oriented organizations.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter reviews existing literature that is relevant to the study area. It begins with a theoretical overview on the key objective lines: project management, human resource attraction, development, retention, and turnover, then proceeds to documented empirical expositions. Also covered hereunder are the critical review, conceptual framework and literature gaps that the study is designed to fill.

2.2 Theoretical Literature Review
The diverse scholarly theoretical sentiments and construct build-ups by various authoritative authors (not particular to project-oriented organizations) have been summarized in this subsection under the overriding objective areas of the study.

2.2.1 Project Management
The PMI (2004) suggests distinguishing five general processes of project management: initiating, planning, executing, monitoring and controlling, and closure. Gareis (2006) emphasizes that all five processes are accompanied by troubleshooting, that is, the resolution of project discontinuity, as the only continuous process. The five processes aim to achieve the project objectives with the help of knowledge, skills, tools and techniques (PMI, 2004). In general, project objectives are to stay within the given project timeframe and estimated costs, while meeting product specifications. Kerzner (2004) adds that time; cost and quality are in permanent conflict as changing one objective will affect the others. A shift in the importance of project objectives during the implementation will therefore affect the management of the project as a whole.

According to Gray and Larson (2008), the definition of projects is essential for aligning the use of project management tools and methods with the project objectives in terms of time, cost and quality.
The specification includes the project objectives and the formal, temporal and social delineation of the project. The project team is formed during the defining stage. However, at this point of the project life cycle the project team has only few employees who define the project together with the project stakeholders. The defining stage is followed by the planning stage. Project planning involves scheduling and sequencing project activities and resources according to the project specifications. Project activities are the hierarchical decomposition of the work of a project down to a sufficient level of detail so that estimates of time, cost and resource requirements can be made. Wysocki (2007) argues that a commonly included step is to determine the staffing level and what particular skills project employees should have to meet the project goals. This is the stage in the project life cycle when the majority of project employees are assigned to the project team. The project team grows rapidly and the project manager has to spend more time on the recruitment of employees and team building than before.

The executing stage is where most of the project work takes place and the project deliverable, or product, is produced (Gray and Larson, 2008). Depending on the deviation of actual performance indicators from the plan, the project stakeholders may be forced to reconsider the project goals. The number of project employees usually reaches its maximum during this stage. The delivering stage includes the delivery of the project product to the customer and the redeployment of project resources. The redeployment includes the reintegration of project employees into the functional departments of the organization or their assignment to new projects. The project team is dissolved after the delivering stage (Gray and Larson, 2008).

Overall, the different stages in the project life cycle have particular staffing requirements and issues in human resource management. The temporary and unique nature of projects poses a challenge to project human resource management. With every new project, project managers have to begin a new recruiting process. They are under pressure to find qualified employees who want to join their project. In addition, project managers frequently have to ask line managers to get employees assigned to their projects, because the line managers often have authority over staffing decisions.
From the employee perspective, working on a project usually means dealing with new, demanding tasks due to time pressure and the uniqueness of project goals. Moreover, the limited duration of projects causes uncertainty among employees, who have to plan their career to continue after the project has ended (Harpum, 2004).

It is often difficult to predict the many interdependent activities that are needed for the implementation of projects. For example, projects often require resources from more than one department and from more than one organization. The complexity of projects is therefore likely to be higher compared with the complexity of routine operational tasks (Roberts, 2007). This position is supported by Harpum (2004), who defines projects within the context of bigger systems, thus stressing the interdisciplinary and complex nature of projects. According to Roman (2006), however, complexity is not a defining characteristic for projects. He argues that a project can involve only one specialist and can be limited to one particular function at a time, thus having a low complexity.

According to Crawford (2002) project success is an important project management issue, it is one of the most frequently discussed topics and there is a lack of agreement concerning the criteria by which success is judged. Baker et al. (2008) argue that project success is a matter of perception and that a project will be most likely to be perceived to be an overall success if the project meets the technical performance specifications and/or mission to be performed, and if there is a high level of satisfaction concerning the project outcome among key people on the project team, and key users or clientele of the project effort.

Research has identified that people management drives project success more than technical issues do (Scott-Young and Samson, 2004). Despite this finding, there exists only a small body of research that examines the so-called soft project management; the people side of project management (Kloppenborg and Opfer, 2002).
### 2.2.2 Attracting Human Resources

The business environment is constantly changing. Steps of business evolution that once took several years, decades, or even centuries to climb are now leaped in months. With the rapid advancement of technology and subsequently, the ever shrinking world due to globalization, these significant alterations are occurring at an exponential pace. A company cannot afford to stand still in this modern age or a rival will certainly replace their niche. Employees are the groundwork for competitive advantages in today’s world. Due to this fact, hiring new talent that can keep pace with the current times is of vital importance now more than ever before (Berthon et al., 2005).

There are several factors that go into the determination of who exactly constitutes the ‘right’ person for a particular company. There are also numerous factors that make a company attractive to these specific candidates. The objective of a company’s recruitment efforts is to align the interests of the two parties by providing the most desirable candidates with incentives to apply and while eliminating the less qualified candidates from the mix. The most common methodology that organizations employ for recruitment purposes is to attract the most individuals possible and then filter out the select people that have the most potential and fit their specific criteria the best. Organizations that recruit the more qualified applicants are typically ones that have a larger applicant pool (Gowan and Zhang, 2008).

Certain aspects that companies use to attract new employees are obvious, such as compensation and benefits. These two forms can become very complex due to the fact that businesses always try to account for their competitors while deciding what is best for their own company. The competitors and various industry factors are influences because a firm cannot afford to pay much below the benchmark without the loss of qualified employees. Therefore, most companies that compete in the same industry will offer compensation packages and benefits that are within a reasonable range of each other. Subsequently, this competition on financial matters complicates the decision process for perspective recruits who receive similar offers from multiple companies. There are, however, numerous other aspects that entice applicants and allow them to differentiate the firms from one another.
These other forms focus more upon job satisfaction and quality of life once a person works at the company. This includes the corporate culture, company policies, and the general atmosphere of the work environment and thus is where candidates are able to differentiate between companies (Berthon et al., 2005).

According to Gowan and Zhang (2008), scholars have suggested that because applicants have incomplete information about organizations, they interpret information they receive as signals about the organizations' working conditions and also that organizational attributes provide applicants with information about what it would be like to be a member of an organization because such attributes are interpreted as providing information about working conditions in an organization. This is essentially the basis of signaling theory, which attempts to explain communication through various signals. Since these factors vary widely from company to company and are extremely difficult to know without actually working at a specific place, especially for students fresh out of college, various attraction strategies are aimed to convey this knowledge to potential new hires. Some of these strategies include promotional giveaways, information sessions, direct advertising, and utilization of company websites. All of these actions are also known as employer branding, which is described as the sum of a company’s efforts to communicate to existing and prospective staff that it is a desirable place to work (Berthon et al., 2005).

One of the best recruitment tools for attracting quality prospects to an organization is a good reputation. If a company is well-known for positive reasons, then that company’s reputation precedes any possible HR activities. People are inclined to seek out job opportunities with that company simply because they have heard the name or are familiar with the products or services offered by the company. Having a strong reputation can potentially allow reduced recruitment spending and increased retention (Berthon et al., 2005).

There are some aspects of attraction that companies cannot change at will. These are generally characteristics that have been developed over time for each company. These characteristics might be appealing to some and repulsive to others based on each individual’s personal
preference. One factor which has varying levels of attractiveness based on preference is the company norms. Norms evolve uniquely for each company and are based on certain rules and precedents established through the years. Another factor that has a different attraction allure to each person is location. Some people want to be in a city, while others prefer the country. Some people want to be in a specific region of the country and others don’t mind working in a foreign country. The level of attraction again just boils down to personal preference (Horner et al., 2005).

2.2.3 Development of Human Resources

There is no single formula for creating an employee development program, but there are some important components that should be considered. A truly effective employee development program should include learning, career planning, goal setting, and evaluation. These areas will help the program be beneficial to the employees who utilize and to the organization that provides it. Without them, the employee development reverts back to being simply training (Gerbman, 2004).

One of the main reasons learning is becoming more and more crucial is the rise of technology. Knowledge and information are moving faster than ever with the internet and a business cannot keep up in today’s world if its employees do not have access to it. Although higher education is important to prepare people to work in business, they still need a new set of skills by the time they start working. It becomes the responsibility of the employer to make sure people have these skills, and it must be an on-going process. Therefore, companies need to make sure people can learn anytime (Garger, 2004). In addition to technology, Garger also cites reorganization of companies and the changing relationship between employers and employees as reasons for the move from training to learning.

Learning helps people improve their overall performance rather than just enhancing their job skills. According to Gerbman (2004), knowledge is capital, for both the individual worker and the company. Organizations and individuals should value knowledge as they do money, because in today’s market they go hand in hand. Feldman (2002), however, note that
companies no longer feel an obligation to control and direct employees’ careers, so people at all levels are taking charge of their own career management. It is the role of companies to provide opportunities, but individuals must take the initiative to utilize those opportunities and position themselves for future career success.

The purpose of career planning as part of an employee development program is not only to help employees feel like their employers are investing in them, but also help people manage the many aspects of their lives and deal with the fact that there is not a clear promotion track. Employers can no longer promise job security, but they can help people maintain the skills they need to remain viable in the job market. Career planning should be based on helping employees find a career path that they understand and value (Nunn, 2006). To start this process, people must do some self-reflection and identify their work style, their work preferences, and their current skill set. From there they can begin to identify the jobs they would like in the future and skills needed to attain those jobs (Moses, 2005). As a result, people should have better self-understanding, greater responsibility for their futures, and action plans to achieve future goals. The challenge to organizations is that they must accept that this process may lead some employees to leave the company and pursue outside opportunities. Although it is a risk, employees also live with the risk that they could be “right sized” out of a company (O’Herron and Simonsen, 2005).

