PERFORMANCE CONTRACTING AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN SELECTED KENYAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

BY

PETER, PHILIP WAMBUA
Reg.No.D86/CTY/13864/2009

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

JUNE 2014

DECLARATION

I do hereby declare that to the best of my knowledge this thesis is my original work and has not been presented in any university for any academic award.

Signature: ..... Date: 06-06-2014

Peter Philip Wambua
Reg. No.: D86/CTY/13864/2009
Department of Business Administration
School of Business, Kenyatta University

We confirm that the work reported in this thesis was carried out by the candidate under our supervision and has been submitted with our approval as university supervisors.

Signature..... Date..6/6/2014.....

Dr Gorreti Ofafa
Department of Business Administration
School of Business, Kenyatta University

Signature..... Date..6/6/2014.....

Dr Samuel C.J. Otor
Department of Environmental Sciences
School of Environmental Studies, Kenyatta University

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late grandfather Job Nzoka Kasivi, my late father Peter Kitheka Nzoka, my late brother Kyalo Kitheka, my grandmother Sarah Ngii Nzoka and mother Rose Mueni .Yes, I, will keep the fire burning.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with great pleasure and happiness that i wish to acknowledge the Almighty God for giving me strength, passion, good health and the resources to pursue this course. I appreciate my supervisors, Dr Gorretti Ofafa and Dr Samuel C.J.Otor, for their continued guidance, prompting and availability despite their busy schedule.

I take special time to also appreciate the former Dean, School of Business, the late Professor Jonathan Chege for the pressure he exerted on me with a smile on his face. The current Dean, Mr Gerald Atheru, is very much appreciated for keeping the legacy of his predecessor alive.

The former chairman, department of business administration, Mr. ShadrackBett, the current chairman, department of business administration, Dr. Stephen Muathe, the former co-ordinator of PhD programmes in the school, Dr. David Nzuki, the current co-ordinator of PhD programmes in the school ,Dr James Kilika, the former director, city campus, Dr.Charles Ombuki, my PhD lecturers in the various disciplines, and fellow students, kindly receive my acknowledgement.

I acknowledge Lillian Mulee for her tireless efforts in formatting and typing my work all the time as required. Let me also acknowledge Joe Thyaka, Simon Katumo and David Mulonzia for assisting me visit the various websites in search of the relevant academic journals. Dr Cush Ngonzo Luwesi, kindly receive my acknowledgement for editing this thesis.

Finally, let me acknowledge my family, with special emphasis to my wife, Nancy Muvengei, my daughters, Switzer and Tamar Wambua, and my sons, Beltasar and Gaspar Wambua for being there when i needed them most.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CAT	Continuous assessment tests
CCTV	Closed circuit television
DPM	Directorate of Personnel Management
ERS	Economic Recovery Strategy
GoK	Government of Kenya
ICT	Information and communication technology
IOM	Institute of Medicine
IPEs	Industrial Public Enterprises
JAB	Joint admissions board
NASPO	National Association of State Purchasing Officials
NSE	Nairobi Stock Exchange
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operative Development
OFPP	Office of Federal Procurement Policy
PC	Performance Contract
PCSC	Performance Contracts Steering Committee
PoE	Panel of Experts
PRS	Public Sector Reforms
PsC	Psychological Contract
RBM	Results Based Management
SOEs	State Owned Enterprises
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
USA	United States of America

DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Performance: The extend of the provision of service to the various stakeholders in public institutions of higher learning in respect of effectiveness, timeliness and efficiency.

Contracting: Mutual understanding and agreement in public institutions of higher learning and its stakeholders on how to deliver service within a certain time given the required resources and support.

Service: The core business of teaching, research, dissemination of knowledge and community welfare which leads to satisfaction of human needs.

Delivery: Ensuring that the service gets to the intended receiver. This can be through the various means of communication.

Service Delivery: Availing timely teaching, research information, knowledge and community welfare to the intended receiver.

Contracting Agency: The various government bodies involved in contracting in public institutions of higher learning..

Vendor: The professional and academic staff who gets involved in contract writing and provision of service in the public universities once contracted.

Psychological Contract: Individual beliefs shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organizations.

Performance Contracting: Engagement of university officers in the provision of service within a specified period and targets through mutual agreement.

ABSTRACT

Performance contracting has largely been considered as the remedy to the quality of service delivery in public universities in Kenya. However this has not been the case and therefore, this study intended to analyze the disconnect between the implementation of performance contracting as a management tool in public universities in Kenya in 2012. It specifically sought to: (i) determine the extent to which employees' teaching workload affected the level of service delivery in selected public universities in Kenya; (ii) evaluate employee's administrative work systems contribution to service delivery; (iii) examine the effect of employees' participation in community service on the quality of service delivery; and (iv) establish the relationship between organizational factors and the level of service delivery in the study area. The study used a descriptive design to describe some aspects of performance contracting and make directional predictions on its effects on the quality of service delivery by university lecturers. Empirical evidence was collected from three (3) public universities comprising 848 lecturers among the 5,630 working in the seven (7) public universities in Kenya using questionnaires. In total 142 staff members were randomly selected as questionnaire respondents. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics and a multiple regression based on a General Linear Model (GLM). The descriptive findings showed that a majority of lecturers were aware of performance contracting in their universities but understood it in different versions and terminologies. The prediction of between-subjects effects of employees' teaching workload on the level of service delivery established a strong relationship between the two at least at 90% confidence interval (CI).Moreover, the F-test confirmed at least at 90% CI that there was a strong relationship between administrative work systems and the level of service delivery, and that it was not due by mere chance. Results of objective three upholds the working hypothesis stating that employees' participation in community service was positively related to the level of service delivery at university level in Kenya. Other tests of between-subjects effects established at least at 90% CI that the level of service delivery was also significantly reliable on an organizational environment that was conducive for academic work. The study concluded that the university tangibles, and reliability of the lecturers as well as their responsiveness, assurance and empathy significantly depend on their teaching workload, administrative work systems, participation in community service and involvement in organizational matters. Hence, the researcher recommends that there should be stakeholders' consultation and involvement, proper management by objectives practices and setting of challenging and attainable targets. The universities shall endeavor to engage academic teaching staff in designing the targets of performance contracting to create their awareness and train them on the same. They shall also provide some socio-economic incentives to motivate academic teaching members of staff improve the quality of their services. The management of universities shall establish a body to develop, sustain, monitor and evaluate the performance contracting practices across public universities. It shall also extend its resources towards establishing causes of weak administrative work systems and participation in community service, which were sometimes unable to significantly explain the quality of service delivery in the selected public universities of Kenya. The researcher was able to link performance contracting to outcomes in public universities.

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

1.1.1 Performance Contracting Across the World

The office of federal procurement policy defines performance-based contracting as an approach where the statement of work is based on "objective measurable performance standards outputs" (OFPP, 1998.). In a related policy memorandum, the office further states that a performance-based contract contains "performance standards that is quality, quantity, and timeless" (OFPP, 1997). (NASPO, 1997), suggests that performance-based contracting is characterized by "specifications of the outcome, expectations of the contract and the requirement that any renewals or extension be based on the achievement of the identified outcomes".

Performance contracts have their origins in the general perception that the performance of the public sector in general, and government agencies in particular, has consistently fallen below the expectations of the public. The problems that have inhibited the performance of government agencies have been identified as excessive controls, frequent political interference, poor management and multiplicity of principals (Ahorani, 1986).

Different risks under contracting prompt public managers to implement varying monitoring procedures that may improve their ability to evaluate performance. Kettl (1993), argues that "as government's reliance on contracting out has increased, so too has its disinvestment in its own capacity". Effective monitoring may allow the government to capture the benefits of contracting while avoiding its pitfalls (Brown and Brudney, 1998; Praeger, 1994).

Martin (2002a) notes that many organizations lack clear objectives and incentives on contracting, therefore, contracting in such an environment demands the use of other

performance measures. An organization's inability to use total value as the basis for incentive contracts often leads to use of a wide array of alternative performance measures. Today, more publicly funded human services are provided via contractual arrangements that are provided directly by public employees. Performance contracting is the latest trend in public management and yet it is not self-administering, self-correcting or self-improving. This management strategy contains numerous pitfalls and to ensure that it really improves performance, public managers need strategies to avoid these pitfalls.

In the 'Evaluating the performance of public enterprises in Pakistan' World Bank report, Shirley (1989) notes that Pakistan initiated a performance evaluation system for industrial public enterprises(IPEs) in 1983, which was administered by a special unit outside the civil service. The report reiterates that the focus is on operating efficiency, not financial returns. It gives suggestions for strengthening the system in Pakistan as improving the internal operations, changes in the environment for IPEs and she concludes by saying that this would assist interested officials in other countries in terms of costs and benefits of the system.

In a related study 'Evaluating performance in the public sector' in University of Maryland, ManCur (1973) argues that governments are not famous for efficiency and that problems of inefficiency in the conduct of government programmes do not stem from the fact of 'concealed preferences'. Rather they stem from the impossibility of measuring physical output. The study states that casual observation suggests that most economists probably believe that governments are less efficient than enterprises in the market sector of the society due to red tape, cumbersome procedures and bureaucratic inflexibility.

In a study dealing with 'Performance evaluation of state-owned enterprises: a process perspective', in the United States of America, Yair (1981) notes that almost no research has been done on why state owned enterprise (SOEs) function as they do. The study recommends further research beyond the confines of traditional economics using tools

of management science to obtain insights into the difficult but salient problems of SOEs. It concludes that the problem of setting goals for SOEs remains largely unresolved, as long as there is no theory of the state, no legitimate objectives and tradeoffs, there is no way to arrive at a normative answer as to whether the performance of a certain enterprise is 'socially desirable'.

Osborne and Gaebler (1992) suggest that for a government to meet increasing demand for better service performance, it should apply the customer-driven paradigm. The approach has the following characteristics: (i) a focus on the delivery function; (ii) a focus on the empowerment of society; (iii) the application of competitive system; (iv) a focus on the accomplishment of a vision, mission, goal and objectives, (v) prioritization of the needs of society not merely the wants of political leaders; (vi) institutional rights, in certain situations to generate incomes from the service; (vii) prioritization of efforts to prevent incoming problems for the public service and use of the market system to facilitate the service.

According to Smith and Lipsky (1993), performance contract can be made to work, but there are numerous pitfalls along the way which can punish innovation and success, and can erect complex barriers to effective implementation. The study further observes that a performance contract can be a risky contract with low levels of predictability but high levels of responsibility. In social services, producing any kind of real human result is inevitably more complex than fulfilling the rules of a contract. To engage in performance contracting in order to undertake contracting that really improves performance, public agencies not only need people who can write contracts; they also need people with the capabilities; to monitor these contracts, to evaluate the data collected, to learn what is not working, to create changes that might produce improvements, and to convert these changes into new contracts. Performance contracting requires both a different government's philosophy, and government capabilities.

Hence, the fundamental principle of performance contracting is the devolved management style where emphasis is management by outcome rather than management

by process. Performance contracting includes a range of management instruments used within the public sector to define responsibilities and expectations between parties to achieve mutually agreed results (PCSC, 2005).

1.1.2 Performance Contracting in Kenya

This thesis research presented the concept of performance contracting and examined how it helps improve efficiency in organizations. The thesis suggested how the concept can assist the Kenyan government in achieving its objectives through Kenyan Public Universities. The basis of performance contracting in Kenyan Institutions of Higher learning is the Strategic Plan. The strategic objective in the strategic plan should be linked to government policy priorities and objectives as set out from time to time in policy publications as the National Development Plan and the Vision 2030.

In the Kenyan context, a performance contract is a written agreement between government and a state agency delivering services to the public wherein quantifiable targets are explicitly specified and performance measured against agreed targets. The government of Kenya guide-books on performance contracting defines it as 'management tool for measuring performance against negotiated performance targets'. Over the years, poor performance of the public sector in the management of public resources has hindered the realization of sustainable economic growth due to excessive regulations and controls, frequent political interference, poor management and bloated staff establishment. It is becoming very clear that there is a new managerial approach without which success is unlikely. Creating public information about the public sector's performance improves the quality of service (Elmore, 2007).

Obong'o (2009) notes that new performance management models have been viewed in many developing countries as the solution to reversing the falling service delivery. Kenya introduced performance contracting not only to improve service delivery but also to refocus the mind set of public service away from a culture of inward looking towards a culture of business as focused on customer and results. The push factor for introduction of performance contracting in Kenya underlies the assumption that institutions of

performance measurements, clarification of corporate objectives, customer orientation and increased focus towards incremental productivity and cost reduction can lead to improvement in service delivery (GoK, 2003).While addressing cabinet ministers and permanent secretaries at a sensitization workshop on performance contracts in the public service in 2005, the President of the Republic of Kenya noted, 'The public service is pivotal institution in our society. It is the facilitator of all national activities and provides leadership benchmark for the rest of the economy. Generally, when public service performs optimally, all other sectors perform well. An efficient and performing public service is a major factor in enhancing economic growth and prosperity'(GoK, 2005).

In 1990, the government approved the introduction of performance contracts in management of public agencies. The change of regime in 2002 and the subsequent launch of the Economic Recovery Strategy (ERS) and Employment Creation in 2004 marked a watershed for ushering the second generation reforms. In Kenya, reforms have aimed at changing the perception about government from being viewed as an obstacle to development which must be removed to seeing it as a potential solution which must be appropriately targeted. After launching ERS in 2004, the government introduced Results Based Management (RBM) the same year in the public service as a deliberate policy in order to improve performance, service delivery and governance (GoK, 2004). RBM was to help focus attention and resources on the achievement of definite objectives and targets prescribed in the ERS.

In 2003, the government made a commitment to introduce performance contracts strategy as a management tool to ensure accountability for results and transparency in the management of public resources. A performance contracts steering committee (PCSC) was established in August 2003 and gazetted on 8th April 2005 with a mandate to spearhead the introduction and implementation in the entire public sector. The steering committee developed tools and instruments for introducing, implementing and evaluating performance contracts. The inclusion of citizens' service delivery charters and customer satisfaction surveys is very significant. In addition, the PCSC carried out sensitization/training workshops targeting permanent secretaries, chairpersons, chief

executives and heads of departments

The performance contracts for the central government ministries for the financial year 2005/06 were signed at a ceremony witnessed by the President of the Republic of Kenya on 7th February 2006 (GoK, 2010).The underlying assumption driving the performance contracting concept is that, once performance can be measured and its shortfalls identified (including non-performers), actions can be taken to address these shortfalls (Jones and Thompson,2007).

Several studies have been carried out locally on performance contracting. Korir (2006) used heads of departments to fill a questionnaire, engaged them in interviews and found that performance contract should be more interactive where all the other stakeholders are included and participate in negotiation process. Results show that its implementation was caused by delays from the parent ministry and the government in signing their contractual obligations thus leading to reduced gains from performance contracts. Hence the researcher recommended that the government should promote performance contracting in state owned enterprises.

Njenga (2008) found that performance contract is a commitment between the principal and agent or management and that the management is supposed to download the contract and make those below them accountable in order to achieve the set goals. The study shows the need for further research on the existence of a relationship between the status of performance contract outputs/outcomes and the state of the management employees.

Mwaura (2009) noted that preparation and implementation of performance contract has been one of the economic and social changes introduced by the Government of Kenya in 2004/05 with the aim of improving efficiency and effectiveness in management of the public sector. The fundamental principle of performance contracting as viewed by Government of Kenya was to develop a management style in state corporations where emphasis is on 'Management by outcomes' rather than 'Management by process.

Manyura (2005) used annual reports, senior managers and directors as respondents and found that there was a positive correlation between performance and corporate governance. The study recommended that the government and other stakeholders should demand high governance practices to safeguard companies against unwarranted inefficiencies, frauds and possible collapse. In the same vein, K'angira (2008) using the Judicial staff comprising of legal and paralegal, magistrates, lawyers, law society of Kenya, Attorney General chambers and Judges as respondents, found that the main hindrance to the judicial being placed on performance contract was phobia, institutional resistance, the need to preserve the independence of the judiciary, difficulty in target setting and work on set goals. The research concluded that the judiciary has the conditions necessary for implementation of performance contracting without necessarily compromising its independence. A similar study was recommended for other government departments, including the education sector.

1.1.3 Service Delivery in the Public Sector of Kenya

Kenyan civil service is particularly embedded in bureaucracy and very few incentives are provided to encourage civil servants to generate, distribute and share knowledge and information(Ondari-Okemwa and Smith,2007).The civil service in Sub-Saharan Africa is still bureaucratic and rigid in its operations. The service is further plagued with numerous impediments that inhibit the generation and sharing of knowledge, the most severe of which are its entrenched bureaucracy, lack of incentives, cultural barriers and technology inadequacies (Ondari-Okemwa,2006). Despite these impediments, the delivery of basic government services can only be improved if the civil service were to adopt knowledge management practices that are firmly integrated into service delivery procedures.

Ondari-Okemwa (2006) further states that nobody seems to account for the knowledge that the Kenyan civil servants require for present and future needs, how to acquire that knowledge, the kind of knowledge that individual employees in the civil service possess and how to share such knowledge with others. Nobody seems to know who in the Kenyan civil services needs what knowledge, when and how such knowledge should be delivered. Many factors contribute to poor delivery of government services in Kenya and other

countries in the sub-Saharan Africa region.

The demands placed for service delivery are dictated and determined by the wider environment. As it is, civil services all over the world have to adapt themselves to a number of long term societal trends that are changing the ways in which governments are run in the 21st century. Lodge and Kalitowski (2007), identify some to the societal trends as including: globalization, demographic change, global migration flows, the information technology revolution, the greatest marketization and the blurring of boundaries between the public and private, a less deferential and trusting citizenry, rising public expectations of government, a more intrusive mass media, increasing numbers of the so-called 'wicked problems' that require joined-up cross-boundary responses, and problems that can only be addressed through co-production and behaviour change.

According to Pinchot and Pinchot (1993), institutions are changing as the relationship between employee and employer alters in deep and permanent ways in response to the need for all to contribute their intelligence, creativity and responsibility to society. It is now expected that employees – both in the public and private sectors – should be innovative, care for customers, work in teams and collaborate with others as well as follow their own initiative rather than just follow orders.

The 21st century African public service has to be a learning organization, a learning organization in which people at all levels, individually and collectively, are continually increasing their capacity to produce results they really care about, where the organization encourages new ways of thinking, where the collective vision of creating the best is liberated and where everybody continuously learns how to learn together. According to O'Hare (2002), the emerging knowledge society presents a set of new imperatives for governments and new challenges and opportunities for society as a whole. While knowledge and its management has generally been credited with improving productivity and establishing more effective management and government service delivery to citizens in the developed world, this has not been the case with Kenya and many other countries in sub-Saharan Africa.

Through the public service, every government strives to deliver basic services as effectively as possible. The delivery of basic services may relate to improving the economic infrastructure, improving efficiency and effectiveness, and establishing a business-friendly environment by reducing the cost of setting up and doing business. Government-owned corporations often serve as levers that open growth potential and create macro-economic stability. Riley (2003), however contends that in the recent years there has been much talk of public cynicism towards politicians and public officials.

According to Riley (2003) much of this cynicism is based, amongst others, on a lack of knowledge and understanding of the inner working of government, a lack of communication that keeps people informed and governments' failure to engage the ordinary citizens in public policy development. In Kenya members of the public are rarely involved or consulted in matters of public policy formulation or implementation. This is directly related to a culture of secrecy that is still prevalent in government series in many countries in Africa. This is exemplified by the Swahili word for government, which is *serekali* and which when translated means "top secret" (Ondari – Okemwa, 2004)

The study conducted by Ondari – Okemwa (2006), clearly indicates that Kenya has not as yet effectively integrated knowledge management into its government agencies, and that as a consequence the delivery of basic government services is generally not at required levels in terms of quality, efficiency and transparency.

Within any bureaucratic structure, such as predominates in the public sector, there is an unspoken motivation not to share knowledge, since according to Weber (1978), the power of any bureaucracy rests upon two types of knowledge: "technical know-how" and "official information". The investigation by Ondari – Okemwa (2006) indicates that these scenarios are particularly prevalent in Kenya and that is not uncommon for civil servants to hoard information and call it "classified information" or an "official government secret". This research further points out that the Kenyan civil service is not geared towards involving its citizens in policy development and in preparing them to become effective policy partners. Policies are formulated and implemented by government policy

makers without any input from the citizenry. As a consequence, ordinary citizens are unaware of the effect that the policies that have been promulgated have on their lives.

Heck and Rogger (2004) suggest that the introduction of e-governance enables public administrations to move towards more customer-centred services as it brings with it a redistribution of tasks and hence of knowledge. It was observed that the Kenyan civil service is not particularly customer-centred and that service delivery is of uneven quality and availability. Citizens receive services as and when the civil servants have the time and ability to render them, service delivery is often delayed and of a poor quality.

The Kenyan public administration is still entrenched in traditional bureaucratic procedures where staff is not given due recognition for their professionalism and knowledge, and where innovation, knowledge generation and leadership are not rewarded. The environment in the public service of Kenya does not therefore encourage employees to acquire, share and manage knowledge at individual and departmental levels.

According to Barnard et al. (2003) in a developing context, cultural factors are particularly important for the successful deployment of most electronic services. Kenya is a developing nation and has not as yet fully adapted to the electronic environment.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The Kenyan government introduced Performance contracting in 1990 as one of the management tools to improve transparency, accountability and service delivery in all public institutions, universities included. The management of the Kenyan state corporations was previously dogged by political interference, tribal, ethnic and political patronage issues affecting appointments to the running of state corporations. This resulted in poor public governance, wastage and misuse of public resources and hence poor performance. Hence, performance contracting was needed as part of the reforms to improve transparency, accountability and service delivery in the Kenyan public sector. Yet, the Kenyan public service is particularly not customer-centered and service delivery is not often of required levels in terms of quality, efficiency and transparency (Ondari-Okemwa, 2006). Thus, there seems to be a disconnect between the public service and its

members of staff in the implementation of this management tool. The setting of targets is not done through discussions and agreements between individual staff members and the state corporation's management; and there is hardly any feedback and reward to the staff members at the end of each and every financial year in respect of what they achieved, their areas of weakness and recommendations therein towards service delivery.

It is against this background that the government of Kenya constituted a Panel of Experts (PoE) on the 6th of May 2010 to review performance contracting and evaluation in the public service with a view of making appropriate recommendations to the government for improving the system (GoK, 2010). In completion of its task, the panel gave a set of critical recommendations to support further thinking, discussion and action by the government to improve the management and implementation of performance contracting within governmental agencies. The panel further noted that there is a disparity between performance contracting and other performance management tools and that there is neither an adequate linkage between performance contracting and the national priorities. It recommended that there is a need to improve the current performance contracting matrix as it does not clearly capture the performance of the public service institutions. Has the implementation of these recommendations improved performance contracting and service delivery in public universities? This study endeavoured to address this gap in knowledge by examining performance contracting and service delivery in public universities in Kenya to enable them remain relevant in the pivotal areas of teaching, administration work systems and community service.

1.3 General Objective

The general objective of the study was to determine the relationship of performance contracting and service delivery in selected public universities in Kenya in 2012.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were as follows:

(i) To determine the extent to which employees' teaching workload affect the level of service delivery in selected public universities in Kenya;

(ii) To evaluate employee's administrative work systems' contribution to the quality of service delivery;

(iii) To examine the effect of employees' participation in community service on the level of service delivery; and

(iv) To establish the relationship between organizational factors and the quality of service delivery in the study area.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

In order to interrogate the nexus between performance contracting and service delivery in the public universities in Kenya, the following research hypotheses were tested.

i) **Ha**: There is a positive relationship between employee's teaching workload and the level of Service delivery in Public Universities in Kenya.

ii) **Ha**: Employee's administrative work systems have a positive effect on the level of service delivery in Public Universities in Kenya.

iii) **Ha:** Employee's participation in community service is positively related to level of service delivery in Public Universities in Kenya.

iv) **Ha**: The organisation has a positive relationship to the level of service delivery by employees in Public Universities in Kenya.

1.5 Significance of the study

The university management and staff will find it of great value in day to day operations. Most of those employed would therefore be more accountable and sensitive to various needs of the society. The government, and especially the education sector, will benefit immensely from this study. Since the introduction of structural adjustment programmes in the early 1990's, it is the interest of the government to keep on cutting down on cost by employing efficiency and effectiveness. To the donors, the study would serve as a way of monitoring whether the funds they grant is properly managed. The main interest would be to establish whether those who have been appointed to manage these grants

have the necessary managerial skills. It will also be important to scholars and other researchers in institutions of higher learning who would be interested in carrying out further research.

1.6 Scope of the study

The study covered the government funded (public) institutions of higher learning that were operating in the year 2012. This consisted of the seven (7) Public Universities as captured by the Joint Admissions Board (JAB), Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KSCE) 2010 guidelines.

1.7 Limitations of the study

Access to reliable information is generally the greatest limitation to any scientific study. During the administration of the questionnaires, some respondents were unwilling to cooperate while others did not willfully provide accurate information. Uncooperative respondents were assured of confidentiality of the information provided while inaccurate information was detected during the pre-processing phase of data analysis. This helped mitigating the effect of biasness on results presented in this thesis.

On the other end, geographical dispersion of the public universities in Kenya was another limiting factor to the study outcome. The seven (7)public universities were not near to each other. To reduce the cost of the study and avoid much delay, the researcher decided to select respondents from only three (3) major universities among them, namely the University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University and Moi University. However, the management of the University of Nairobi denied the researcher access to carry out the study therein (Appendix III). Hence, the researcher opted for Maseno University. To overcome tiredness and the high demand of energy, the researcher also engaged the service of research assistants in administration of the questionnaires and data collection in general.

1.8 Organization of the Thesis

This Thesis was organized in five chapters. Chapter one, comprised: background of the study, performance contracting in Kenya, statement of the problem, general objective, specific objectives, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, and limitations of the study. Chapter two introduced the literature review, and did a critique on theoretical and empirical. Chapter three had research methodology covering, research design, the target population, sampling design, validity of research instrument, reliability of research instrument, data collection and data analysis and presentation. In chapter four the data was analysed and interpreted using both descriptive findings and hypothesis tests as per the objectives. Chapter five dwelt on the summary, conclusion, recommendations and areas of further research as per the findings in chapter four.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the concept of performance contracting in view of theoretical and empirical examination, its basis, and performance in public sector. The chapter, further, considers the philosophy, paradigms, the emerging issues, as well as the performance contracting process, organization, assessment and paradoxical nature.

2.2 Theoretical Review

2.2.1 Expectancy Theories

Expectancy theories suggest that people will be motivated when they expect that their efforts will result in desirable outcomes (Denhardt, 2008). These theories hold that people exert effort, they engage in rational calculation of expected performance and rewards and an assessment of how much those rewards matter to them. According to Vroom (1964) there are three concepts quite important in understanding human motivation: valence, expectancy, and force. Valence is the strength of a person's desire for a particular outcome. Expectancy is the association that a person makes between actions and outcomes. The combination of valence and expectancy results in the motivational "force on a person to perform an act''. Porter and Lawler (1968) refined Vroom's theory and suggested that over and above employees effort, two other factors of employees' ability and role clarity need to be considered.

Expectancy theories, further, suggest that if people believe that they possess the skills and abilities needed, that their hard work will result in good performance, that their performance will be rewarded and that if they want that reward, then they will be more likely to exert the required effort. Expectancy theories suggest that motivations can be enhanced, firstly, by managers choosing the rewards or outcomes that are of value to a particular worker or groups of workers, secondly, by managers working to change the expectancy of existing outcomes so that the link between hard work and rewards is

strengthened, and thirdly, managers attempting to change the valence of existing outcomes. This research has assessed different ways of increasing the strength of employees' desire in public universities for service delivery, notably by setting achievable targets, while their expectancy would be increased and sustained through appropriate reward systems.

2.2.2 Goal Setting Theories

As Locke (1978) pointed out, 'Goal setting is recognized, explicitly or implicitly, by virtually every major theory of work motivation'. During the 1960s, Locke(1968) did a series of laboratory experiments demonstrating that individuals who were assigned difficult goals performed better than those who were assigned easy or moderately easy goals. The idea behind goal-setting theories is that goals motivate people because they compare people's current performance with the level of performance required to meet the goal. If their current performance falls short, then people will feel dissatisfied and will work harder to achieve the goals. In review of 87 studies on goal setting as motivational technique, there was strong empirical support for the idea that goals that are difficult and specific work better than goals that are not challenging and are stated in general terms (Tubbs,1986).Eden(1988) suggested that goal setting and expectancy theories are compatible approaches to increasing motivation. This study therefore evaluated strategies of engaging university academic teaching members of staff on strict deadlines, timeliness and continuous improvement which could be geared to ensuring that the previous performance of the employees was considered and put into perspective so as to act as a base for setting the current targets.

2.2.3 Outcomes Theory

Duignan (2011) in his outcomes theory provides an integrated perspective on the functioning and optimal design of outcomes system, which attempts to specify or measure targets to organizations. This theory has the features of influencability, controllability, measurability, attributability and accountability, which enables one to be very clear about the type of outcomes to allow into outcome models. Outcome model

standards sets out the basis of any systematic outcome analysis and considers outcomes not activities, cascading set of causes in the real world, keeping outcomes short, putting outcomes in a hierarchical order, keeping measurements/indicators separate from the outcomes they are attempting to measure, putting value in front of the outcome and including both high-priority and lower priority outcomes. The researcher conceptualized the set of issues common across outcome system, which include strategic planning, managing for outcomes, monitoring, performance management, programme evaluation, evidence-based practice, delegation, reporting and accountability arrangements.

