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PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS AND ORGANIZATIONAL
EFFECTIVENESS IN THE PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS IN KENYA: A CASE STUDY
OF TEACHERS SERVICE COMMISSION

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ABSTRACT

Performance Management System (PMS) is a critical tool for monitoring and evaluating employee performance against organizational objectives in both public and private sectors. Despite its adoption, limited research exists on its direct impact on organizational effectiveness. This study investigated the influence of PMS on organizational effectiveness at the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), focusing on performance planning, monitoring, rating, and development. The study was guided by goal-setting theory, expectancy theory, and learning curve theory. A descriptive research design was employed, targeting 375 Secretariat Staff at TSC Headquarters. Using stratified random sampling, 30% of the population was selected, yielding a sample size of 113. Data was collected through questionnaires whose reliability and validity were confirmed. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 22, applying descriptive statistics (percentages, means, and standard deviations) and inferential statistics (correlation and multiple regression). Findings revealed that performance planning ($r=0.506$, $\beta=0.225$, $p<0.05$), performance monitoring ($r=0.831$, $\beta=0.136$, $p<0.05$), performance rating ($r=0.961$, $\beta=0.431$, $p<0.05$), and performance development ($r=0.693$, $\beta=0.105$, $p<0.05$) all had positive and statistically significant effects on organizational effectiveness. Among these, performance rating emerged as the strongest predictor; while monitoring and planning were vital for accountability and goal alignment. Continuous employee development was also found essential for capacity building and sustaining long-term improvements. The study concludes that PMS significantly enhances organizational effectiveness at TSC and recommends further research across institutions. Policymakers should strengthen fairness, transparency, and resource allocation, while continuous training, mentoring, and integration of PMS principles in teacher preparation programs are vital for professional and institutional growth.

Keywords: *Performance Management Systems, Organizational effectiveness, Public Institutions, Performance Planning, Performance Monitoring, Performance Rating, Performance Development, Teachers Service Commission*

INTRODUCTION

Organizational effectiveness is critical for institutions to achieve their goals and objectives. Employees play a central role in this process, making it necessary to align resources, both human and financial, with organizational strategies. According to Henry (2014), effective performance relies on management's ability to cascade tasks systematically from top to bottom. Globally, Performance Management Systems (PMS) have been adopted to enhance accountability, efficiency, and service delivery, particularly in parastatals and state-owned enterprises. In developed countries such as the UK and the US, PMS frameworks emphasize measurable indicators, strategic alignment, and transparency. In the UK, performance-based frameworks have improved accountability and public value (Hood & Dixon, 2015), while the US employs results-based management tied to scorecards and annual reviews (Poister et al., 2021). Similarly, Singapore and South Korea integrate PMS with data analytics and KPIs to align employee goals with long-term strategies (Kim & Holzer, 2016).

Across Africa, PMS is part of broader public sector reforms. South Africa uses scorecards in parastatals like Eskom and Transnet to align organizational and national objectives (Madue, 2020). Nigeria links appraisals to KPIs focusing on service delivery and sustainability (Ogunyemi & Lawal, 2020), while Rwanda's *Imihigo* contracting system promotes accountability and results culture (Ndayambaje, 2016). In East Africa, Tanzania's TANESCO employs PMS to track service delivery and customer satisfaction (Mollel, 2019), while Uganda integrates PMS with its National Development Plan (Turyasingura & Munene, 2021). These experiences emphasize aligning organizational and employee performance with development goals, providing lessons for Kenyan parastatals such as the Teachers Service Commission (TSC).

Kenya adopted performance contracting in 2004 as part of Results-Based Management (RBM) reforms (Kobia & Mohammed, 2020). Major parastatals like KRA, KPA, and KPLC use balanced scorecards, KPIs, and annual appraisals to monitor performance (Njiru, 2019). KRA applies PMS to revenue collection efficiency and employee productivity, while KPA integrates PMS into its strategic plans for competitiveness (Kariuki, 2021). NHIF links staff appraisals to customer satisfaction, although challenges such as resistance to change, inadequate training, and misalignment between goals and strategies persist (Obong'o, 2019). Despite progress, these challenges limit PMS effectiveness. Successful cases at KRA and KPA show that well-structured PMS can enhance accountability, productivity, and satisfaction, providing useful models for TSC.

As Nitzl et al. (2018) note, PMS outcomes differ across contexts due to variations in administrative structures, culture, and national priorities. Lee (2019) stresses that organizational needs shape PMS effectiveness. This underscores the importance of studying PMS within Kenya's public institutions, particularly the TSC. Established in 1967 and recognized as an Independent Commission under the 2010 Constitution, TSC

manages over 380,000 teachers and 3,000 Secretariat staff across Kenya. Since 2017, PMS has been institutionalized through a formal policy applied to all staff. Directorates set objectives, which are cascaded into individual work plans, monitored monthly, and coordinated by internal evaluation teams. TSC uses digital systems such as HRMIS for Secretariat staff and TPAD for teachers. These platforms assess achievement of targets and inform training needs. However, challenges exist: unclear targets, capacity gaps, and limited integration of appraisal results into decision-making have reduced PMS effectiveness. Staff report that PMS has become routine and disconnected from employee welfare improvements.

Although PMS is valued, poor implementation often reduces it to a compliance exercise rather than a developmental tool (Kravariti et al., 2022). At TSC, employees report working under pressure due to biased or opaque appraisal processes (Lin & Kellough, 2019). Lack of follow-up on appraisal recommendations leads to delays, declining morale, and poor performance (Idowu, 2017). The TSC Annual Report (2024) revealed that over 55% of teachers and staff failed to meet performance targets, despite clear objectives. Promotions and administrative decisions are inconsistently tied to results, with merit overshadowed by opaque practices (Office of the Auditor General, 2025). Training opportunities are often selective and fail to address real skill gaps (Taiko, 2024).