Company loyalty cannot necessarily be quantified, but it is significant to the intrinsic rewards that employees feel. When people feel as though they are helping a company’s bottom line, they feel good and want to stay there to continue making contributions. People enjoy feeling that their work has a purpose and their activities are significant to the company. Top performers do not generally leave a job over money. It is often because their job does not tie into their goals and the things that make them happy (Melymuka, 2003). Although salary and benefits play a role in recruiting and retaining employees, people are also looking for opportunities to learn new things, the challenge of new responsibilities, and the prospect of personal and professional growth. Satisfying these intrinsic needs helps build trust, morale, loyalty, and overall satisfaction in employees (Nunn, 2006).
The primary reason people change jobs is to seek out new challenges and opportunities for development. Companies can utilize the career planning process to become more adept in this area. O’Herron and Simonsen (2005) have found that supporting employees through career planning and development has made workforce more motivated and invested in the company meeting its business goals. When a company communicates to their employees that they are marketable outside the organization, yet still invests in their training and development, it makes a strong statement to workers that they are values, and many are compelled to offer a high level of commitment. Satisfied employees lead to satisfied customers, which is definitely a financial benefit to organizations.

2.2.4 Retention of Project Human Resources
Retaining top talent remains a primary concern for many organizations today. Critical analysis of workforce trends points to an impending shortage of highly-skilled employees who possess the requisite knowledge and ability to perform at high levels, meaning that organizations failing to retain high performers will be left with an understaffed, less qualified workforce that ultimately hinders their ability to remain competitive (Rappaport et al., 2003). Retention is a critical element of an organization’s more general approach to talent management, which is defined as “the implementation of integrated strategies or systems designed to increase workplace productivity by developing improved processes for attracting, developing, retaining, and utilizing people with the required skills and aptitude to meet current and future business needs” (Lockwood, 2006, p. 2).

Blanket retention policies may be disadvantageous if they appeal to employees at all levels of performance, and organizations would want to adopt particular strategies that contribute to the retention of their most valued employees while avoiding control methods that would appeal primarily to average or low performers. In terms of job level differences, many talent management programs emphasize developing and retaining the group of employees who have potential to occupy the top leadership positions within the organization in the near future. To this end, organizations can benefit from knowing whether retention reasons differ based on
job level, which might then call for different retention strategies depending on where individuals reside within the organizational hierarchy (Steel et al., 2002).

Aquino et al., (2007) presented an updated model that encompasses many of the earlier retention factors while introducing several new ones. Drawing from earlier perspectives, job satisfaction and perceived alternatives were considered proximate causes of decisions to stay, whereas pay, promotional opportunities, constituent attachments, kinship, and organizational commitment were included as distal influences. One important addition to the model was distributive justice. Drawing from the developing literature on equity theory at that time, the authors suggested that employees would be satisfied (and thus more likely to stay) if they felt that the outcomes they received reflected the effort and other inputs that they had invested. More recently, organizational justice has been defined more broadly to include fairness perceptions related to outcomes, procedures, and interpersonal interactions, which have been shown to be related to employees’ decisions to remain with their employer.

A handful of other explanatory constructs have emerged in the retention literature since the earliest models were introduced. First, a number of organizations have offered employees flexible work arrangements in order to accommodate different employee preferences regarding when (and where) they perform their work. These programs typically involve alternative work hours and/or compressed scheduling and are often established with the goal of reducing tensions between competing work and non-work demands (Baltes et al., 2009). The authors introduced the notion of organizational prestige as a potentially important retention factor. This dimension reflects the more recent effort by organizations to attract and retain talented employees by becoming an “employer of choice”, which often involves communicating and emphasizing the positive features of working for a particular organization to current and potential employees.

According to Allen and Griffeth (2006), organizational commitment, organizational justice, flexible work arrangements, organizational prestige, and location have been viewed as potentially important determinants of employees’ decisions to stay. Other theorists emphasize
performance-specific differences when studying employee retention processes because of the negative consequences that are associated with turnover among high performers. Organizations must bear performance losses, high replacement costs, and potential talent shortages, all of which ultimately erode the core leadership base of the organization. Therefore, employers seek to retain high performers and replace low performers with workers who bring greater skills and abilities to the organization, a notion that is consistent with both the recent talent management emphasis described above and arguments introduced several decades ago concerning turnover functionality (Staw, 2008).

March and Simon's (2008) discussion of desirability and ease of movement factors suggests that employees who are high performers are presumably also those who can leverage their superior skills in the labor market to secure another position with greater rewards. The skills and attributes that enhance an individual's mobility outside of the organization have been termed 'movement capital', and include dimensions such as education, cognitive ability, occupation-specific training and job performance. High performers likely have a greater capacity to act on dissatisfaction with workplace elements than low performers because they can turn to the external market when conditions are unfavorable. In addition, factors that promote retention among high performers may be organization-specific (or else they would likely leave), which suggests that dimensions such as organizational prestige or constituent attachments may be more prominent in high performers' decisions to stay. Of the limited empirical evidence available to date, findings indicate that high performers are more likely to stay when there is opportunity for salary growth, when they are satisfied with their work, and when contingent rewards are available (Jackofsky and Peters, 2003).

Differences across job levels are expected because each group may hold a different type of "psychological contract" with the organization. Psychological contracts have been defined as the beliefs about what employees owe to the organization and what the organization owes to them (Robinson, 2006). Robinson (2006) distinguishes between transactional contracts, which are characterized by specific, monetary-oriented exchanges between parties over a relatively short period of time, and relational contracts, which involve broader, relationship-oriented
exchanges that maintain the employer-employee relationship over the long term. Extrinsic factors such as pay, benefits, and flexible work schedules tend to be viewed as more transactional, whereas intrinsic dimensions such as meaningful work, opportunities for advancement, and personal support are seen as more relational. Further, transactional obligations tend to be clearly specified in advance, such as in a written employment contract, whereas relational obligations are less predictable and more intangible (Zhao et al., 2007).

2.2.5 Human Resources Turnover

Organizations invest a lot on their employees in terms of induction and training, developing, maintaining and retaining them in their organization. Therefore, managers at all costs must minimize employee’s turnover. Although, there is no standard framework for understanding the employees turnover process as whole, a wide range of factors have been found useful in interpreting employee turnover (Kevin et al., 2004). Therefore, there is need to develop a fuller understanding of the employee turnover, more especially, the sources- what determines employee turnover, effects and strategies that managers can put in place minimize turnover. With globalization which is heightening competition, organizations must continue to develop tangible products and provide services which are based on strategies created by employees. These employees are extremely crucial to the organizations since their value is essentially intangible and not easily replicated. Therefore, managers must recognize employees as major contributors to the efficient achievement of the organization’s success. Managers should control employee turnover for the benefit of the organization success (Meaghan et al., 2002).

Employees’ turnover is a much studied phenomenon Shaw et al. (2008). But there is no standard reason why people leave organizations. Employee turnover is the rotation of workers around the labour market; between firms, jobs and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment. The term “turnover” is defined by Price (2007) as: the ratio of the number of organizational members who have left during the period being considered divided by the average number of people in that organization during the period. Frequently, managers refer to turnover as the entire process associated with filling a vacancy: Each time a
position is vacated, either voluntarily or involuntarily, a new employee must be hired and trained. This replacement cycle is known as turnover (Woods, 2005).

Firth et al., (2004) have attempted to answer the question of what determines people's intention to quit by investigating possible antecedents of employees’ intentions to quit. However, there has been little consistency in findings, which is partly due to the diversity of employed included by the researchers and the lack of consistency in their findings. Therefore, there are several reasons why people quit from one organization to another or why people leave organizations. The experience of job related stress (job stress), the range factors that lead to job related stress (stressors), lack of commitment in the organization; and job dissatisfaction make employees to quit.

Manu et al. (2004) argue that employees quit from organization due to economic reasons. Using economic model they showed that people quit from organization due to economic reasons and these can be used to predict the labour turnover in the market. Good local labour market conditions improve organizational stability (Schervis, 2003). Large organizations can provide employees with better chances for advancement and higher wages and hence ensure organizational attachment (Idson and Feaster, 2006). Tor et al., (2007) argue that local unemployment rates interact with job satisfaction to predict turnover in the market. Role stressors also lead to employees’ turnover. Insufficient information on how to perform the job adequately, unclear expectations of peers and supervisors, ambiguity of performance evaluation methods, extensive job pressures, and lack of consensus on job functions or duties may cause employees to feel less involved and less satisfied with their jobs and careers, less committed to their organizations, and eventually display a propensity to leave the organization.

If roles of employees are not clearly spelled out by management/ supervisors, this would accelerate the degree of employees quitting their jobs due to lack of role clarity. There are some factors that are, in part, beyond the control of management, such as the death or incapacity of a member of staff. Other factors have been classed as involuntary turnover in the
past such as the need to provide care for children or aged relatives. Today such factors should not be seen as involuntary turnover as both government regulation and company policies reate the chance for such staff to come back to work, or to continue to work on a more flexible basis (Simon et al., 2007).

Employees have a strong need to be informed. Organizations with strong communication systems enjoy lower turnover of staff (Labov, 2007). Employees feel comfortable to stay longer, in positions where they are involved in some level of the decision-making process. That is employees should fully understand about issues that affect their working atmosphere. But in the absence openness in sharing information, employee empowerment the chances of continuity of employees are minimal (Magner et al. 2006). Costly et al. (2003) points out that a high labour turnover may mean poor personnel policies, poor recruitment policies, poor supervisory practices, poor grievance procedures, or lack of motivation.

All these factors contribute to high employee turnover in the sense that there is no proper management practices and policies on personnel matters hence employees are not recruited scientifically, promotions of employees are not based on spelled out policies, no grievance procedures in place and thus employees decides to quit. Employee turnover is expensive from the view of the organization. Voluntary quits which represents an exodus of human capital investment from organizations and the subsequent replacement process entails manifold costs to the organizations. These replacement costs include search of the external labour market for a possible substitute, selection between competing substitutes, induction of the chosen substitute, and formal and informal training of the substitute until he or she attains performance levels equivalent to the individual who quit. Addition to these replacement costs, output would be affected to some extend or output would be maintained at the cost of overtime payment (John, 2006).
2.3 Empirical Literature Review

With respect to human resource attraction, the challenges faced by most project organizations are enormous (Kirkland, 2007). One of the most critical challenges for any project-defined organization is finding, recruiting, and retaining talented individuals owing to inherent unique features. According to a Manpower Survey, data gathered from project-based companies representing 33,000 employers from 23 countries, companies worldwide are facing trouble in filling the positions. Forty percent of the surveyed employers reported problems in filling positions because of a lack of talent in their labor markets (Manpower Inc., 2008).