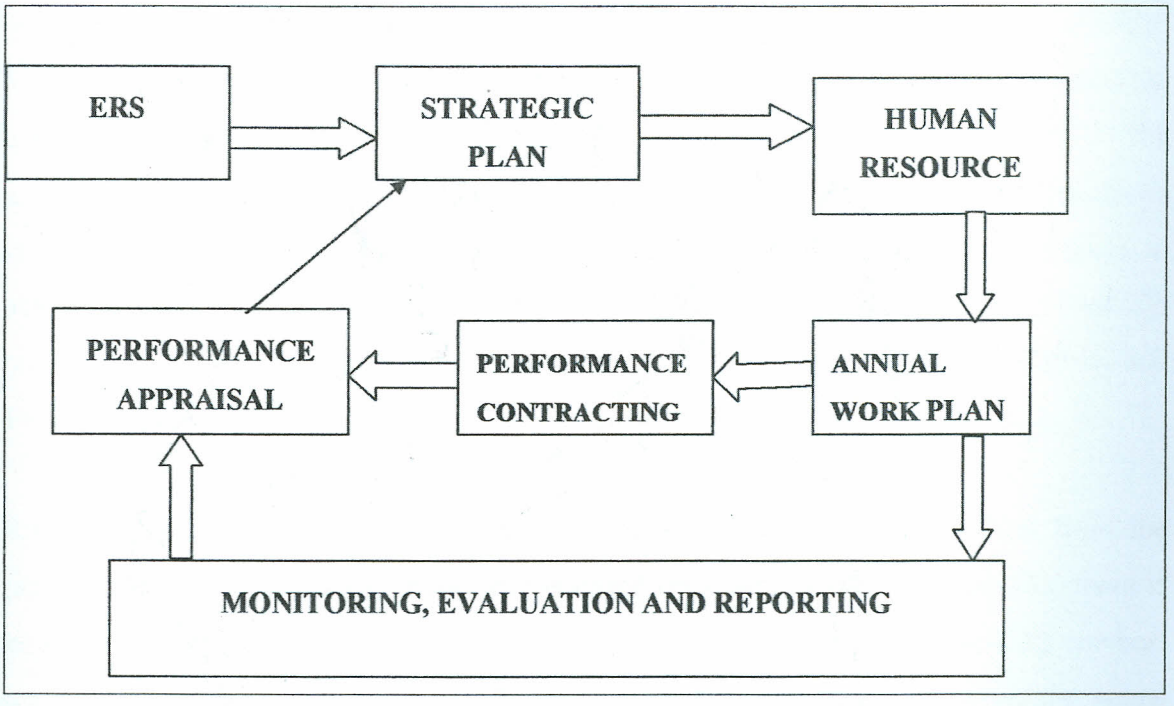

Figure 2.1: An Outcome System Model

Source: Researcher (Adopted from Kobia and Nura, 2006)

Figure 2.1 above, illustrates that in order to provide a mechanism that supports the achievement of Economic Recovery Strategy(ERS) and achievement of Millenium Development Goals(MDG's),all ministries and public universities must develop a strategic plan and strive to achieve their mission and objectives. Individuals derive work plans from the strategic plan. It is this work plan that forms the basis for the performance contract, which is then implemented and evaluated, and the information used to inform decisions on performance improvement

2.3 Empirical Literature

2.3.1 Performance Contracting

2.3.1.1 Performance Contracting Process

Performance contracts are designed to give private providers better financial incentives to provide care to high-priority state clients, in a cost-effective manner. The continuation of funding or the level of funding is tied to specific treatment process and or outcomes. The Institute of Medicine (IOM) (1990) called performance contracting one of "the keys to upgrading drug treatment and introducing it permanently into the mainstreams of health and human services". Performance contracting primarily focuses on results, on achieving a specific purpose. The new philosophy of performance contracting is based on the assumption that an effective way to get a contractor to help accomplish a specific purpose is to pay that contractor only when they actually do something that contributes to achieving that purpose. A performance contract only pays for the production of specific results rather than paying for using specific inputs or specific processes (Robert and Peter, 1999).

Robert and Peter (1999) argue that performance contracting is not derived from the principles of scientific management, but is based on a contradictory assumption; there is no one best way for all times and all circumstances. And if there was a separate one best way for each circumstance and each time, people are far removed from the actual delivery of the service. Advocates of performance contracting assume that there may well be many different ways to achieve any specific purpose under any specific circumstances at any particular time. They further assume that the best way to motivate the people who will implement the one way that will be employed is to let them design it. These implementers will be willing to devote the energy and intelligence necessary to make their own idea work.

Focus on performance, changes the relationship between the contracting agency and the vendor. The primary responsibility of both is to produce the specified results. The vendor wants to be paid. And the government agency will not be evaluated on whether the

vendor meets the formal qualifications, completes all the paperwork, or employs approved technologies but on whether the vendor produces results. Thus performance contracts can encourage government agencies to work co-operatively with their vendors to do what is necessary to achieve the results specified in the contract.

Typical contracts are incomplete due to bounded rationality, which limits individual information seeking (Simon, 2006) and a changing organizational environment that makes all conditions impossible to specify up front (Williamson, 1983). Both the employee and employer are left to fill in the blanks and they do so in somewhat unpredictable ways. Contracts become self-organizing. People working with a contract work more efficiently and with less supervision than if there were no contracts. An organization is a free society requiring a committed work-force. Organizations in a turbulent environment require contracts flexible enough to change without breaking.

Critical legal scholars have acknowledged that all contracts are psychological (McNeill, 1994).Contracts provide an intuitively appealing way to describe employment relations. Contracts may include written terms, orally communicated terms as well as other expressions of commitment and future intent. Table 2.1 shows the types of contract in an organization which fall 'within' and 'outside' perspectives and which are psychologically influenced.

Table 2.1: Types of Contracts Level

Perspective	*Individual /Psychological*	*Group*
Within	Beliefs regarding promise made, accepted and relied on	What emerges when members of a social group hold common beliefs
Perspective	*Implied*	*Social*
Outside	Interpretations that third parties make.	Broad beliefs in obligation associated with societal culture.

Source: Rousseau (1995)

In making of a contract there is individual and group level which is considered by organizations for the purpose of service delivery. The outside perspective of contracting making considers what the third party's interpretation would be and the broader beliefs associated with the culture. As such, the performance contract is influenced psychologically. The psychological contract is individual beliefs shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organizations. They have the power of self-fulfilling prophecies. They can create the future.

Basic models of motivation, expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) or operational conditioning (Skinner, 2006) maintain that employees behave in ways they expect to produce positive outcomes. Unless outcomes are seen as beneficial, there is no motivation to make or comply with a contract. People will resist change in a contract that creates losses. Figure 2.2presents performance contracting as a process in which the agency has to draft the performance contract contents.

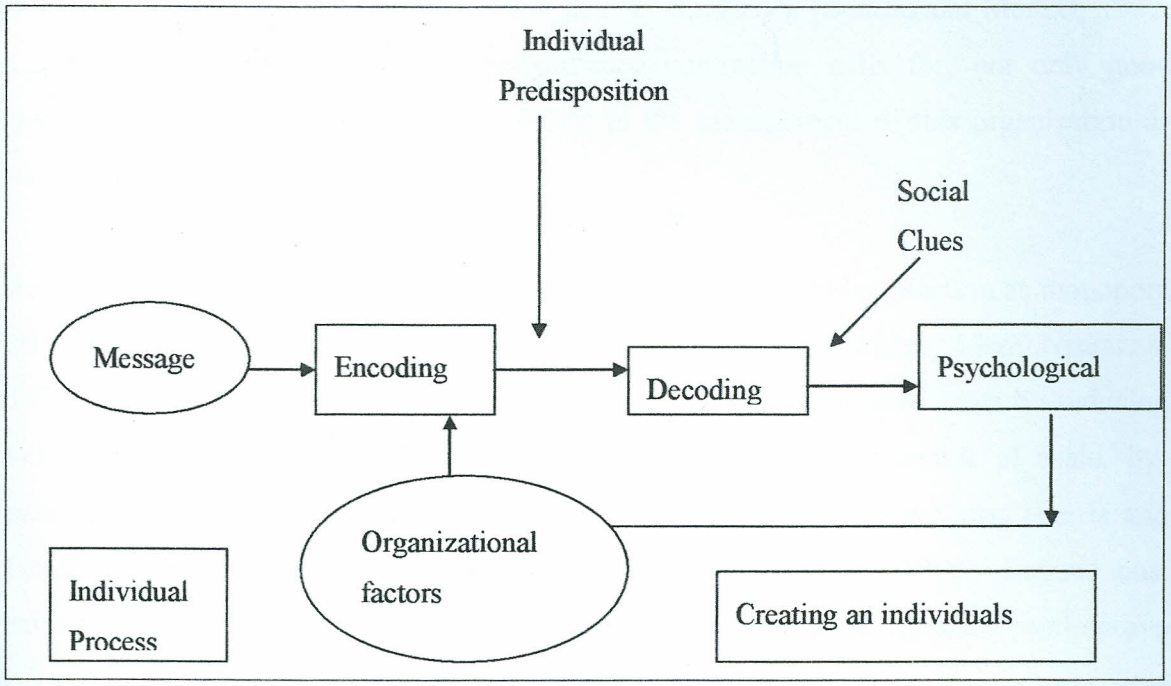

Figure 2.2: Contract Making Process
Source: Rousseau (1995)

Once this has been done, the contents are communicated to vendor who reads and makes a decision after considering various aspects of the wider society. It is upon the vendor to psychologically prepare themselves so as to accept or reject the performance contract based on the particular organization. How do university lecturers individually make independent decisions about their performance contracts and communicate this information to the university management? This study will unveil that aspect.

2.3.1.2 Organization of Performance Contracting

While in-house production remains the primary means through which governments deliver goods and services (Warker,2001), contracting with non-profits, private, and other public organizations takes a strong second (Larvery, 1999) and the frequency of contracting continues to increase (Greene,1996).Governments today contract for educational services, policing, refuse collection, social services and information technology (Behn and Kant, 1999). A range of factors influence the use of contracting as an alternative to in-house production including fiscal pressures, annexation restrictions, political forces, bureaucratic routines and market conditions (Benton and Menzel, 1992; Carver, 1989; Hirsch,1995).Thus, performance contracting calls for, not only good organizational structures, but also flexibility in the management of this organization as well as the award of contracted targets.

Potential benefits of contracting begin where government agencies function as monopoly service providers and conditions favour external production (Landau, 1969; Niskanen, 1971; Savas, 1989; Weimer and Vining, 1992). Contracting can save costs by reducing bureaucratic inefficiencies, allowing governments to access economies of scale, by-passing costly labour and supply requirements and generating competition (Ferris and Graddy, 1991; Mueller, 1989; Ostrom and Ostrom,1977; Stein, 1990). Beyond cost saving and efficiency, some also argue, that outsourcing peripheral functions can improve organizational flexibility and overall performance by allowing managers to focus on core activities (O'Leary, 1996; Stoker, 1997).

Coase (1937) and Williamson (1985), argue that organizations' decisions about

internalizing production or externalizing production through contracting reflect the relative costs of the traditional production factors-fixed assets, labour and capital – and transaction costs or "….. the comparative costs of planning, adapting and monitoring task completion under alternative governments structures" (Williamson,1985).When governments can write detailed contracts describing exactly what actions the vendor should take and what the outcome the vendor should achieve, the risk of contract failure are low and consequently the transaction costs inherent in negotiating, implementing and monitoring a contract relationship are low.Brown and Potoski (2001) note that governments have been shown to be more likely to contract under less risky circumstances. However, real world complexities and uncertainties in social interaction often exceed governments' ability to predict future events, specify contract provisions for all circumstances and ensure that outcomes match specified objectives.

"Contracting out is in" (Chi,1993). All sorts of governments are contracting for all sorts of goods and services. The public sector contracts with the private and non-profit sectors for the design, construction and maintenance of roads and bridges (ibid);for the production of nuclear weapons (Kettl, 1993); for the management of prisons and the delivery of services within prisons (Allen, 1989); for information technology (Globerman and Vining, 1996); for educating, training and placing in jobs, welfare recipients and displaced workers (Chi and Devlin, 1989); for child support enforcement (US General Accounting Office , 1995, 1997) and for host of other social services (Smith and Lipsky 1993). Eighty percent of the largest cities in the United States contract out vehicle towing and half contract out solid waste collection (Dilger et al., 1997).

"The government does not think of making pencils. It buys them" (Kettl, 1993). In fact,the USA government had defence contracts before it had a constitution. "Almost everything can be and has been contracted out". Conventional contracts between government agencies and their vendors sought to regulate, often in incredible detail the behaviour of each vendor. Behind this contracting strategy, there were a number of important assumptions. There was one best way to fulfill the purpose of the contract, the government knowing exactly what this one best way was, and it was capable of

specifying in contract language all the relevant details of this one best way.

People think contractually, interpreting statements and behaviours as promises and commitments to be relied on what they understand these commitments to be, is shaped by both personal beliefs and social processes. Just as the concept of a goal in hockey can be defined only against the background of the rules of the game so the concept of a contract can be understood only when viewed in the context of the organizations setting and specifics of the situation (Atiyah, 1981). This study sensed the organizational environment and its flexibility in terms of mediating factors affecting the quality of service delivery in public universities of Kenya. Major factors identified in literature include: initiation of new academic programmes, strengthening of academic processes, enhancement of individual autonomy, greater automation of academic work, better utilization of academic resources, better customer service, focused and deliberate planning, better unit cost management, and freedom to take and manage risks. The following sub-sections focus on measures used by public universities to assess the performance of the academic teaching staff, namely: teaching workload, administrative work system and community service.

2.3.1.3 Teaching Workload

Traditionally, universities have defined the role of academic staff to three domains of teaching, research, and service with primary emphasis placed upon the teaching and research aspects and secondary upon service or administration (Houston et al., 2006). University academic staff do complex work in an increasingly demanding environment. Universities are the only organizations focused on dual core functions of knowledge creation and knowledge transmission through the processes of research and teaching (Romainville,1996).The work life of university academic staff is predominantly framed and shaped by commitments and performance in these functions.

Jenkins (2004) noted existing evidence that commitments to teaching and research can be synergistic and complementary or antagonistic and competing. He argued that the relationship between research, teaching, broader work expectations, and rewards need to

be defined and managed at the institutional, departmental, and individual levels to avoid potentially undesirable effects and counterproductive behaviours. Harman (2001; 2002; 2003) investigated changes in academic staff roles in Australian universities across 20-year period based on survey data gathered in 1977 and again in 1997.Leslie (2002) found that salary and job satisfaction were uncorrelated and that faculty (who spent the majority of their time teaching) reported a preference for being rewarded for teaching effectiveness.

Kerr (1975) noted that ''society hopes that (university) teachers will not neglect their teaching responsibilities but rewards them almost entirely for research and publications, consequently it is rational for university teachers to concentrate on research, even to the detriment of teaching and at the expense of their students''. McInnes (1999; 2000) found that level of commitment remains high with academic staff attributing this to intrinsic motivators rather than extrinsic factors such as salary and working conditions. Challenge, variety, and autonomy are key elements of the academic staff to engage in core activities such as critical thinking, reflection, and collegial interactions in the context of disciplinary interests and expertise (Winter et al.,2000).Flexibility and autonomy are key factors in becoming and remaining an academic (Bellamy et al., 2003).

In New Zealand, tertiary reforms have sought to refine the role of higher education and define university linkages to enhance national economic development and to make universities more accountable to government, students as consumers, and the public generally (Patterson,1996),while subjecting them to more centralized control mechanism. Where pursuit of the knowledge society has resulted in increased pressures and performance expectations, workloads of academic staff have been affected directly. Coaldrake and Stedman (1999) noted that as academic work expanded to meet growing expectations, universities and individual academics have responded through ''accumulation and accretion'' rather than adaptation. McInnes (2000) highlighted the need to investigate workloads issues such as increased stress on staff, development of creative solutions to ameliorate problems, and ''sustaining the primary sources of work satisfaction that best promote quality''. Coaldrake and Stedman (1999) noted that ''until

recently the effect of change in academic work has been a blind spot in policy terms for many universities... and it remains so for most''.

In the 1990's,research reports commissioned by university staff unions raised concerns regarding workloads and levels of stress (Sullivan,1997).Chalmers (1998) found that many staffers were reporting increased stress associated with the academic work and more-work-related illness or injuries in comparison to previous years. Consequently, workload systems management has increasingly been a factor in recent contract negotiations and collective employment agreements. This study filled major gaps in knowledge pertaining to factors accrue to teaching workload in Kenyan universities. These include nine (9) following factors: demand of courses offered; student enrollment; timeliness of graduation; number of graduates; teaching methodologies effectiveness and efficiency; customer complaints; customer compliments; timeliness of examinations; and timeliness of release of results.

2.3.1.4 Administrative Work Systems

Meeting challenges to deliver outputs and outcomes while simultaneously preserving valued process and academic discourse is a complex balancing act (Houston et al., 2006).The complex and volatile environment of higher education sector is examined by many, noting its challenges (Middlehurst,2004) and the need to provide strategic vision while tackling the increasing managerialism (Shattock,2003).The different styles of leadership and their appropriate usage have been much debated (Schein,1988;Bensimon,1989;Middlehurst,1993;Bargh et al.,2000).Barnett (2003) felt leadership could help to promote ideological inclusivity through opening the debate between the competing ideologies of research and teaching. The area of day to day leadership can be related to the issue of workload balancing and allocation, where it is felt that much of the responsibility falls on heads of schools or departments. There are difficulties to these managers due to issues such as their, often, temporary position and limited management training (Davies,1995),and their dual identity, acting both as manager and colleague (Middlehurst,1993; Gmelch and Burns,1994; Jackson,1999; Archer,2005).

In the context of university academic staff who are lecturers charged with the duty of teaching, research and publications there has been an increasing tendency to assign them duties to manage the various activities of the universities. This has led to increased responsibility and has led to more pressure on the lecturers to deliver in the different positions in which they serve. Due to so much expectation from the top management there has been a lot of pressure on the particular individual lecturers and this has led to more effort being dedicated so as to meet the various targets set. In some instances the targets are not achieved and this leads to frustrations on both the staff and the top management. The researcher of this study also identified other gaps in the knowledge of administrative work system in Kenyan universities, which were filled by assessing such factors as: Employees' recognition, training, development, working facilities, medical coverage, working relations, working rules and regulations, take home package, out-of-office team building activities, and assignment of other duties.

2.3.1.5 Community Service

It is now well known and well documented that higher education institutions world-wide currently face considerable challenges in relation to rapidly changing global conditions. A major focus of attention in current higher education policy is on the adaptive responses which institutions are making to the rapid changes in political-economic and social relations. Higher education is being challenged to become more responsive to societal needs and to emerge from its myopic absorption with the detached concerns of ivory tower academia (Subotzky,1999).This has led to emergence of the 'market' or 'entrepreneurial' university characterized by closer university-business partnerships, faculty responsibility for accessing external sources of funding, and by a managerialist ethos in institutional governance, leadership, and planning

Globalization has had a profound impact on both business and higher education. Recent developments in information technology and the need for flexibility and innovative responsiveness to rapidly changing market conditions have significantly altered patterns of production, research and development. This has influenced the production of

knowledge and, in turn, higher education (Gibbons et al.,1994;Kraak, 1995;Schuler, 1995;Walshock,1996;Gibbons,1997;Scott,1997;Slaughter and Leslie, 1997;Curne and Vidovich,1998;Polster and Newson,1998). The production of new knowledge is increasingly occurring within new forms of social organization. As Kraak (1997) observes, 'it is this critical nexus between knowledge, innovation and co-operation which provides a new perspective on higher education's relationship with society and the economy'

Globalization is widely seen to be the outcome of doctrines aimed at the hegemonic interests of world capitalism (Smyth,1995;Chomsky,1997;Kraak,1997;Orr,1997).As Tierney and Kempner (1997) argue, the local political-economic context and culture provide the key to understanding the characteristics of national higher education system. Understanding a nation's educational structures and policies depends on looking for deeper cultural explanations of its social structures, its political economy and its position in global relations. Tierney (1996) argues that 'knowledge is a social construct dependent upon institutional and national contexts, as well as the discipline and profession'. The cultural context of a specific environment directly shapes organizational culture, structure, functions and practices in the academy in that particular society. It is in this light that the relevance, purpose, and quality of higher education can be approached not in relation to abstract universals, but rather in terms of its contextualized fitness to purpose in relation to national development priorities and higher education policy goals.

Developments in higher education have given rise to the 'entrepreneurial' or 'market' university(Dill,1997;Orr,1997;Slaughter and Leslie,1997;Tierney,1997).This has changed not only the epistemological and organizational forms of knowledge, but also the role of the state in relation to higher education (Kraak, 1997;Scott,1997).In response to constrained fiscal conditions and increased competition, many institutions have positioned themselves strategically to succeed in this increasingly entrepreneurial environment to maintain a competitive edge, as trends in innovative universities bears out (Clark,1995; 1997; 1998). Academics across the world are now faced with developing skills in interdisciplinary and team project management and networking, and in dealing

with the media and an increasingly better informed general public. Management strongly encourages entrepreneurial activities among faculties.

Gibbons (1998) argues that during the past two decades, a 'new economically-oriented paradigm of the function of higher education in society has gradually emerged'. The best universities will have to adjust from being adept producers of knowledge to being creative reconfigurers of knowledge in solving increasingly complex problems. It can and should be oriented towards partnerships aimed at community development so as to actualize the institution mission of community service in an effective way. Gibbons drives home the point that universities are 'now only one knowledge producing agency amongst many in an economic order where knowledge and skill are the principal commodities being traded'. In order to remain relevant, they will have to adapt themselves to play a collaborative role within a larger and more complex environment.

In response to the evidence of growing disparity between ivory tower academic norms and societal needs, the contribution of higher education towards the public good and social development is being rigorously reviewed (Fairweather,1996;Tierney,1997).This concern has been accompanied by a new emphasis on the policy dimension of research, on establishing collaborative linkages with government and the private sector, and on the reappraisal of the service and outreach function of higher education (Terenzini,1996;Keller,1998).There has also been concern expressed about the need to reclaim the meaning of academic autonomy away from ivory tower abstraction to one accords with the spirit of civic responsibility (Polster and Newson,1998).

Braskamp and Wergin (1997), argue that, given the array of social fragmentation in the environment, 'higher education today has an opportunity unique in its history to contribute to our society'. They state that there is an increasing pressure to bridge the gap between higher education and society and become active partners in addressing and solving our social ills. Higher education, in their view, will enhance its usefulness to society by, ''becoming a forum for critical community dialogues, by advancing practice-based knowledge and policies as well as upholding the creation of theory-based

knowledge, and by utilizing faculty expertise in new ways''. As an increasingly important means of attempting to realize the social purpose of higher education, community service learning has seen a rapid growth in recent times (Bringle and Hatcher, 1996;Ward and Wolf-Wendel,1997).

The current challenge is to transform community service into activities appropriate to an academic institution. The main task is to ensure that knowledge is formally produced and disseminated (Kraak and Watters, 1995).Clark (1998) suggests that the 21st century workforce will demand complex problem-solving skills amidst growing uncertainty. To this end, a fundamental shift is necessary for academics from seeing the role of the university as providing applied knowledge to help in the solution of problems, to one in which the university is jointly responsible for social change in partnership with relevant bodies in the community. Under this new social contract the institution becomes an advocate for social justice (Braskamp and Wergin,1997).

This study assessed how Kenyan public universities apply the customer-driven paradigm to remain relevant and meet the increasing demand for better service delivery performance at required levels of quality, efficiency and transparency. The research conducted during this study filled major gaps in knowledge with regards to teaching staff participation to community service in Kenyan universities. These include factors such as: employees' payment, continuous training, development programme, working facilities, promotion, performance targets, administrative and scholarly awards, academic titles, posting, leave of absence, and educational programmes for supporting their dependants.

2.3.2 Basis of Performance Contracting

Performance contracts first emerged in Europe in the 1960s and 1970s, in the context of high inflation and unemployment, when corporative governments such as French and the United Kingdom (UK) used public enterprises to counter these problems (UN, 2006). In 1967, the 'Nora Report' proposed 'Contracts de Programme' for the French Government. The first 'Contracts de Programme' in France were signed in 1970 between the French government and both the national railway company and the electricity utility company .

In 1978, a 'white paper' in UK required all nationalized industries to formalize their relations with government through corporate plans and to develop performance criteria to supplement their financial returns (UN, 2006). Other countries have followed in signing Performance Contracts with their state owned enterprises.

It is a requirement that all Kenyan public institutions prepare performance contracts based on the strategic plans. The strategic plan is the cornerstone for the implementation of a performance contract. The strategic objective in the strategic plans of public institutions should be linked to government policy priorities and objectives as set out from time to time, in such policy publications as the National Development Plan and the Vision 2030.

Information available in the Prime Minister's Office of the Republic of Kenya shows that performance contracts in institutions of higher learning in the country are signed between the Government of Kenya (GoK) through the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology and Council of the Universities. The performance contract spells out, the vision, mission, and strategic objectives, commitment and responsibilities of the university council, commitment and obligation of the government, frequency of monitoring and information flow and the duration of the contract. The performance matrix considers indicators of service delivery as, implementation of service delivery charter, customer satisfaction, service delivery innovations and resolutions of public complaints.

2.3.3 Performance Contracting in the Public Sector

The shift from conventional contracting or what we call regulatory contracting to performance contracting is significant. It reflects changes in the basic role of the contract, in the assumptions on which the contract is based, in the incentives that the contract seeks to create, and in the expectations of the various parties. There is an inherent tension, argues Donahue (1989), between pay for activity and pay for results. The traditional regulatory contract specifies, precisely how the vendor should do things. In contrast, a performance contract only specifies what results the vendor should produce, giving the

vendor the flexibility to determine how best to produce and then pays the vendor only when it has been successful. For example, Smith and Lipsky (1993) report that in recent years, some states have implemented performance-based contracting with community mental health centres by rewarding them for good performance on key indicators such as the number of hospitable diseases prevented.

Conventional contracts between government agencies and their vendors seek to regulate carefully – often in incredible detail – the behaviour of each vendor. Behind this contracting strategy are a number of important (if only implicit) assumptions; there is one best way to fulfill the purpose of the contract government knows exactly what this one best way is, and government is capable of specifying, in contract language, all the relevant details of this one best way. A regulatory contract may specify how many people with which kind of skills must be hired by the vendor; what technologies, techniques and materials the vendor must use; and when particular activities prescribed in the contract must be completed.

Regulatory contracting is based on one more important assumption, that is, the vendor will seek to cheat the government in every possible way at every possible moment. Thus, the task of those writing the government contract is to identify all the possible ways in which the vendor will cheat and then to insert clauses into the contract to proscribe such behaviour. Then, as vendors invent new ways of cheating, governments write new boilerplate clauses to prevent such behaviour, and therefore the length, detail and complexity (and thus, obtuseness) of the contracts grow. In Massachusetts, USA, one appeals court judge called the state's law, that regulates the contracting process for constructing public buildings, "labyrinthine and mind numbing" (Rakowsky, 1997).

In addition, regulatory contracting is based on the assumption that, if given the opportunity, the government official will collude with the vendor for personal gain. Kelman (1990) calls this "the fear of discretion" – the fear that a government contractor, if not constrained by detailed rules, will select the vendor on some basis other than merit. But even if the twin fears of vendor cheating and government discretion are the driving

motivations behind regulatory contracting, the nature of the detailed regulations would make little sense were it not for our unconscious acceptance that there is indeed one best way to carry out government contracts and that government can figure this out.

As a result of these assumptions and concerns, the traditional process for entering into a government contract is highly regulated – all to ensure that public officials, as well as vendors, do not cheat the government. The routine of letting the contract is highly competitive - blindly competitive – and the procedure for administering the contract can become quite adversarial. Nobody has sought to create such a highly adversarial system; rather it is an inevitable consequence of a contracting philosophy obsessed with cheating.

Unfortunately, regulatory contracts create a few incentives for the vendor to actually achieve the public purpose underlying the contract. The vendor is not rewarded for producing a result that helps to achieve this public purpose, nor punished for failing to do so. The vendor is, however, rewarded for complying assiduously with all the details of the contract and can be punished for any failure to observe all the regulations, regardless of whether this failure is deliberate or inadvertent and even regardless of whether this error contributes to, detracts from, or does not affect the vendors contribution to the public purpose behind the contract. – for taking shortcuts not expressly prohibited by the contract even if exploiting such loopholes might undercut its purpose.

Nevertheless, regulatory contracting does have significant advantages. It establishes clear rules that permit the contracting agency and the vendor to predict with much certainty what will happen at each stage of the contract. From a careful reading of the request for proposals, the vendor knows exactly what it must do to fulfill the conditions of the contract. Indeed, the contracting agency also seeking such certainty writes to request for proposals, to ensure that it can find a vendor that will understand how to fulfill all of the contract's requirements. And if the contract fails to produce the desired outcome, neither the agency nor the vendor is at fault. The vendor complied with all regulations of the contract (which said nothing about the results that the contract was to achieve), and the agency complied with all regulations for writing contracts (which again, said nothing

about the results that the contract was to achieve).For both parties, a regulatory contract is a safe contract, creating high levels of certainty and low levels of potential culpability.

In contrast, performance contracting can be a perilous undertaking. Particularly when contracting for social services, both the government agency and the vendor are committing themselves to accomplish something that they might not be able to do so. The vendor is committing to achieve a very specific result and knows if they fail to do so they will not be paid. But such a failure can also be attributed to the government agency which contracted with a vendor that it should have known (critics can later charge) that the vendor could not produce the desired result. Thus, a performance contract can be a risky contract with low levels of predictability but high levels of responsibility. In social services, producing any kind of real, human result, is inevitably more complex than fulfilling the rules of a contract.

Yet, performance contracting also has some obvious advantages. Primarily, it focuses on results, on achieving specific public purpose. The new philosophy of performance contracting is based on the assumption that an effective way to get a contractor to help accomplish a specific purpose is to pay that contractor only when the contractor actually does something that contributes to achieving that purpose. Consequently, rather than paying the vendor for using specific input or specific processes, a performance contract only pays for the production of specific results. This simple assumption radically alerts the role of the contract, the incentives it creates, and the expectations of the contracting parties.