A 2020 survey found that 75% of Secretariat staff expressed dissatisfaction with PMS processes and outcomes (TSC Annual Report, 2023). Employees cited inadequate training, bias, and unprofessionalism. Wright (2019) emphasizes that appraisal systems require follow-through on agreed actions to maintain credibility. Past research supports these concerns. Gatere et al. (2023) found that performance contracting affects service delivery at TSC, while Gichuki (2014) showed that civil service productivity requires continuous improvement in appraisals and training. Maina (2015) recommended PMS at FAO staff as essential if implemented effectively. Collectively, these studies highlight persistent challenges in linking PMS to improved organizational effectiveness. Therefore, this study sought to examine the effects of performance management systems on organizational effectiveness in public institutions in Kenya with a case study of Teachers Service Commission.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by three main theories: Goal-Setting Theory, Expectancy Theory, and Learning Curve Theory. Goal-Setting Theory, developed by Locke (1968) and refined with Latham (1990), argues that clear, specific, and challenging goals enhance performance more than vague or simple ones. It is grounded in five principles – clarity, challenge, commitment, feedback, and task complexity – that ensure employees are motivated and directed in their work (Latham, 2016). The theory suggests that structured objectives and action plans encourage proactive behavior, accountability, and improved performance (Edwin, 2022). However, it faces criticisms such as creating conflicts

between managerial and organizational goals (Rossi, 2022), encouraging narrow or unethical practices (Warden, 2024), or weakening intrinsic motivation when goals are unrealistic (Latham & Seijts, 2016). Despite these drawbacks, it was selected as the anchor theory of this study due to its direct connection between structured goal-setting, motivation, and organizational outcomes, particularly relevant for the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), where teacher performance directly affects education quality.

Expectancy Theory, introduced by Vroom (1964), complements goal-setting by emphasizing the belief that effort leads to performance (expectancy), performance yields outcomes (instrumentality), and outcomes are valuable (valence). Motivation, therefore, arises when employees believe their efforts will translate into meaningful results. Motivated employees dedicate more energy and commitment compared to unmotivated ones (Vigaro, 2023; Daft, 2022). Managers must design fair systems that reward effort, aligning employee expectations with organizational outcomes (Rossi, 2022). Critics, however, argue that the theory is overly rational, overlooking the role of emotions, culture, and politics in shaping behavior (Nouri & Parker, 2020). Measuring expectancy, instrumentality, and valence is also difficult due to subjectivity (Purvis et al., 2015). Nonetheless, Expectancy Theory is important in this study as it highlights fairness and transparency in performance management. At TSC, employees may lose motivation if promotions, recognition, or training are not clearly tied to performance, making the theory useful for evaluating whether the PMS strengthens belief in a fair link between effort, achievement, and reward.

Learning Curve Theory, first proposed by Wright (1936), posits that repeated practice and accumulated experience improve performance, leading to efficiency and fewer errors. Arrow (1962) and Argote (1990) later expanded it to include organizational learning, knowledge transfer, and innovation. The theory stresses the importance of experience and structured training in enhancing performance. However, critics argue that it oversimplifies learning by assuming a linear improvement process (Argote & Epple, 1990). External factors such as poor training, limited resources, or technological disruptions can distort progress (Yelle, 2020). Furthermore, in service-oriented sectors like education, adaptability, creativity, and innovation may be more critical than repetitive experience, complicating its application. Still, in TSC's PMS context, the theory underscores the role of continuous professional development, workshops, and appraisals in enhancing competence and reducing errors over time.

Collectively, the three theories provide a robust framework for analyzing performance management at TSC. Goal-Setting Theory emphasizes clarity and direction; Expectancy Theory adds a motivational lens through fair linkages between effort and reward; and Learning Curve Theory highlights continuous learning and development. Together, they explain how goals are defined, why employees pursue them, and how skills evolve over time. Applied to TSC, this integration illustrates how effective performance management

can enhance teacher motivation, institutional efficiency, and service delivery, while also addressing challenges of fairness, adaptability, and sustaining long-term improvements.

Empirical Literature Review

Performance Planning and Organizational Effectiveness

Bauwens, Audenaert, and Decramer (2024) investigated how meta-features of performance management systems (PMS)—specifically clarity, visibility, and comprehensibility of plans and goals—affect employees' innovative work behaviour (IWB) and how transformational leadership moderates these effects. Using a vignette-style factorial survey experiment, participants evaluated various PMS configurations, and their behavioural intentions were analyzed through multivariate models. The results revealed that PMS features that are visible and clearly communicated enhance employees' willingness to engage in innovative activities. Transformational leadership was found to strengthen the link between PMS consensus and IWB. While the study boasts strong internal validity due to experimental control, its ecological validity is limited since vignette experiments often oversimplify the complex realities of workplace contexts such as political dynamics, workload pressures, and resource constraints. Additionally, the focus on attitudinal and intention-based measures rather than objective performance outcomes restricts the generalizability of its findings to real-world organizational effectiveness.

Similarly, Mousa (2024) explored the relationship between strategic planning and organizational effectiveness among manufacturing firms in Iraq. The study examined how dimensions such as environmental scanning, management participation, planning formality, and strategy techniques influence both financial and non-financial performance. Using data from 360 managers, the study employed descriptive statistics, correlation, and multiple regression analysis. Findings showed that strategic planning significantly improves financial performance, with environmental scanning and strategy techniques being the strongest predictors, while the relationship with non-financial performance was positive but weaker. Despite providing useful sectoral insights, the study's reliance on cross-sectional data and managerial self-reports raises endogeneity concerns—successful firms might retrospectively attribute their success to effective planning. Moreover, by treating strategic planning as a single construct rather than examining its different levels and mechanisms, the study leaves unexplained why certain planning components are more effective in driving financial outcomes.

Hamann (2023) contributed to the discussion through a meta-analysis synthesizing prior empirical research on corporate planning and organizational effectiveness. The study aimed to identify which elements of planning—such as formalization, time horizon, and participation—consistently relate to firm performance and which are context-dependent. The meta-analysis revealed that while some planning dimensions show stable positive associations with performance, the overall relationship is highly variable and contingent on factors such as measurement type, sector, and environmental context. The study

concluded that the generalized claim that “planning improves performance” is overstated, as effect sizes vary significantly. Although the meta-analytic approach strengthens evidence synthesis, it inherits conceptual limitations from the primary studies, including inconsistent definitions of “planning” and “performance.” Furthermore, the overrepresentation of studies from certain regions and sectors limits the power of moderator analyses, especially for under-researched contexts like developing countries or public institutions. While the study highlights key moderators, it offers limited insight into causal mechanisms due to the correlational nature of most included studies.

In a related inquiry, Al-Thawadi and Hadi (2024) analyzed how performance planning and review practices influence the relationship between assessment and employee performance in an IT organization. Adopting a mixed-methods design—combining quantitative regression analysis with qualitative thematic exploration—the study found that assessment alone accounts for only part of the performance variance. When supported by clear goal-setting and transparent review systems, the positive impact of assessment on both perceived and actual performance significantly increased. The mixed-methods approach enhanced interpretive depth, yet the small, single-department sample limited generalizability. Furthermore, the study’s reliance on perceptual data raised potential bias issues. Conceptually, it underlines the importance of planning as a facilitative mechanism in performance management but falls short of identifying the specific mediating pathways—such as improved role clarity or enhanced feedback—that drive performance gains.