According to Karthikeyan (2007), emphasis has been laid on initiatives that can be put in place to help organization to retain and nurture the talent. Despite the great sums of money companies allocate to talent management systems, many still struggle to fill key positions - limiting their potential for growth in the process. In a 2005 census survey of 40 manufacturing companies around the world, using electronic completion of questionnaires, virtually all human resource executives said that their pipeline of high-potential employees was insufficient to fill strategic management roles (Karthikeyan, 2007). In yet another survey, by Ready and Conger (2007), using a 10% sample of staff working in time-defined projects in the US, it was deduced that many employees don’t know the important facts about their company’s talent. Further, it led to the notion that fewer and fewer managers and professionals are ready to fill these leadership roles, and companies worldwide find themselves competing for a smaller pool of talent.

Concerning employee retention, many companies have discovered that one of the factors that helps retain employees is the opportunity to learn and try new things. Rosenwald (2008) studied on effects of employee development on employee retention in the context of project-oriented organizations using 60 UK hospitality companies and found strong evidence indicating a link between strong learning programs and employee retention. Petrecca (2009) supports this contention as he found that opportunity to learn and grow is one of the critical factors for employee retention using 630 US executives in the service sector. This study adopted telephone interviews administered within a period of four weeks. The study further
revealed that it is important for companies to recognize that competent employees are one of their greatest assets and they need to face the challenge of retaining them. Callahan (2007) found out in a saturated comparative analysis involving 50 senior managers in airline industry in Australia that organizational culture is more important as employees than money. Therefore, companies must create an environment that is supportive of their learning and growth, and not just a place where they do their jobs. Companies can either nurture their employees and keep talented workers or let those employees go find such opportunities elsewhere.

In a comparative study on turnover and the managers’ perceptions of turnover justification in the 322 US private clubs, Catherine (2002) found out that turnover includes other costs such as lost productivity, lost sales, and management’s time. This clearly demonstrates that turnover affects the profitability of the organization and if it’s not managed properly it would have the negative effect on the profit. Research estimates indicate that hiring and training a replacement worker for a lost employee costs approximately 50 percent of the worker’s annual salary. Moreover, each time an employee leaves the firm, productivity drops due to the learning curve involved in understanding the job and the organization. Furthermore, the loss of intellectual capital adds to this cost, since not only do organizations lose the human capital and relational capital of the departing employee, but also competitors are potentially gaining these assets. Therefore, if employee turnover is not managed properly it would affect the organization adversely in terms of personnel costs and in the long run it would affect its liquidity position. However, voluntary turnover incurs significant cost, both in terms of direct costs (replacement, recruitment and selection, temporary staff, management time), and also in terms of indirect costs (morale, pressure on remaining staff, costs of learning, product/service quality, organizational memory) and the loss of social capital (Callahan, 2007).

In the Kenyan context, a case study by Onyoni (2005) on employee retention strategies at KEMRI in Nairobi found that exceptional pay package, career growth opportunities through sponsorships, organizational repute, and managerial efficiency enabled higher applications from potential employees and minimized unplanned exits. The study obtained data from 167
respondents using semi-structured questionnaires within an extended period of 2 months. Using survey and descriptive tools, Odero (2010) looked into the public sector efficiency in co-funded project implementation and monitoring in the Ministry of Public Works and found out that 90% of the project failures were attributable to incompetent human resource and deep-rooted malpractices in financial management. He attributed the 64% project incompletion in the Ministry to wrong project teams and inappropriate work relationship affecting independent consultants and constructors. A total of 200 participants from the Ministry headquarters in Nairobi and four implementation agencies contributions to the study's generalizations.

2.4 Critical Review of Literature

At any time a project oriented company holds a portfolio of different internal and external project types (Gareis, 2005). A person can work in different projects at the same time, maybe even in different project roles. This can create role conflict at an individual level (Rau and Hyland, 2002). The organization also needs HR practices to assign people to several projects or programs, and to smooth the demands between projects and programs.

The ideal project-oriented organization has a specific management culture expressed in the empowerment of employees, process-orientation and teamwork, continuous and discontinuous organizational change, customer-orientation, and networking with clients and suppliers (Gareis, 2005). Therefore specific competences and skills are needed by project personnel to work together in projects. This may require adopting training and development practices to develop employees capable of working in the project environment, which in turn may require it to adopt specific practices in these areas matched to the management paradigm adopted. Organizations which perceive themselves as project-oriented and adopt management by projects as a strategic choice are subjected to these pressures. They need to adopt HR practices which support this strategic choice and align practices vertically and horizontally with it (Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall, 2008).
Turner et al (2007) describe the new and different HR practices adopted by project-oriented organizations. However, they also need to recognize the pressures placed on the work experience of employees by the dynamic work environment, and adopt and adapt human resource management and work practices that look after their well-being and ensure they are treated ethically. In the dynamic work environment where the HR configuration is constantly changing, the challenges of ensuring employee well-being and ethical treatment is important but may be overlooked. The temporary nature of the work and the dynamic nature of the work environment can create specific pressures on employees (Ibid).

Employees can find it difficult balancing their workload in the face of peaks in project work, especially against unpredictable demands from customers. This in turn creates problems in managing their work-life balance. Research by Söderlund and Bredin (2006) has shown that companies have problems in grasping the work and emotional situation of the individual, and multi role assignments that may lead to burn out for younger employees or to manage the damaging consequences of role overload and role conflict. Temporary projects bring a degree of uncertainty for employees who cannot be sure what kinds of projects they will be assigned to or colleagues they will work with. Noe et al (2004) suggest that both tasks and roles, and managers and co-workers, are core aspects of employee work experience. From an organizational and managerial perspective, failure to address the role conflict of project work may damage efforts to retain workers as both can cause job dissatisfaction and in extreme cases physical, psychological and behavioural withdrawal and voluntary turnover. It can also impact on the organization’s initiatives to improve the work environment with staff working away at client’s sites (Lindgren and Packendorf, 2006).

Finally there is a need to link project assignments to career development, both from an organizational and individual perspective. The organization needs to develop staff for its future projects, but if staff members do not feel that their project assignments offer them the development opportunities they aspire to, they may look elsewhere. When it comes to considering the effects of HR practices, the organizational or managerial perspective dominates and the effect on individual employees can be marginalized. Failure to consider the
specific requirements of HR in project oriented companies may mean overlooking these issues, and failing to consider effects, positive and negative, of project-oriented work practices in individuals (Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall, 2008).

2.5 Summary and Conclusion
The human resource function is important in all organizations. It contributes to the success of the organization and creates competitive advantage for the organization. The way HR practices and policies take shape also affects the employee's experiences of work and the employment relationship.

The project-oriented company is no different in this regard. However, projects and programs are temporary organizations. Projects are temporary organizations with specific objectives, detailed tasks, restricted time, and budgets to deliver a service or product. Project teams, including the project managers and team members, are responsible for the execution of each project. Once a project is completed, project team members disperse from the project either for other job opportunities or get reappointed to other succeeding projects.

Human resource performance can be viewed as core processes of the project-oriented company, affecting the way the organization acquires and uses human resources, and how employees experience influence the employment relationship. The ideal project-oriented company has a specific management culture expressed in the empowerment of employees, process orientation and teamwork, continuous and discontinuous organizational change, customer orientation, and networking with clients and suppliers. In projects, many organizations and individuals need to work together and interact with each other to share the knowledge, competences and skills.

2.6 Gaps to be filled by the Study
In the literature, the HR function is framed primarily in terms of large and stable organizations, while other organizational types, such as, those relying on projects as the principle form of work design, are marginalized in discussions about what HR performance is and how it should be practiced. Empirically, the scholarly studies by Onyoni (2005) focusing
on employee retention and Odero (2010) delimited to public sector project-implementation are a statement that a more comprehensive study on HR practices and their influence on performance is impeccable. Based on this, the study’s rationale will seek to draw vast and explained deductions regarding significant human resource factors that affect project team’s inputs in a context different from that of foreign idea formulators, despite the fact that the selected organization deals with projects requiring advanced cognitive contributions.