In their work on control systems for state owned enterprises, Menon and Umapathy (1990) noted that there is no unique control system that is suitable for all state owned enterprises and which is distinct from the control system appropriate to other types of organizations. They further note that the control system adopted should be determined by the particular needs of the organization. This study constitutes an important performance evaluation that may assist Kenyan public universities in developing an appropriate control system, by taking into consideration both the complexity of their organizational

objectives and the measurability of their organizations' outputs.

2.3.4 Service Delivery in the Public Sector

Awang (2002) defines public service as all activities delivered by government to fulfill those needs that society requires to go through life. He divides public service into three types; administrative service, goods service, and facilitating service which includes education, health care, the post and transportation. These services he states takes three patterns of delivery: (i) functional delivery which is carried out by specific institutions in line with its tasks, functions and responsibilities; (ii) centralized delivery involving authorized institutions for instance the immigration office for issuance of passports, the religion office for marriage certificates; and (iii) combined delivery involving several institutions in one place.

Smith and Juliana(2002) observed that e-government can help improve governance and service delivery by refocusing consideration of the purposes and tools of government. They concluded that interactions between citizens, the institutions of government and the information and communication technology raise more agendas than governments can handle. However, e-government helps improve governance and services by asking questions. E-initiatives will promote new agendas of relationship management and institution construction, playing an increasingly, critical role in reconnecting citizens and government.

To develop a model of public service characterized by the customer-driven approach, the Ministry of State Apparatus Reform(2003) drew up a general guidance consisting of fifteen criteria: simplicity, reliability, responsibility, capability, closeness to the customer, kindness and patience, transparency, communicativeness, credibility, clarity and certainty, security, understanding what customers expect, reality, efficiency, and economic. Any service institution should prioritize the building of service culture through: (i) changing the slow, uncertain, overlapping, high cost closed service culture into a fast, certain, simple, low-cost transparent one; (ii) developing the service ethic by building good habits such as patience, empathy, caring, friendliness and interactive service to society;(iii) developing resistance to the corruption, collusion and nepotism

that may ruin a bureaucrat's career and inflict a financial loss upon the society, institution and country;(iv) developing high integrity in the work and institution through commitment and co-operation building among public service employees; and (v) building a competitive but fair culture among employees in order to develop a healthy competition which will produce higher work performance.

Mersman and Von Harder (2002) suggest the following strategic factors to be considered in public service improvement: (i) installing awareness of the importance of improving public service in all components; (ii) providing funding and nonmaterial support from all governance components; (iii) building commitment from all government components to carry out the implementation together; and, iv) maintaining a constant commitment through to the end of the implementation. Both material and nonmaterial support systems have been considered in this study to elicit the quality of service delivery by academic teaching members of staff in Kenyan universities. The latter encompass indicators such Tangibles, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance and Empathy.

2.3.5 Philosophy of Contracting

In their research in public sector performance contracting in Flanders (Belgium) Bouckaert and Balk (1999), noted that there are some lessons to be drawn and taken into account. Firstly, solid legal framework which sets out the basic premises and the status of the contracts, may avoid ad hoc and fragmented solutions. However, such a framework should not hamper the adjustment of contractual terms to the conditions of each organization. Stability of resources enhances the motivating effect of contracts. The political top; must respect the operational autonomy of the contracted organizations. Central units should be provided with strategic management and monitoring capacities in order to play their role.

Secondly, contract management should be accompanied by a performance-oriented change in organizational structure and management culture. Management instruments, focusing on performance and costs in the field of human resources and financial management, should be developed in an integrated way. There is need for a good

definition of outputs and solid performance measure. Transfers should be based more on real costs or future initiatives than on historical budget levels. Long-term contracts (3-5 years) are to be recommended, but negotiated annual adjustments should be possible in the case of radically changing conditions.

Thirdly, performance contracting must be complemented by other instruments of control such as ombudsman, quality charters, and regulations concerning transparency and openness. Contract management should be embedded in a trust-based relationship between the government and the organization. The organization should receive a maximum amount of autonomy within the limits of the control capacities of the government. This implies a correct use of incentives and sanctions. Evaluations should involve the two contracting parties. There should be regular overall evaluations and audits of benefits and drawbacks of the implemented contract in order to learn from these experiences.

2.3.6 Paradigms of Contracting

To avoid pitfalls, public agencies need to understand the potential of each and recognize these pitfalls in their subtlest forms. And they need specific strategy for avoiding them (or, at least, coping with them). Government "contracts do not manage themselves," emphasizes Kettl (1993). The competition prescription is not a magic bullet. Governments' relationships with the private sector are not self-administering; they require, rather, aggressive management by a strong, competent government. Hence, "government must improve its capacity to act as a smart buyer" (Kettl, 1993).

The strategies will not negate the pitfalls of performance contracting. But they may help public agencies improve their capacity to be Kettl's "smart buyer" by understanding the relationship and difference between the mission and the measures. The mission that the public agency and its vendors are pursuing is glorious, grandiloquent, inspirational, but usually vague. In contrast, the performance measure (the output) used in a contract is simple, straightforward, mundane, and very specific. Missions and measures serve different purposes. The mission provides people with a sense of true purpose; the

measure provides them with concrete information on how much they have accomplished. The mission reminds them of their underlying purpose; the measure provides them with a way to gauge success. Measures are inherently surrogates for what the agency really seeks to accomplish, and thus these measures can distort behaviour. Consequently, the first essential step in avoiding these pitfalls is simply to recognize this difference, to understand how it creates problems, and to think through carefully what exactly the mission and the measures in the contract should be.

Contracting, argued Donahue (1989), 'can clarify the public purpose by passing mandates through the focusing filter of explicit contracts'. He notes that contracts should be created based on outputs that are: (a) linked to the mission; (b) easy to measure, understand, and reproduce; and (c) facilitate benchmarking. Contracting for results, he observes, 'is hard to do well if results cannot be measured,' and yet, he continues, the inability of public agencies to measure results is notoriously common. To make performance contracting work, a public agency needs good measures of performance. Actually, it needs good measure (or, at most, a few) to motivate the vendor. If the measure in a performance contract is constrained to be an output, and in this output is not identical to the mission, then it is necessary to find some measure of accomplishment – some outcome – that will drive the behaviour of the vendor in the proper direction. Thus, the link between the measure and the mission needs not be theoretical as much as motivational. The measure needs to inspire the vendors to do things that accomplish the mission. Thus it may help to think about the performance measure as a production target (Behn, 1997a). The vendor is charged with producing a certain output – output that has been designed so that as a vendor pursues this target it does a number of things that help to accomplish the true mission (Behn, 1997b).

To function effectively as a motivator, however, this output needs other characteristics. As has already been implied, the output has to be measurable. If an output cannot be measured, it cannot be used to verify the vendor's progress or to pay for its services. An immeasurable output is useless for contractual purposes. Second, an output needs to be easy to understand, complex performance targets will confuse rather than motivate.

Third, this output needs to be relatively easy to produce, performance targets that appear to be attainable will discourage vendors (or at least, the people who work for the vendors) rather that inspire them. Finally, the output measure needs to facilitate benchmarking. The contracting agency needs to be able to compare the achievement of different vendors and to compare a vendor's production this year with its production in previous years. Identifying an output measure that meets many, let alone all, of these requirements will be difficult. And some output measures that a priori look like they will make good production targets may drive vendor behaviour in useless or counterproductive directions. Whether any specific output measure is a good production target, this will become clear only after it has been used for a while. Consequently, the only way to really learn whether a specific output measure will be valuable in a performance contract is to try it. Do not start with an output that is too complex. Begin with an output that is very easy to measure, very easy to understand and very easy to produce.

Obviously, if the performance measure is simple, the vendors will cream. But in the process, they will also learn. They will learn what they have to do to produce the target outcome. This is technical learning. Moreover, they will learn that they are, indeed capable of producing the target outcome. This is psychological learning. Once the agency and the vendor understand what it takes to produce this initial outcome, the agency can ratchet up the quantity and quality of its performance target. To avoid stifling overachievement, the agency needs to explicitly promote it. After both parties to the contract understand how to produce ordinary performance, it is time to create stretch targets – production targets that stretch the capabilities and the intellects of those working for the vendor and that contribute more significantly to achieving the agency's mission (Tully, 1994). By achieving some initial success, a vendor's staff will begin to recalibrate their own abilities. Production targets that once seemed unattainable will now appear quite doable.

There is a need to monitor frequently many indicators of performance, not just the one(s) specified in the contract. The output on which the performance payments of the contract is based is not the same as the outcome sought by the agency's mission. Consequently,

using this output to drive vendor behaviour can do so in the wrong direction of the mission. The contracting agency needs to be vigilant for such distortions. So how can the contracting agency determine if a vendor's work is producing the desired outcome and really achieving the mission? The answer is to monitor more measures than the output measure or measures used for contract payments. Indeed the contracting agency needs to monitor a lot of other measures - repeatedly and frequently. Because no single output really measures a vendor's contribution to the mission, the contracting agency needs to check on a variety of other performance indicators. Some indicators will reveal if the vendor is creaming or engaging in some other form of cheating. Others will reveal whether the agency and its vendors are making any form of real progress. By using a variety of indicators, a government agency can get a handle on whether and how the work of its vendors is contributing to its mission and what might be changed to improve totally, overall performance. Indeed, if the agency cannot do a lot performance monitoring, it ought not to contract out. Says Roger Liwer, deputy comptroller of New York City, "Privatization without monitoring is evil" (Seminar at Duke University, April, 22, 1996).

Performance contracting requires one to be prepared to learn, change, improve, and learn some more. The first performance contract will not work perfectly. Neither will the second. Indeed, because the outputs used to determine contract payments are not exact measures of outcomes or mission, no performance contract will ever be perfect. Consequently, a government agency engaged in performance contracting needs to experiment. It needs to select an initial output measure, use it to motivate vendor behaviour, collect a lot of data on other indicators, analyze these data, learn, develop a new output measure, and try it all over again. The agency will never get it precisely right, but it can improve significantly. Smart buyers must know how to judge what they have bought, argues Kettl (1993). Thus, for a performance contract, monitoring, evaluation and learning all go together. All three are essential for avoiding many pitfalls. If they are to be smart buyers, organizations need to learn continuously (ibid), they need to detect and correct errors if they are to avoid repeating them.

Behind the competition prescription, says Kettl (1993), is the assumption that the market

will serve to regulate both the quality of the good or service for which government contracting and the price of that service. If government uses contracts to create private sector competition, to provide government services, it can avoid the problems created by government monopolies and bureaucracies. Indeed, when the good or service for which government seeks to contract is a commodity already being provided in the private market, government contracts do capture the benefits of competition. In local government, observes (ibid), the programmes most likely to be contracted out are those for which the services are already available in the private market – generic tasks such as vehicle towing and legal work. For such commodities, however, it may not be necessary to write a detailed performance contract. Government does not need a performance contract for pencils. It simply purchases this commodity in the private market. If a firm produces poor or expensive pencils, market forces will drive it out of business. Government does not have to carefully regulate the performance of the pencils that it buys.

If a public agency is working collaboratively with its vendors, it knows when its vendors are making meaningful progress. Once the agency (together with its vendors) has defined these milestones of progress, it ought to start paying a portion of the outcome payment when the vendor achieves each milestone. After all, many vendors do not have enough capital to survive through the labours necessary to produce an outcome and thus earn a payment. When one builds or remodels his home, he pays the builder not solely at the end but at specific milestones. When a highway department builds a new road, it does not pay the construction firm only when the entire road is completed but when it completes predefined sections. Similarly when a public agency contracts with a nonprofit organization to provide social services, the contract ought to call for specific payments for achieving specific milestones. Moreover, by paying for progress, the agency signals that the collaboration is real. To a vendor, the agency will appear disingenuous when it declares 'Lets work on this together and then i will pay you at the end'.

By working collaboratively with a vendor, the contracting agency will not only improve the vendor's performance but also provide itself with substantial feedback about the

vendors current capacity and their ability to perform in the future. Government ought to use such information when making decisions about the next round of contracts. Indeed, if a public agency establishes a reputation for failing to use that information in contracting decisions, it will also establish for itself a reputation for not really caring about performance. When a business buys pencils, it can buy on price alone. The commodity market will eliminate vendors with poor quality. But when a business is buying a specialized product it cares about the quality. It cares about the ability of its vendors to produce and uses past accomplishments as one way to make contracting decisions like a business - based on more than low price. When letting a performance contract, do not just accept the low bid.

Most of these strategies can be implemented by the contracting agency itself. In some situations, however, the agency may be unable to follow the suggestions unless the legislative body changes some laws (US General Accounting Office, 1997) or the staff agency that oversees procurement changes some regulations. This may be particularly true for Strategy 7 (work cooperatively with contractors) and Strategy 8 (favour contractors with a track record). To implement these two strategies, the contracting agency has several options: create a coalition to lobby for basic changes in the laws and regulations; seek an exemption from specific rules; or work within whatever flexibility the current system allows. If these two strategies are eventually to be employed across public universities of Kenya, however, the government will need to adopt a new philosophy of government contracting. This study provides useful recommendations for such a re-birth of performance contracting in public universities of Kenya.

2.3.7 Emerging Issues in Contracting

Although the performance contract may, indeed encourage the vendor to achieve precisely the results specified in the contract, it may also discourage the contractor from doing more - from producing more or better results that could contribute even more to the achievement of the real public purpose of the contract.

Performance contracting may inhibit experimentation. To a vendor the prospects for the

results specified in a performance contract may appear quite uncertain. And all organizations, public and private, abhor uncertainty (Williamson, 1985). The achieving vendor wants to increase the predictability of the contracting process – to increase the probability that it will receive the maximum payments specified in the contract. And because the contract is a performance contract, the vendor can choose the approach they will use to achieve the required results. Consequently, if the vendor has developed (or knows of) an approach that is quite certain will satisfy the performance requirements of the contract, they may avoid experimentation. Such behaviour would, of course, be precisely the opposite of the basic reasons for contracting out: government agencies are not supposed to be very innovative, at least in comparison to private or non-profit organizations (Smith, 1995). Yet, the inherent riskiness of a performance contract can create an incentive for a risk-averse vendor to pursue a very safe strategy rather than an innovative one.

Performance contracting may encourage innovation in cost cutting but not in service delivery. The vendor may figure out how to produce a better result than specified in the contract and learns how to train welfare recipients so that they get jobs at wages that are higher than the contract requires – the vendor may still be paid the same as when they produce the minimum specified result. Innovation in service delivery is not necessarily rewarded with larger profits. But if the vendor figures out how to produce the minimum specified result at a cheaper price, their profits do go up. Consequently, once the vendor has mastered the challenge of producing the results specified in the contract, they have a clear incentive to focus their innovative energies on cutting costs. Furthermore, if in the next round of performance contracts, the request for proposals specifies the same result and if the contract will be awarded to the lowest bidder or bidders, any current vendor has a clear incentive to experiment with ways to lower its costs (O'Hare et al.,1990). Reducing costs and improving service are the two basic reasons for contracting out (Dilger et al., 1997), yet a performance contract may do much more to reduce costs than to improve service.

Performance contracting may stifle overachievement. If the vendor produces all the

results enumerated in the contract, they are paid in full. But what if they do even more? What if they place more welfare recipients in jobs or gets more students reading at the ninth grade level. Often, they are not paid any more. The resulting incentive is clear; do not overproduce. In fact, rather than overproducing during the current contracting period, the vendor is encouraged to hide some of these successes. Consequently, government agencies usually create performance contracts with piece-rate payments up to a specified total payment for the contract period (and may be even for sub-periods). In doing so, however, the government is also discouraging any efforts by its vendors to produce any results that will exceed the contract's payment ceiling.

The uncertainty inherent in the performance contract may (particularly if the vendors fail to employ safe, proven approaches) spawn a series of inadequate and bankrupt vendors, none of which develops enough expertise to survive the rigors of a contract that pays only for performance. And the rules of government contracting may prevent the contracting agency from doing what is necessary to help these vendors achieve success.

Performance contracting may not provide for start-up costs. How does a vendor get started? If the contract pays only after the vendor starts producing results, how does a vendor- particularly a new vendor accumulate the capital necessary to cover its start-up costs? non-profit organizations are notoriously undercapitalized (Smith and Lipsky, 1993), and even profit-making business may not have accumulated capital reserves sufficient to carry it through to the point at which real results begin to appear and thus, real payments start to flow. Consequently, any effort to initiate performance contracting in a new field, particularly to initiate performance contracting for social services with small, non-profit organizations, may produce only a series of failures – performance shortfalls that result in bankruptcies and thus a revolving door of inexperienced and under-funded vendors.

Performance contracting may inhibit symbiotic relationships. One of the benefits of contracting for the production of public services is that the contracting process will create competition among various vendors and thus improve the quality and quantity of the

services that these vendors provide (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992).Donahue (1989) concludes that this competitive aspect of contracting is essential, that "efficiency springs primarily from competition, not from privateness per se''. But in a democracy, when the government manages this competition it has to be fair. To guarantee this fairness, government creates a variety of rules to ensure that the contracting agency does not help any of the vendors or potential vendors. At each round in the contracting process, government has to treat the bidders equally and, should not favour those that have won previous contracts. Indeed, to be scrupulously fair, government may specifically preclude contracting agencies from taking into account the track record of the various bidders (Kelman, 1990).

In the private sector, however, the success of the contracting process often depends on the ability of a business to work closely with its vendors. Indeed, in the automobile industry, one of the innovations that has improved performance – what is now called lean production is a shift from traditional arm's-length relationships with vendors to a much more cooperative and symbiotic one. Rather that specify in great detail the dimensions and other characteristics of each part it needs and then put the production of each such part out for aggressively competitive bidding, an automobile manufacturer now works closely with just a few proven vendors (or may be only one) to develop the design and specifications for such part (Womack et al., 1990). Similarly, for a government agency to get the most out of its performance contracts particularly to get real performance out of its performance contracts for social services – the agency needs to work closely with its vendors.

Unfortunately, the formal rules for the awarding of government contracts, both regulatory and performance contracts tend to preclude the development of the kind of symbiotic relationship between contractor and vendor that can significantly improve performance. Any violation of these rules – even violations that do not benefit individual government employees, and even violations that improve vendor performance – may be subject to a journalistic expose, to a law suit and perhaps to a criminal indictment.

Performance contracting may reward promises not performance. How can a government agency predict how a vendor will perform and, thus evaluate their bid? One way is to examine the bidders past performance. But if past performance cannot be considered in awarding a contract, what can be? The only other possibility is current promises. What does the bidder promise they will produce? Indeed, if past performance is precluded from consideration, each bidder has an incentive to promise as much as they can realistically hope to produce. Moreover, those with the least experience with actual performance have the least information on which to create a realistic promise; in an effort to win a contract, they may well conclude that it is in their interest to promise more than they realistically think they can produce (hoping that they can figure out how to do this later), all the while recognizing that, without such an optimistic promise, they may never win a contract. But promises are not performance. And, bidders who over promise may be precisely those that have the poorest understanding about how to produce the desired performance. Yet the rules of contracting may force a public agency to fund the bids not from those vendors that have the best history of performance but from those that make the biggest promises.

Performance contracting must rely on outcomes. Everyone knows the fundamental principle of performance contracting. Government should not pay for inputs, or processes, or activities, but for outcomes. Neither inputs, processes, and activities, are real results. Outcomes are. Inputs, processes, and activities, count when they help produce desired outcomes. It is often difficult (particularly in social services) to measure the outcomes we really want to achieve. In some situations, we lack the measurement technology. In other cases, the actual outcomes will not be known for years. The purpose of a school system might be to produce graduates who are productive employees and contributing citizens. But their outcome can only be measured (if at all) many years in the future. In the meantime, the vendor who was managing the school system will need to pay their bills. The same is true for many other social services. The outcome sought from an employment and training programme for welfare recipients is a psychologically and economically independent family. Thus, under a pure performance contract, the contracting agency would need to know whether a vendor that provides such employment

and training services has really achieved this result for each individual client. As Smith and Lipsky (1993) write, "Most [social] services [provided by non-profit agencies] cannot be judged on the basis of decisive client outcomes".

Performance contracting may use measures that can distort behaviour. The basic premise of performance contracting is that vendors will strive to produce the results specified in the contract. But if these results are not precisely the outcomes that society (and the contract) seeks to achieve, the vendor's behaviour may fail to achieve the real purpose underlying the contract. Indeed, whenever the measure of performance used in the contract is not precisely a measure of the public purpose, and this is usually the case, the contract's incentives will direct the vendors efforts away from this true public purpose. Sometimes this distortion will be small and irrelevant. In other circumstances, this distortion may undermine the actual purpose of the contract and the credibility of the entire contracting process.

Donahue (1989) reports that "experiments with educational contracting have been mostly discouraging." Why? Because the easily measurable results – "higher math test score, fewer dropouts"- miss important aspects of "educational quality'' that we expect from our schools. Yet some "profit –seekers proved all too adept at concentrating their efforts on the narrow performance indicators covered in the contracts". Performance contracting may encourage creaming. If the vendor is paid for each acceptable output, they will look for the easiest, and therefore the cheapest, way to produce outputs. If the payment is the same for all outputs, regardless of the inputs with which the vendor started, the vendor has a clear incentive to avoid difficult-to-serve clients and, instead, focus on the easy-to-serve clients. (Smith and Lipsky, 1993).

Performance Contracting may undermine equity and fairness. Democratic governments have multiple objectives and multiple concerns. Performance, efficiency, results and effectiveness, are only a few. In a democracy, the fair and equitable treatment of all citizens is a much more fundamental imperative. Thus, regulatory contracts often specify who should get each public service or, at least, who is entitled to each service if he or she

requests it. Rather than permit the vendor to discriminate against any citizen for any reason, government seeks to ensure the equitable treatment of all citizens by requiring this in the contract. In contrast, a performance contract which is designed to focus on outcomes (or at least outputs) rather than on inputs, processes or activities, seeks to maximize the vendors' flexibility in meeting the performance targets.And such flexibility may give the vendor the ability to choose which citizens it will serve. The vendor may make such decisions subtly, not by crudely turning away qualified citizens but by carefully choosing how they will recruit the citizens they will serve (or even where they locates their recruiting facility).Thus, unless modified with some process measures or input constraints, a performance contract can undermine a public agency's commitment to the fair treatment of citizens. Indeed, Donahue (1989) argues that "the more narrowly government cares about 'end' to the exclusion of 'means', the stronger becomes the case for employing profit–seekers rather than civil servants". In contrast, government should choose "civil servants where procedural fairness matters most".

2.3.8 Performance Contracting Assessment and Paradox

Nowadays, states spend more attention, time, and money on performance measurement and evaluation in the public sector than ever before (OECD, 1999; Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2000; Power, 1997). Results-based management is the 'talk of the day' at all levels of the public sector: local, regional, national, and even supranational. The increased attention to performance assessment in the public sector coincides with the rise of administrative reform (Power,1997). In the 1980s, economic decline and increased international competition triggered such two-fold reforms in most western states focusing on cutting budgets and improving the efficiency and effectiveness of government bureaucracy.

The practitioner theory underlying these changes is that politicians should stick to their core business, that is, developing new policies to realize (political) goals. This separation of policy and administration is facilitated through contracts being drawn up between the government and the organization that implements the policy. The contracts articulate which task has to be carried out and what the executive agent will receive as a "reward." Input management is thus replaced by a results-based orientation.

The aforementioned changes in the public sector led to the adoption of a large number of private sector techniques to measure and improve performance such as performance indicators. Not only do indicators enable politicians to measure and evaluate the performance of public and private policy-implementing organizations, they also increase the opportunities to account for performance, another important goal of administrative reform (Jenkins et al.,). They further state that, "There is a desire to supply managers, policy makers, legislators and the general public with evaluative information that is perceived to be reliable, valid and credible. Evaluative information that lacks these characteristics stands little chance of enhancing transparency, accountability and democratic governance." Bouckaert and Balk (1999) wondered whether it is indeed possible, desirable, or even necessary, to measure public sector performance because 'government is efficient, because if it is not efficient, why hasn't it already been changed?'

In the education sector, for example, Rand researchers Brewer, Gates, and Goldman, cited in the January 21, 2001, edition of the Times Higher Education Supplement,that in the United States, too much focus on criteria, benchmarks, and other evaluative tools has led to mediocre institutions mimicking the outward appearance of prestigious universities rather than improving their teaching. Bayer (2000) mentions that higher education institutes that are unjustly given a high rank (because of measurement errors) will start to attract more highly qualified students and in the longer run indeed improve their performance. However, the opposite might also be true.

The performance paradox refers to a weak correlation between performance indicators and performance itself (Meyer and Gupta, 1994; Meyer and Shaughnessy,1993). This phenomenon is caused by the tendency of performance indicators to run down overtime. They lose their value as measurements of performance and can no longer discriminate between good and bad performers. As a result, the relationship between actual and reported performance declines. Meyer and Gupta(1994) point out that deterioration of performance indicators is caused by four processes. The first process is called positive

learning; that is, as performance improves, indicators lose their sensitivity in detecting bad performance. Infact, everybody has become so good at what they do that the indicator becomes obsolete. The second process is called perverse learning. When organizations or individuals have learned which aspects of performance are measured (and which are not) they can use that information to manipulate their assessments. However, overall, there may be no actual improvement or perhaps even a deterioration of (other aspects of) performance (cf. tunnel vision) (Smith, 1995). The third process, selection, refers to the replacement of poor performers with better performers, which reduces differences in performance. Only good performers remain, and the indicator loses its discriminating value-almost resembling a consequence of the survival of the fittest mechanism. And fourth, suppression occurs when differences in performance are ignored. In some instances, this study found a weak correlation between the performance of university lecturers and their performance indicators for administrative work system and for organizational environment, thus upholding the performance contracting paradox in the education sector of Kenya.

2.3.9 Research Gaps

2.3.9.1 Research Gaps Identified and Filled

This literature review has clearly shown that very few researches have been done on why state-owned enterprise(SOEs) function as they do across the globe, especially within the education sector. Thus, this study research went beyond the confines of traditional economics using organizational tools of management science to obtain insights into the difficult but salient problems of public universities of Kenya. This study paid attention to the impact of teaching workload on university lecturers' performance in the context of an interactive performance contracting process. Among other findings it unveiled the relationship that exists between the status of performance contract outputs/outcomes and the state of the employees' management. It also provided recommendations on how the government would promote performance contracting in state-owned enterprises (SOEs).

To enhance corporate governance and organizational performance, the research assessed efficient, effective and accountable administrative work systems and governance practices that Kenyan public universities use to safeguard the quality of service delivered by academic teaching members of staff, and curb unwarranted inefficiencies, frauds and possible collapse of the university. The study unveiled the main hindrances to performance contracting namely phobia, institutional resistance, the need to preserve the autonomy of the university, and difficulty in setting targets and goals that work. It recommended that a similar study be conducted in other government departments, for further understanding of the dynamics of the practice of performance contracting, and preparation and implementation of performance contracting in the public sector, especially with emphasis on 'Management by outcomes' rather than 'Management by process'.

While most studies on 'the determinants influencing implementation of performance contracting in Kenya' focus on non-parametric methods this study used normal distributions (F and t tests) embedded within a General Linear Model (GLM) to derive university employees' perception on performance contracting and their motivation to get involved in community service and the setting of primary objectives, definition of strategies, and determination of performance targets. It complimented studies that have been done to compare the successes and failures in state corporations in respect of performance contracting implementation.

2.3.9.2 Conceptual Framework Adopted

As displayed above (Figure 2.3), the independent variable is Performance Contracting consisting of teaching workload, administrative work and community service indicators. The moderating variables fall under working environment comprised of political, demographic, economic, social, and technological factors. The dependent variable is service delivery which will be measured in-terms of customer satisfaction, service delivery innovations and resolution of public complaints. The researcher, in order to develop the above conceptual framework, adopted the systems model and performance measures by Kettner and Martin (1995),in which they point out that inputs and processes

are design-focused while output, quality, and outcomes are performance-based.