Lastly, Makali (2024) examined teachers’ perceptions of performance management in arid and semi-arid schools in Kenya’s lower Eastern region. Although teachers believed they performed well in their duties, the study found no significant relationship between their performance and their perception of the Teachers Service Commission’s (TSC) performance appraisal initiatives. This finding implies that effective performance management requires inclusion of both employees and managers in the design and implementation processes to improve relationships and perceptions.

Performance Monitoring and Organizational Effectiveness

Omar (2024) investigated the effects of performance contracting on service delivery at the Municipal Council of Mombasa. The study revealed that performance appraisals were largely ineffective due to supervisors’ leniency and bias. Supervisors often rated employees generally instead of assessing individual performance, and evaluations tended to focus on personality traits rather than actual work outcomes. Consequently, the performance appraisal system failed to accurately reflect employees’ true productivity levels, undermining the credibility and purpose of performance contracting as a tool for enhancing service delivery to residents.

In a related study, Mohamud and Pedo (2023) examined the relationship between monitoring and evaluation (M&E) practices and the performance of health projects in Isiolo County. Using a descriptive survey of 61 health staff involved in M&E and project management, they analyzed the influence of M&E planning, stakeholder engagement, staff training, and information systems on project performance. Results indicated moderate to strong positive correlations between M&E planning ($r \approx .58$), stakeholder engagement ($r \approx .76$), information systems ($r \approx .70$), and project performance, with staff training showing a smaller yet significant effect. The study underscored that effective M&E practices enhance project outcomes, particularly through active stakeholder participation and the use of data systems. However, its cross-sectional design limits causal inference, and the reliance on perception-based measures reduces objectivity. The study also treated M&E as a composite construct, without distinguishing which specific practices most strongly influence project success, a gap that weakens its operational applicability in resource-constrained county governments.

Shuna and Kithandi (2024) similarly assessed M&E practices and their impact on the performance of health development projects at Marsabit County Referral Hospital. Using questionnaires and correlation/regression analyses, they found strong positive associations between comprehensive M&E practices (planning, stakeholder involvement, capacity building) and project performance, with correlation coefficients as high as $r = .85$ for planning and cost management. The study reaffirmed the importance of structured monitoring systems and clear indicators in improving project outcomes. Nonetheless, it faced similar methodological limitations: single-site data, reliance on self-reported measures, and lack of longitudinal evidence. The strong correlations provide useful advocacy evidence for strengthening M&E within Kenyan counties but must be interpreted cautiously for policymaking due to possible endogeneity and measurement biases.

Finally, Partoip, Kamaara, and Ombui (2025) analyzed performance measurement and employee performance across Kenyan state corporations using a cross-sectional survey of 119 respondents. Regression results showed that performance measurement significantly predicted employee performance ($R^2 \approx .44$; $\beta \approx .64$), suggesting that structured measurement and evaluation meetings enhance accountability and alignment within public institutions. While this national study contributes valuable insights into public sector reform, it too suffers from cross-sectional limitations and aggregation bias, as it combines diverse state entities. Moreover, by treating performance measurement as a single variable, it overlooks critical variations in indicator quality, feedback mechanisms, and data timeliness that shape employee behaviour.

Performance Rating (Appraisal) and Organizational Effectiveness

Kipkoech and Rutto (2023) examined the effect of performance appraisal systems on teacher performance in public secondary schools in Kericho County, Kenya. Using a descriptive survey design and structured questionnaires, they found that appraisal practices—particularly goal setting, feedback, and evaluation meetings—positively influenced teacher productivity, professional growth, and student outcomes. The study aligned closely with the Teachers Service Commission’s (TSC) mandate but was limited by its reliance on self-reported performance data, potential bias, and lack of longitudinal analysis to assess lasting effects. Conceptually, it treated appraisal as a uniform process without distinguishing between variations in appraisal quality, frequency, or goal alignment between teachers and schools.

Matsiliza (2021) explored performance appraisal and service delivery among South African municipal employees using a mixed-methods approach that combined surveys and interviews. Findings showed that well-implemented appraisal systems enhanced accountability, motivation, and service delivery, while poorly executed ones bred resentment and minimal improvement. The study’s insights are relevant for TSC, where bureaucratic implementation challenges can weaken performance management. However, its cross-sectional nature limited the ability to determine the persistence of these effects over time. Conceptually, the study underscored the importance of credibility and fairness in appraisal systems but did not isolate the appraisal process’s impact from related HR practices such as promotions and training.

Ngugi and Karanja (2022) investigated appraisal practices and employee performance in Kenyan state corporations using a cross-sectional design and regression analysis. Results indicated that participatory goal setting and constructive feedback enhanced employee engagement and organizational effectiveness. Although the findings apply to large bureaucratic systems similar to TSC, the study overlooked sector-specific factors like teacher workload, class size, and curriculum demands. Additionally, it equated organizational effectiveness with employee satisfaction and engagement rather than direct productivity metrics, limiting interpretive clarity.

Malik and Younas (2020) studied the banking sector in Pakistan and found that transparent, fair appraisal systems increased motivation, productivity, and loyalty, whereas perceived unfairness eroded trust and performance. While not directly transferable to education, the study reinforced the universal importance of fairness and transparency in appraisals. However, it failed to consider the complex, multi-dimensional nature of performance in knowledge-based professions like teaching, where institutional support and professional development also shape outcomes. Overall, across contexts, these studies demonstrate that effective performance appraisal systems—when transparent, participatory, and credible—positively affect motivation and performance, though their impact depends heavily on context, implementation quality, and fairness.

Performance Development and Organizational Effectiveness

Elnaga and Imran (2023) studied the influence of training on employee performance at Wells Company in Uganda. They found that while training programs existed, many lacked clear objectives or alignment with employee needs and organizational goals. Consequently, their impact on performance was limited. The authors emphasized that training must be strategically planned, guided by needs assessment, and linked to measurable performance indicators to enhance productivity and organizational growth. The study's strength lies in exposing the gap between training design and execution—a common issue in HRM. However, its focus on a single company limits generalizability, and its largely descriptive approach lacks statistical rigor. Conceptually, it treats training as an isolated HR function without examining how it interacts with appraisal, rewards, or career development systems.

Ngari, Mwangi, and Gachuru (2025) explored how career development initiatives influence employee performance in Kenya's banking sector. Using structured questionnaires and regression analysis with 127 respondents, they found a strong positive correlation between career development and performance. Mentorship and career advancement opportunities had the greatest effects, enhancing motivation, commitment, and productivity. The study provides valuable evidence on the role of career development in driving employee effectiveness. However, its applicability to public or education sectors, such as the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), is limited since banking performance is financially driven. Conceptually, it also treats career development as a single construct, overlooking how different components—training, feedback, mentoring—may affect performance differently depending on context and resources.