2.7 Conceptual Framework

This study adopted the Social Exchange Theory (SET) as its underlying theory. SET predicts that given certain conditions, people seek to respond positively to those who bring benefit to them (Eder, 2008). Applying this to the study context, Walter Reeds Project influences its employees’ performance through reciprocity which is created by quality human resource attraction, development, retention and turnover management, thus, establishing an exchange relationship. According to Van Knippenberg (2006), given that employees have more power, options and discretion over their input and stay, it is likely that they will contribute more positively and be committed when the organization acts in support of support systems and individual advancement. Conversely, if the organization has not acted positively towards an employee, the employee is less likely to want to contribute higher or remain. The bases on organizational actions will be as suggested by Armstrong (2006) which are summarized as human resource attraction, development, retention, and separation/turnout.
Independent Variables

Employee Attraction
- Employee qualifications
- Recruitment
- Organizational repute
- Competitive selection
- Recruitment sources

Employee Development
- Career development opportunities
- Training programmes
- Job matching
- Job enrichment
- Participatory decision making

Employee Retention
- Competence of basic pay
- Work-life balance
- Incentive programme
- Benefit programme
- Flexibility of work schedules

Employee Turnover
- Resignations
- Exit interview
- Contract period
- Payment of gratuity
- Pension contribution

Dependent Variable

Human Resource Performance
- Project Completion
- Appraisal reports
- Service length

Fig 2-1: Conceptual Framework indicating Relationship between selected human resource factors and Performance

Source: Adopted from Armstrong (2006) with Modifications
Organizations need to attract and retain effective employees for the good of the organization. Nevertheless, attraction is not sufficient in the quest of attaining expected success. The acquired employees need to be developed within the assignment realms and strategic plan of the project-oriented organization. This, in turn, necessitates staff retention so as to minimize human resource related costs. This, however, does not mean total exit stoppage as employees are discharged on various grounds, but this should be controlled to avoid injurious levels. The unique characteristics of project-oriented organizations such as high professional specialization requirement, short termism of engagement and pay variants, however, enable a differentiated approach in managing the human resource function. The extent of influence, thus, caused by employee attraction, development, retention and separation on human resource performance is directly shaped by the uniqueness that is prevalent in the project setup.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter discusses the research methodology to be adopted in meeting intended study objectives. In particular, it identifies the research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, data collection, data analysis, data presentation and the study’s ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design
The study’s objectives were attained through the use of descriptive survey design on the four project-oriented organizations based at Kericho Municipality. This was due to the survey’s merit of allowing collection of significant amounts of data from a sizeable population. De Vaus (2002) argues that good description is the basis of sound theory and that unless something is described accurately and thoroughly, it cannot be explained. Illuminating descriptions can highlight puzzles that need to be solved, and thus provide the inspiration for the construction of theories. Furthermore, the identification of problems can provide the cornerstone for action. Descriptive surveys are often undertaken to ascertain attitudes, values and opinions. As Black (2003) notes, however, there may be differences between the opinions found through a survey, which is a description of people’s perceptions, and the actual reality of practice. That is, people may articulate a particular view, but in practice behave differently. Hence, caution was exercised in drawing conclusions from this survey.

3.3 Study Area
Data for the study originated from the WRP, Mercy Corps, AMREF and USAID serving the south of Rift Valley (with some programmes allover the former Rift Valley province) whose co-ordination office is at Kericho Municipality town. The projects, mainly sponsored by international funding agencies, were designed to reach an aggregate of 13 million residents of Rift Valley through a delegated model that enabled easy access to the services offered. As a result, most of the target participants were based at the field but accessible due to the centrality of co-ordination.
The town of Kericho Municipality is about 425km to the south west of Nairobi and is home to a population of 1.43 million people with an estimated 7% annual population growth rate (KNBS, 2011).

3.4 Target Population

The study was designed to gather relevant data from employees engaged by the four target project-organizations serving at Kericho Municipality head office and fields within areas of jurisdiction. The aggregate staff establishment was 638 individuals engaged in different sections. The fact that participants were drawn from four different organizations with varying specialties and highly likely differentiated by recruitment sourcing, capacity development, retention and separation made the population heterogeneous in nature. Table 3.1 shows the overall target population and subset proportions.

Table 3.1: Study Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Population Sub-sets</th>
<th>Total No.</th>
<th>Proportion (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Walter Reed Project</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>AMREF</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Mercy Corps</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WRP, AMREF, MC, USAID (2012)

3.5 Sampling Design

Morris and Wood (2011) argue that using sampling makes possible a higher overall accuracy than a census. The smaller number of cases for which the researcher needs to collect data means that more time can be spent designing and piloting the means of collecting these data. Collecting data from fewer representative cases also means that one can collect information that is more detailed. Once data had been collected, proportionally more time was devoted to checking and testing the data for accuracy prior to analysis. Based on this, the study worked...
towards establishing an appropriate sample size using tested models through supported probability-based techniques.

3.5.1 Sample Size Determination

Due to impracticability of covering the entire target and accessible population, the researcher administered instruments on sample units which were objectively constituted. Babbie (2001) suggests that in social science, a tenth (10%) of the entire population is a sufficient sample size provided the subjects are not less than 30 in number. The sample size provided an adequate margin covering for unforeseen or unplanned circumstances such as non-response, disqualification and/or incompleteness. The sample size was thus calculated as:

\[ \{0.1 \times 638\} + \{\text{Safety margin of 16 (4 from each organization)}\} = 80 \text{ participants} \]

This sample size ascertained its rationale also from Hatch and Lazaraton (2001) who gave a basic requirement that the sample should have a normal distribution with a rule of thumb that a sample should include 30 or more people.

3.5.2 Sampling Techniques

Respondent inclusion to the sample was determined by proportional stratified random sampling technique which initially stratified the sampling frame units into four distinct subgroups based on study organizations. After stratification, the sample participants from each stratum were selected by simple random sampling at 0.125 (80/638) sampling ratio. In addition to study respondents, the regional office directors were all included as informants.
### Table 3.2: Sample Size and Sampling Technique

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Population Sub-sets</th>
<th>Total No.</th>
<th>Calculation</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Walter Reed Project</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>0.13 x 148</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>AMREF</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>0.13 x 201</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Mercy Corps</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>0.13 x 125</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>0.13 x 164</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>638</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WRP, AMREF, MC, USAID (2012)

### 3.6 Data Collection

The instruments recommended for this study were designed for the intent of generating portions of secondary and primary data both in qualitative and quantitative domains. To ensure comprehensive checks and comparisons, a multiple-technique design was adopted. First, desk review checklist was used to ascertain the required pieces of secondary data while the inputs from primary sources were accomplished through adoption of semi-structured questionnaires and interview schedules.

#### 3.6.1 Sources of Data

Data for the study was obtained from both the secondary and primary sources. The secondary data was used to form a basis for comparison with findings and as a building block to answering research questions. This was achieved through desk review. According to Robson (2002), desk review technique involves critical assessment of documentations without necessarily or if need be prior to going to the field of study. These documentations included survey-based data, strategic plans, staffing policies, and all those compiled from multiple sources.
3.6.2 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher sought permission to conduct the study from the organizations’ top managements through an introduction letter from Kenyatta University. The letter of introduction gave details on the intent of the study so as to protect the instrument administration process against any adversity from the field. The copies of the letter were attached to each questionnaire in order to create confidence in case respondents doubted the purpose of the assessment. Thereafter, they were hand-delivered to various target groups from where particular respondents were identified. The research assistants were readily available to provide any guidelines necessary for successful completion during the process.

3.6.3 Instruments for Data collection

The study made use of both the questionnaire and interview schedule for data collection. The questionnaire, which was of semi-structured nature and easy for self-administration, was administered to collect data from identified respondents other than the five deputy directors. The questionnaire was designed accommodating all the essential objectively verifiable indicators (OVIs) under each predictor variable. The five question-item classification by Dillman (2005) was exclusively adopted: pre-coded list, pre-coded category, ranking, Likert-style rating, and quantity questions. In those areas where clarifications and descriptions were of key concern, open-ended question items were used to provide the required space. According to Dillman (2005), within business and management research, the greatest use of questionnaires was made to accomplish a wide range of feedback because each respondent was asked to respond to the same set of questions and it provided an efficient way of collecting responses from a large sample prior to quantitative analysis. The researcher, however, needed to ensure that it collected the precise data that was required to answer all research question(s) and achieve the objectives.

Other than the questionnaire, the study used the interview schedule with predetermined and standardized or identical set of questions but only for the deputy directors. The questions were read out and then responses recorded on a standardized schedule with sufficient space for textual supplementation. While there was a social interaction between the researcher and the
respondent, additional expositions were sought by probing questions and variations of questioning to extract more content and meaning. Saunders et al. (2007) inform that use of interviews can help a study to gather valid and reliable data that are relevant to research question(s) and objectives. They recommend interviews on the basis of their in-depth understanding of situations and quality of output through real-time clarifications.

3.6.4 Reliability Test for Data Collection
Dornyei (2003) argues that research instruments are measurement devices that must possess adequate reliability. He defines reliability of an instrument as the extent to which scores on the instrument are free from errors of measurement. Further, he identifies pre-testing as one comprehensive procedure towards enhancing instrument reliability. This underlied the intent of this study to conducting a rigorous instrument validation exercise through pre-testing. The pilot units, equivalent to one-tenth of the proposed sample size, were obtained from comparable members of the population from which the sample for the full study was taken. This size was informed by Saunder et al. (2007) who regard the proportion as sufficient for pilot testing. In quest of avoiding respondent contamination and possible resistance, those respondents identified for the pilot were not included in the final completions.

3.6.5 Validity Test for Data Collection Instrument
According to Dornyei (2003), instrument validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it has been actually designed to measure. The study’s content validity was attained through expert opinion by the supervisors, identification of relevant indicators through extensive search of the literature on the concept to be measured, while the criterion validity was accomplished through a good knowledge of theory relating to the concept so that the researcher decides what variables are expected to be predicted by and related to it and a measure of the relationship between the measure and those factors.
3.7 Data Analysis

Research data in a raw form, that is, before these data have been processed and analyzed, convey very little meaning to user groups (Saunders et al., 2007). These data therefore need to be turned into information so that it is useful. In this study, conversion of data into meaningful information was undertaken on two dimensions, one involving quantitative/metric data (nominal, ordinal and interval forms of data) and the other involving qualitative/non-metric data (textual open-ended data). The refined and organized quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive statistics involving percentages and mean scores to determine varying degrees of response-concentration.

The study's non-metric, open-ended responses were analyzed using content analysis procedure, whereby the pool of diverse responses was reduced to a handful of key issues in a reliable manner (Dornyei, 2003). This was achieved through a stepwise process that involved two broad phases: firstly, taking each person's response in turn and marking in them any distinct content elements, substantive statements or key points; and secondly, forming broader categories to describe the content of the response in a way that allows for comparisons with other responses. The categories obtained in second phase were numerically coded and then entered into the data file to be treated as quantitative data. Moreover, some of the key points highlighted in first phase were quoted verbatim for the purpose of illustration and exemplification, or to retain some of the original flavor of the response.