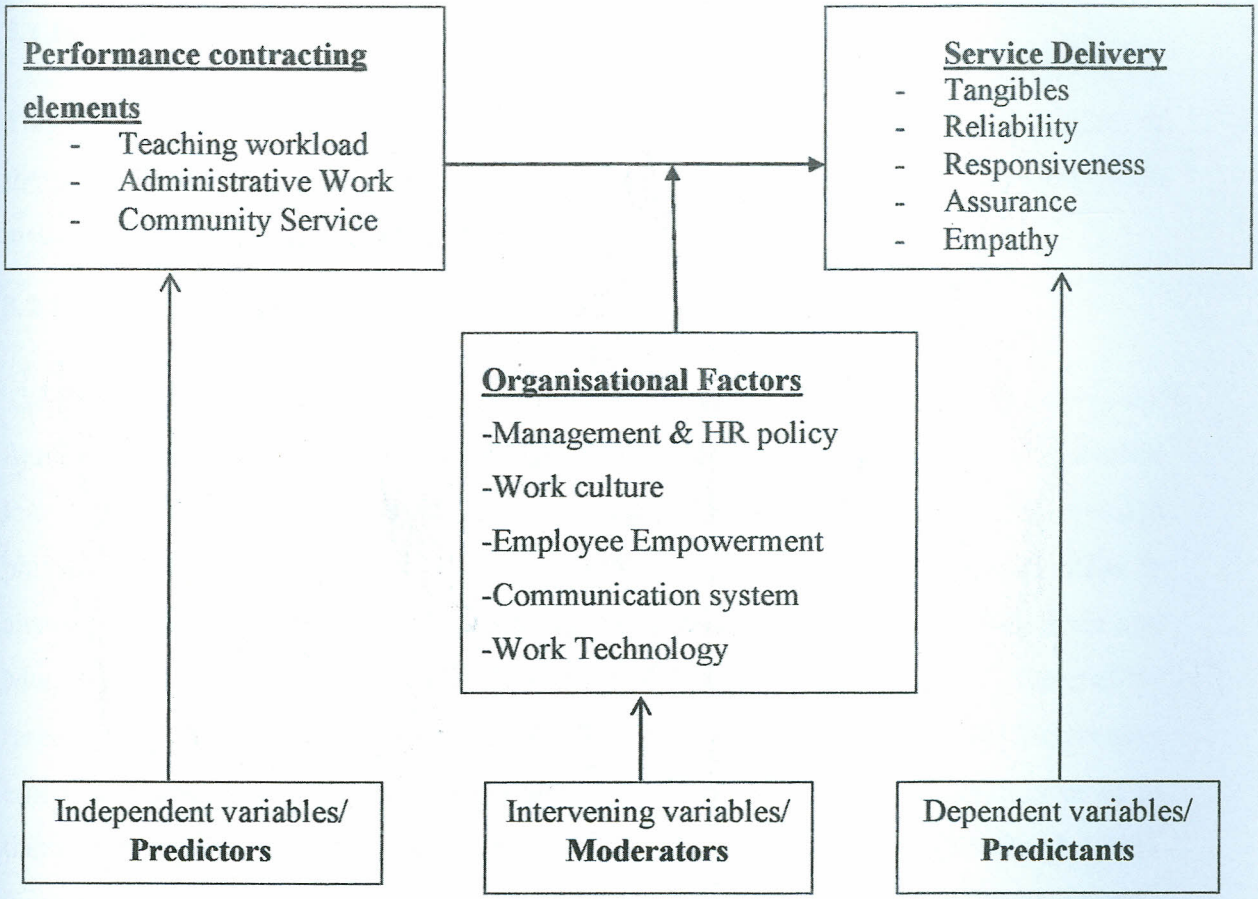

Figure 2.3: Conceptual framework for assessing performance contracts at university
(Source: Researcher, 2011)

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was used to conduct the study. It consists of the research design, target population, sampling design and procedures, data collection instruments, data analysis and presentation

3.2 Research Philosophy and Design

The study adopted an epistemological approach towards implementing the conceptual framework designed above to investigate the nature, practices and limits of human knowledge on performance contracting in public universities of Kenya. This research philosophy was anchored within a descriptive design. A descriptive design helps to answer questions concerning the current status of the subjects under study (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).Descriptive studies are aimed at finding out 'what is'. Descriptive research can include multiple variables for study(Borg and Gall,1996).Description emerges following creative exploration and serves to organize the findings in order to fit them with explanations and then test or validate these explanations (Krathwoh,1998). Kothari(2009) points out that descriptive research studies are concerned with specific predictions, narration of facts and characteristics concerning individuals, groups or situations.

3.3 The Target Population

The target population comprised the seven (7) public universities duly recognized and operating in the year 2012. The category of staff focused on were the academic teaching staff members ranging from tutorial fellows to professors. The total number of lecturers in the seven public universities was five thousand six hundred and thirty(5630) as shown in Table 3.1 below. The researcher targeted the teaching staff members since the main function of public universities is dissemination of knowledge, research and community work which is formulated, implemented and monitored by them.

Table 3.1:Universities' Teaching Staff member's schedule

UNIVERSITY	*Year of inception*	*Staff Members No.*
Nairobi	1964	1429
Kenyatta	1985	879
Moi	1984	1286
Egerton	1987	543
Maseno	1991	320
Jkuat	1994	633
Masinde Muliro	2007	540
Total		**5630**

Source: Human Resource Information Management Systems (2012)

3.4 Sampling Design

The researcher used a multistage random sampling that encompassed a purposeful sampling of public universities and a random sampling of academic teaching members of staff from the main campuses (not satellite campuses) (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Teaching academic staff schedule of selected universities

University	*School*	*Total Pop.*	*Target (15%)*	*Actual Respondents*
Kenyatta University	Humanities and Social Sciences	205	31	19
	Business	74	11	20
	Education	151	23	27
	Sub-Total	**430**	**65**	**66**
Moi University	Arts and Social Sciences	121	18	27
	Business and Economics	72	11	11
	Education	114	17	17
	Sub-Total	**307**	**46**	**55**
Maseno University	Humanities and Social Sciences	49	7	10
	Business and Economics	30	5	6
	Education	32	5	5
	Sub-Total	**111**	**17**	**21**
Total		**848**	**127**	**142**

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The intention of the researcher was to find out whether performance contracting has had any positive effect in service delivery in the state-run universities. The researcher also purposefully picked three universities whose total number of teaching staff was two thousand six hundred and twenty eight (2628).The three universities constituted two of the oldest and one among the new, and also in different geographical setups. These universities were Nairobi University, Kenyatta University and Maseno University. The researcher was however not able to receive cooperation from the management of Nairobi University to administer the questionnaire to individual lecturers, and he therefore in consultation with his supervisors opted to consider Moi University in the study since it was also one of the oldest and well established public university. This therefore led to a total of two thousand four hundred and eighty five (2485) teaching academic members of staff. Kenyatta university the following was considered, schools (15) which make up 62 academic departments. In Moi University the following was considered, schools (14) consisting of 74 academic departments while in Maseno the following was considered ,schools (12) and one (1) faculty which make up 54 departments. The researcher chose the biggest schools and faculties in terms of student population as evidenced by the proposed Joint Admissions Board (JAB) admission of undergraduate students in the academic year 2012/2013.These schools were school of business and economics, school of education and school of arts and social sciences for Moi university, while in Kenyatta university it was school of business, school of education and school of humanities and social sciences and in Maseno it was school of business and economics, school of education and school of humanities and social sciences .

Finally, a total number of 142 respondents was realized from a total of 180 questionnaires issued to the study population of 848 academic staffers. This represented a proportion of 16.74%. The respondents to the questionnaire were picked using simple random sampling. Respondents from the same university were assigned a random number to give them equal chance of selection based on a list provided by Human Resource Information Management System (HRIMS). Then, the researcher closed his eyes, pointed his fingers to any number in the list and selected two digits ranging between 0 and 50. He repeated the operation as much as he could until the size was achieved. It shall be noted that where

the random number was greater than 50, it was discarded but the following one was selected, for granted that it was between 0 and 50.

3.5 Data Collection

3.5.1 Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

This study was mainly done using primary data collected through self-administration of a questionnaire, which was dropped to each respondent and picked later. Where additional information was required by the researcher, semi-structured interviews were conducted. The questionnaire consisted of both open-ended and closed-ended questions. Respondents to self-administered questionnaires are relatively unlikely to answer questions to please you or because they believe certain responses are more socially desirable (Mark et al., 2003).The questionnaire was divided into three parts covering demographic variables, practices and expectations from performance contracting.

3.5.2 Data Collected

The researcher used both qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data were applicable since meanings were based on expressions through words and analysis was conducted through the use of conceptualization. Quantitative data were applicable since meanings were derived from numbers and analysis was conducted through the use of diagrams and statistics(Mark et al., 2003).

3.6 Data Pre-Processing

3.6.1 Data Entry and Cleaning

Before any quantitative and qualitative analyses, information collected above was pre-processed with the help of statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) software package. Qualitative pre-process dealt with pattern/ content analysis, while quantitative pre-process dealt with cross-sectional data coding. A quality control helped checking their accurateness, validity, reliability and relevance to the study. The first step mainly used SPSS spreadsheets ("Data View" and "Variable View").This enabled labelling the questions and statements on the Variable View spreadsheet, giving them some

meaningful values (or codes).The following step dealt with data entry and data display. Data entry consisted of entering the responses of each respondent into the spreadsheet according to each variable. However, data display was subjected to Data View spreadsheet in order to realize the accuracy of data entry procedure. This exercise led immediately to the checking of errors. Errors were cleaned after checking variables and values row after row and case by case.

3.6.2 Data Quality Control

3.6.2.1 Validity of Research Instrument

The researcher employed construct validity as advocated by Cronbach (1955), in which it related the measuring instrument to the general theoretical framework so as to determine whether the instrument was tied to the concepts and the theoretical assumptions. Content validity was done to ascertain clarity and simplicity. The researcher used clear wording of the questions by employing terms that are likely to be familiar to, and understood by the respondents. The researcher engaged experts and his supervisors to ascertain whether the content of the research instrument was up to standard, after which he administered it to the respondents.

3.6.2.2 Reliability of Research Instrument

According to Easterby-Smith et al.(2002), reliability can be assessed by posing the following questions: will the measures yield the same results on other occasions? Will similar observations be reached by other observers? And whether there is transparency in how sense was made from raw data? Tabachnick and Fidel (2001) states that reliability relates to the constancy with which a measuring instrument yields certain result, where the results of constructs measured demonstrate a high percentage of similar outcomes and is without bias. This analysis was conducted for all statements structured on a Likert point scale using Cronbach alpha score test. Cronbach's alpha coefficient value for determining the internal consistency of the research instrument was defined by equation [3.1]:

$$\alpha = \frac{K}{K-1}\left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{K}\sigma^2 Y_i}{\sigma^2 X}\right) \qquad [3.1]$$

Where:

K is the number of components (K-items or testlets),

$\sigma^2 X$ the variance of the observed total scores

$\sigma^2 Y$, the variance of the component I for the current sample of persons.

This is normally described as follows:

Excellent, $\alpha \geq 0.9$;

Good, $0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$;

Acceptable, $0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$;

Questionable, $0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$;

Poor, $0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$;

Unacceptable, $\alpha < 0.5$

3.7 Data Analysis

All the objectives involved in this study were analysed in the following sequence: (1) descriptive statistics; (2) assessment of problems of multicollinearity of predictors and homogeneity of variances between predictant and predictors, and (3) hypothesis testing involving the calibration and estimation of the regression model. Results were interpreted and presented using descriptive and inferential statistical tools. Prior to presenting each of the above sub-sections, the following sub-section specifies the type of regression model that was involved in the study.

3.7.1 Regression Model Specification

As an outcome of performance contracting, the quality of service delivery at university level is clearly assessed in terms of tangibles (y_1), reliability of services (y_2), responsiveness of employees (y_3), assurance given by lecturers (y_4) as well as their empathy (y_5). These variables are impacted by several factors ranging from teaching workload (Objective 1) to working environment (Objective 4) via the administrative work systems (Objective 2) and employees participation in community service (Objective

3). All these variables and their relationships can be represented by equation [3.2]:

$$Y_i = \alpha_i + \beta_{1j}x_{1j} + \beta_{2j}x_{2j} + \beta_{3j}x_{3j} + \beta_{4j}x_{4j} + \varepsilon_i \quad [3.2]$$

Where,

Y_i are factors related to the quality of service delivery

X_{1j} = Teaching workload factors

X_{2j} =Administrative work systems' factors

X_{3j} = community service participation factors

X_{4j} = the organizational environment factors

α_i = the intercept

β_i = the regression coefficients of the independent variables.

ε_i = the error term

Table 3.3 describes the specific variables used in this study. The following sub-sections deal with some econometric problems encountered in the study that could lead to biased predictions. These encompass the testing of the multicollinearity among predictors and their homogeneity of variances with the dependent variables.

3.7.2 Testing Multicollinearity

The multicollinearity test enabled to minimize the number of parameters involved in the model in order to generate reliable predictions on the level of service delivery at university level within acceptable confidence limits. This model diagnostic was carried out to rule out the assumption of high correlation between explanatory variables of different types of factors (predictants) related to the quality of service delivered at university. Such an econometric problem was likely to lead to biased predictions of the performance of public university in Kenya. Consequently, if one of the variables was found to be highly correlated to another it was removed from the model. It shall be noted Cohen and Holiday (1998) declare that a multiple correlation coefficient is considered high when its value is equal or above 0.7. That was the cutting point for this study.

3.7.3 Homogeneity of Variances

Though having conducted the test of multicollinearity, an independent test for equal variances between the predictant and its predictors would rule out any assumption of heterogeneity, which may possibly increase the presence of heteroskedasticity of errors in the error term. Such rejection of heterogeneity would justify the use of normal distributions, namely the F and t tests. This hypothetical homogeneity of variances was derived from an independent test of homogeneity of variances known as the Levene's test. The inferred hypothesis test later on led to clustering the observed variables using heuristic method.

3.7.4 Model Estimation

This stage of the study dealt with the identification of a specific model that could measure the level of service delivery at university level. Hence, five categories of factors related to the quality of service delivery at university were selected, and their corresponding causes (or variables) identified. The selected model can be represented by a system of equations defined by the algebraic description below [3.3]:

$$Y = A+BX \qquad [3.3]$$

Where,

Y = vector of predictants related to the level of service delivery

X = Matrix of predictors of the level of service delivery

B = Matrix parameters of the relevant predictors

A = vector of the model intercepts

The full regression model of the level of service delivery may be written as follows [3.4]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \\ y_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ a_4 \\ a_5 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & b_{14} & b_{15} & b_{16} & b_{17} & b_{18} & \cdots b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} & b_{24} & b_{25} & b_{26} & b_{27} & b_{28} & \cdots b_{2n} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} & b_{34} & b_{35} & b_{26} & b_{37} & b_{38} & \cdots b_{3n} \\ b_{41} & b_{42} & b_{43} & b_{44} & b_{45} & b_{26} & b_{47} & b_{48} & \cdots b_{4n} \\ b_{51} & b_{52} & b_{53} & b_{54} & b_{55} & b_{56} & b_{57} & b_{58} & \cdots b_{5n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \\ x_6 \\ x_7 \\ x_8 \\ x_9 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad [3.4]$$

Table 3.3 displays the actual variables used in the modeling to predict the performance of university staffers vis-à-vis their contractual academic duties.

Multiple logistic regressions (probit, logit or tobit) of these predictants by their relevant predictors were conducted to estimate the regression parameters for each category of dependent variables (predictants). The latter were embedded in the Multivariate Generalized Linear Model (GLM) procedure, which was run to that effect using the SPSS software package.

3.7.5 Model Evaluation and Validation

A diagnostic check-up was conducted to assess goodness of fit of the model and to rule out the presence of bias in the prediction. The study used Pearson'sRho test to establish the correlation of various variables. The coefficient of determination (R^2), the Beta weight and the F and t statistics were also employed to get an appropriate set of parameters that determine the strength of ties between subjects within the variables input in order to measure in the regression strength.

Table 3.3:Specific variables for analyzing performance contracting at university level

Predicant: Quality of service delivery at university measured by:		**Predictors**							
		Objective 1: Teaching workload		*Objective 2:* Administrative work systems		*Objective 3:* Community service		*Objective 4:* Organisational environment	
EmploWS 11	Tangibles	Increase in demand of courses offered	PerCTS 13	Employee recognition	EmploWS1	Well paid employees	EmploCSS 1	Initiation of new academic programme	Contri 1
EmploWS 12	Reliability	Increase in student enrollment	PerCTS 14	Employee training	EmploWS 2	Continous employee training	EmploCSS 2	Strengthening of academic processes	Contri 2
EmploWS 13	Responsiveness	Timely graduation	PerCTS 15	Development of employees	EmploWS 3	Rigorous employee development programme	EmploCSS 3	Enhancement of individual autonomy	Contri 3
EmploWS 14	Assurance	Effective and efficient teaching methodologies	PerCTS 16	Improved working facilities	EmploWS 4	Employee with better working facilities	EmploCSS 4	Greater automation of academic work	Contri 4
EmploWS 15	Empathy	Reduction in customer complaints	PerCTS 17	Competitive medical cover	EmploWS 5	Employee promoted for achieving targets	EmploCSS 5	Better utilization of academic resources	Contri 5
		Increase in customer compliments	PerCTS 18	Better employee working relations	EmploWS 6	Best worker awards	EmploCSS 6	Bettercustomer service	Contri 6
		Increase in number of graduates	PerCTS 19	Working rules and regulations	EmploWS 7	Transferring of employees	EmploCSS 7	Focused and deliberate planning	Contri 7
		Timely examinations	PerCTS 20	Competitive take home package	EmploWS 8	A fully paid leave of abse	EmploCSS 8	Better unit cost management	Contri 8
		Timely release of results	PerCTS 21	Out-of-office team building activities	EmploWS 9	Award of scholarly titles for academic work	EmploCSS 9	Freedom to take and manage risks	Contri 9
				Assignment of other duties	EmploWS 10	Supporting dependants in educational programmes	EmploCSS 10		

Source: Methodology(Researcher 2013)

Using Pearson's coefficient of determination (R^2) the study was able to determine the strength of the model's prediction. The model was assumed to be moderate or strong whereas its Pearson R^2 was equal or above 0.5or its adjustedR^2equal or above 0.25. It provided evidence that the sum of squares of residuals was minimized and that a strong correlation existed between the predictants and their predictors. However, a Pearson R^2 below 0.5 or an adjusted R^2below 0.25 indicated that the model was weak. There was high control of external factors over the regression, thus leading to high rate of residual errors. It shall be noted that the coefficient of determination examined the combined effect of all the independent variable on the dependent variable. However, to determine the independent effect of each predictor on the predictant its Beta weight (β) was needed. This enabled isolating the between-subjects' effects of each predictor's subset in the regression.

Whether strong or not, the model was declared fit for viable predictions if its F-ratio was found to be significant at least at 95% confidence level. This F-ratio value was expected to be high, at least above 2.6 with a significance level of 5% and below. This would confirm the assumption of normality of the prediction. This would mean that responses by lecturers were normally distributed and could be observed as facts from the field rather than derived by chance.

Model resulting in significant F-ratios were retained in the analysis. Their regression parameters (or coefficients) were assessed against their estimates, standard errors and t statistics at a statistical significance of10% (i.e. 90% confidence interval for a t statistics equal or above 1.58). The latter indicated that there was a significant relationship between the variable corresponding to the estimated parameter and the predictant (or dependent variable). It ruled out the assumption that the correlation between the predictant and its predictors was nil or insignificant, thus establishing a causality between the two.

It shall however be noted that the Levene test of the homogeneity of variances produces F-ratios for each predictant across all level combinations of the predictor's between-

subjects based on their Beta weight (β). Thence, the t test of between-subjects factors gave an idea on the level at which each predictor would finally determine the quality of service delivery at university level. Table 3.4 provides a summary of the whole methodology used for testing the four (4) hypotheses retained in this study.

Table 3.4 Methodology for hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	*Item description*	*Summary of Statistical Analysis*
$H_1(1)$	There is a positive relationship between employee's teaching workload and the level of service delivery in Public Universities in Kenya.	**Regression Strength: Pearson R^2 Test** Relationship b/n *Y* and *X* interpreted as: • Weak: $0 <= R^2 < 0.5$ • Moderate: $0.5 <= R^2 < 0.7$ • Strong: $R^2 => 0.7$
$H_1(2)$	Employee's administrative work systems have a positive effect on the level of service delivery in Public Universities in Kenya.	**Multicollinearity: Pearson Rho Test** Relationship b/n x_{ij} and x_{kl} interpreted as: • Weak: $0 <= r < 0.5$ • Moderate: $0.5 <= r < 0.7$ • Strong: $r => 0.7$ (cutting point)
$H_1(3)$	Employee's participation in community service is positively related to level of service delivery in Public Universities in Kenya.	**Homogeneity of Variances: Levene's Test** Levene's statistics interpreted as: • Heterogeneity: *F*-ratio => 2.6 or significant at 5% • Homogeneity: *F* ratio < 2.6 or insignificant at 5%
$H_1(4)$	The working environment of employees has a positive relationship to the level of service delivery in Public Universities in Kenya.	**Model Estimation: Multivariate GLM** Depending on results of homogeneity test: • *F* and *t* tests used for homogeneous variances • *Nonparametric* tests used for heterogeneous variances **Model Validation: F and t Tests** Relationship b/n Y and X interpreted as: • Accepted: *F* and *t* values significant at 10% • Rejected: *F* and *t* values insignificant at 10%

Source: Methodology(Researcher 2013)

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, data analysis and the research findings from the study are presented and discussed. A preliminary analysis consists of reliability analysis, respondents' bio-data and descriptive findings. The actual data analysis deals with the testing of each of the research hypotheses and objectives.

4.1.1 Results of the Reliability Analysis of Data Collected

As reflected in table 4.1 the researcher therefore concluded that the test done on the questionnaire was reliable with an overall alpha(α)=0.8840.

Table 4.1: Results of the reliability Analysis

Variable	No.of items	Respondents	α=alpha	Comment
Development and implementation	9	124	0.7273	Reliable
Challenges	8	118	0.7079	Reliable
Contributions/Working environment	9	125	0.9025	Reliable
Rating before and after	2	136	0.7454	Reliable
Management tools relationship	4	136	0.6603	Reliable
Strategic Measures	7	136	0.7098	Reliable
Customer satisfaction/Teaching workload	11	51	0.8120	Reliable
Administrative work systems	10	129	0.7857	Reliable
Contribution to quality of service	5	138	0.8085	Reliable
Community service	10	131	0.5417	Reliable
Overall	73	71	0.8840	Reliable

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The reliability's Cronbanch alpha which is as high as 80% is good because it is above the usually accepted higher level of 75% (Sullivan 2001). Sekaran (2003) and Field (2006) further states that the higher the coefficient the better the instrument. However, reliability greater than 95% is not desirable since it suggests that items may be entirely redundant. This test of reliability paved the way for further analyses, including respondents' bio-data and descriptive findings as well as hypothesis testing.

4.2 Respondents' Bio-data

4.2.1 Current Position of Teaching Academic Staff

As reflected in Table 4.2 most of the teaching academic members of staff who respondent were lecturers (49.3%), followed by tutorial fellows (19.7%), then assistant lecturers(13.4%),senior lecturers(12.7%) and associate professors(4.9%) as at the time of the research.

Table 4.2: Current position of teaching academic staff surveyed

Position	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Tutorial fellow	28	19.7	19.7
Assistant lecturer	19	13.4	13.4
Lecturer	70	49.3	49.3
Senior lecturer	18	12.7	12.7
Associate professor	7	4.9	4.9
Total	142	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.2.2 Age Bracket of Teaching Academic Staff

Table 4.3 reflects the age bracket of the teaching academic members of staff. The distribution of age was dominated by those aged between 40 and 50 years old (38.7%) and those between 30 and 40 years old (37.3%). The remaining 24% of the sample included staffers below 30 years (7.7%), between 50 and 60 years 11.3% and above 60 years (4.9%).

Table 4.3: Age bracket of academic staff surveyed

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
<30 years	11	7.7	7.7
30-40 years	53	37.3	37.4
40-50 years	55	38.7	38.7
50-60 years	16	11.3	11.3
>60 years	7	4.9	4.9
Total	**142**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.2.3 Gender of Teaching Academic Staff

As reflected in Figure 4.1 the research found out that a great percentage of the teaching academic members of staff were male (62.7%), as compared to the female counterparts (35.2%). This showed a fair balance were neither gender had occupied all the positions as proposed in the Kenyan constitution whereby there should be 1/3 rule in the employment positions.

4.2.4 Level of Education of Teaching Academic Staff

As reflected in Figure 4.2 below, 62.7% among the academic members of staff had postgraduate degrees other than a PhD, while 33.8% had Doctorate degrees, 0.7% had postgraduate diplomas and 2.8% did not indicate their level of education. This therefore indicated that universities should strive to improve the level of education of their academic members of staff to reduce the large percentage of those lacking Doctorate degrees.

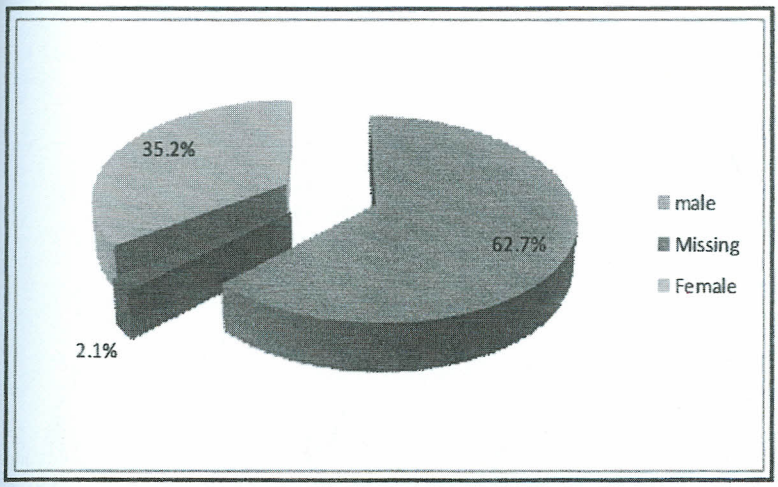

Figure 4.1: Gender of academic staff surveyed

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

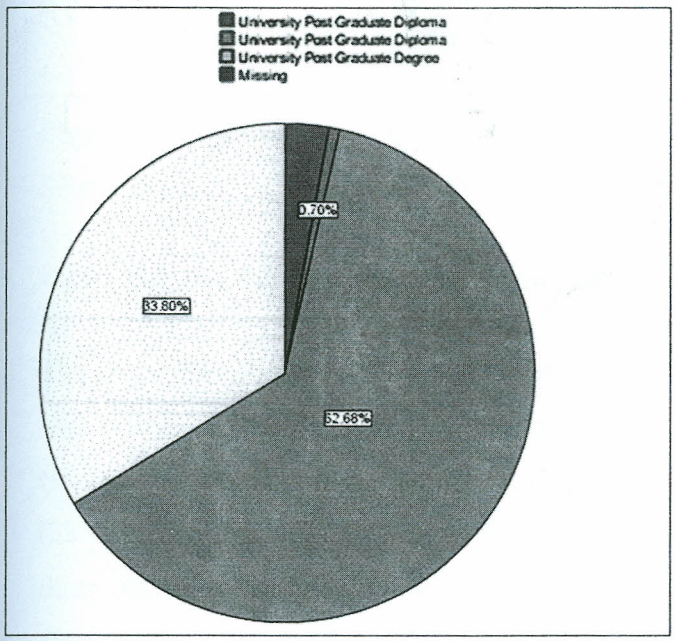

Figure 4.2: Level of education of academic staff surveyed

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.2.5 Affiliation of Respondents

The Figure 4.3 below illustrates that the majority of the one hundred and forty two (142) respondents of the academic teaching staff members were from Kenyatta University

(46.5%),Moi University constituted 38.7% while Maseno had 14.8%.

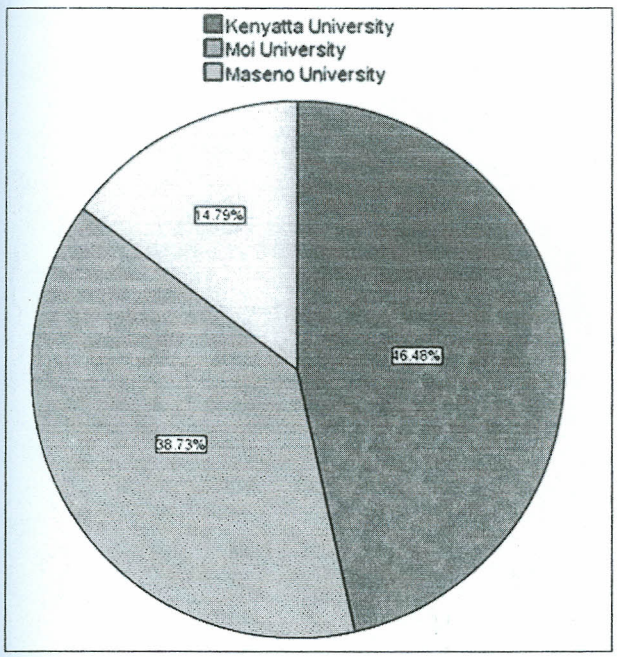

Figure 4.3: Public University where respondent works

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013).

4.2.6 School/Faculty in which Respondents Work

The researcher purposefully chose three of the biggest schools in the universities and this was based on the student population. Figure 4.4 below shows the total number of respondents from the schools of education (36.62%), arts, humanities and social sciences (33.80%) and business and economics (28.17%).These totals were aggregated from the three universities and put under one name to care for the various names used for each discipline.

4.2.7 Years in Current Position

Table 4.4 shows that a majority of the staff (60.6%) had been in their current position for a period of below five years while the minority (2.8%) has above twenty years of experience. This raises concern about the policy of public universities with regard to retention of the academic members of staff.

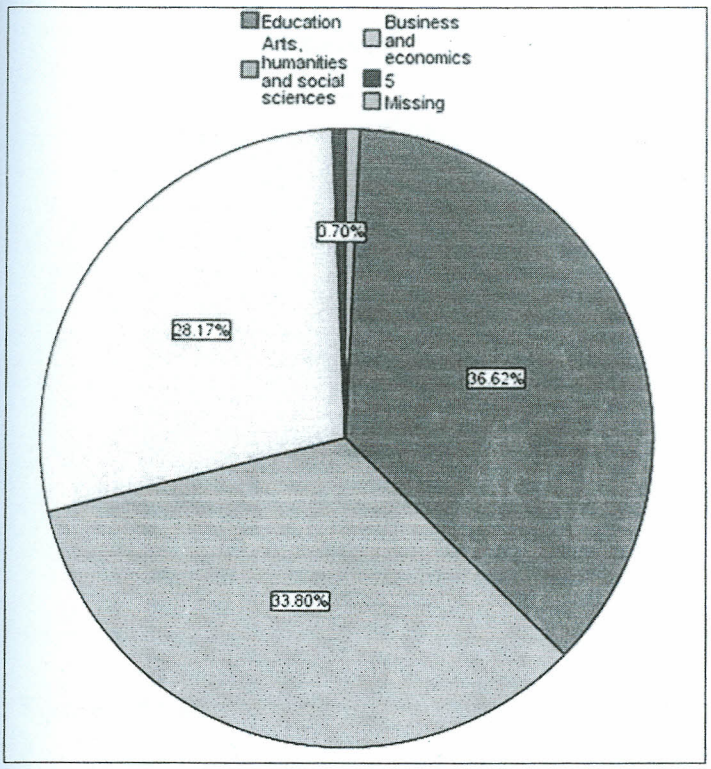

Figure 4.4: School of attachment of staff surveyed

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.4: Years of staff surveyed in current position

Number of Years	*Frequency*	*Percent (%)*
0-5	86	60.6
5-10	37	26.1
10-15	10	7.0
15-20	5	3.5
Above 20	4	2.8
Total	142	100

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.2.8 Terms of Employment

The teaching academic members of staff were mainly employed on permanent and contract basis as depicted by Figure 4.5. Majority of the staff members were on permanent terms(63.38%), while 30.99% were on contract terms, and 5.63% did not disclose their terms of employment.