Chacha and Otieno (2021) examined teacher professional development (TPD) and its impact on teacher performance and student outcomes in Kisii County, Kenya. Using a mixed-methods approach with 250 teachers and interviews with school heads, they found that continuous professional development improved teaching skills, classroom management, and student engagement. However, inconsistent training, limited funding, and weak follow-up mechanisms reduced its sustainability. The study effectively linked teacher development to improved academic outcomes but was limited by self-reported data and a failure to account for differences in program quality or teacher motivation.

Summary of Research Gaps

Across the reviewed literature, several gaps emerge that justify the current study. Contextually, most research on performance planning has been conducted in private and profit-oriented organizations, neglecting public institutions such as the Teachers Service Commission (TSC). Studies on performance monitoring and appraisal have largely focused on commercial enterprises and county institutions, where performance is tied to

financial or operational outcomes. Few have examined how these practices influence organizational effectiveness in the education sector, where outcomes are linked to teaching effectiveness, learner achievement, and teacher retention. This limits applicability to TSC's policy-driven environment.

Conceptually, existing studies often oversimplify performance management practices. Performance planning is treated as a broad, linear process without unpacking how goal-setting, resource allocation, and strategy alignment drive outcomes. Performance monitoring is emphasized as compliance and tracking rather than a feedback mechanism for continuous improvement. Similarly, appraisals are viewed as isolated evaluative events rather than part of a holistic development system, while performance development is treated as a uniform construct without considering variations in training design, mentoring, or goal alignment.

Geographically, limited empirical evidence exists from Nairobi County, despite it being the location of TSC headquarters and presenting unique challenges, including high teacher populations, resource constraints, and diverse school contexts. This creates a significant geographical void. Methodologically, many studies have relied on descriptive or qualitative approaches, self-reports, or cross-sectional data, limiting causal inferences. Few have applied robust quantitative techniques capable of isolating the impact of specific practices. The current study addresses these contextual, conceptual, geographical, and methodological gaps by examining performance management practices at TSC using a descriptive survey design and quantitative analysis.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

According to Adom, Hussein, and Agyem (2018), a conceptual framework is a researcher's own position on the problem and gives direction by identifying the variables to be measured and the relationships to be explored. As it has been conceptualized in this study, the independent variable is performance management systems whereas the dependent variable is organizational effectiveness. The relationship between the two variables is presented in Figure 1.

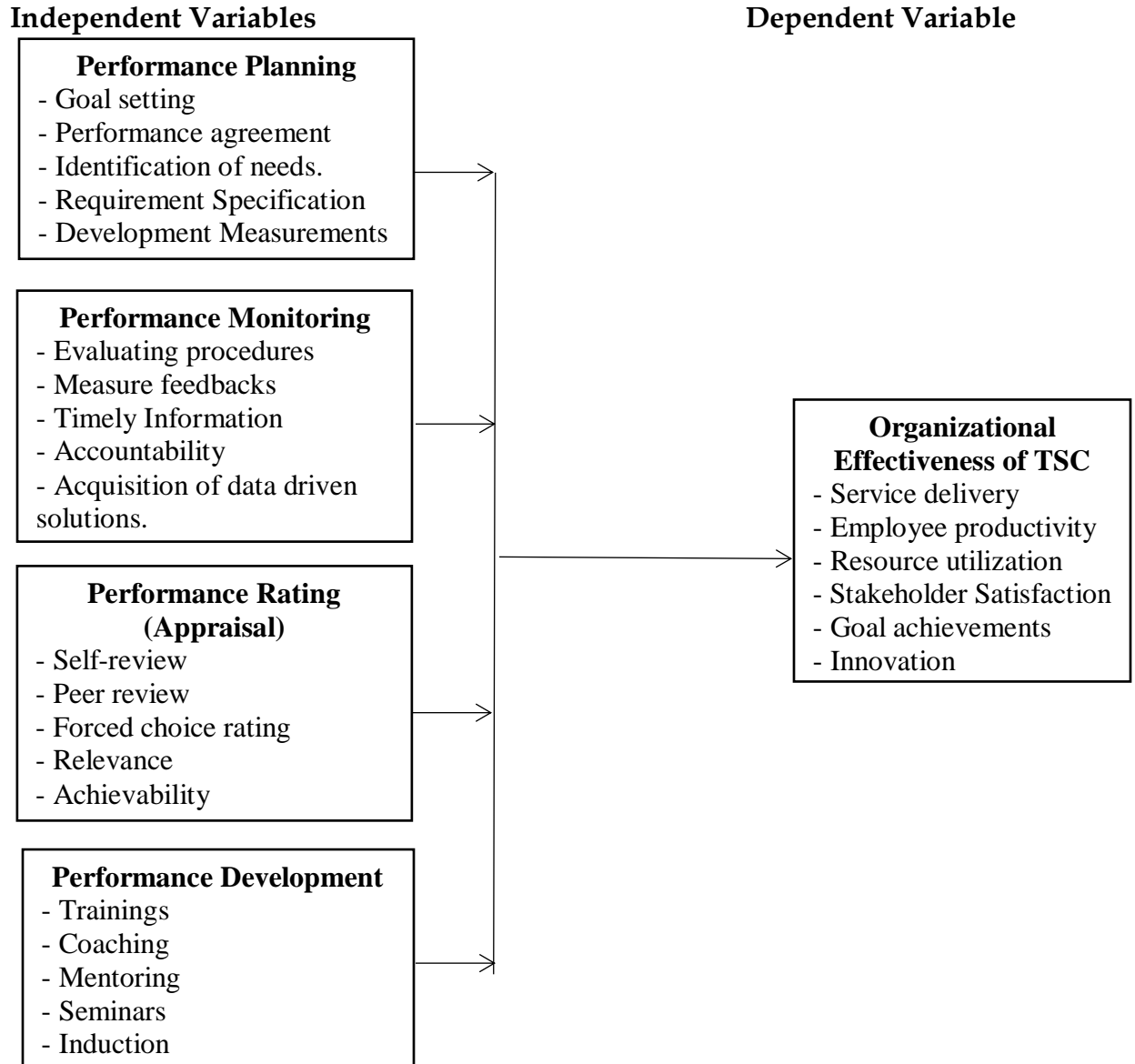


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

METHODOLOGY

A descriptive design was adopted in this research. Burns (2020) notes that descriptive statistics has capability to summarize large quantities of data using understood measures in form of graphical and numerical techniques. According to Kombo and Tromp (2022) research design is defined as the unique structure of a particular research study. In other words, the research design sets the procedure for the required data, the methods to be applied to collect and analyze this data, and how all of this is going to answer the research question. This design was therefore ideal in examining the influence of PMS on organizational effectiveness at TSC. The target population comprised 375 employees working at the TSC headquarters in Nairobi City County. The unit of observation was

the employees whereas the unit of analysis was the Teachers Service Commission. Table 1 presents a summary of the target population across each department.