3.8 Data Presentation

Analyzed data was presented using frequency tables and charts which were generated automatically from the analysis package. While tables aided in quick comparison of summaries, charts such as pie charts, bar charts presented findings in an easily understood formats.
3.9 Ethical Considerations

The hard fact is that survey research is inherently intrusive and the data obtained could easily be abused. The researcher, therefore, purposed to observe five basic research ethical principles as advocated by Saunder et al. (2007). Thus, no harm would come to the respondents as a result of their participation in the research; the respondent's right to privacy was respected, and no undue pressure was brought to bear; respondents were provided with sufficient initial information about the study to be able to give their informed consent concerning participation and the use of data; permission to conduct the study was sought from respective authorities; and it was the researcher's moral and professional obligation to maintain the level of confidentiality that was promised to the respondents at the onset.
4.1 Introduction
The chapter presents the study's findings deduced from processed field data that captured the views and opinions of targeted project-oriented staffers as respondents, and office directors as informants. The findings are presented under each objective category using statistical summaries, relevant interpretations, and in tabular and graphical forms.

4.2 Response Rate
The study's generalizations were set to be attained on the basis of professional views from the project staffers and regional directors using questionnaires and interviews respectively. The study managed a 100% response rate in either clusters of participants owing to the researcher's prior orientation and working rapport with the organizations' management. Table 4.1 shows the study's ultimate contributions from the various project-oriented organizations targeted for participation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizations</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AMREF</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercy Corps</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>51.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WRP</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research Data (2012)

The frequencies indicate that in the ultimate 80 primary responses, 31.3% originated from AMREF followed by 25% from USAID. WRP and Mercy Corps had their input in the study findings by 23% and 20% respectively. The fact that every target organization participated in the study ensured a comprehensive basis for valid and reliable inferences regarding human resource performance in the project-organizational context.
4.3 Employee Attraction

To investigate how employee attraction influenced the organizations' human resource performance, the study adopted various indicators such as length of undisrupted service with the organization, academic qualifications, previous related experiences, recruitment and selection processes, and employee perceptions on sourcing.

4.3.1 Length of Service with Study Organizations

Despite the fact that all the four organizations had served the region for more than four years, very few staffers had sustained their stay to equal levels, implying high inclination to employee recruitment. This is further explained in Fig. 4.1.

![Fig. 4.1: Length of Service with Study Organizations](image-url)
The majority of staff members working at the project-oriented organizations in Kericho Municipality, represented by 37.5%, had the least working experience of less than one year with their respective organizations. This was followed by a pack of members who had served between 3 to 4 years, while the oldest 17.5% category had exceeded four years of service at the same organizations. The remaining group constituting 12.5% had 1 to 2 years of extended service to the organizations. This distribution indicated higher entry rates of employees which suggested possibilities of shorter retentions and an almost-regular employee demand.

4.3.2 Highest Academic Qualifications
Organizations evidently attracted highly qualified professionals, majority of whom prided of postgraduate degrees to perform the specialized project obligations as further detailed in Fig. 4.2.

![Fig. 4.2: Highest Educational Qualifications](image)

**Highest Level of Respondent Qualification**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre University</td>
<td>8.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>36.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Graduate</td>
<td>45.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research Data (2012)
Aggregately, 45% of the staff members had at least post-graduate qualifications with skills relevant to their assigned responsibilities. This was followed by 36.25% of staffers who had graduate qualifications while 10% had other qualifiers such as middle college certificates. Only a paltry of 8.75% of the staff had pre-university qualifications. This distribution led to observation that the project-oriented projects attracted highly knowledgeable and skilled professionals in at least 81% of the assignments; a situation that essentially hindered entry due to desired high human resource inclusion benchmark. A similar challenge was reported in a survey by Ready & Conger (2007) targeting 40 project-oriented organizations around the world. Human resource executives revealed that their pipeline of high-potential employees was insufficient to fill strategic management roles due to high skill and knowledge requirement among other factors such as short-termism of contracts and work cogency.

4.3.3 Previous Related Work Experiences

Previous employment experience in other organizations was used as an indicator to further test how deep and determined the organizations’ management sought fineness in service delivery from the work teams. Fig. 4.3 shows that prior experience was most often than not a pre-requisite for admission as the project employee.
Before joining the work teams at the project-oriented organizations, 33.75% of the staffers had served elsewhere for minimum of 10 and maximum of 15 years, while 31.25% had accumulated outside experience of 15 to 20 years. In the remaining category, 18.75% had less than 5 years prior hands-on experience, and 16.25% had worked for 5 to 10 years. By interpretation, working at the project-oriented organizations required vast hands-on prior experience despite the high academic qualifications required that had been set as minimum job placement requirements. The predominantly long stay of individuals within the project-oriented contexts is partly explained by Dolfi and Andrews (2007) who found that experienced project employees are more optimistic than those who have served for fewer years. They further suggest that project organizations attract people who thrive in that work environment owing to their previous work orientations. Lee-Kelly and Leong (2003) also report that project employees become more self-confident with experience, changing their perception of the task, and perhaps increasing their self-awareness and improving their self-management and self-regulation to stick longer within the project-oriented context.
4.3.4 Job Recruitment and Selection
The study established that 45% of the employees working at the organizations were sought by negotiations, followed by 28% who were admitted after competitive interviews. The last 17% were working on consultancy terms which would be renewed depending on the tasks performed and completion time-plan. The responses further indicated that information regarding employment vacancies was predominantly accessed using four key platforms: print media, reference by friends, reference by staff, and electronic media as further detailed in Fig. 4.6.

Most of the project-oriented staffers, representing a portion of 38.75%, obtained information regarding intent to employ on the organizations’ respective websites, while 31.25% got informed from the print media. The other two categories involved 21.25% of staffers who were referred by colleagues working at the institutions, and 8.75% of references by friends who had knowledge of the organizations’ job vacancies. This confirmed that the organizations to a large extent preferred high-scaled competition for filling vacancies by ensuring a broadened applicant netting. This is notably in line with Firth et al. (2004) who mark employee information regarding job vacancies as the requisite basis for enhanced
competitiveness in recruitment and selection for organizations seeking high caliber performers.

4.3.5 **Employee Perceptions on Employee Attraction**

On an ordinal scale of 1 to 5, employees were asked to rank their views concerning employee attraction at their place of work. Their views were summarized using mean scores and standard deviations (SD) as shown in table 4.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment process attracting best talent</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catchment for staff is competitively adequate</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection of staff for project assignment highly objective</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glaring loopholes in recruitment and selection processes</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>.947</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External interferences in recruiting staff for the projects</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.944</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research Data (2012)

The staff concurred that the adopted recruitment processes at the organizations were meant to attract the best talent for the job specifications. This was evidence by the 4.29 score which coincided with the lowest SD of 0.66 indicating a higher degree of agreement with the view. The research data also indicated that selection of project staff was also highly objective at 3.99 mean score and 0.803SD. This was closely followed by ranking of the view that staff catchments for the projects were competitively adequate at 3.69 score and 0.88SD, meaning that staffers originated from a wider geographical coverage. Notably, however, there were glaring loopholes in the recruitment and selection process but accounting for a meager 2.88 mean agreement and at 0.947SD. Similarly, external interferences affecting recruitment and selection processes were kept at controlled levels below 3.0 average score. These summaries suggested that project-oriented employees had confidence in their employee attraction processes owing to their objectivity and wider considerations, and minimized interferences. These findings coincide with Eder (2008) study verdict that in order to perform as a project
successfully, a project team requires competences which is identified at the recruitment and selection processes.

4.4 Employee Development

The study’s second objective was to explore how the capacity building practices influenced human resource performance at the target organizations. This was accomplished using indicators such as career development opportunities, training programmes, job matching, job enrichment, and participatory decision making.

4.4.1 Career Development Opportunities

Respondents ranked various career growth concerns depending on their opinions in relation to their existence at place of work. The concerns were graded using mean scores and standard deviations as given in table 4.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.3: Career Growth Opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are limited career opportunities due to contract terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The nature of assignments limiting career growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization provides flexible environment for my career</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project team members are a great support in career prosperity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual challenges that limit full realization of success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (list wise)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research Data (2012)

According to the employees, their career growth prospects were at a greater extent bolstered by the support of team members with a mean score of 4.15 and having the smallest measure of opinion disparity of 0.748SD. Also, it was observed that the short-termism nature of contracts compromised the employees’ career opportunities, scoring 3.97 mean score with 0.763SD. There was relatively a greater agreement that the nature of project assignments allocated to staff limited their career growth (3.85 score and 0.901SD). Flexibility of work environment adding value to career paths scored marginally above average at 3.19 mean score
with the highest deviation of 0.969SD. In the same realm, employees declined that their individual weaknesses were responsible for limiting their full success realization at 2.13 mean score with a relatively higher degree of agreement at 0.769SD. The findings relating to the nature of contract were in agreement with Verma (2006) who found that project donors are cautious to invest in capacity building due to the projects’ inability of sustaining labor for a long future. Instead they resolve for use of ready human resources in form of high academic endowment and previous experience.

4.4.2 Training Programmes

The respondents were asked to state the number of times they had been sponsored for a professional training in the preceding one year period. Their views varied widely and were as presented in the Fig. 4.7.

![Fig. 4.7: Number of Times Employees Trained](image)

**Number of Times Staff Trained in a Year**

Source: Research Data (2012)
As shown in Fig. 4.7, majority of the employees consisting of 33.75% had not been sponsored for any formalized training within their area of specialty. A similar portion had been trained once in a period of twelve months, while a relatively small chunk of 32.5% had official access to tailor-made professional training. This showed an implicit skewness in the organization’s capacity building which would ultimately derail collectiveness in service delivery. For those who had been trained, 93% acknowledged that the content was of essence in their day-to-day responsibilities whilst a paltry 7% thought the content had to be stemmed up towards meeting a broader objective. Low-scale capacity building through training was associated with limited fund allocation by the study informants. The fact that few employees got favoured in training contravened an empirical conclusion by Rosenwald (2008) that employee training (especially in a learning organization) is a sure way of enhancing productivity and failure to train is failure to produce at expected levels.