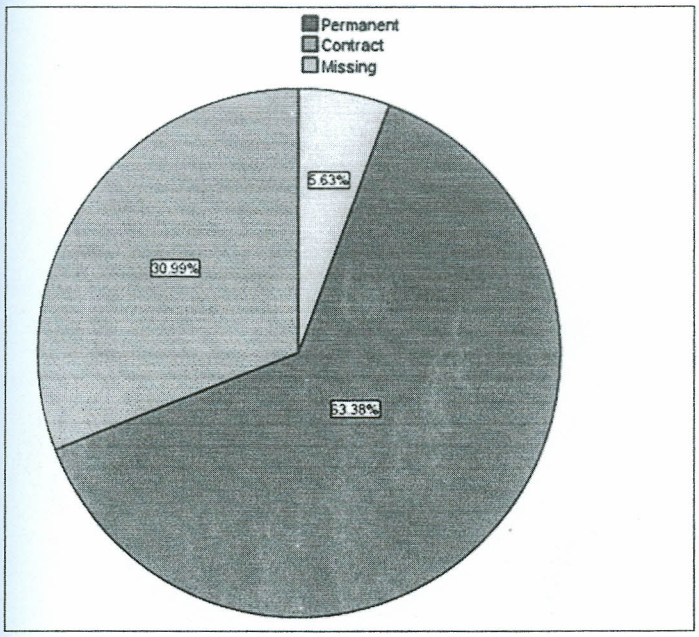

Figure 4.5: Terms of Employment

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3 Descriptive Statistics of Key Variables

4.3.1 Respondent's Awareness of Performance Contracting

The information presented in Figure 4.6 shows that a greater percentage of the academic members of staff were aware of performance contracting in the public universities (93.0%),while 4.2% were not aware about performance contracting in the public universities, and only 2.8% did not indicate whether they were aware of performance contracting or not.

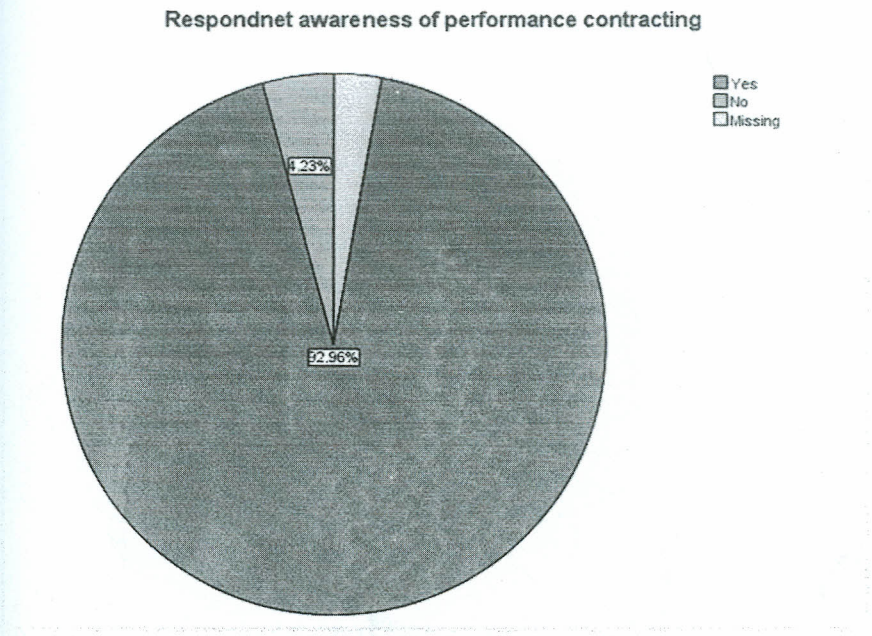

Figure 4.6: Respondents awareness of performance contracting

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.2Respondents'Understanding of Performance Contracting

Figure 4.7 indicates how various respondents had understood the concept of performance contracting .Based on their responses, 59.2% understood it as agreement on workload targets; 9.9% as recruitment and management by objectives for effectiveness and efficiency; 4.9% as government reforms for better service delivery; 16.2% as evaluation of the employees by themselves or the institution; 0.7% were not sure while 9.2% did not indicate their understanding of performance contracting.

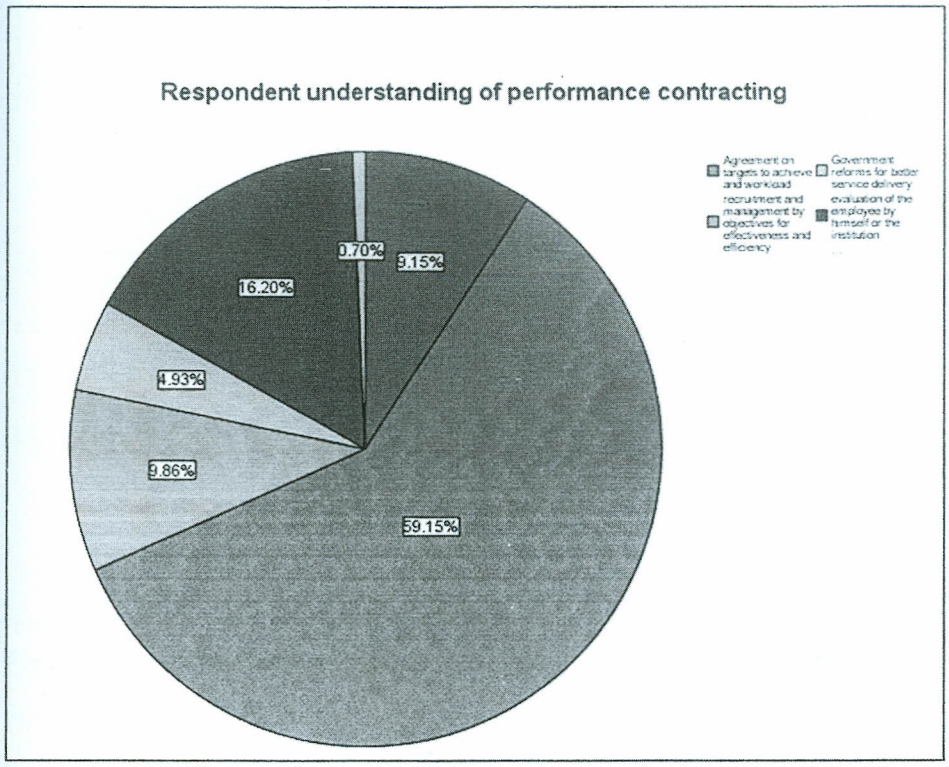

Figure 4.7: Respondent understanding of performance contracting

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.3 Departmental Performance Contract for the Current Academic Year

The researcher's intention was to find out whether the departments where the respondents were working in were on performance contract for the current academic year when the study was carried out. Figure 4.8 explains that 81.7% of the respondents worked in departments which were on a performance contract, while 14.8% were working in departments which were not on a performance contract, only 3.5% did not indicate.

4.3.4 Signing of Performance Contract for the Current Academic Year

In this section the interest was on ascertaining whether the respondents had personally signed a performance contract with their respective employers for the current academic year when the study was done. As reflected in Figure 4.9, the majority (70.4%)of the respondents had signed, and the minority(26.0%) had not signed while 3.5% did not indicate.

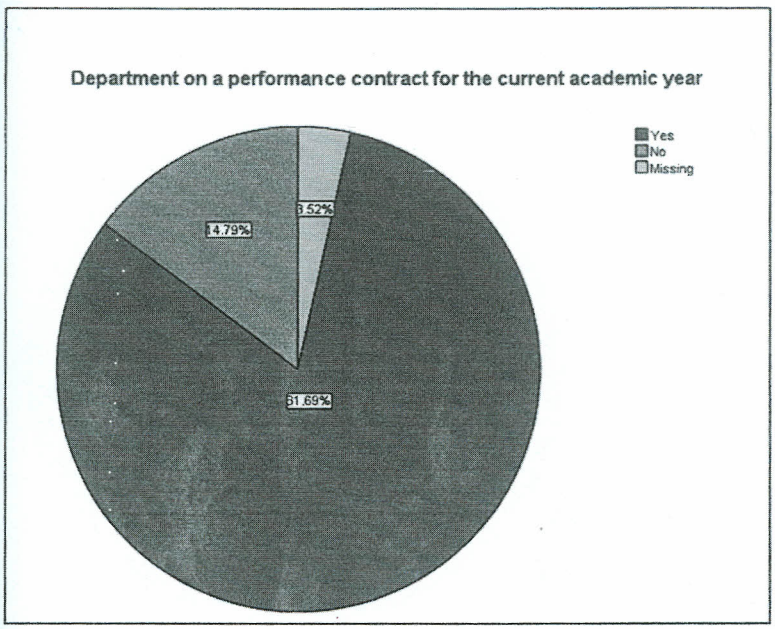

Figure 4.8: Department in charge of performance contract for academic year2012

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.5 Involvement of Internal stakeholders in Performance Contracting

The researcher in this section intended to find out from the respondents the level of involvement of the various internal stake holders i.e., university council members, management board members, top level management, middle level management and operational staff members in the process of performance contracting in the public universities in Kenya. Table 4.5 shows the involvement of university council members in performance contracting.

Table 4.5: Involvement of University council members

Involvement	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not aware	33	23.2	23.4
Never involved	3	2.1	2.1
Somehow involved	19	13.4	13.5
Fairly involved	29	20.4	20.6
Greatly involved	57	40.1	40.4
Total	141	99.3	100.0
Missing	1	0.7	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

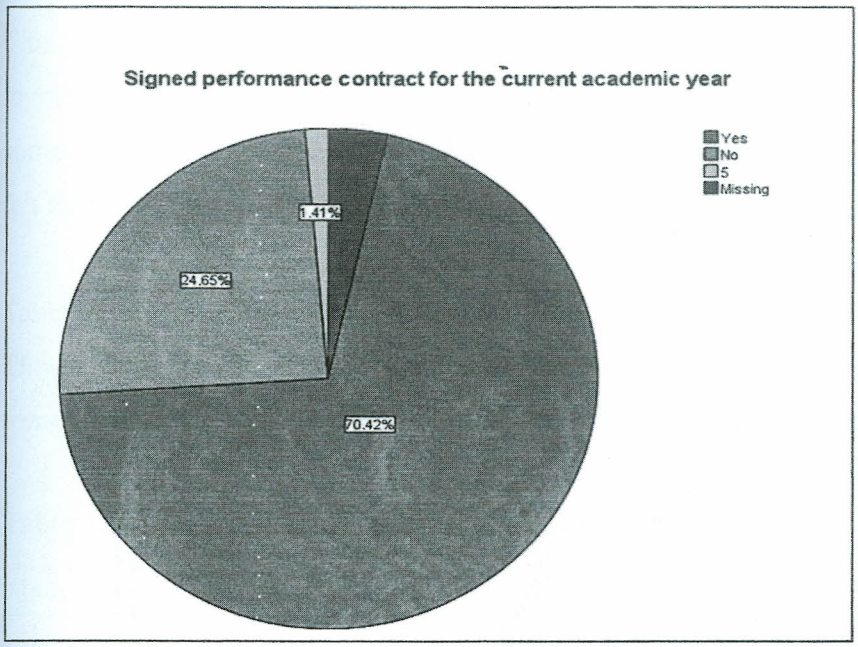

Figure 4.9: Signed performance contract for the current academic year
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Among the university council members, 23.4% reported having not been aware of their involvement, while others stated that council members were not involved (2.1%) or somehow involved (13.5%), fairly involved (20.6%) and greatly involved (40.4%). Figure 4.10 presents the involvement of university management board in the process of performance contracting.

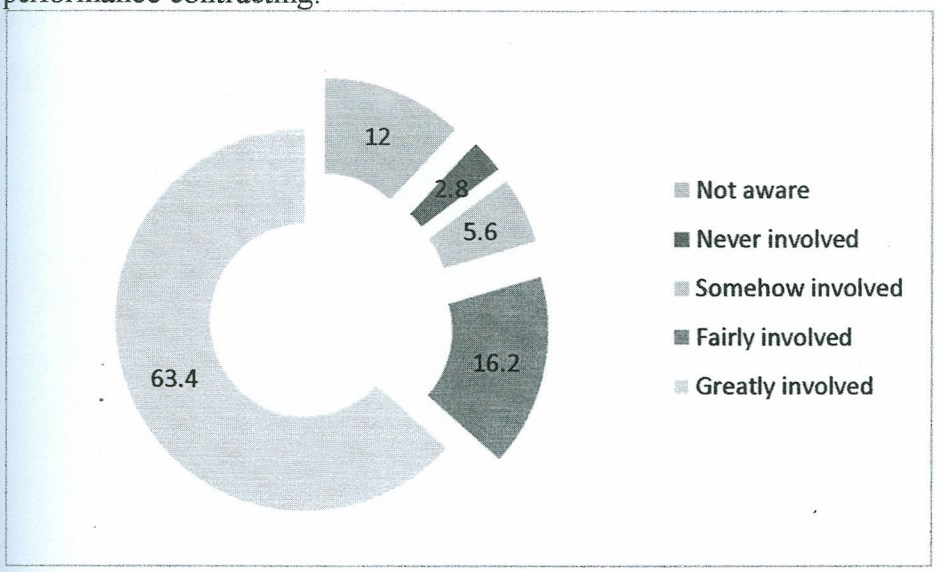

Figure 4.10: Involvement of university management board
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

This figure (4.10)shows that 12.0% of the respondents were not aware of their involvement, 2.8% indicated that they were never involved, 5.6% stated that they were somehow involved, 16.2% stated that they were fairly involved, and a majority of 63.4% felt that they were greatly involved.

Table 4.7 shows involvement of top level management in performance contracting. Though a few were not aware (5.6%) or never been involved (2.1%), a majority was somehow involved (8.5%), fairly involved(16.2%) or greatly involved(67.6%).

Table 4.7: Involvement of top level management

Involvement	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not aware	8	5.6	5.6
Never involved	3	2.1	2.1
Somehow involved	12	8.5	8.5
Fairly involved	23	16.2	16.2
Greatly involved	96	67.6	67.6
Total	142	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.11 shows the involvement of middle level management respondents in the process. They stated that 7.0% were not aware, 9.9% have never been involved,21.1% were somehow involved,32.4% were fairly involved and 29.6% were greatly involved.

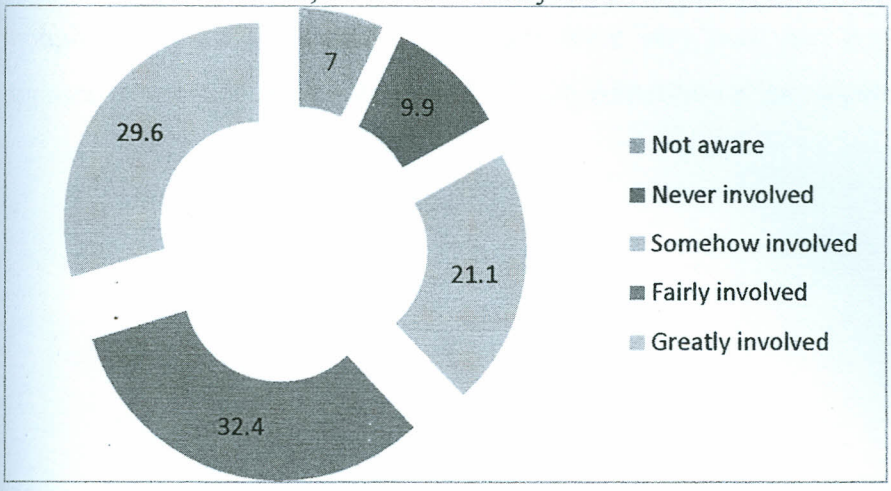

Figure 4.11: Involvement of Middle level management

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.8 presents that 12.1% of operational staff were not aware of their involvement in performance contracting while other respondents stated that 22.1%were never involved, 29.3% were somehow involved, 22.1%were fairly involved and 14.3% were greatly involved.

Table 4.8: Involvement of operational staff

Involvement	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not aware	17	12.0	12.1
Never involved	31	21.8	22.1
Somehow involved	41	28.9	29.3
Fairly involved	31	21.8	22.1
Greatly involved	20	14.1	14.3
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.6 Implementation of Performance Contract at University by Individuals

The researcher wished to find out how the universities had implemented the performance contracts in the universities at the `individual level. It can be noticed from Figure 4.12 that a majority of respondents (50%) felt the contracts were averagely implemented, even though 10% and 17.9% stated that there were very poor and poor implementation as opposed towel (20%)and very well (2.1%)implementation statements.

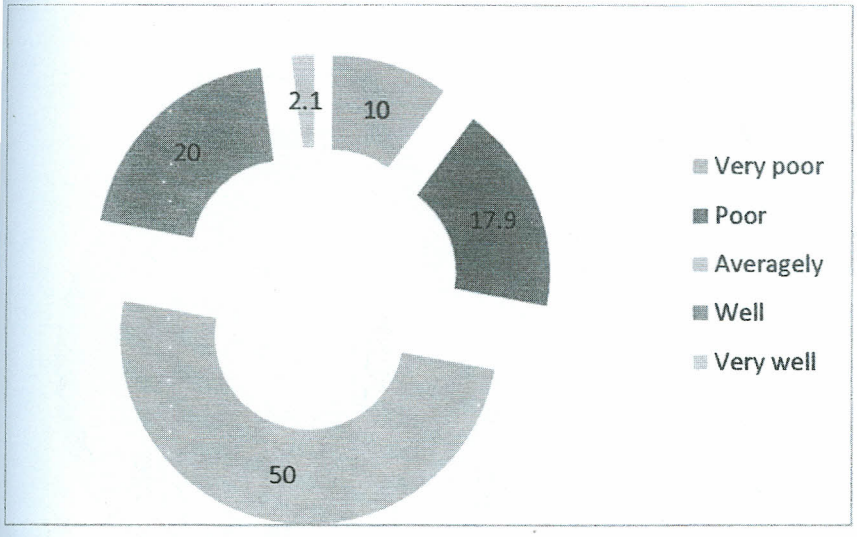

Figure 4.12: Performance Contract at university by individual members

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.7 Respondent's Involvement in Setting Performance Contract Targets

As depicted in Figure 4.13, the researcher found out that the greatest number of teaching academic members of staff (57.04%) was not involved in setting of performance targets, while 37.3% stated that they were involved, while those who did not indicate were 5.6%. The number of those involved could be explained by the fact that there are teaching academic members of staff who also perform administrative duties. And the number of those not involved could be explained by the fact that most teaching academic members of staff main function is research and teaching and dissemination of knowledge.

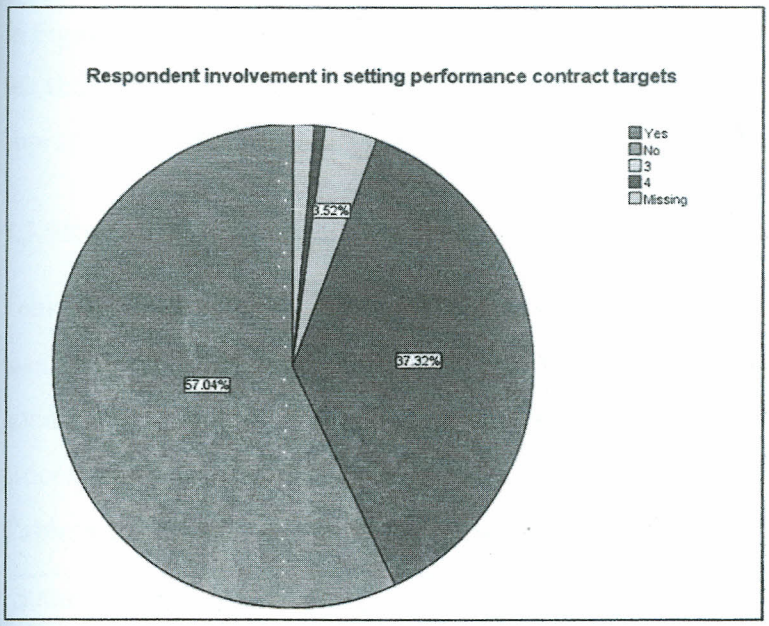

Figure 4.13:Respondents involvement in setting performance contract targets
Source: Field Data, (Researcher 2013)

4.3.8 Appropriateness of Targets set by Departments for Performance Contract

The respondents expressed their feelings on how they felt about the appropriateness of the set targets for the academic year when the research was undertaken. This expression is reflected in Figure 4.14.

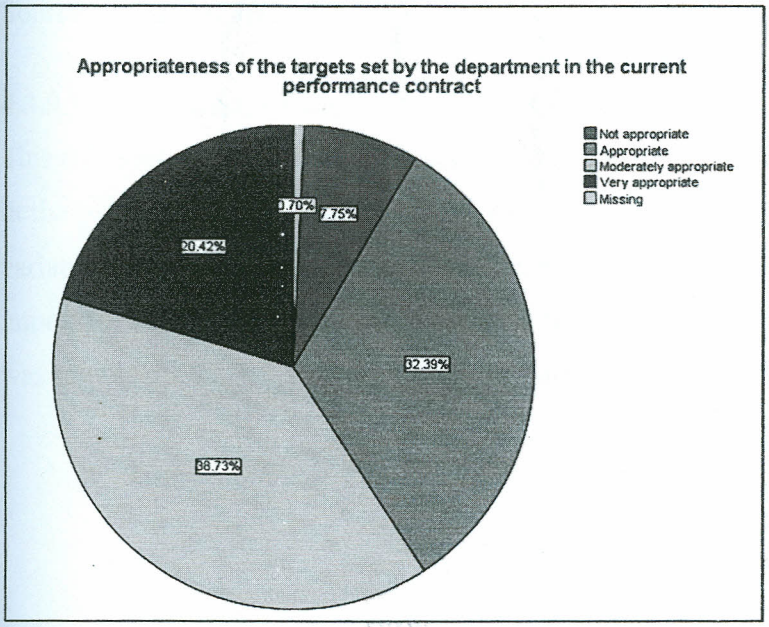

Figure 4.14:Appropriateness of the performance targets set
Source: Field Data, (Researcher 2013)

In Figure 4.14, 7.7% among respondents felt that the targets were not appropriate,32.4% felt the targets were appropriate,38.7% felt the targets were moderately appropriate,20.4% very appropriate while 0.7% did not express.

4.3.9Rating of Negotiation Process for the Performance Contract at University

Table 4.9 rates the negotiation process between the employees and the university management. The ratings were 7.9% very poor, 30.9% poor, 45.3% good, 12.2% very good,3.6%excellent. The indication is that those who felt good about the negotiation process were about 60%.There is therefore still need to improve these processes.

Table 4.9 Rating of negotiation between university employees and management

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Very Poor	11	7.7	7.9
Poor	43	30.3	30.9
Good	63	44.4	45.3
Very Good	17	12.0	12.2
Excellent	5	3.5	3.6
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.1 Performance Contracting Challenges

This sub-section explored the various challenges associated with performance contracting in the public universities. Figure4.15 expressed the aspect of disagreement on measuring variables where 11.3% felt that it was not important at all,11.3% felt it was slightly important,21.8% reasonablyimportant,29.6% felt it was important, while 24.6% felt it was important, only 1.4% of the respondents did not state.

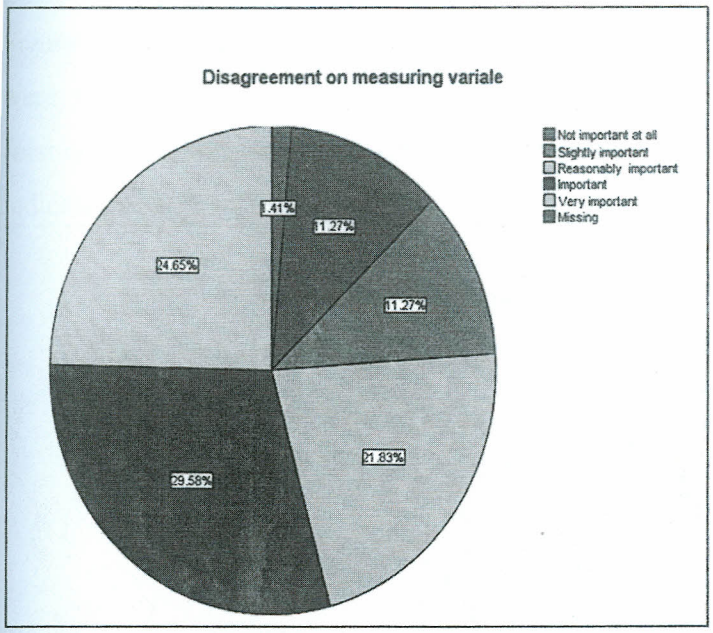

Figure 4.15: Disagreement on measuring variables

Source: Field Data, (Researcher 2013)

In Figure 4.16, the researcher was interested in ascertaining the ranking in respect of slow pace of communication, from the findings 4.2% felt it was not important,11.3% felt it was slightlyimportant,21.1% reasonably important,28.9% important, and 33.1% very important, while 1.4% did not indicate.

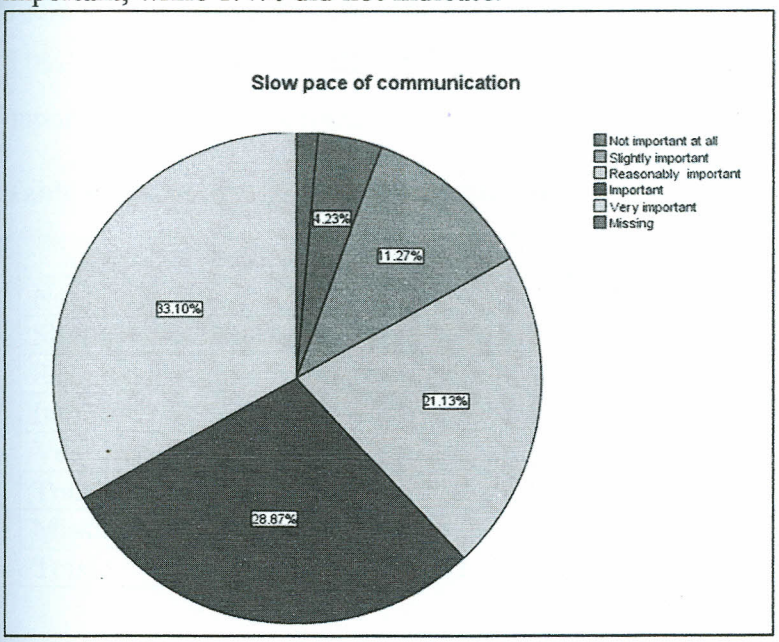

Figure 4.16:Ranking of the slow pace of communication

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.17 expressed misunderstanding of targets by the respondents and the findings were that 2.1% felt it was not important at all,4.2% felt slightly important,29.6% reasonably important,36.6% important and 25.4% very important while 2.1% did not indicate.

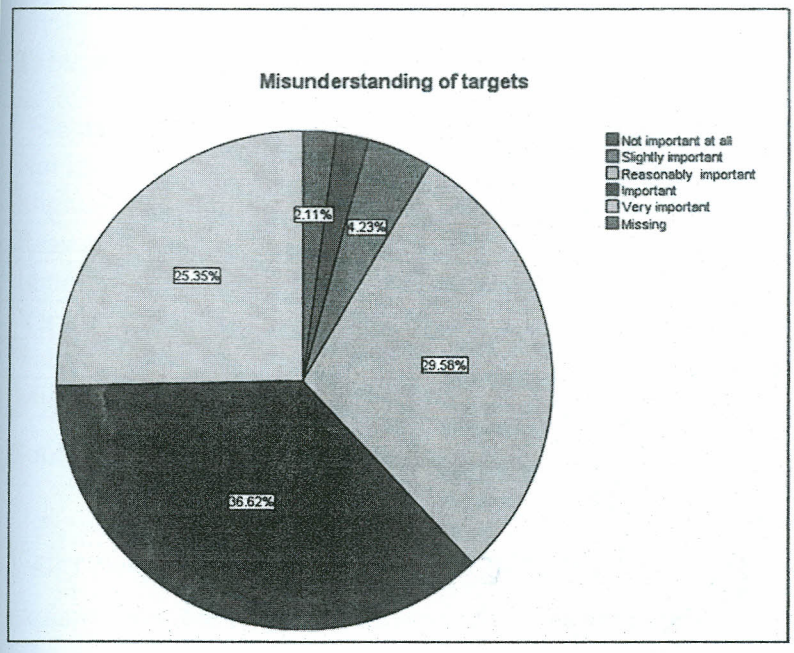

Figure 4.17: Ranking of misunderstanding of targets

Source: Field Data, (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.10expresses the challenge of resistance to culture change. Findings reveal that 5.0% not important at all, 18.7% felt it was slightly important, 27.3% reasonably important, 29.5% Important, 19.4% very important.

Table 4.10: Resistance of culture change

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important at all	7	4.9	5.0
Slightly important	26	18.3	18.7
Reasonably important	38	26.8	27.3
Important	41	28.9	29.5
Very important	27	19.0	19.4
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

In Table 4.11 the respondents expressed their feelings on the challenge of resistance from fear of loss of jobs. Findings from this table concur that fear of loss of jobs was rated not important at all (10.1%), slightly important (11.5%), reasonably important (28.1%), important (27.3%), and very important (23.0%).