Table 1: Target Population

Directorates/Departments	Target population
Administration Department	100
Human Resource Management & Development	50
Finance & Accounts Department	60
Internal Audit Department	60
Staffing Department	80
ICT Department	25
Total	375

A sampling design is the method used in selecting elements from the population that represent the population (Collins & Hussey, 2016). Stratified random sampling was used to draw the study sample from the 6 Directorates at TSC. Mugenda and Mugenda (2019) state that a study should at least meet the threshold size of thirty (30) percent of target respondents to allow normal approximations. In applying the stratified random sampling method, the employees were first organized according to their departments. From these departments, the list of names was obtained from the head of department. The names were assigned accordingly and later selected randomly until the desired number was achieved.

Table 2: Representation of the Sampling Matrix

Population description (TSC) Directorates	Target population	Sample percentage	Sample size
Administration Department	100	30%	30
Human Resource Management & Development	50	30%	15
Finance & Accounts Department	60	30%	18
Internal Audit Department	60	30%	18
Staffing Department	80	30%	24
ICT Department	25	30%	8
Total	375	30%	113

The primary data was collected directly from Secretariat Staff at TSC Headquarters using self-administered questionnaires. Respondents were requested to indicate their response to the provided statement as they do wish. A scale of 1-5 was given with a representation as follows; 5= (Strongly Agree), 4 = (Agree), 3= (Undecided), 2= (Disagree), 1= (Strongly Disagree). Enough questions on the questionnaire were ideal to bring out the required results and data analyzed from the report.

Piloting was done to refine the questionnaire by administering it to 11 participants from TSC branch- Machakos County. This translated to 10% of the study sample. This is in line with Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) who asserted that 10% of the target sample size is sufficient for piloting research instruments because it provides adequate insights while remaining manageable. The study piloted in Machakos County because it provided a manageable population, diverse school settings, and logistical convenience for data collection. The county was considered representative of other regions in terms of teacher distribution and performance challenges, while its proximity to Nairobi reduced costs and enhanced accessibility. Validity was ensured through content validity, by having the research instruments reviewed by the school research supervisor to confirm alignment with the research objectives. Face validity was established by checking the clarity, relevance, and appropriateness of the questionnaire items, while construct validity was reinforced by ensuring that the items adequately captured the theoretical concepts underpinning the study. Suggestions and comments from the supervisor were incorporated to strengthen the final instruments.

To commence data collection process, an introduction letter from the administration of Management University of Africa upon recommendation by the supervisors and a permit from NACOSTI were obtained. This was followed by distribution of the questionnaires to the sampled respondents both physically and via emails. In terms of analysis, coding of the questionnaires before analyzing the content was done with the aid of SPSS version 29. Quantitative methods of data analysis were applied and they included both descriptives and inferential analysis. The descriptive analysis comprised of percentages, means, and standard deviation and presented using bar graphs, pie charts, and frequency tables. On the other hand, the inferential analysis was presented using correlation and multiple linear regression model. These helped to establish the statistical relationship between the independent and dependent variables of the study. For the multiple linear regression, the following model was adopted:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y= Organizational effectiveness

β_0 = Constant coefficients of X1, X2, and X3 respectively

X₁= Performance Planning, X₂= Performance Monitoring, X₃= Performance Rating (Appraisal)

X₄= Performance Development

Regarding ethical considerations, the respondents were informed that filling the questionnaire was not compulsory but voluntary, hence they were free at any given time to terminate. Voluntary participation means all research respondents have freely chosen to participate in the exercise without being coerced by anybody, either internally or

externally. Participation was voluntary; hence no participant was pushed to participate. Discreet in this research was highly adhered to, considering the respondents are employees of an organization that has its own policies that govern data protection. Participants were protected by prohibiting the disclosure of information or data that they gave to any other person outside the research program unless they personally consented to doing so in writing. For security purposes, the data collected was coded and an anonymity clause where possible was put to protect the participants' personal data from leaking to unauthorized persons.

FINDINGS

Response Rate

The study distributed a total of 113 questionnaires to the targeted respondents. Out of these, 105 were successfully completed and returned, representing a response rate of 92.9%. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a response rate of 50% is considered adequate for analysis, 60% is regarded as good, and a rate of 70% and above is considered excellent for survey-based studies. Therefore, the achieved response rate of 92.9% in this study can be interpreted as highly satisfactory, indicating strong cooperation and willingness among the respondents to participate in the research. Such a high rate also enhances the reliability and validity of the findings by reducing the risk of non-response bias (Kothari, 2014).

Reliability Results

In testing the reliability of the questionnaires, the piloted data was subjected to analysis using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences version 22. Moreover, the reliability was further checked using Cronbach Alpha Method. This method helped to check the internal consistency of the instrument. The rule of thumb shows that if the value obtained is between 0.7 and 0.9, the questionnaires are held to be reliable (George & Mallery, 2016). From the findings, it was noted that the overall Cronbach value obtained for the questionnaires was 0.936. additionally, all the variables had a value above 0.7. Therefore, the questionnaire was considered to be reliable.

Table 3: Reliability Results

Variable	No. of Items	Cronbach value	Verdict
Performance Planning	6	0.742	Reliable
Performance Monitoring	6	0.791	Reliable
Performance Rating	6	0.856	Reliable
Performance Development	6	0.851	Reliable
Organizational effectiveness	6	0.705	Reliable
Overall Reliability	34	0.936	Reliable

Demographic Information

To better understand the characteristics of the study participants, background information was collected on key demographic variables, including age bracket, gender, education level, and working experience. Such information is essential as it provides context for interpreting the study findings, highlights the diversity of the respondents, and helps establish the representativeness of the sample in relation to the population under study. The responses that were obtained pertaining to the background information are summarized and presented in this section.