4.4.3 Job Matching

Further to career growth and training, job matching was adopted to measure consistency in acquired human resource knowledge and skill with practical application. The respondents were obliged to indicate the extent to which they thought their job obligations matched with attained expertise. The feedbacks were analyzed and presented as in Fig. 4.8.
Fig. 4.8: Extent of Job Matching

Source: Research Data (2012)

Fig. 4.8 indicates that 41.25% of the respondents were moderately satisfied with their job matching expectations. Those who opined that their job requirements highly matched with qualifications constituted 26.25%, even as 20% decried low satisfaction extent. The least selected category of ‘extremely high’ had preference of 12.5%. The finding that only an aggregate of 38.8% had at least ‘high’ satisfaction with job matching implied that the project-based organizations had not fully perfected tapping maximum returns from individual employees due to job mismatch. This contravened with research findings by Scott-Young & Samson (2004) who identified that people management especially by job matching drives project success more than technical issues do. The findings are further corroborated by Anyango (2011) who reported that in Kenyan public service employees to a large extent accused job mismatch as the main work dysfunction in their performance.
4.4.4 Job Enrichment

Inducement of human resource performance using job design and in particular enrichment was assessed. Despite the fact that some employees had not been assigned higher level duties, the modes of appreciation seemed unattractive to staff. Fig. 4.9 and 4.10 present the findings in details.

The chart shows that the larger segment of staffers, labeled 53.75%, had not been assigned high level duties since their placement, making enriched work environment available to only 46.25% of the employees. This implied that promotions at the project-oriented organizations were constricted forcing individuals to stagnate in same job categories for most of contract periods. Findings by Verma (2006) showed that job enrichment causes significant increases in employee job satisfaction, job involvement and increased output. Lack of it, on the other hand, led to employee dissatisfaction and reduced work inputs. Hence, individual performance at the studied project-oriented organizations was prone to declining forces triggered by lowered intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.
Further, it was established that rewarding for high level assignments was not necessarily in monetary terms. The organizations had devised other means of achieving satisfaction for the staff which included non-monetary recognition such as through certification; provision for self satisfaction; and intrinsic inducement for application of learnt expertise. The distribution for the organization’s rewarding options was as presented in Fig. 4.10.

The data showed that 30% of the enriched jobs were compensated through non-monetary recognition, while 28.75% of staffers received monetary allowances for their extra efforts in performing higher level assignments. On the contrary, 27.5% received nothing in return other than their intrinsic push for satisfaction, while the remaining 13.75% thought that enrichment was only a chance to apply their learnt expertise. These findings showed propensity to a discriminative approach in capacity building which was again extended further to adoption of
reward differentials. Possibly, this was a potential trigger to reduced individual contributions and previously reported by Wood (2005) that individual’s motivation level is correlated to his/her perception of equity, fairness and justice practiced by the management. Higher is individual’s perception of fairness, greater is the motivation level and vice versa. While evaluating fairness, employee compares the job input (in terms of contribution) to outcome (in terms of compensation) and also compares the same with that of another peer of equal cadre/category.

4.4.5 Participatory Decision Making

Finally under employee development, the study sought the extent to which employees were engaged in essential decision making, part of which directly affected their immediate and future work relations. As shown in Fig. 4.11, employees were engaged at variant extents in regard to decision making roles.
Majority of employees constituting 33.75% were involved at moderate extent in organizational decision making roles, 31.25% at low extent, and 10% at very low extent. On the higher extreme, 13.75% of employees were involved at very high extent, while 11.25% participated at high extent. The findings showed greater disparity among staffers' involvement in making important decisions affecting both the organizations and individual welfare. This eminent lack of inclusivity in making corporate decisions contravened management ideals by Kaza (2008) who portray the need for stakeholder involvement on the premise that 'with involvement comes understanding, with understanding comes public support and commitment'. Hall (2002) also advocates for collective approach with argument that compliance and involvement are interrelated phenomena, and that involvement contributes to compliance through the participation process.
4.5 Employee Retention

Lockwood (2006) defines employee retention as the various policies and practices which let the employees stick to an organization for a longer period of time. Project organizations invest time and money to groom new appointees, make them corporate ready materials and bring them at par with the existing employees. The organizations are completely at loss when the employees leave their job once they are fully trained. Employee retention takes into account the various measures taken so that an individual stays in an organization for the maximum period of time. In this study, indicators used to measure employee retention effects on human resource performance included competency of basic pay, staff incentives, benefits, work life balance, and performance appraisals.

4.5.1 Competency of Basic Pay to Staff

The respondents were asked to rate the competitiveness of basic pay entitlement to them as compensation for their efforts to the organizations. In their varied responses, it was observed that most of the employees were hardly satisfied with the pay structures on which basis their rewarding was determined. Fig. 4.12 shows a high density of employee dissatisfaction in regard to basic pay.
Fig. 4.12 shows that 40% of the staff members working in the four project-oriented organizations were fairly compensated by basic pay. At the lowest extreme, 28.75% employees considered their pay as not competitive enough to guarantee their continued stay in same work environments. Those who regarded their basic salary as comparatively competitive constituted 23.75% while the minority 7.5% concurred that the organizations’ pay was highly competitive. Interviews with the directors commonly showed that the organization’s pay to staff was highly fixed to ensure competent attraction and subsequent higher retentions. The findings are comparable to Wood (2005) who found a link between sustainability of employee contributions to project assignments and monetary compensation, both from an organizational and individual perspective. Ideally, the organization needs to develop staff for its future projects, but if staff members do not feel that their efforts are being rewarded competently, they may look elsewhere.
4.5.2 Work Life Balance

According to Rappaport & Bailyn (2006), lack of work-life balance influences working individual’s performance at workplace as well as in personal life. Organizations thus need employees with improved work-life balance. An employee with better work-life balance will contribute more meaningfully towards the organizational growth and success, and will find the work environment more favourable for long term services. This study intended to establish how the organization’s work environment was design to facilitate employees’ work-life balance. The findings were as presented in Fig. 4.13.

![Fig. 4.13: Work Life Balance](image)

The findings showed possibilities of a non-existent work-life balance at the four target organizations. About 36.25% of the employees spent their private time over weekends to perform official duties, while 27.5% were forced to extend into late hours to meet...
performance targets. Official off-duty and permission for leave were granted to employees at 12.5% apiece to assist them attend to personal life, while job-sharing was dismally facilitated at 7.5%. Though not widely practiced, post-natal facilitations at 3.75% were accessible to lactating mothers who also had to report for official duty. According to Söderlund and Bredin, (2006), employees can find it difficult balancing their workload in the face of peaks in project work, especially against unpredictable demands from customers. This in turn creates problems in managing their work-life balance. Their research confirmed that project-oriented companies have problems in grasping the work and emotional situation of the individual and multi role assignments that may lead to burnout for younger employees or to manage the damaging consequences of role overload and role conflict.

4.5.3 Staff Incentive Programmes

The project-oriented organizations used various incentive programmes for their staff for purposes of retention. The three prominent incentives included paid leave, official transport, and medical insurance cover for staff and their dependents. Notably, however, some staffers were of the opinion that they received no significant incentives from the employer as further detailed in Fig. 4.14.
Most staffers, representing 33.75%, and working for the project-based organizations accessed medical facilities sponsored by their respective organizations, while 28.75% had the vantage to official transport. A paltry 8.75% saw paid leave as the most vital incentive accruing to them. Nevertheless, a huge portion of 28.5% employees said that their employers were advancing no work incentive to them. The opinion of this last cluster of employees could partly be explained by Zhao et al. (2007) findings that since incentives are not substantive rewards to employees, their extent of motivation depends on how objective they are managed and on the resultant perception of fairness from the affected individuals.
4.5.4 Staff Benefits Programmes

On the realm of benefits for employees, opinions were sought in regard to respondents' perceptions on their objectivity and attainment of intended expectations. Table 4.4 presents the summaries obtained from the responding staff.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benefits fairly distributed</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some only accessible to senior management</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited staff benefits available</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less valuable benefits</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research Data (2012)

The research found that 43.8% of the employees had perception that most of the benefits available had been allocated at the behest of management and at the expense of the general staff. This was further corroborated by the fact that 30% decried limited availability of staff benefits, while 20% saw little value in the advanced benefits. The benefits were fairly distributed only to a smaller portion of 6.3%. This concurred with some of the interview feedbacks that confirmed low retentions due to attractive benefits offered by other organizations such as state corporations and international bodies. Further, these findings confirm to Turner (2007) that employees are more motivated by benefits they access than even their monetary compensations. Hence, mismanagement guarantees employee dissatisfaction and general orientation towards negative organizational performance.

4.5.5 Performance Appraisals

Atiomo (2000) writes that performance appraisal is a system which provides organizations with a means of identifying not only what people's performance levels are but which areas those levels need to be improved if maximum use is to be made of human resource. The data emerging from such an exercise constitutes the primary database for individual development
and should be communicated to the subordinate. Employee satisfaction with appraisals at the organizations was measured and presented as in Fig. 4.15.

**Fig. 4.15: Performance Appraisals**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of Satisfaction with Performance Appraisal</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>11.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>28.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>41.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
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Source: Research Data (2012)

The study found that 41.25% were lowly satisfied with the systems adopted in appraising their performance while 12.5% were very lowly satisfied. On the higher extreme, 11.25% were very highly satisfied, 6.25% highly satisfied, while 28.75% settled for moderate satisfaction index. In aggregate, 53.75% of the staffers were in the low category of satisfaction, which demonstrated appraisal failures in the organizations. The study informants cited the wide geographical areas of operations as a hindrance to conducting regular appraisals on staff. The low satisfaction index is partly explained by previous findings by Huemann (2004) that poor appraisal approaches targeting personalities instead of job content aggregate employee dissatisfaction and subsequent poor individual performance.
4.6 Employee Separation
This was the final objective area under study and it was accomplished using five indicators which included probability to resignations, exit interviews, payment of gratuity, payment of pension, and effects of contract terms.

4.6.1 Employee Resignations Possibilities
The study tested the employees’ chances of departure given favourable work conditions in other organizations. Fig.4.16 shows the individual employees’ quitting possibilities.