Table 4.11:Resistance from fear of loss of jobs

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important at all	14	9.9	10.1
Slightly important	16	11.3	11.5
Reasonably important	39	27.5	28.1
Important	38	26.8	27.3
Very important	32	22.5	23.0
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.18 addresses the challenge of non-linkage of staff performance to rewards and explains how the respondents reacted to this challenge,2.1%felt it was not important at all 12.7% felt it was slightly important, 22.5% reasonably important, 32.4% important,28.2% very important and2.1% did not indicate.

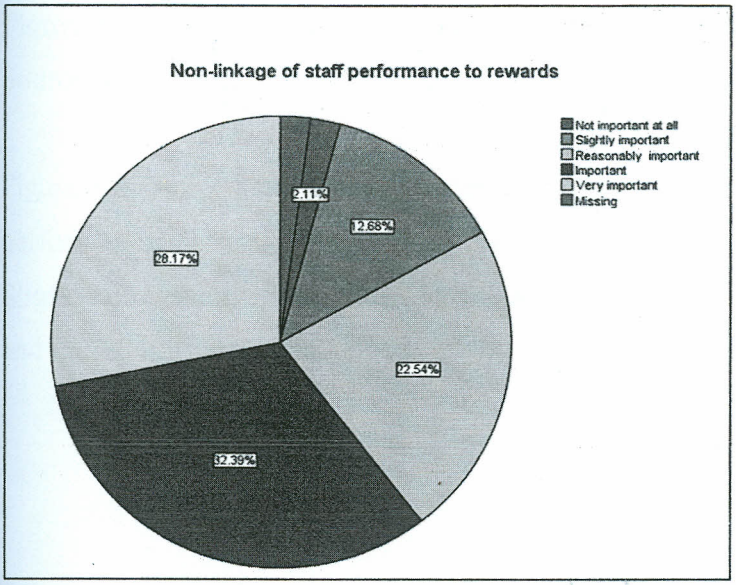

Figure 4.18: Non-linkage of staff performance to rewards

Source: Field Data, (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.19 explains the findings as per the respondents on the challenge of slow implementation of performance contracting and 2.8% felt that it was not important at all, 6.3% felt was slightly important, 19.0% felt it was reasonably important,35.9% felt it was important, 33.8% very important and 2.1% did not indicate.

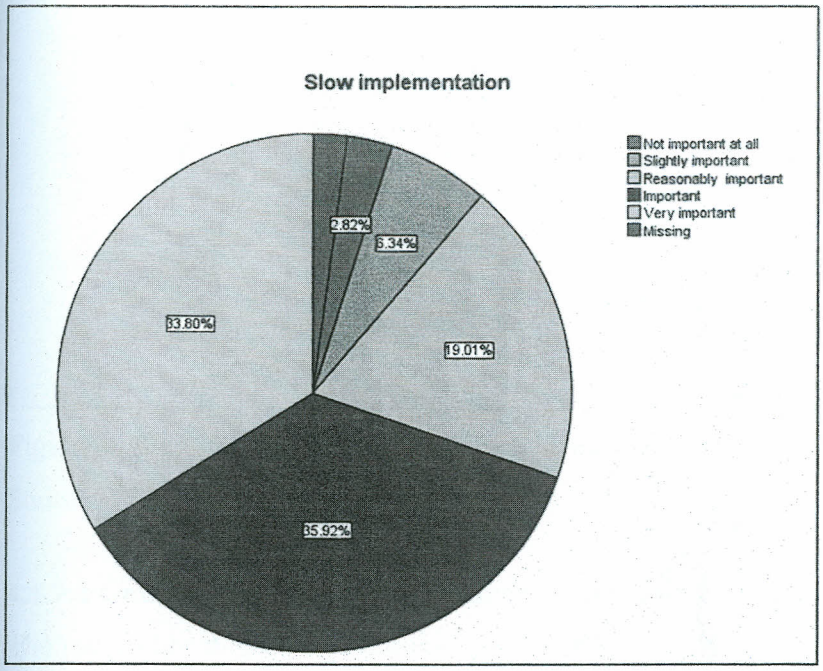

Figure 4.19: Slow implementation of performance contracting rewards
Source: Field Data, (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.20 reflects the findings as per the respondents challenge on misunderstanding of performance matrix weights and 5.6%felt it was not important at all, 7.7% felt it was Slightly important, 18.3% felt it was Reasonably important,30.99 felt it was important and 35.2 felt it was very important.

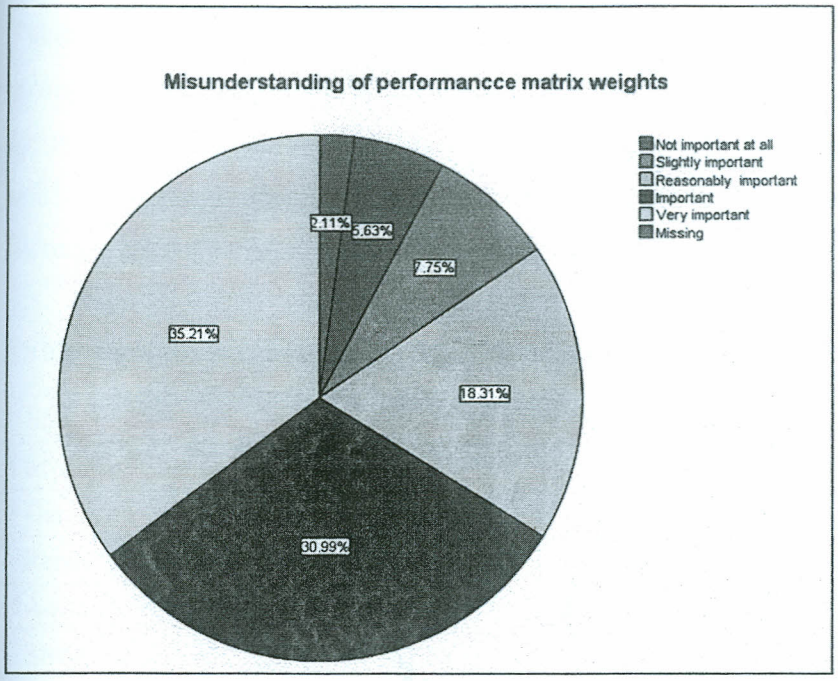

Figure 4.20: Misunderstanding of performance matrix weights

Source: Field Data, (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.2 Contributions to Performance Contracting in Public Universities

The researcher wished to examine the extent to which various institutional practices and the operational environment contribute to performance contracting. The findings are supported by the data in the following tables and figures. In Table 4.12 the contribution was in respect of freedom to initiate new academic programmes and 12.1% strongly disagree, 10.0% disagree, 14.3% fairly agree, 33.6% agree, and 30.0% strongly agree.

Table 4.12Freedom to initiate new academic programmes

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly disagree	17	12.0	12.1
Disagree	14	9.9	10.0
Fairly agree	20	14.1	14.3
Agree	47	33.1	33.6
Strongly agree	42	29.6	30.0
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.13 shows the contribution of strengthening of academic programmes and 5.8% strongly disagree, 10.1% disagree, 19.4% fairly agree, 24.5% agree, and 40.3% strongly agree. Figure 4.21shows that contributions was on enhancement of individual autonomy and5.0% Strongly disagree, 12.2% Disagree, 21.6% Fairly agree,30.9% Agree,30.2% Strongly agree.

Table 4.13: Strengthening of academic process

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly disagree	8	5.6	5.8
Disagree	14	9.9	10.1
Fairly agree	27	19.0	19.4
Agree	34	23.9	24.5
Strongly agree	56	39.4	40.3
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

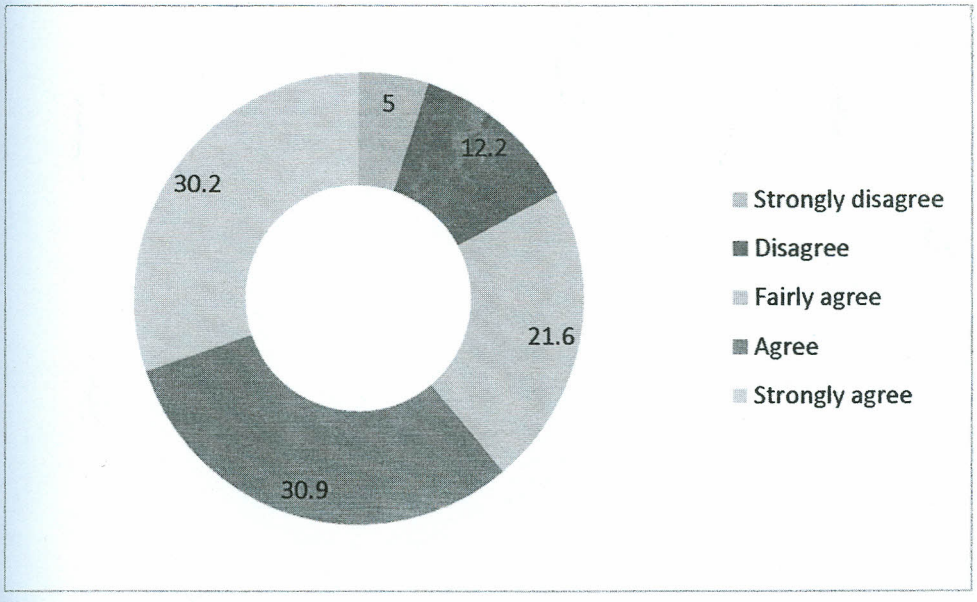

Figure 4.21:Enhancement of individual autonomy

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.14 reflects the contribution of Great automation of academic work and the results were 7.9% strongly disagree, 9.4% Disagree,19.4% fairly agree, 32.4% Agree and 30.9% Strongly agree. Figure 4.22 presents the contribution of better utilization of academic resources and the results were 6.5% Strongly disagree,9.4% Disagree, 15.8% Fairly agree, 32.4% Agree, and 36.0% Strongly agree.

Table 4.14:Great automation of academic work

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly disagree	11	7.7	7.9
Disagree	13	9.2	9.4
Fairly agree	27	19.0	19.4
Agree	45	31.7	32.4
Strongly agree	43	30.3	30.9
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

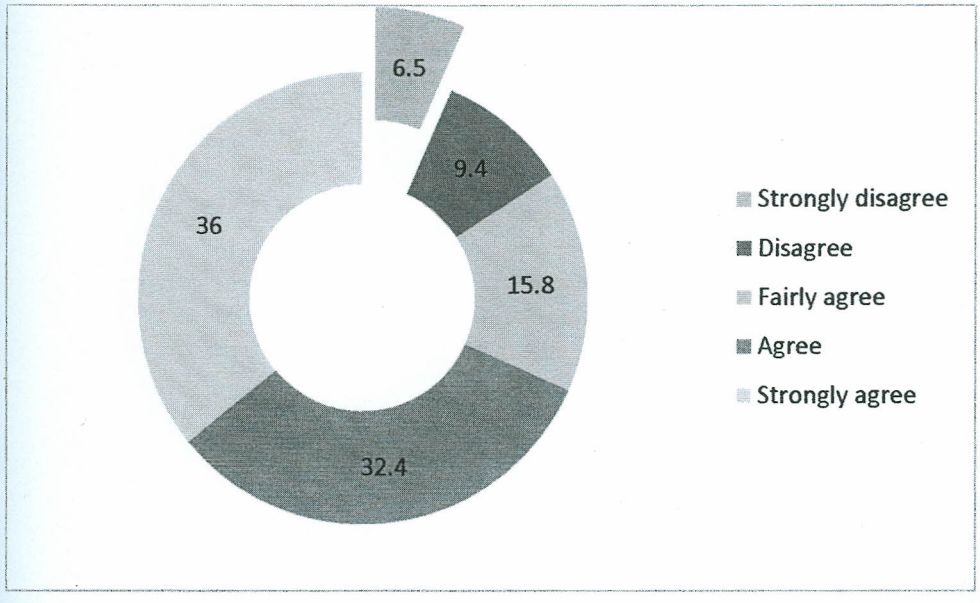

Figure 4.22:Better utilization of academic resources

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.15 displays the contribution of Better customer service and the results were 7.1% Strongly disagree,7.9% Disagree, 16.4% Fairly agree, 35.7% agree while 32.9 Strongly agree. Figure 4.23presents the finds on the contribution of more focused and deliberate planning and the results were 8.6%strongly disagree, 7.9% disagree, 17.9% Fairly agree, 37.9% Agree, and 27.9% Strongly agree.

Table 4.15:Better customer service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly disagree	10	7.0	7.1
Disagree	11	7.7	7.9
Fairly agree	23	16.2	16.4
Agree	50	35.2	35.7
Strongly agree	46	32.4	32.9
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

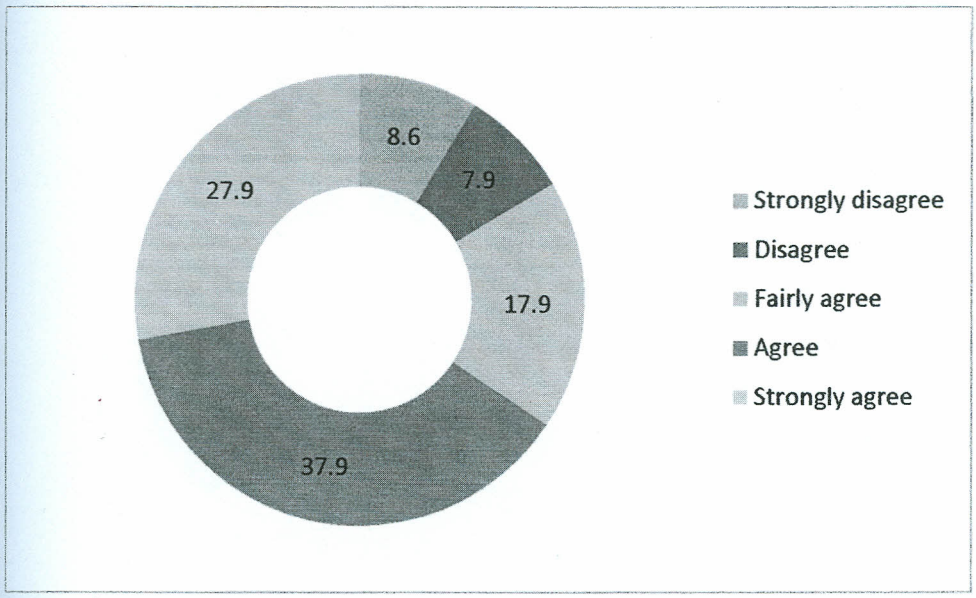

Figure 4.23:More focused and deliberate planning

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.16 presents the findings for better unit cost management and 8.0%Strongly disagree, 9.4% Disagree, 28.3% Fairly agree, 34.8% Agree, and 19.6% Strongly agree. Figure 4.24 presents the findings on the contribution of freedom to take and manage risks and the findings are 9.4% strongly disagree, 15.8% disagree, 34.5% fairly agree, 27.3%agree, and 12.9% strongly agree.

Table 4.16: Better unit cost management

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Strongly disagree	11	7.7	8.0
Disagree	13	9.2	9.4
Fairly agree	39	27.5	28.3
Agree	48	33.8	34.8
Strongly agree	27	19.0	19.6
Total	138	97.2	100.0
Missing	4	2.8	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

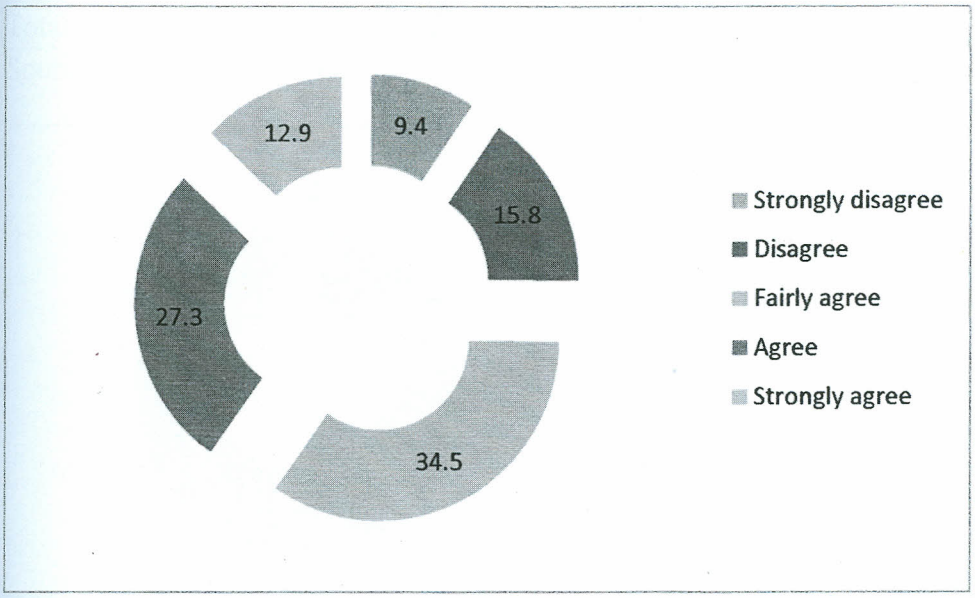

Figure 4.24: Freedom to take and manage risks

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.3 Overall Service Delivery before Implementation of Performance Contracting

The concern of the researcher in this sub-section was to ascertain whether performance contracting concept had made any impact in the level of service delivery. The researcher therefore rated service delivery before and after implementation of performance contract.

The level of service delivery before implementation of performance contracting is reflected in Table 4.17 while the level of service delivery after implementation of service delivery is reflected in Figure 4.25. Before implementation,2.2% indicated that service delivery was very good, 12.3% good, 65.2% average, 18.8% poor. And 1.4% did not know.

Table 4.17:The overall service before implementation of performance contracting

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Very good	3	2.1	2.2
Good	17	12.0	12.3
Average	90	63.4	65.2
Poor	26	18.3	18.8
Don't Know	2	1.4	1.4
Total	138	97.2	100.0
Missing	4	2.8	
Total	142	100	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

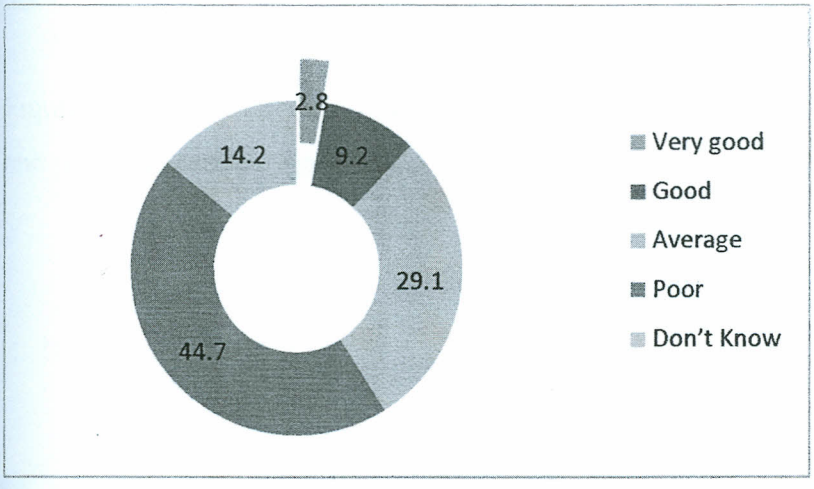

Figure 4.25:The overall service after implementation of performance contracting
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure4.25 reveals that 2.8% of respondents indicated that the overall service after implementation of performance contracting was very good, 9.2% and 29.1% said that it was good and average, respectively; while 44.7% admitted that it was poor. Only a few did not know what to say (14.1%).

4.3.9.4 Relationship between Performance Contracting and Management Tools

The researcher's interest was to establish the relationship between performance contracting and strategic plan, performance management, annual budget and employment contract in public universities. Table 4.18 reflects relationship between performance contracting and strategic plan, the findings are that 4.3% direct, 8.6% indirect, and 87.1% Not related.

Table 4.18:Relationship between performance contracting and strategic plan

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Direct	6	4.2	4.3
Indirect	12	8.5	8.6
Not related	121	85.2	87.1
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.26 presents the findings on the relationship between performance contracting and performance management

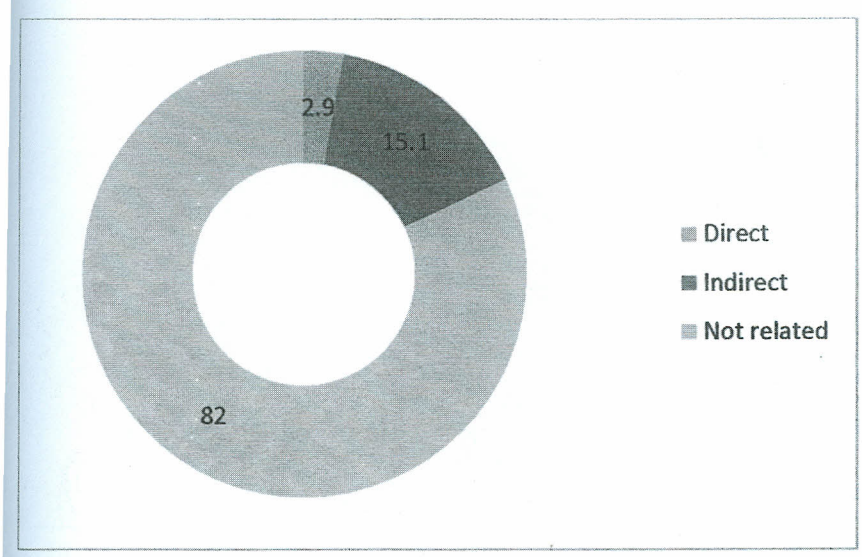

Figure 4.26:Linking performance contracting to Performance management
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

According to Figure 4.26, 2.9%of the respondents felt there was direct relationship, while 15.1% and 82% sensed an indirect and no relationship at all, respectively.Table 4.19 presents the findings of the relationship between performance contracting and Annual budget.

Table 4.19:Relationship between performance contracting and Annual budget

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Direct	10	7.0	7.2
Indirect	45	31.7	32.4
Not related	83	58.5	59.7
Total	138	97.9	100.0
Missing	4	2.8	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Results in Table 4.19 reveal that 7.2% felt there was direct, 32.4% indirect relationship, and 59.7% felt they were not related. Figure4.27 presents the findings on the relationship between performance contracting and Employment contract, the findings were that 11.6% direct, 39.1% indirect, 44.2% not related, while 1.4% did not indicate.

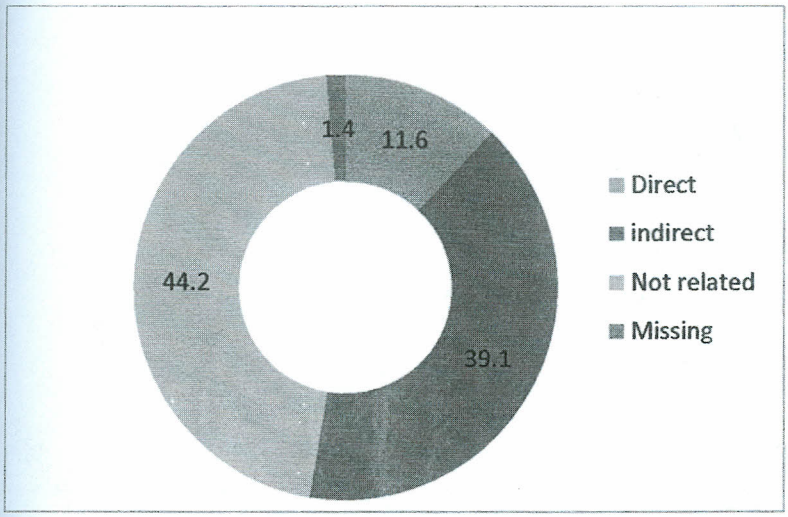

Figure4.27:Linkage between performance contracting and Employment contract
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.5Important Strategic Measures to Performance Contracting

The researcher was interested in finding out the extent to which various strategic measures as presented in the findings below were important to performance contracting in public universities. Table 4.20 presents the findings on Performance contracting and market share.

Table 4.20: Performance contracting and market share

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important at all	19	13.4	13.6
Slightly important	15	10.6	10.7
Reasonably important	39	27.5	27.9
Important	27	19.0	19.3
Very important	40	28.2	28.6
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

This Table shows that the market share was Not important at all (13.6%), Slightly important (10.7%), Reasonably important (27.9%),Important (19.3%), and Very important(28.6%).

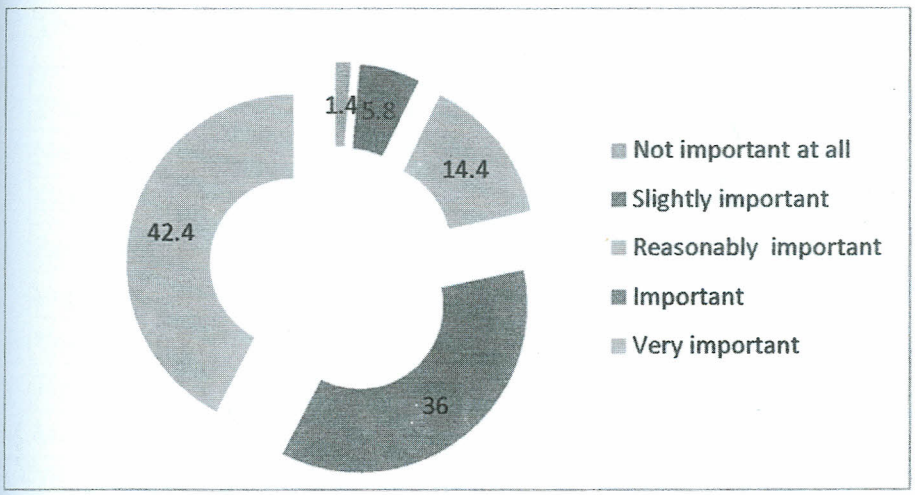

Figure 4.28: Performance contracting and employee competence

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Findings on performance contracting and employee competence(Figure 4.28) present the following ratios: 1.4% Not important at all, 5.8% Slightly important, 14.4% Reasonably important, 36.0% and Important, 42.4%.Table 4.21 presents the findings on performance contracting and number of graduates, the findings are 7.1% not important at all, 10.7% slightly important, 35.0 % Reasonably important, 22.1% Important, and 25.0% Very important.

Table 4.21: Performance contracting and number of graduates

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important at all	10	7.0	7.1
Slightly important	15	10.6	10.7
Reasonably important	49	34.5	35.0
Important	31	21.8	22.1
Very important	35	24.6	25.0
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.22 relates performance contracting and number of students admitted.

Table 4.22: Performance contracting and number of students admitted

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important at all	12	8.5	8.6
Slightly important	18	12.7	12.9
Reasonably important	39	27.5	28.1
Important	40	28.2	28.8
Very important	30	21.1	21.6
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

This table reveals that the number of students admitted was as follows: 8.6% not important at all, 12.9% slightly important, 28.1% reasonably important, 28.8% important, and 21.6% very important.

Figure 4.29 shows the findings of performance contracting and student population, as reflected,6.5% felt that it was not important at all, 13.0% felt it was slightly important, 29.7% felt it was reasonably important,26.8% felt it was important, and 23.9% very important.

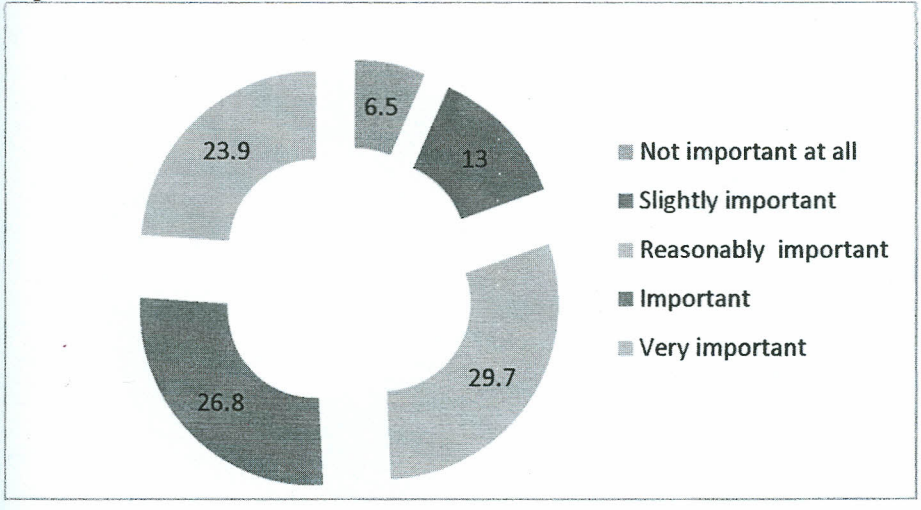

Figure 4.29:Performance contracting and student population
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.23 presents the findings on performance contracting and income generated.

Table 4.23: Performance contracting and income generated

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important at all	10	7.0	7.2
Slightly important	15	10.6	10.9
Reasonably important	38	26.8	27.5
Important	39	27.5	28.3
Very important	36	25.3	26.1
Total	138	97.2	100.0
Missing	4	2.8	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

According to Table 4.23, 7.2% among respondents felt that the income generated was not important at all, 10.9% slightly important, 27.5% reasonably important, 28.3% felt it was important and 26.1% felt it was very important.