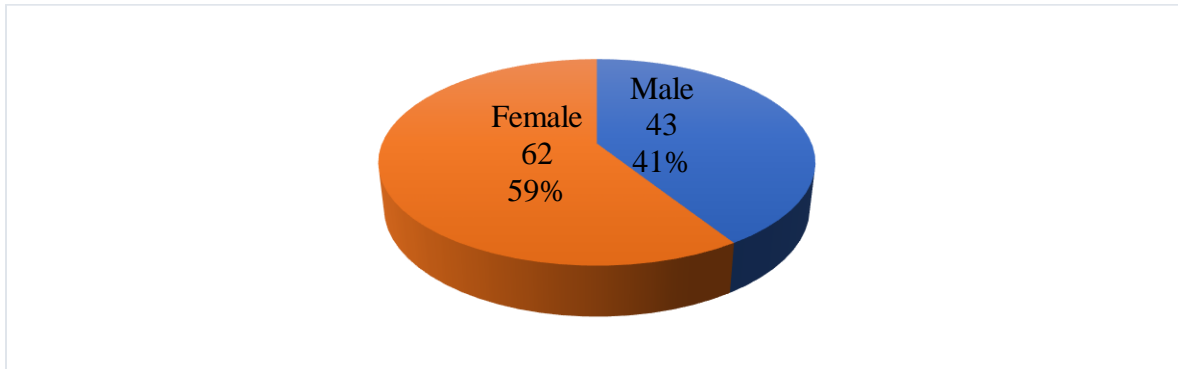


Figure 2: Respondents' Gender

Figure 2 presents the gender distribution of staff members at the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) headquarters. Out of the 105 respondents, 62 (59%) were female, while 43 (41%) were male. This indicates that women constituted the majority of the workforce within the institution, outnumbering their male counterparts by 18%. The dominance of female staff could be attributed to the nature of the education sector, which has historically attracted more women into administrative and teaching-related roles compared to men (UNESCO, 2018).

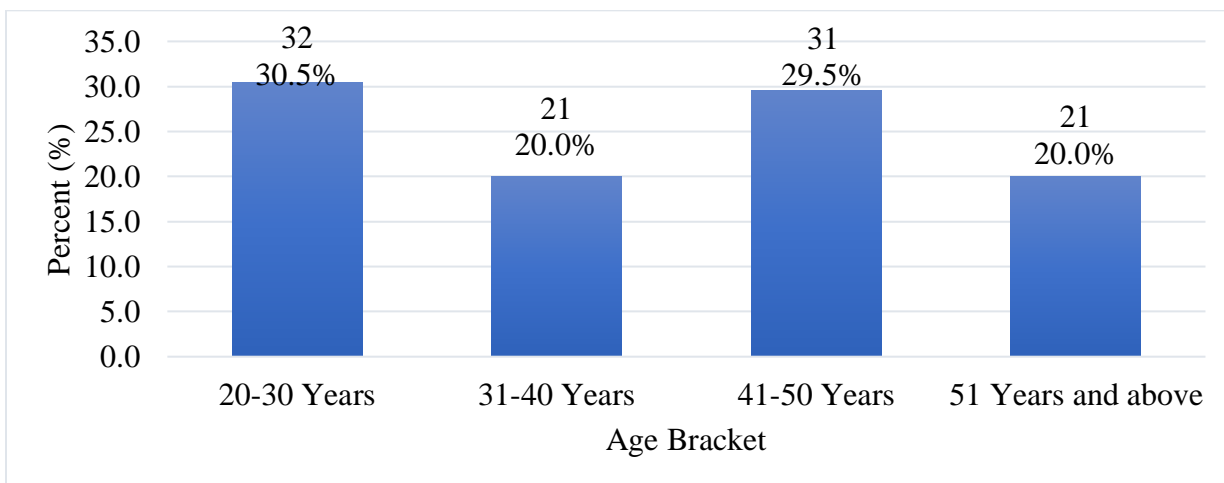


Figure 3: Age Bracket

Figure 3 illustrates the age distribution of staff members at the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) headquarters. The results show that the majority of respondents were within the 20–30 years age bracket (30.5%), followed closely by those aged 41–50 years (29.5%). Staff members in the age categories of 31–40 years and 51 years and above each accounted for 20% of the total respondents. These findings suggest that the TSC workforce is relatively youthful, with a strong representation of early-career professionals, while at the same time maintaining a significant proportion of experienced staff aged 41 years and above. This balanced distribution reflects a healthy mix of younger employees who bring innovation, energy, and adaptability, alongside older employees who contribute institutional knowledge, stability, and leadership (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020).

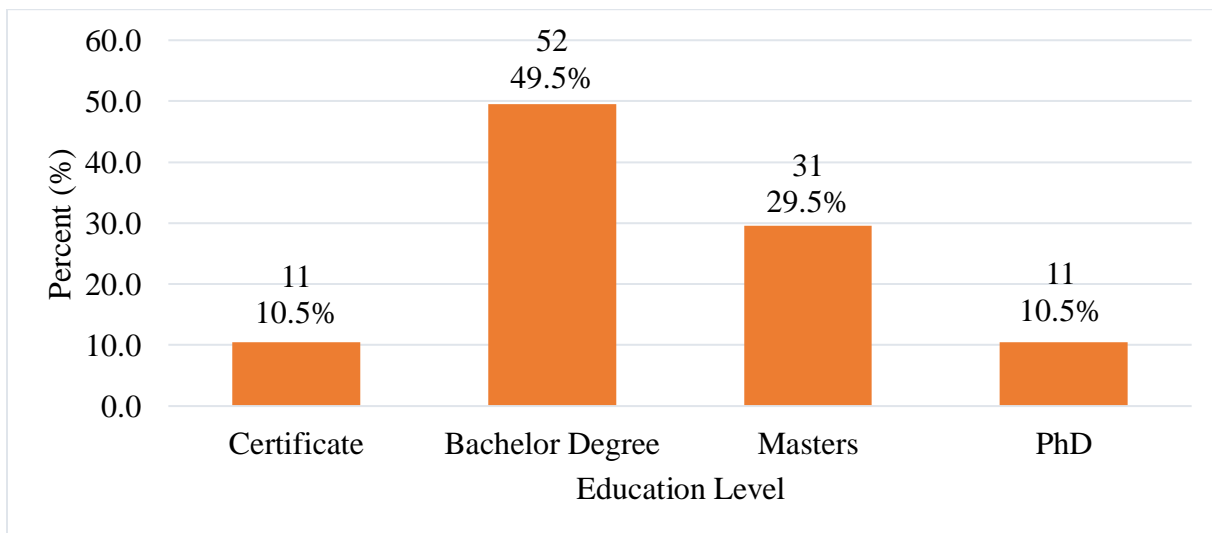


Figure 4: Education Level

Figure 4 presented the education level of employees at TSC headquarters. Notably, the majority of respondents had a bachelor degree (49.5%) as their highest level of education followed by 29.5% who had Masters degree. The remaining were either certificate holders (10.5%) or PhD holders (10.5%) respectively. This implies that there was diversity in educational attainment with a bachelor’s degree being the most common entry qualification.