Fig. 4.16: Probability to Resignations

Employees constituting 33.75% had low probability of quitting while the least of 2.5% were associated with an extremely low possibility. At a moderate consideration, 31.25% would quit their jobs. Another section of staff totaling 18.75% had an extremely high probability of withholding their services, and were in close agreement with 13.75% whose probability of quitting was rated ‘high’. The respondents with higher quit possibilities gave reasons such as
short term contracting, poor pay, work overload, and subjective allocation of benefits and incentives. Gray and Larson (2008) acknowledge that contracted employees lack long term job security and that their psychological contract is at stake.

4.6.2 Significance of Exit Interviews

The exit interviews in the study organizations were either not conducted or to a large extent ignored while making decisions on retention and separations. Fig. 4.17 shows majority of employees resenting that management found any value in the exit data from the separated staff.

The unfavorable 65% responses showed that most organizations did not value exit interviews from employees intending to be separated. This implied that reasons which made staffers depart were hardly addressed to curb further exits. The interviews informed the study that most exits were done on standard questionnaires which were filed in personal folders without necessarily subjecting the same to further assessment. The lack of interviews with exiting
staff, according to Price (2007), denies project managers an opportunity to enable transfer of knowledge and experience from the departing employee to a successor or replacement, or even to brief a team on current projects, issues and contacts.

4.6.3 Effects of Contract Terms
Contract terms were a further reason why exists were predominantly uncontrollable in the project organizations. Despite their high level qualifications and experience, all employees were placed on short term contracts (mainly one year) which would be renewed depending on performance, and availability of assignments and funds. How the prevailing nature of contracts affected the human resource performance was determined and presented as in Fig. 4.18.

![Fig. 4.18: Effects of Contract Terms](image)

While 31.25% of employees saw no effect of the short-termism nature of contracts on their scheduled performance, 38.75% retorted that theirs was negatively affected given the uncertainty for renewals and squeezed terminal benefits. A portion of 30% of staff, however,
derived positive outcomes from the short term contracts signed with the employers. Previous studies confirm that temporary projects bring a degree of uncertainty for employees who cannot be sure what kinds of projects they will be assigned to or colleagues they will work with. Noe et al. (2004) found that both tasks and roles, and managers and co-workers, are core aspects of employee work experience. From an organizational and managerial perspective, failure to address the role conflict of project work may damage efforts to retain workers as both can cause job dissatisfaction and in extreme cases physical, psychological and behavioural withdrawal and voluntary turnover. It can also impact on the organization’s initiatives to improve the work environment with staff working away at client’s sites (Lindgren and Packendorf, 2006).

4.6.4 Payment of Gratuity

In most contract terms, gratuity is payable in lump-sum at the end of the contract period as terminal benefits. At the study organizations, however, gratuity was not guaranteed. Instead, monthly pay for some staff had a component of terminal benefits implying that they were staggered over the whole contract period. Fig. 4.19 shows how the studied employees were dealt with in respect to gratuity payment.
The study found that majority of staffers did not qualify for gratuity at the end of the contact period as evidenced by the 67.5% whose contracts were devoid of the lump-sum terminal benefits. The benefits for gratuity were a preserve of a lesser portion of 32.5% employees. This reality further portrayed a case of unfair and unwarranted employee stratification yet they were all serving within similar contract precincts. The study informants justified the rationale for capped gratuity on the basis of donor directives which emphasized investment of core activities while the local co-partners were obliged to sustain the human resources for the projects. These findings contradicted with Verma (2006) proposition that conducive corporate policies on terminal benefits are a pre-requisite for staff retention and future commitment.
4.6.5 Deductions for Pension Purposes

The study found that none of the employees received any form of pension contributions other than the statutory NSSF deductions. This was pegged on the fact that project organizations were not legally bound to contribute to any defined benefit or contribution pension scheme for their employees. Lack of private pension arrangement for staff and subjective allocation of gratuity left most of the employees with dismal terminal benefits and hence downsized purchasing power. While this ensured that employees willingly sought sustenance in service, it required their ingenuity in allocating their earnings so that they were not adversely affected in case their contracts were not renewed. According to the study informants, this had a bearing in employees’ performance especially late in their contracts particularly when they were faced with slim renewal possibilities. In contracts to this, Turner et al (2007) emphasizes on the need to recognize the pressures placed on the work experience of project employees by the dynamic work environment, and adopt and adapt HRM and work practices that look after their well-being and ensure they are treated ethically.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction
The chapter presents summary of the study’s major findings in line which pre-determined specific objective areas, thematic conclusions, policy recommendations to affected organizations, limitations encountered during the study, and suggestions for further analyses.

5.2 Summary of Findings
The four study organizations had served the region for more than four years yet very few staffs had sustained their stay to equal levels. Majority of staff members working at the project-oriented organizations, represented by 37.5%, had the least working experience of less than one year with their respective organizations. This was followed by a pack of members who had served between 3 to 4 years, while the oldest 17.5% category had exceeded four years of service at the same organizations. The remaining group constituting 12.5% had 1 to 2 years of extended service to the organizations. Despite this, organizations attracted highly qualified professionals, majority of whom prided of postgraduate degrees to perform the specialized project obligations. It was established that many of the staff members had at least post-graduate qualifications with skills relevant to their assigned responsibilities. Moreover, prior to joining the work teams at the project-oriented organizations, 33.75% of the staffers had served elsewhere for minimum of 10 and maximum of 15 years.

The study established that 45% of the employees working at the organizations were sought by negotiations, followed by 28% who were admitted after competitive interviews. Most of the project-oriented staffers, representing a portion of 38.75%, obtained information regarding intent to employ on the organizations’ respective websites, while 31.25% got informed from the print media. The staff concurred that the adopted recruitment processes at the organizations were meant to attract the best talent for the job specifications. This was evidence by the 4.29 score which coincided with the lowest SD of 0.66 indicating a higher degree of agreement with the view. The research data also indicated that selection of project staff was also highly objective at 3.99 mean score and 0.803SD. This was closely followed by
ranking of the view that staff catchments for the projects were competitively adequate at 3.69 score and 0.88SD, meaning that staffers originated from a wider geographical coverage. Notably, however, there were glaring loopholes in the recruitment and selection process but accounting for a meager 2.88 mean agreement and at 0.947SD. Similarly, external interferences affecting recruitment and selection processes were kept at controlled levels below 3.0 average score.

Employees ranked various career growth concerns depending on their opinions in relation to their existence at place of work. Their career growth prospects were at a greater extent bolstered by the support of team members with a mean score of 4.15 and having the smallest measure of opinion disparity. Also, it was observed that the short-termism nature of contracts compromised the employees’ career opportunities, scoring 3.97 mean score. There was relatively a greater agreement that the nature of project assignments allocated to staff limited their career growth. Further, the study found that majority of the employees consisting of 33.75% had not been sponsored for any formalized training within their area of specialty. A similar portion had been trained once in a period of twelve months, while a relatively small chunk of 32.5% had official access to tailor-made professional training. For those who had been trained, 93% acknowledged that the content was of essence in their day-to-day responsibilities.

An aggregate of 41.25% of the respondents were moderately satisfied with their job matching expectations. Those who opined that their job requirements highly matched with qualifications constituted 26.25%, even as 20% decried low satisfaction extent. A larger segment of staffers representing 53.75% had not been assigned high level duties since their placement, making enriched work environment available to only 46.25% of the employees. Further, it was established that rewarding for high level assignments was not necessarily in monetary terms. About 30% of the enriched jobs were compensated through non-monetary recognition, while 28.75% of staffers received monetary allowances for their extra efforts in performing higher
level assignments. On the contrary, 27.5% received nothing in return other than their intrinsic push for satisfaction, while the remaining 13.75% thought that enrichment was only a chance to apply their learnt expertise. Moreover, majority of employees constituting 33.75% were involved at moderate extent in organizational decision making roles, 31.25% at low extent, and 10% at very low extent. Staff members constituting 40% o were fairly compensated by basic pay. At the lowest extreme, 28.75% employees considered their pay as not competitive enough to guarantee their continued stay in same work environments. The findings further showed possibilities of a non-existent work-life balance at the four target organizations. About 36.25% of the employees spent their private time over weekends to perform official duties, while 27.5% were forced to extend into late hours to meet performance targets.

Staffers, representing 33.75%, and working for the project-based organizations accessed medical facilities sponsored by their respective organizations, while 28.75% had the vantage to official transport. Nevertheless, a huge portion of 28.5% employees said that their employers were advancing no work incentive to them. Related to this, the research found that 43.8% of the employees had perception that most of the benefits available had been allocated at the behest of management and at the expense of the general staff. This was further corroborated by the fact that 30% decried limited availability of staff benefits, while 20% saw little value in the advanced benefits. Regarding appraisals, the study found that 41.25% were lowly satisfied with the systems adopted while 12.5% were very lowly satisfied. On the higher extreme, 11.25% were very highly satisfied, 6.25% highly satisfied, while 28.75% settled for moderate satisfaction index. Employees constituting 33.75% had low probability of quitting. At a moderate consideration, 31.25% would quit their jobs. Another section of staff totaling 18.75% had an extremely high probability of withholding their services. While 31.25% of employees saw no effect of the short-termism nature of contracts on their scheduled performance, 38.75% retorted that theirs was negatively affected given the uncertainty for renewals and squeezed terminal benefits. A portion of 30% of staff, however, derived positive outcomes from the short term contracts signed with the employers. The study found that majority of staffers did not qualify for gratuity at the end of the contact period as evidenced by the 67.5% whose contracts were devoid of the lump-sum terminal benefits.
Further, the study found that none of the employees received any form of pension contributions other than the statutory NSSF deductions.

5.3 Study Conclusions

Employee attraction, capacity development, retention efforts and approach to separation are key determinants of human resource performance in the context of project-oriented organizations. While attracting highly qualified employees with top academic certification and vast experience helped the project-organizations perform the highly specialized and time-defined obligations with high-level precision, the means adopted in bringing them on board were highly selective and purposely meant to sieve-out non-qualified individuals. In addition, one had to have an outside and relevant work experience as a pre-requisite prior to being contracted. Notably, the staff had confidence on the objectivity and broadened coverage regarding recruitment and selection processes. These strengths augured well for higher productivity from the side of staff.