Figure 4.30 presents the findings on performance contracting and customer satisfaction, 5.7% of the respondents felt that it was not important at all, 4.3% felt it was slightly important, 10.7% reasonably important, 29.3% felt it was important, and 50.0% indicated it was very important

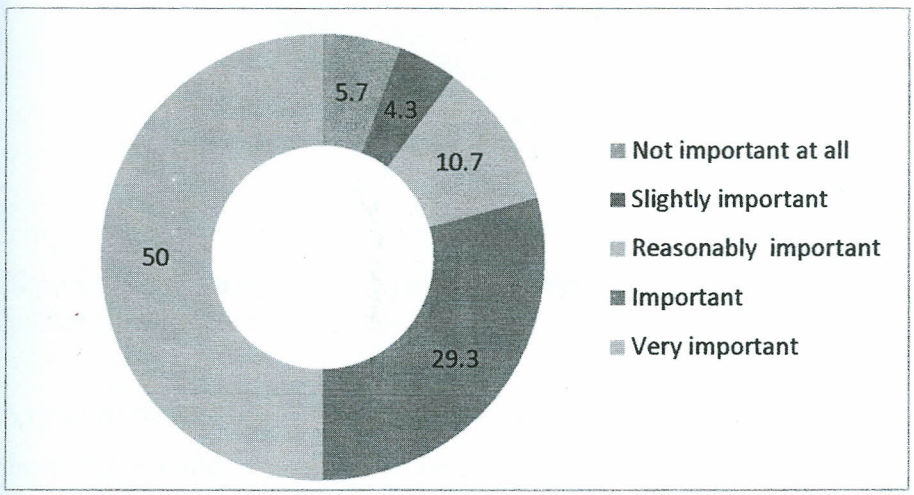

Figure4.30: Performance contracting and customer satisfaction
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.6 Performance Contracting, Teaching Workload and Service Delivery

The researcher in this sub-section explored different parameters ranging from innovativeness, recommended teaching workload, whether the teaching workload was more than recommended. Also, the challenges faced in teaching were more than recommended workload, as well as how the respondents overcome the challenges, the aspects of teaching workload which are hindrance to service delivery, the most attractive aspect of the respondents work, the areas requiring innovativeness in the universities, whether the respondent has ever come up with an innovative idea and how the customer responded to the implemented idea, the extent to which the suggested measures are effective in customer satisfaction and whether the concept of performance contracting has improved effectiveness and efficiency in the respondents work. These findings are presented in the following figures and tables.

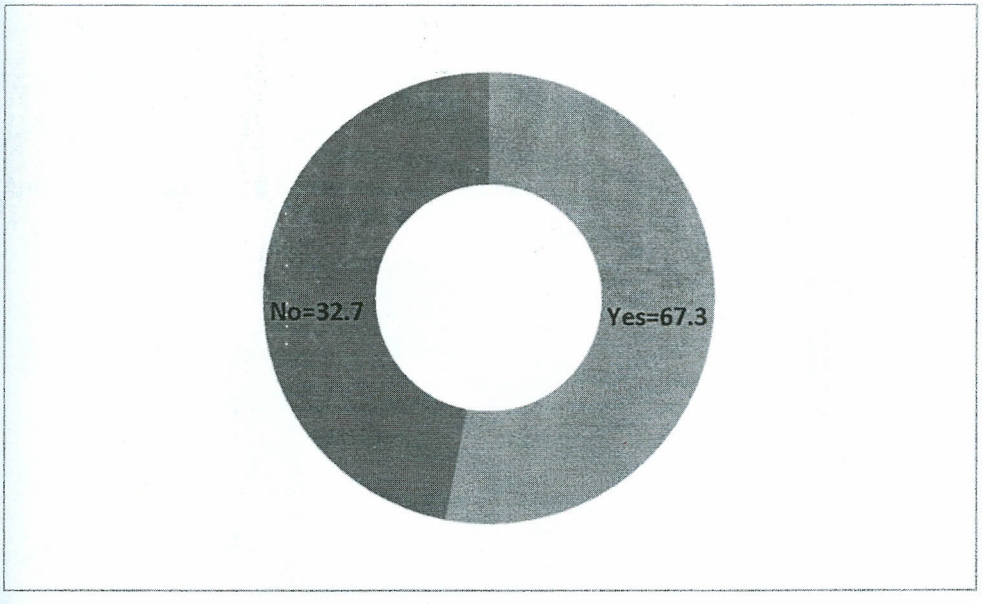

Figure 4.31:Management of public universities support of innovative teaching ideas
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

As reflected in Figure 4.31above 67.3% of the respondents expressed the feeling that there was support of innovative teaching ideas by the management of public universities, while 32.7% felt there was no support. The information in Table4.24reflects the responses in respect of the recommended teaching workload by respondents for that year.

Table 4.24:Recommended teaching workload in the university per academic year

Workload	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
1	1	.7	.7
2	2	1.4	1.4
3	16	11.3	11.3
4	32	22.5	22.5
5	8	5.6	5.6
6	69	48.6	48.6
Missing	14	9.9	9.9
Total	142	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

A majority among respondents (48.6%) recommended 6 units, while 0.7% only showed a preference for1 unit. This disparity could be explained by the fact that some respondents could have been holding administrative positions either during the whole academic year or part thereof. In Figure 4.32, the researcher wished to ascertain whether the respondents had taught more units than recommended by the university in that academic year.

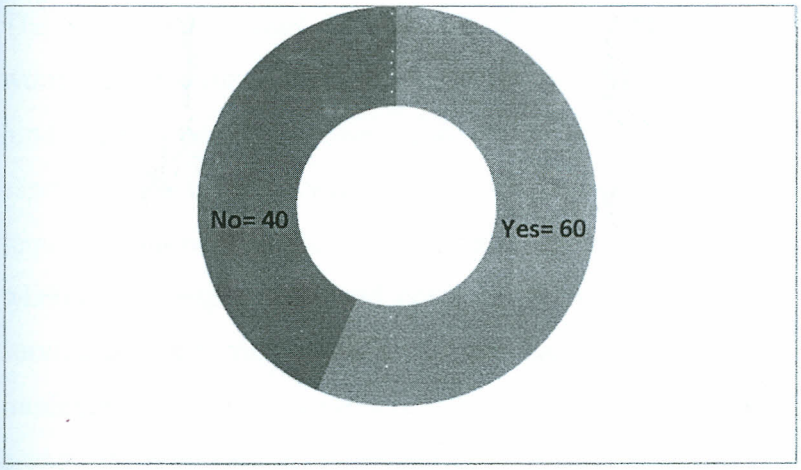

Figure 4.32:The teaching workload more than the recommended
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

A majority (60.0%) indicated that they had taught more, while 40.0% did not teach more than recommended. This expresses the concern then how one is able to handle the extra

units within the specified time and what the university should then do. This also brings the question of whether this could be a contributing factor to the slow pace of PhD completion by some staff member in certain schools. Table 4.25 draws its observations from figure 4.32.

Table 4.25:Challenges of teaching more than the recommended workload

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	66	46.5	73.3
No	24	16.9	26.7
Total	90	63.4	100.0
Missing	52	36.6	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

This table points out that there are challenges associated with teaching more than recommended workforce with 73.3% stating that there are challenges and only,26.7% indicating that they did not find any challenges It will be of great interest and research to explore this area and how universities are managing such extremes

The researcher wished to find out the challenges associated with the recommended workload, how the challenges were overcome, the areas of teaching workload which are a hindrance to service delivery and which of the hindrances were more important, the aspects of the teaching workload which were considered as more attractive and the areas requiring innovativeness in the public universities. The researcher also sought to know whether the respondents had come up with any innovative idea during their period of service delivery and implemented the same and how the customers responded to the implemented idea. Figure 4.33 illustrates the findings in respect of the challenges associated with teaching recommended workload and,36.6% cited large classes,16.2% long and late teaching hours,4.2% loss of time due to clashing time table and travels,2.1% limited time and short semesters, while 40.8% did not indicate.

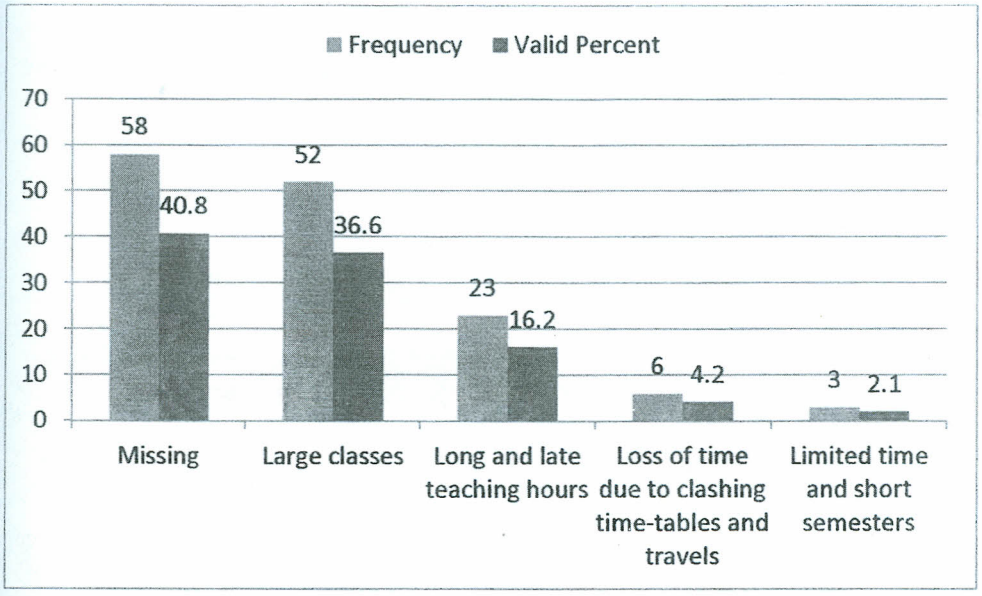

Figure 4.33:Challenges of teaching recommended workload
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.26 illustrates how the above cited challenges were overcome,20.4% stated that they divided classes and group discussions, 20.4% stated flexible schedule and perseverance,12.7% stated self-organization, 6.3% co-teaching and co-marking,while40.1% did not indicate.

Table 4.26: How challenges of teaching recommended workload were overcome

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Missing	57	40.1	40.1
Divided classes and group discussions	29	20.4	20.4
Flexible schedule and perseverance	29	20.4	20.4
Self-organization	18	12.7	12.7
Co-teaching and co-marking	9	6.3	6.3
Total	142	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.34 illustrates the aspects of teaching workload which are considered a hindrance to service delivery.

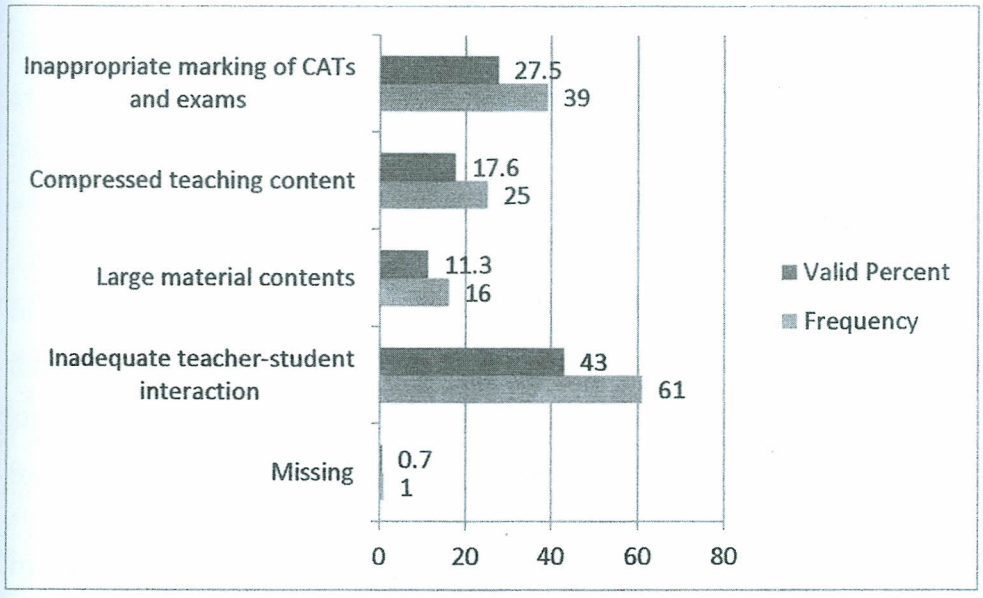

Figure 4.34:Aspect of teaching workload considered a hindrance to service delivery
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Findings from this figure showed that 43% among respondents cited inadequate teacher-student interaction,11.3% large material contents, 17.6% compressed teaching content, 27.5% cited inappropriate marking of CATs and exams, while 0.7% did not indicate. Table 4.27 illustrates how the respondents ranked the responses in respect of aspect of teaching workload as a hindrance to service delivery.

Table 4.27:Ranking of aspects of teaching workload hindering service delivery

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Missing	1	.7	.7
Inadequate teacher-student interaction	61	43.0	43.0
Large material contents	16	11.3	11.3
Compressed teaching content	25	17.6	17.6
Inappropriate marking of CATs and exams	39	27.5	27.5
Total	142	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Results show that 43% among respondents ranked inadequate teacher-student interaction as the most important,11.3% ranked large material contents as most important, 17.6% ranked compressed teaching content as most important, 27.5% ranked inappropriate marking of CATs and examinations as most important, while 0.7% did not rank.

In figure 4.35the researcher presents the most attractive aspect of work and26.1% stated that it was student-teacher interaction and prestige, 26.8% learning by doing and knowledge acquisition, 8.5% ICT and automation of services, 28.9% academic freedom for research and part-timing, 6.3% socio-economic incentives,while3.5% did not indicate.

In respect of an area requiring innovativeness for service delivery table 4.28explains that 35.2% supported ICT and CCTV for exam surveillance, 51.4% suggested innovative methods for teaching and making exams, 3.5% suggested staff specialization, 8.5% suggested research support, while 1.4% did not offer any suggestion.

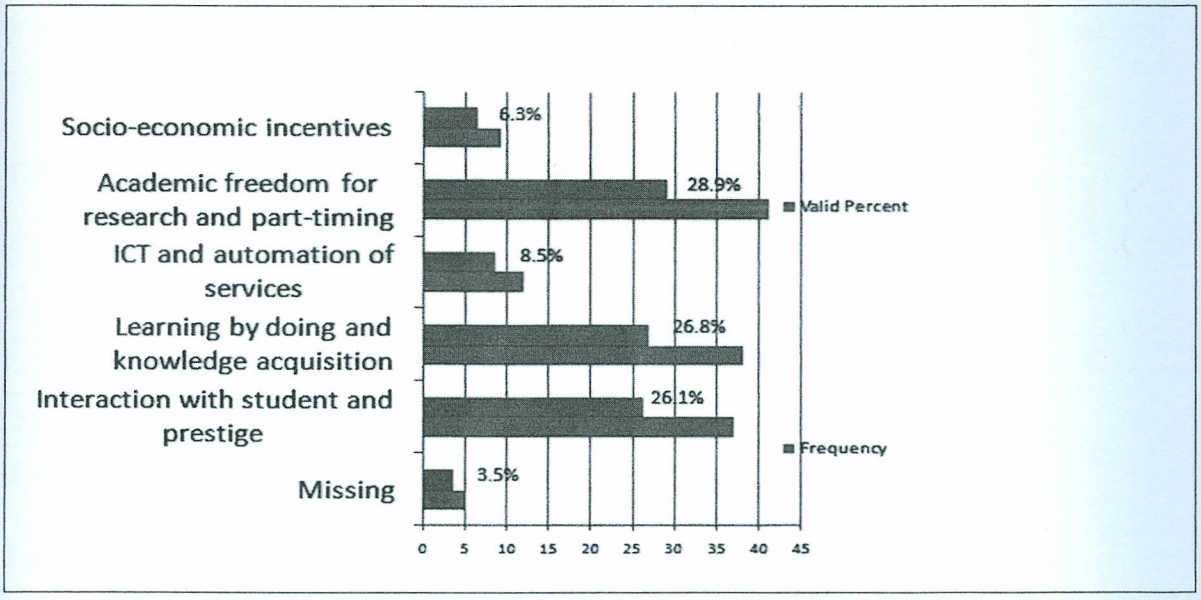

Figure 4.35:The most attractive aspect of work
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.28: Type of innovativeness required at the university

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Missing	2	1.4	1.4
ICT and CCTV for exam surveillance	50	35.2	35.2
Innovative methods for teaching and making exams	73	51.4	51.4
Staff specialization	5	3.5	3.5
Research support	12	8.5	8.5
Total	142	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

In respect of coming up with an innovative idea, Table 4.29explains that 54.2% had come, 39.4% had not while6.3% did not indicate. In reference to response from customers about the implemented idea, the researcher in figure 4.36 established that 5% were not satisfied, 17.5% weresatisfied,28.8% fairly satisfied, 27.5% highly satisfied, and 21.3% excellently satisfied.

Table 4.29: Innovativeness followed by implementation at university level

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Missing	9	6.3	6.3
Yes	77	54.2	54.2
No	56	39.4	39.4
Total	142	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

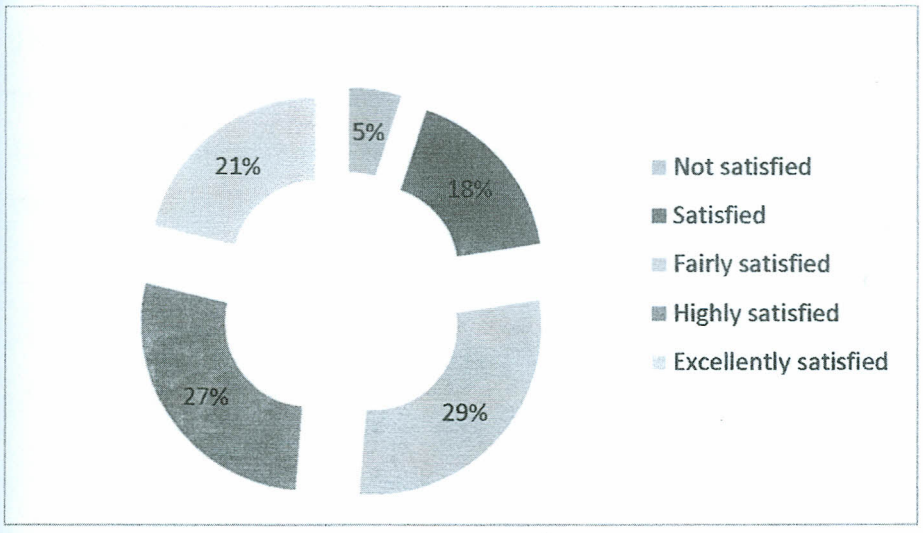

Figure 4.36:Degree of customers' response to implementation of innovated idea
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.7 Measures of Customer Satisfaction and Performance Contracting

The researcher wished to find out the extent to which customers were ranking service delivery in respect of the respondents teaching workload and, whether the concept of performance contracting had improved efficiency and effectiveness in the respondents work. The following were the findings. The researcher's interest was to find out whether courses offered in the public universities acted as a measure of customer satisfaction, the findings in table 4.30 were that 3.6% not important, 10.8% moderately important 24.5% important, 32.4% very important, and 28.8% very important.

Table 4.30: Customer satisfaction with increased demand of courses offered

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important	5	3.5	3.6
Moderately important	15	10.6	10.8
important	34	23.9	24.5
Very Important	45	31.7	32.4
Very Very important	40	28.2	28.8
Total	139	. 97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher intended to find out whether increase in student enrollment acted as a measure of customer satisfaction, the findings in figure 4.37 were3.6% not important, 10.9% moderately important,34.1%important, 26.1% very important, and 25.4% very very important.

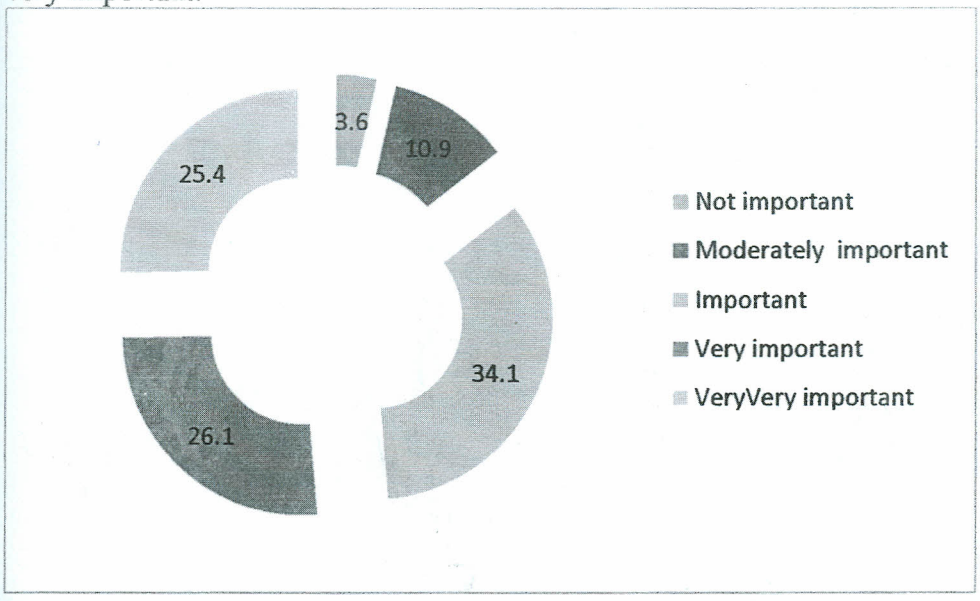

Figure 4.37: Customer satisfaction with increased students' enrollment
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher intended to find out whether timely graduation ceremonies acted a measure of customer satisfaction and the findings in table 4.31 were that2.9% of the respondents felt it was not important, 4.3% moderately important, 19.6% important, 31.9% very important, and 41.3% very very important.

Table 4.31: Customer satisfaction with timely graduation ceremonies

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important	4	2.8	2.9
Moderately important	6	4.2	4.3
Important	27	19.0	19.6
Very Important	44	31.0	31.9
Very Very important	57	40.1	41.3
Total	138	97.2	100.0
Missing	4	2.8	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

In Figure 4.38 the researcher addressed the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching methodologies as a measure of customer satisfaction, and he found that 1.4% Not important, 5.1% moderately important,12.3% important, 31.9% very important, and 49.3%very very important.

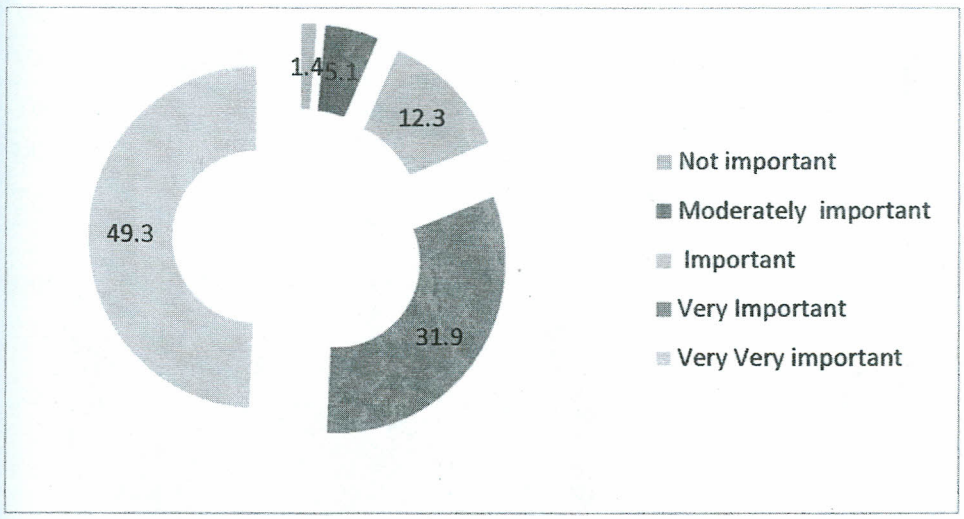

Figure 4.38:Customer satisfaction with effective/ efficient teaching methodologies
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher also wished to find out the extent to which reduction in customer complaints as a measure of customer satisfaction acted as a measure of customer satisfaction, and the findings in table 4.32 were, 1.4% not important, 5.0% moderately important, 15.8% important, 43.9% very important, and 33.8% very very important.

To find out the extent to which increase in customer compliments acted as a measure of customer satisfaction(Figure 4.39), the respondents indicated that they were very very important (26.8%) and very important (34.1%), moderately important (8.7%), important (24.6%) and not important (5.8%).

The researcher's interest in table 4.33 was to find out whether increase in number of graduates acted as a measure of customer satisfaction, and 2.9% felt that it was Not important, 12.9% moderately important,36.7% important, 22.3% very Important, and 25.2% very very important.

Table 4.32:Reduction in customer complaints as a measure of customer satisfaction

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important	2	1.4	1.4
Moderately important	7	4.9	5.0
Important	22	15.5	15.8
Very Important	61	43.0	43.9
Very Very important	47	33.1	33.8
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

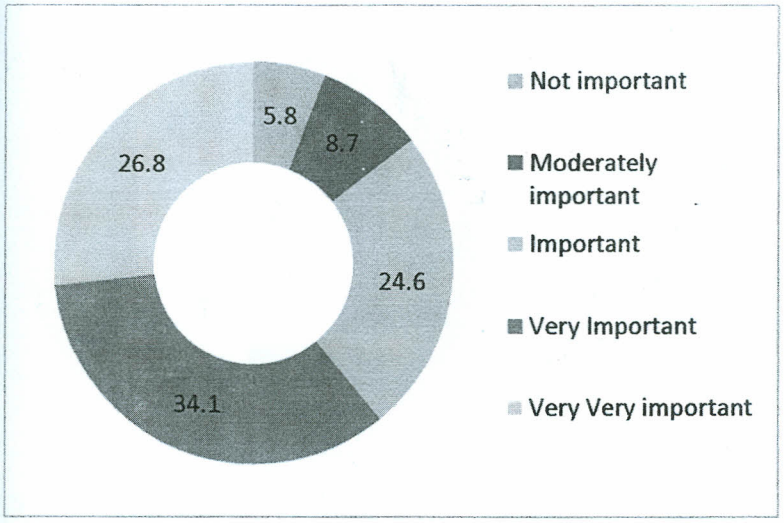

Figure 4.39: Customer compliments as a measure of customer satisfaction
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher in figure 4.40 intended to find out whether timely examinations acted as a measure of customer satisfaction, the results indicated that 1.4% it was not important, 6.5% moderately important, 14.5% important, 32.6% very important, and 44.9% very very important.

The researcher's intention in table 4.34 was on establishing whether timely release of results acted as a measure of customer satisfaction, the results were that 2.2% not important, 5.8% moderately important, 13.8% important, 21.7% very important, and 56.5% very very important.

Table 4.33: Increase in number of graduates as a measure of customer satisfaction

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important	4	2.8	2.9
Moderately important	18	12.7	12.9
Important	51	35.9	36.7
Very Important	31	21.8	22.3
Very Very important	35	24.6	25.2
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

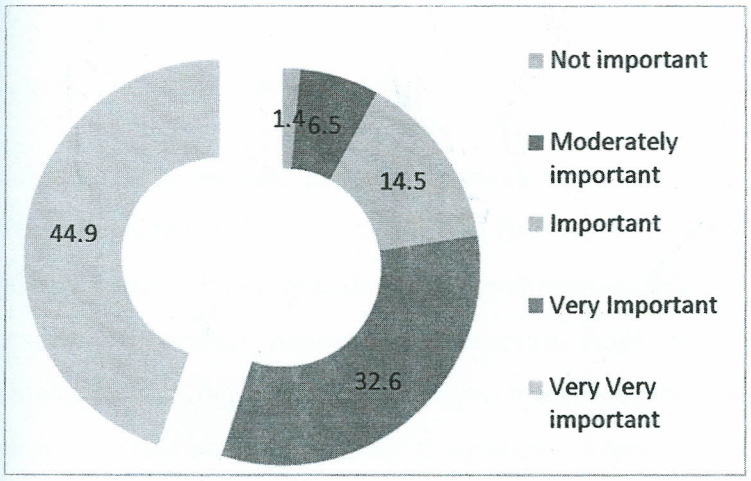

Figure 4.40: Customer satisfaction measured by timely examinations
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.34: Timely release of results as a measure of customer satisfaction

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not important	3	2.1	2.2
Moderately important	8	5.6	5.8
Important	19	13.4	13.8
Very Important	30	21.1	21.7
Very Very important	78	54.9	56.5
Total	138	97.2	100.0
Missing	4	2.8	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Performance contracting has been associated with improved service delivery in many organizations, and therefore the researcher in table 4.35 wanted to find whether this concept has led to the effectiveness and efficiency in the respondent's job, the findings indicated that 74.3% were in agreement, while 25.7% felt there no was relationship.

Table 4.35: Performance contracting and improved job effectiveness and efficiency

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	101	71.1	74.3
No	35	24.6	25.7
Total	136	95.8	100.0
Missing	6	4.2	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.8 Employee Administrative Work Systems and Service Delivery.

The researcher in this part wished to find out how the various aspects of the employee administrative duties and the work environment are related to service delivery. In this respect he covered: employee recognition, employee training, employee development, employee working facilities, employee medical cover, employee working relations, better working rules and regulations, competitive home package, out-of-office team building activities and assignment of other duties. Figure 4.41 presents findings related to employee recognition and improved service delivery.

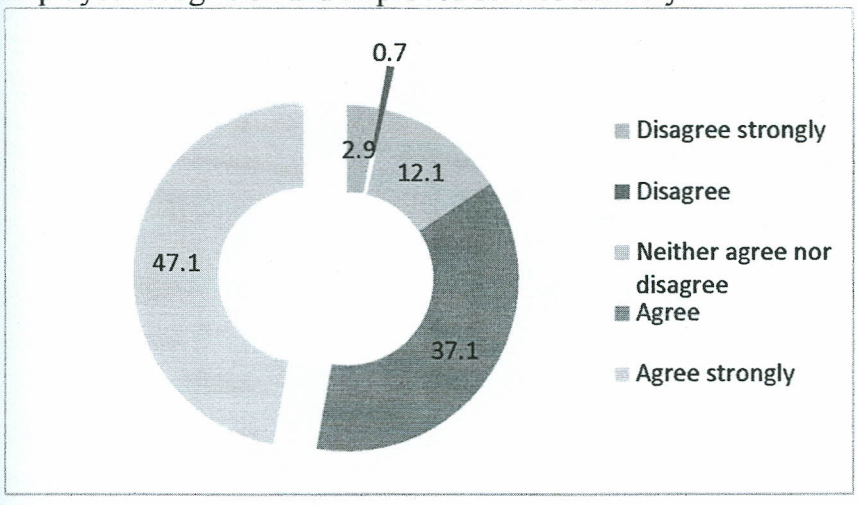

Figure 4.41: Employee recognition and improved service delivery
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher found that 2.9% of the respondents disagreed strongly, 0.7% disagreed, 12.1% neither agreed nor disagreed, 37.1% agreed, and 47.1% agreed strongly that employee recognition led to improved service delivery. With regard to employee training and whether it increases the level of service delivery, the researcher in table 4.36 found out that the respondents views were 2.1% disagreed, 6.4% neither agreed nor disagreed, 32.9% agreed, and 58.6% agreed strongly.