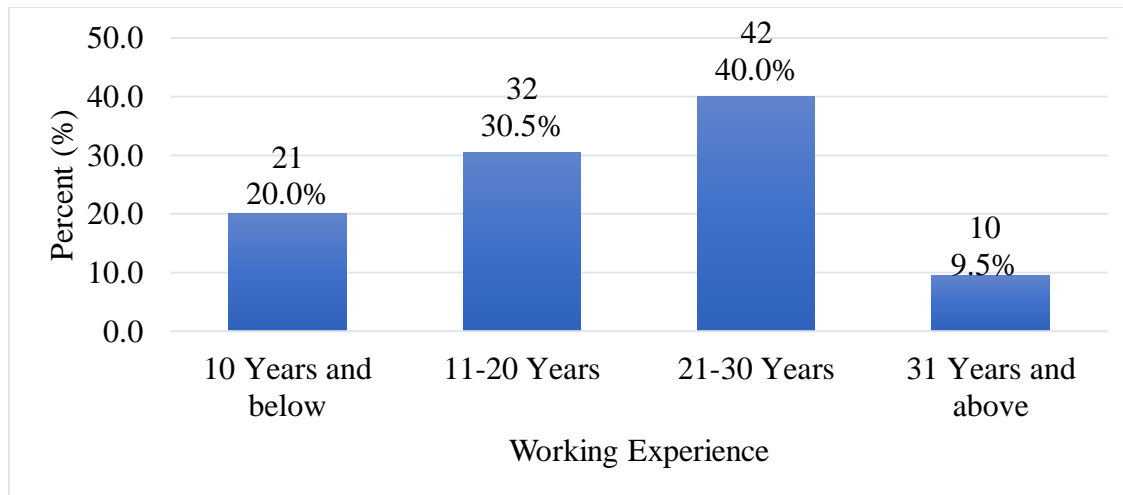


Figure 5: Working Experience at TSC

The findings on working experience as presented in figure 5 reveal that a significant proportion of employees have served the TSC for a long period, with 40% having between 21–30 years of experience and 30.5% having 11–20 years. This indicates a workforce with substantial institutional knowledge and continuity. Additionally, 20% of employees had less than 10 years of service, suggesting the presence of relatively newer staff who bring fresh perspectives. A smaller group (9.5%) had worked for more than 31 years, reflecting deep-rooted experience and long-term commitment to the institution. This mix of long-serving and newer employees provides a balance between institutional memory and innovation.

Correlation Analysis

To examine the strength and direction of the relationships among the study variables, correlation analysis was conducted. This statistical technique was applied to establish whether there exist significant associations between performance planning, performance monitoring, performance rating, performance development, and organizational effectiveness. Correlation analysis was particularly important for this study because it provided preliminary insights into how closely the independent variables were related to the dependent variable, before subjecting them to further tests using regression analysis. By identifying these associations, the study was able to highlight the extent to which improvements in performance management practices could influence the overall performance of the Teachers Service Commission (TSC).

Table 4: Correlation Results

		Performance Planning	Performance Monitoring	Performance Rating	Performance development	Organizational effectiveness
Performance Planning	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	1				
Performance Monitoring	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.608**	1			
Performance Rating	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.619**	.818**	1		
Performance development	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.584**	.525**	.677**	1	
Organizational effectiveness	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.506**	.831**	.962**	.693**	1
	N	105	105	105	105	105

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

The correlation results revealed that all dimensions of performance management significantly influence organizational effectiveness. Performance planning showed a moderate yet significant relationship ($r = .506, p < .01$), underscoring the importance of setting clear objectives, aligning individual tasks with institutional goals, and ensuring efficient resource allocation. This aligns with findings by Wanjiku and Njeru (2018) that effective planning enhances accountability and service delivery in Kenya’s public institutions, while Adebayo (2019) emphasized that weak planning frameworks hinder organizational effectiveness across Africa. Globally, Kaplan and Norton’s (1996) Balanced Scorecard supports the notion that structured planning improves alignment between strategy and outcomes.

Performance monitoring exhibited a strong correlation ($r = .831, p < .01$), indicating that feedback, structured procedures, and accountability systems enhance efficiency. Kenyan research by Njihia (2020) found that monitoring promotes transparency and stakeholder trust, while Ohemeng (2016) showed it strengthens institutional credibility in Africa. Similarly, Armstrong (2020) noted that effective monitoring provides real-time feedback for corrective action globally.

Performance rating emerged as the most influential predictor ($r = .962, p < .01$), with transparent appraisal systems driving motivation and productivity. Muturi (2021) found this within the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), while Chukwuma (2020) confirmed similar effects in Nigeria's public institutions. DeNisi and Murphy (2017) also emphasized that effective rating systems align employee behavior with strategic goals.

Performance development correlated strongly ($r = .693, p < .01$), showing that training, mentoring, and capacity building boost efficiency and competitiveness. Collectively, the results affirm that integrated performance management systems—especially strong appraisal mechanisms—are key drivers of sustainable organizational effectiveness.

Overall Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

To further establish the predictive power of the independent variables on organizational effectiveness, multiple linear regression analysis was conducted. Unlike correlation analysis, which only measures the strength and direction of relationships, regression analysis determines the extent to which performance planning, performance monitoring, performance rating, and performance development jointly and individually influence organizational effectiveness. This analysis was critical in identifying the most significant predictors of performance within the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) and provided deeper insights into how variations in these practices contribute to overall institutional effectiveness. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis for the relationship between performance management practices and organizational effectiveness of TSC was presented using the Model summary, ANOVA, and coefficient tables, respectively.

Table 5: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.980 ^a	.961	.959	.50351

a. Predictors: (Constant), Performance development, Performance Monitoring, Performance Planning, Performance Rating

The regression results reveal a very strong relationship between the independent variables (performance planning, performance monitoring, performance rating, and performance development) and organizational effectiveness, as shown by the multiple correlation coefficient ($R = .980$). The coefficient of determination ($R^2 = .961$) indicates that 96.1% of the variation in organizational effectiveness can be explained by the four predictors included in the model. This demonstrates that performance management practices collectively have a substantial effect on organizational effectiveness. The adjusted R^2 (.959) further confirms the robustness of the model, accounting for the number of predictors and the sample size, thus minimizing the possibility of overestimation. The standard error of the estimate (.50351) is relatively low, suggesting that the model has high predictive accuracy.