Contrary to the impressive employee attraction at the project-organizations, capacity building was not in perfection. The short-termism nature of employees’ contracts compromised greatly the managements’ investment in employee learning and potential development. This was also reflected in the few numbers who had undergone at least a sponsored training in the whole preceding year. Further dissatisfactions were expressed in the job mismatch affecting a wide range of staffers, job stagnation and differentiated rewarding, and lack of broad involvement in decision making.

The organizations worked on retention efforts within the employees’ contract period using different means such as basic pay, work life balance, performance appraisals, incentives and staff benefits. However, none of these was perfectly in conformity with employee expectations. Contrary to what management thought, employees refused to accept that the basic pay advanced to them were adequate while most employees spent weekends and after-work hours doing official duties. Despite the efforts, management of incentives and benefits for staff was hardly popular due to inherent subjectivity, scarcity, and less perceived value.
Finally, the appraisals conducted were of little value to staff since they were not accompanied with any monetary supplements while immediate supervisors who acted appraisers were inclined to subjective decisions.

While the organizations faced high exit rates attributed to better pay elsewhere, work overload, and short-term contracting, project managements did little to avert the possible work crises by addressing the causes for turnovers. This was evidenced from the casual handling of exit interviews which ought to have been valued in a dedicated solution framework. In addition to this, employees were not awarded terminal benefits in forms of gratuity and pension to enable their transitions. This resulted to financial burden which ensured that employees consistently sought stay extensions after contract expiry.

5.4 Policy Recommendations

Based on the study conclusions, it is recommended that project partners work on a detailed contract policy that optimally benefits both the organization and individuals serving within the project context. The contract period need not be too short to hinder appropriate orientation and incremental productivity, and not too long to delay attainment of the time-defined objectives. In addition, it is imperative that sufficient allocations are made to cater for internal capacity building, especially in the human resource divisions so that effective recruitment strategies are implemented, while work competency is bolstered.

It is further recommended that the project-oriented organizations devise mechanisms of ensuring that staffers gradually feel part of the entirety by involving them issues such as decision making, performance appraisals, collective bargaining, work life balance option broadening, and delegated responsibilities. This will foster a friendly work relationship between the staff body and management to extents of understanding internal issues from similar perspectives.

Finally, it is the recommendation of this study that a comprehensive pay policy is designed specifying all benefits accruing to employees, including severance payments which should be
emphasized to cater for non-employment durations after contract expiry. In spite of the short term contracting, the project organizations should have an agreeable private pension arrangement or lump-sum pay at the end of individual contracts rather than staggering them together with monthly salaries.

5.5 Study Limitations
The potential study participants were widely dispersed within the expansive Rift Valley region; hence it was difficult to locate all of them for purposes of instrument completion. This left the researcher with an option of random selection of staffers at the head office, which potentially left out significant and unique qualities from analysis. This also enabled the assumption of homogeneity which was not necessarily true for the four organizations under study. In addition, the study was faced with possibilities of exaggerated negative feedback from respondents on issues they did not like and exaggerated positive inclinations on those they liked. This was however mitigated with inclusion of interviews to moderate respondent subjectivity.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies
Based on the study findings, it is suggested that a further investigation is effected on the rationale for highly qualified and experience professionals agreeing to contract for shorter periods yet they could offer their services in permanent and pensionable terms in non-project oriented contexts. Also, it is the view of the researcher that future researchers seek to explain why short term contracts are preferable despite the fact that implementation schedules normally take long time period. Finally, a study is suggested on effects of high turnover rates experienced by project-organizations on timed attainment of performance targets not only within the Kenyan context but also in a wider geographical scope for comparisons.
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<td>Qualification</td>
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<td>• Means of recruitment</td>
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<td>Recruitment</td>
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<td>Reputation</td>
<td>• Means of selection</td>
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<td>• Staff ranking</td>
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<td>Service length</td>
<td>• At least two years stay</td>
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79
Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is intended to guide in collecting information leading to an analysis of the determinants of human resource performance at the project oriented organizations in Kericho Municipality. Your participation is welcome by completing it at the best knowledge level. All information gathered in the course of this study will only be used for this purpose and will be held confidential.

**Part I: Employee Attraction**

1. In which organization do you work?

   AMREF  ( )  Mercy Corps  ( )
   USAID  ( )  WRP  ( )

2. For how long have you worked for the organization?

   Less than 1 year  ( )  1-2 years  ( )
   2-3 years  ( )  3-4 years  ( )
   More than 4 years  ( )

3. What is your highest level of professional qualification?

   Undergraduate  ( )  Graduate  ( )  Post graduate  ( )
   Others (Specify): ..............................................................

4. For how long had you worked prior to your current engagement?

   Less than 5 years  ( )  5-10 years  ( )  10-15 years  ( )
   15-20 years  ( )  More than 20 years  ( )

5. How were your services sought?

   Negotiation  ( )  Competitive interview  ( )  Consultancy  ( )
   Any other (Specify): ......................................................................
6. How did you access your first information regarding the employer’s interest on your services?

Through the media ( ) Through a friend ( )
Reference by organization’s staff ( ) Websites ( )
Any other (Specify): ...

7. How were you selected for your current placement?

Oral interviews ( ) Demonstrations ( ) Written tests ( )
Through recruitment agent ( ) Secondment ( ) By recommendation ( )
Any other (Specify): ...

8. The following statements relate to possible observations on employee attraction at the organization you are serving. To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of them?

Strongly Agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly Disagree

- The recruitment process is designed to attract the best talent ( )
- The catchment for project staff is competitively adequate ( )
- Selecting employees for the project assignment is objective ( )
- There are glaring loopholes in recruitment and selection process ( )
- There are external interferences when recruiting staff for the project ( )

Part II: Employee Development

9. What is your opinion regarding prospective career growth opportunities at work?

- There are limited career opportunities owing to the project’s short-termism ( )
- The nature of assignments limits conformity with my career path ( )
- The organization provides a flexible work environment for my career growth ( )
- The project team members are a great support to my career prosperity ( )
- I have challenges with my career that limit full realization of success ( )

10. (a) How many times have you been sponsored by the employer for a training of a duration more than two weeks in the last one year?

None ( ) Once ( ) Twice ( )
Thrice ( ) More than thrice ( )
(b) If at least once, was the training content relevant to your current assignments and future applications?
Yes ( ) No ( )

11. To what extent are your project-assignments matching with your professional qualifications?
Extremely high extent ( ) High extent ( ) Moderate extent ( ) Low extent ( ) Extremely low extent ( )

12. (a) Have you ever been assigned to perform higher level duties?
Yes ( ) No ( )
(b) If yes, what were the associated returns?
Recognition ( ) Monetary allowance ( ) Application of expertise ( ) Value addition to organizational success ( ) Any other (Specify): .................................................................................................................................

13. To what extent do you participate in decision making affecting your performance?
Very high extent ( ) High extent ( ) Moderate extent ( ) Low extent ( ) Very low extent ( )

Part III: Employee Retention

14. What is your opinion on the basic pay you derive from the organization?
Highly competitive ( ) Competitive ( ) Fairly competitive ( ) Not competitive ( ) No opinion ( )

15. How do you normally manage to balance the strict project work deadlines with individual commitments?
Request for off-duty ( ) Annual leaves ( ) Extending working hours ( ) Completing tasks over weekends ( ) Job sharing with other staff members ( ) The employer provides post-natal facilities at work ( ) Any other (Specify): .................................................................................................................................
15. (a) Which incentives do you regularly access?

(b) To what extent are you satisfied with the range of incentive available?

- High extent
- Moderate extent
- Low extent

16. What is your view on benefit distribution at work?

- Available benefits are fairly distributed to staff
- Some benefits are only accessible by senior staff members
- There are limited staff benefits available
- The benefits available are of less valuable to me

(b) Kindly state two key benefits you have accessed in the last one year.

17. (b) To what extent are you satisfied with the performance appraisal at work?

- Very high
- High
- Moderate
- Low
- Very low

(b) Who gives feedback on your performance?

- Director
- Deputy Director
- Human Resource Manager/officer
- Immediate supervisor
- Peers
- Any other (Specify):

Part IV: Employee Turnover

18. Given another chance elsewhere, what are your chances of resignation from your current assignments?

- Extremely high
- High
- Moderate
- Low
- Extremely low

19. (a) From your experience, does management adopt findings of exit interviews on former employees?

- Yes
- No
(b) Kindly give reasons for your response.

20. How do the contract terms affect your performance?
   Positively ( ) Negatively ( ) No effect ( )

21. Are you in agreement with management for the payment of gratuity at the end of your contract?
   Yes ( ) No ( )
   (b) If yes, is the gratuity rate appropriate for your contributions? Kindly, explain.

22. Does your employer make regular pension contributions for you?
   Yes ( ) No ( )
   If yes, to what extent are you satisfied with the contribution percentage from the employer?
   High ( ) Moderate ( ) Low ( )

Thank you.
APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview No: .................................  Date: .................................

This interview is meant to assist in the study on determinants of human resource performance in the context of project-oriented organizations. You have been selected as one of the key informants by responding to the following questions. All information provided will only be used for this study and you are assured of confidentiality.

1. For how long have you worked for the project?

2. What qualifications did you have at the point of entry?

3. How has the organization positioned itself as an employer of repute in this region?

4. What are the main sources of employees? And what informs such preference?

5. What key characteristics do you look for in a potential employee?

6. Who controls your behavior while recruiting and selecting staff?

7. What are the key features in the employee development policy?

.......................................................... ..........................................................
8. What is the essence of developing capacity yet you engage staff in shorter contract period?

9. What means you normally adopt to retain your best talent even after expiry of contract?

10. What parameters do you use in determining staff retention?

11. What is your view on employee turnover in the last two years?

12. Has performance ever been affected due to staff shortage or exits? Explain.

13. What predominant ways through which employees leave work?

14. What gains do you make through employee exists?

15. What would you suggest in making your organization an employer of choice?

Thank you.