Table 6: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	624.895	4	156.224	616.208	.000 ^b
	Residual	25.352	100	.254		
	Total	650.248	104			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational effectiveness

b. Predictors: (Constant), Performance development, Performance Monitoring, Performance Planning, Performance Rating

The ANOVA results show that the regression model is statistically significant in explaining organizational effectiveness. The regression sum of squares (624.895) is much larger than the residual sum of squares (25.352), indicating that most of the variation in organizational effectiveness is explained by the predictors (performance planning, monitoring, rating, and development). The F-statistic (F = 616.208) is very high with a corresponding significance value (p < .001), confirming that the model as a whole is highly significant. This means the combined influence of the four performance management practices has a strong and statistically significant effect on organizational effectiveness at TSC. In converging with this finding, a previous study by Nzuve and Nyaega (2011) affirmed that effective performance management frameworks significantly improve public sector outcomes. Thus, the model provides compelling evidence that performance management practices are crucial drivers of organizational success within the Teachers Service Commission (TSC).

Table 7: Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	12.942	.463		27.953	.000
	Performance Planning	.225	.028	.221	8.164	.000
	Performance Monitoring	.136	.023	.214	6.015	.000
	Performance Rating	.431	.021	.819	20.480	.000
	Performance development	.105	.019	.155	5.468	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational effectiveness

The regression coefficients in the model provide important insights into how each independent variable influences organizational effectiveness. The constant ($\beta = 12.942$, p < .001) suggests that even in the absence of the four performance management practices, the baseline level of organizational effectiveness remains positive, highlighting the presence of other underlying institutional factors that sustain performance.

Performance planning ($\beta = .225, p < .001$) has a significant positive effect on organizational effectiveness. This finding shows that while holding all other factors constant, a unit increase in performance planning would contribute to an increase in organizational effectiveness at TSC by 0.225 units. Moreover, the findings confirm that clear goal setting, outlining expectations, and aligning employee tasks with institutional objectives contribute meaningfully to improving outcomes. This aligns with findings in Kenya by Kobia and Mohammed (2020), who noted that effective planning in public institutions enhances service delivery. Additionally, a study by Ooko and Ombui (2019) found that strategic planning significantly enhances efficiency and accountability in Kenya's public sector. Similarly, Otieno and Ouma (2021) noted that in East African public organizations, participatory planning improves both employee morale and organizational effectiveness.

Performance monitoring ($\beta = .136, p < .001$) also shows a statistically significant effect. This implies that a unit increase in performance monitoring while holding all other factors constant contributes to an increase in organizational effectiveness at TSC by 0.136 units. Moreover, the findings suggest that continuous supervision, evaluation, and feedback processes strengthen accountability and ensure goals are achieved. This is consistent with Amadi and Abdullah (2012) who emphasize that monitoring mechanisms in public institutions are critical for ensuring resource efficiency and organizational effectiveness. Additionally, a study by Osei-Tutu et al. (2020) showed that monitoring frameworks are essential in improving performance in Ghanaian public institutions. In Kenya, Kiiru and Were (2022) also emphasized that performance monitoring enhances transparency and ensures resources are used effectively in public agencies. At the international level, Franco-Santos and Otley (2018) argue that monitoring and feedback mechanisms are central to sustaining long-term organizational learning and growth.

Performance rating ($\beta = .431, p < .001$) emerges as the strongest predictor with the highest coefficient, highlighting that evaluating employees fairly, recognizing achievement, and linking performance ratings to organizational goals substantially improve outcomes. This finding affirms that a unit increase in performance rating (appraisal) while holding all other factors constant increases the organizational effectiveness of TSC by 0.431 units. According to Mugo and Karanja (2020), performance appraisal practices significantly influence productivity and accountability in Kenyan institutions. At the continental level, Maseko (2017) found that in South Africa, transparent appraisal systems foster organizational commitment and reduce resistance to performance reforms. Globally, Armstrong and Taylor (2020) confirm that well-structured appraisal systems are essential in aligning personal contributions with organizational strategy.

Finally, performance development ($\beta = .105, p < .001$) demonstrates a positive and significant impact, showing that training, mentoring, and capacity-building initiatives play an important role in enhancing skills and sustaining long-term institutional growth.

This further implies that a unit increase in performance development while holding all other factors constant would increase the organizational effectiveness of TSC by 0.105 units. This reflects findings by Nzuve and Nyaega (2011) in Kenya, who found that training and development programs significantly boost public service performance. Mwangi and Ngugi (2021) found that continuous staff development enhances innovation and adaptability in Kenyan education institutions. At the African level, Nyamekye et al. (2021) highlighted that training and mentoring programs are vital in fostering employee engagement and performance in Ghanaian institutions. Internationally, Noe et al. (2021) stress that performance development interventions are crucial for building human capital and sustaining competitive advantage in organizations.

Overall, the findings confirm that all four practices – planning, monitoring, rating, and development – significantly contribute to organizational effectiveness, with performance rating standing out as the most powerful driver. These results reinforce the view that comprehensive performance management systems are indispensable in improving accountability, efficiency, and service delivery across public institutions. From these findings, the multiple linear regression model was therefore presented as follows;

$$\text{Organizational effectiveness} = 12.942 + 0.431\text{PR} + 0.225\text{PP} + 0.136\text{PM} + 0.105\text{PD}$$

Where:

PP= Performance Planning,

PM= Performance Monitoring,

PR= Performance Rating (Appraisal)

PD= Performance Development

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study revealed that performance management practices significantly shape organizational effectiveness at the Teachers Service Commission (TSC). Performance planning emerged as a key driver, with findings showing that clear goals, structured plans, and alignment of individual tasks with organizational objectives enhanced efficiency, consistency, and effectiveness. Correlation and regression analyses confirmed a strong positive relationship, indicating that well-laid plans allow the Commission to achieve its service delivery goals more effectively.

Performance monitoring was also highlighted as critical. Employees valued continuous supervision, progress tracking, and regular feedback for fostering accountability and productivity. The statistical analyses demonstrated its strong association with organizational effectiveness, showing that systematic monitoring enables early identification of gaps, timely interventions, and optimal resource utilization. Similarly, performance rating was found to exert the strongest influence. Employees emphasized fairness and transparency in evaluations as vital for motivation, recognition, and career growth. Regression results confirmed it as the most significant predictor of

organizational outcomes, underlining its role in fostering a merit-based culture that drives commitment and accountability. Performance development also played a notable role. Training, mentoring, and professional growth opportunities were shown to build capacity, strengthen adaptability, and sustain long-term improvements. Statistical tests supported its positive relationship with organizational outcomes, stressing the importance of continuous investment in employee development.

Based on these findings, the study recommended broader research across public institutions and longitudinal approaches to capture long-term impacts. Policy frameworks should integrate planning, monitoring, rating, and development while emphasizing fairness, transparency, and adequate resourcing. In practice, TSC should institutionalize continuous training, mentoring, and monitoring systems. Finally, teacher education curricula should embed performance management principles to promote accountability and align professional ethics with institutional goals.

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