Table 4.36: Employee training and the level of service delivery

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Disagree	3	2.1	2.1
Neither agree nor disagree	9	6.3	6.4
Agree	46	32.4	32.9
Agree strongly	82	57.7	58.6
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher presents in figure 4.42 the respondents view in respect of development of employees and improvement of service delivery, and 1.4% disagreed that employee development leads to improved service delivery, 7.1% neither agreed nor disagreed, 46.4% agreed, and 45.0% agreed strongly.

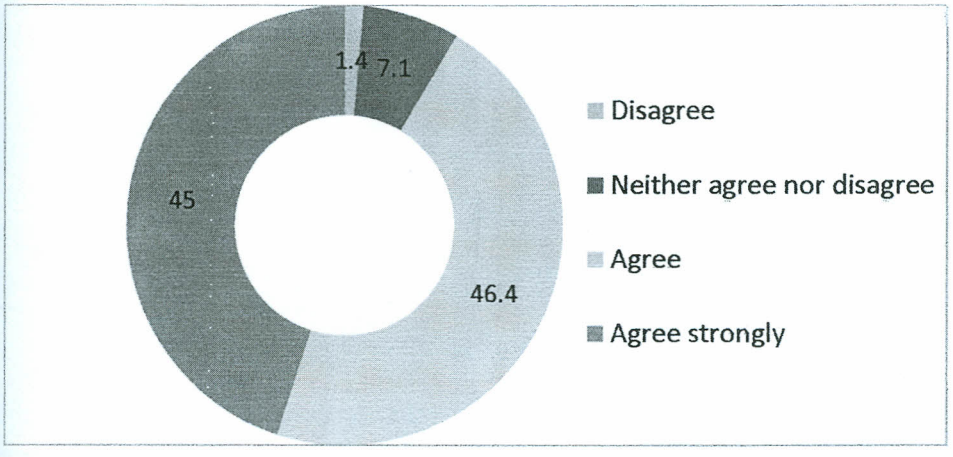

Figure 4.42: Development of employees and service delivery
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The views of the respondents on whether improved working facilities leads to better service delivery were collected and the researcher's findings were presented in table 4.37 and,0.7% disagreed strongly1.4% disagreed8.6% neither agreed nor disagreed 46.0% agreed and 43.2% agreed strongly.

Table 4.37: Employee working facilities and better service delivery

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Disagree strongly	1	0.7	0.7
Disagree	2	1.4	1.4
Neither agree nor disagree	12	8.5	8.6
Agree	64	45.1	46.0
Agree strongly	60	42.3	43.2
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The views of the respondents on whether competitive employee medical cover improves service delivery was reflected as per the frequency and percentages in figure 4.43 where 2.9% disagreed strongly,5.7% disagreed, 18.6% neither agreed nor disagreed, 42.1% agreed, and 30.7% agreed strongly1.4% .

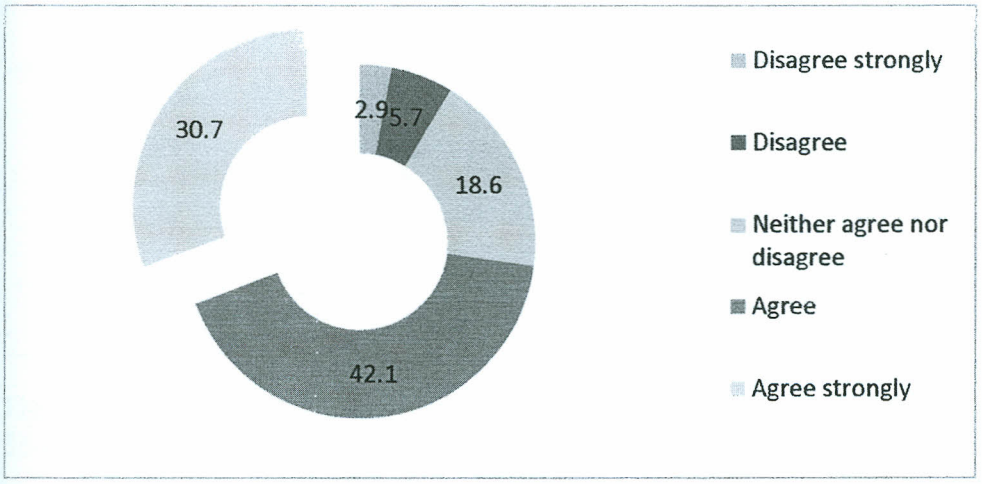

Figure 4.43:Competitive employee medical cover improves service delivery
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

On whether employee working relations improve service delivery the respondents expressed in table 4.38 that 3.6% were in disagreement, 12.9% neither agreed nor disagreed, 40.7% agreed, and 42.9% agreed strongly.

Table 4.38:Employee working relations and service delivery

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Disagree	5	3.5	3.6
Neither agree nor disagree	18	12.7	12.9
Agree	57	40.1	40.7
Agree strongly	60	42.3	42.9
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

On whether better working rules, and regulations leads to improvement of service delivery the respondents views in figure 4.44 were 0.7% disagreed strongly 1.4% disagreed, 18.6% neither agreed nor disagreed, 45% agreed, and 34.3% agreed strongly.

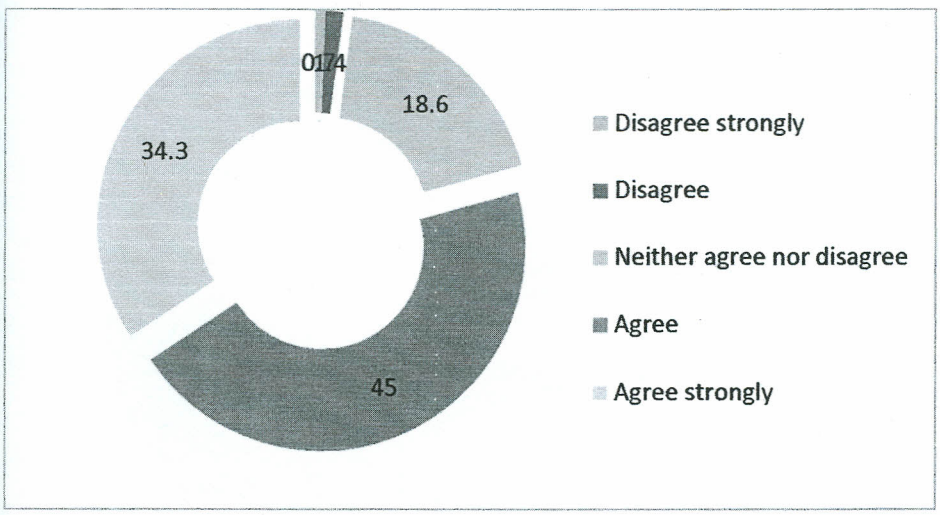

Figure 4.44:Better working rules, regulations and service delivery
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

On whether a competitive take home package improves service delivery, the respondents

views in table 4.39 were that 5.7% disagreed strongly, 2.1% disagreed, 14.3% neither agreed nor disagreed,35.7% agreed, and 42.1% agreed strongly.

Table 4.39:Competitive take home package and improved service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Disagree strongly	8	5.6	5.7
Disagree	3	2.1	2.1
Neither agree nor disagree	20	14.1	14.3
Agree	50	35.2	35.7
Agree strongly	59	41.5	42.1
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher's intention was to find out whether out of office team building activities improves service delivery, the respondents views were expressed in Figure 4.45and 2.1% disagreed strongly, 2.9% disagreed,24.3% neither agreed nor disagreed,45.7%agreed and 25% agreed strongly.

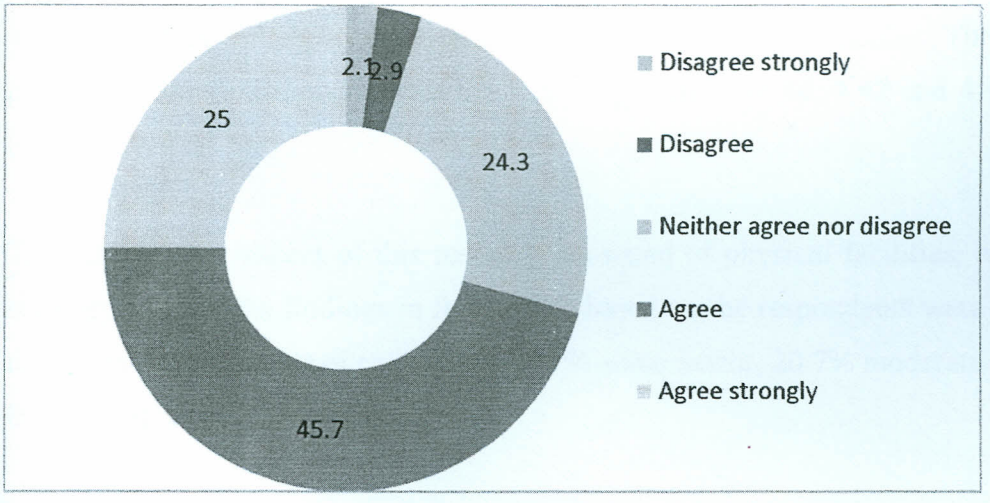

Figure 4.45:Out of office team building activities and service delivery
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher wished to find out whether assignment of other duties leads to better service delivery and the respondents expressions were in table 4.40 were 5% disagreed strongly,9.3% disagreed, 26.4% neither agreed nor disagreed 32.9% agreed, and 26.4% agreed strongly.

Table 4.40: Assignment of other duties and service delivery

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Disagree strongly	7	4.9	5.0
Disagree	13	9.2	9.3
Neither agree nor disagree	37	26.1	26.4
Agree	46	32.4	32.9
Agree strongly	37	26.1	26.4
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.9 Measures of Quality of Service

The concern of the researcher in this part was to find out how the various aspects enlisted contributed to the quality of service offered by public universities, and these parameters were: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. The findings are presented each on its own as per the following figures (4.46, 4.47 and 4.48) and tables (4.41 and 4.42)

The tangibles in respect of this research consisted of physical facilities, equipment and staff appearance, the findings in figure 4.46 based on the respondents were that 0.7% felt that there was no extent of contribution,5.7% some extent, 20.7% moderate extent, 41.4% high extent, and 31.4% great extent.

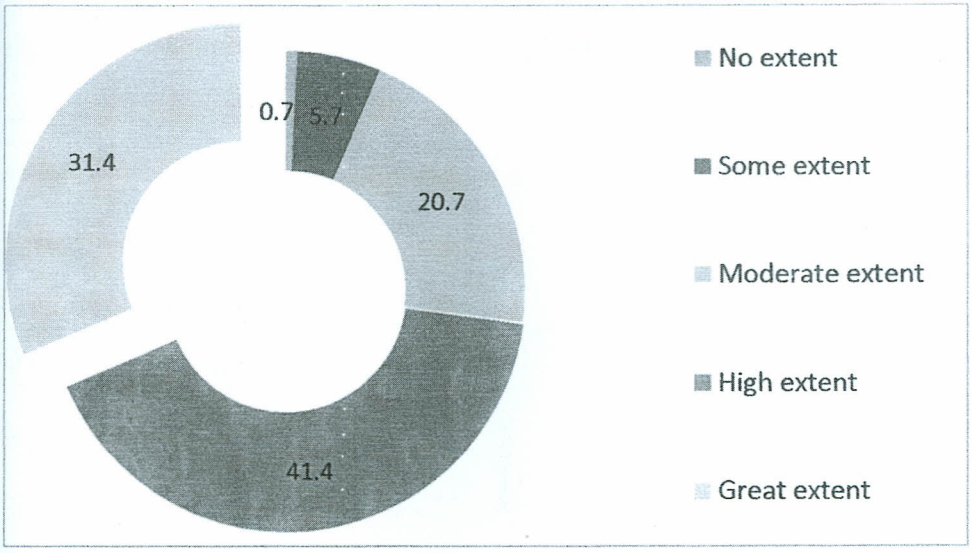

Figure 4.46: Tangibles and quality of service
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Reliability was based on ability to perform service dependably and accurately as a contributor to quality of service offered by the public universities, the findings in table 4.41 were that1.4% no extent, 5.0%some extent,12.9% moderate extent, 52.1% high extent, and 28.6% great extent.

Table 4.41: Reliability and quality of service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
No extent	2	1.4	1.4
Some extent	7	4.9	5.0
Moderate extent	18	12.7	12.9
High extent	73	51.4	52.1
Great extent	40	28.2	28.6
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Responsiveness considered willingness to help and respond to customer need as a contributor to quality of service offered, the findings in figure 4.47 were that 2.1% some

extent, 15.7% moderate extent, 51.4% high extent, and 30.7% great extent.

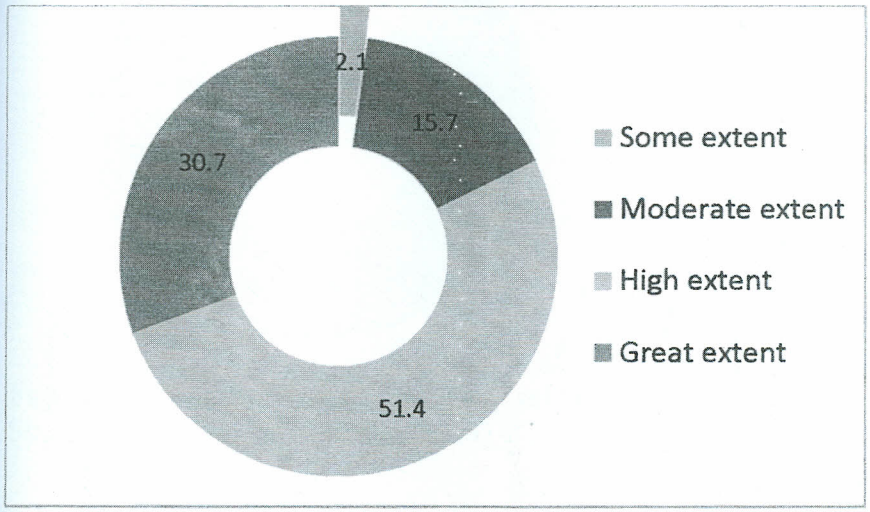

Figure 4.47: Responsiveness and quality of service
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Assurance addresses the ability of staff to inspire confidence and trust, the findings as per table 4.42 were that 3.6% some extent,15.0% moderate extent,47.9% high extent, and 33.6% great extent.

Table 4.42:Assurance and quality of service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Some extent	5	3.5	3.6
Moderate extent	21	14.8	15.0
High extent	67	47.2	47.9
Great extent	47	33.1	33.6
Total	140	98.6	100.0
Missing	2	1.4	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Empathy considered the extent to which caring individualized service given contributed to quality of service offered by the public universities, the results in figure 4.48 were that 7.1% some extent, 17.1 moderate extent, 45.7% high extent, and 30.0% Great extent.

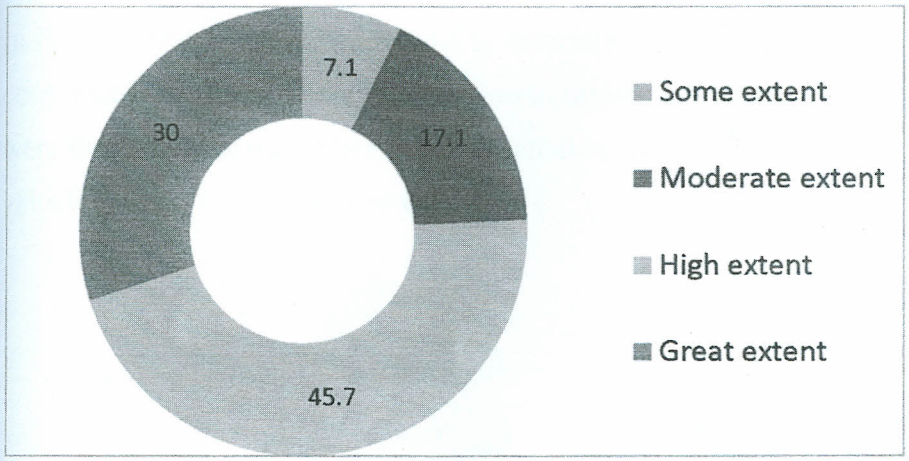

Figure 4.48: Empathy and quality of service
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.10 Community Service and Service Delivery

This section was concerned about performance contracting, community service and service delivery. The researcher wished to find how the respondents ranked the variables as indicated in tables and figures from 4.43 to 4.53.The researcher's interest in table 4.43 was to establish how the respondents thought about well paid employees and community service engagement. The findings were that 10.1% of respondents ranked it as not valuable at all, 5% as valuable 25.2% as fairly valuable, 36.0% as very valuable, and 23.7% as very valuable.

Table 4.43: Well paid employees engagement in community service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not valuable at all	14	9.9	10.1
Valuable	7	4.9	5.0
Fairly Valuable	35	24.6	25.2
Very valuable	50	35.2	36.0
Very very valuable	33	23.2	23.7
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

In figure 4.49 the researcher wished to ascertain the extent to which respondents ranked continuous employee training in relation to improved community service. The findings were that 2.9% not valuable at all, 5% valuable, 12.2% fairly valuable, 41.7% very valuable, and 37.3% very very valuable

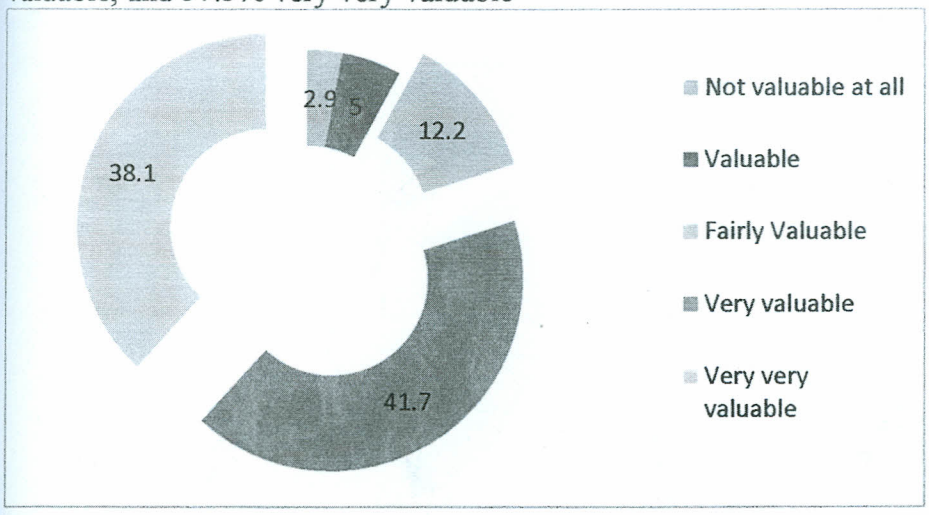

Figure 4.49: Continuous employee training and improved community service
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher's interest in Table 4.44was to find out how rigorous employee development programme was essential to community service handling. The researcher found that the respondents ranked it as 2.9% not valuable at all, 7.2% valuable, 18.7% fairly valuable, 33.8% very valuable, and 37.4 % very very valuable.

Table 4.44: Value of employee development programme for community service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not valuable at all	4	2.8	2.9
Valuable	10	7.0	7.2
Fairly Valuable	26	18.3	18.7
Very valuable	47	33.1	33.8
Very very valuable	52	36.6	37.4
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.50illustrates the findings in respect of an employee with better working facilities and their handling of public complaints in an effective way. The findings were that 0.7% expressed it was not valuable at all, 2.9% valuable, 12.2% fairly valuable, 45.3% very valuable, and 38.8% very valuable.

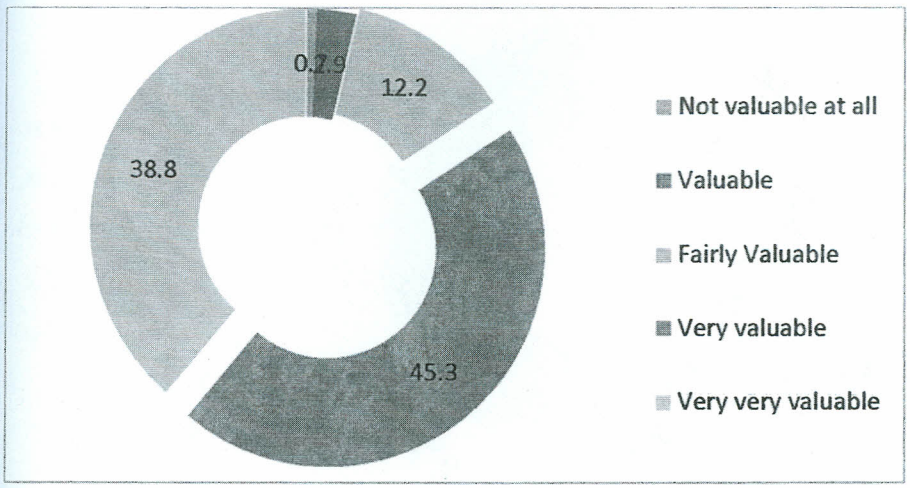

Figure 4.50:Value of better working facilities for handling public complaints
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The researcher in table 4.45 explains the findings based on whether an employee promoted for achieving targets handles community service efficiently. The findings were that 3.6% of the respondents thought it was not valuable at all, 10.1% Valuable, 18.0% fairly valuable, 40.3% very valuable, and 28.1% very very valuable.

Table 4.45: Employee promotion for efficient handling of community service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not valuable at all	5	3.5	3.6
Valuable	14	9.9	10.1
Fairly Valuable	25	17.6	18.0
Very valuable	56	39.4	40.3
Very very valuable	39	27.5	28.1
Total	139	97.9	100.0
Missing	3	2.1	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

The intention of the researcher was to establish whether best worker awards would improve an employee's handling of community service. The results as illustrated in figure 4.51 were that 7.2% not valuable at all, 8.7% valuable, 23.9% fairly valuable, 36.2% very valuable, and 23.9% very very valuable.

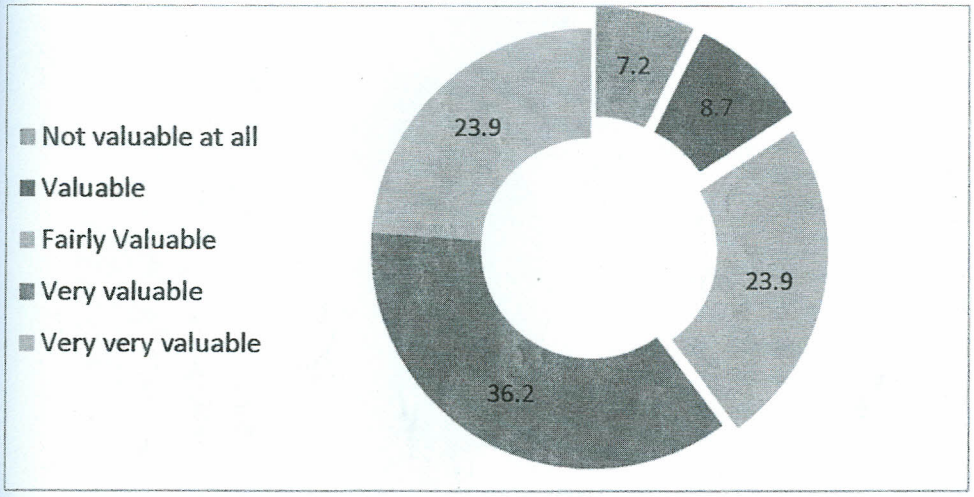

Figure 4.51: Value of best workers' awards for improved community service
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

In table 4.46the researcher wished to find out whether transferring of employees would improve handling of community service. The expressions from the respondents were 22.5% felt it was not valuable at all, 23.9% felt it was valuable, 23.2% fairly valuable, 16.7% very valuable, and 13.8% very very valuable.

Table 4.46: Value of transferring of employees for improved community service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not valuable at all	31	21.8	22.5
Valuable	33	23.2	23.9
Fairly Valuable	32	22.5	23.2
Very valuable	23	16.2	16.7
Very very valuable	19	13.4	13.8
Total	138	97.2	100.0
Missing	4	2.8	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.52illustrates the results on whether a fully paid leave of absence for exemplary performance would lead to improvement of community service. The findings were that 9.4% felt not valuable at all, 19.6% valuable,18.8% fairly valuable, 31.9% very valuable, and 20.3% very valuable.

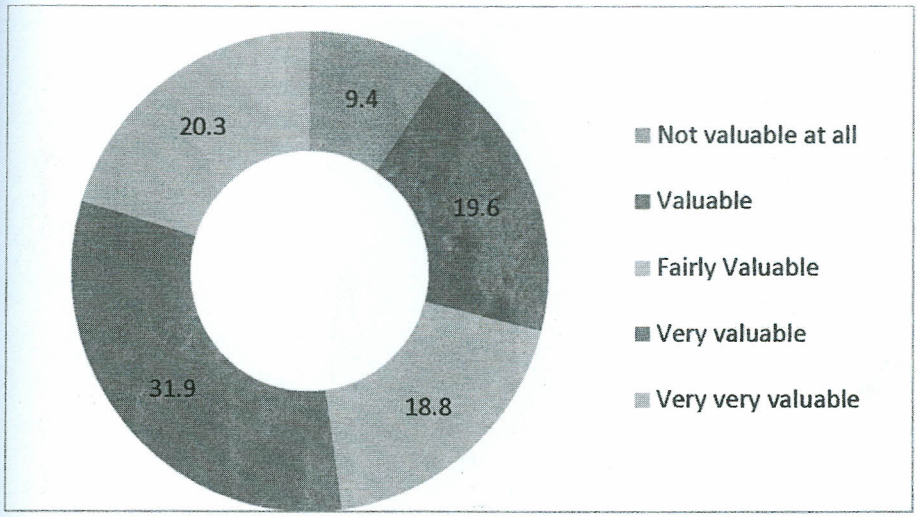

Figure 4.52: Value of performance fully paid leave for improved community service
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Later, the researcher established whether the awarding of scholarly titles led to improved service delivery (Table 4.47). The findings were that 9.4% of the respondents felt it was not valuable at all, 11.6% felt it was valuable, 22.5% fairly valuable, 31.9% very valuable, and 24.6% very very valuable.

Table 4.47: Value of scholarly titles' awards for improved community service

Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Not valuable at all	13	9.2	9.4
Valuable	16	11.3	11.6
Fairly Valuable	31	21.8	22.5
Very valuable	44	31.0	31.9
Very very valuable	34	23.9	24.6
Total	138	97.2	100.0
Missing	4	2.8	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Figure 4.53shows the extent to which support of dependents in educational programmes improves community service handling. The findings were that 6.5% felt it was not valuable at all, 9.4% felt it was valuable, 18.8% felt it was fairly valuable, 37.0% felt it was very valuable, and 28.3% felt it was very very valuable, and 2.8% did not indicate.

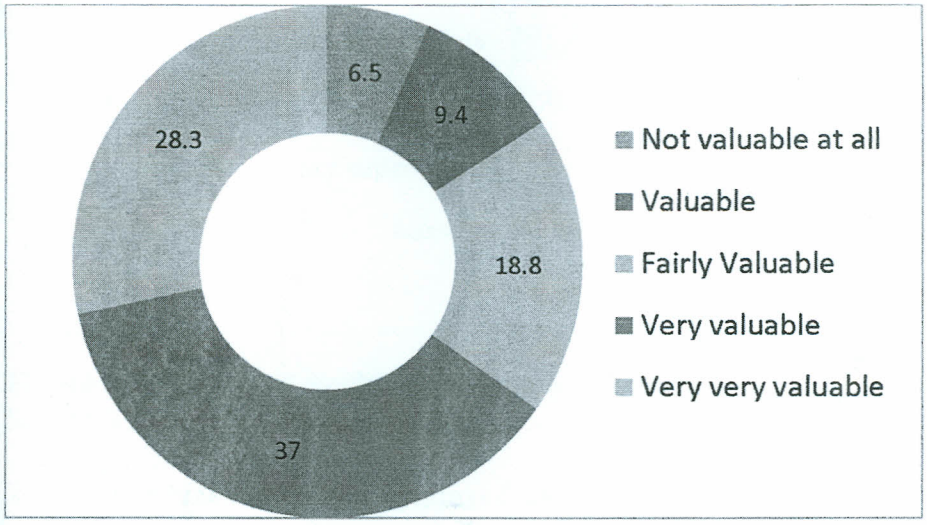

Figure 4.53: Value of dependents' education support to improve community service
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.11 Nature and Management of Public complaints

This section was concerned with finding out the nature of complaints received by the staff members, how the staff members have been able to handle them, whether a public complaints office was in existence in the institution and the role it plays in handling of public complaints. Areas of work that received complaints are reflected in Figure 4.54. This figure indicates that 5.6% was on lack of actual supervision, 2.1% was on ICT failure, 7% was on lack of learning materials, 59.2% was on missing marks, 18.3% was on time limitation, timetable clashes and inadequate lecture rooms, 3.5% was on none while 4.2% was not indicated. Table 4.48 on the other end shows the way universities have been handling complaints from the public. This was through consultation and discussion (42.3%),assistance from office(54.2%), and 3.5% did not indicate.

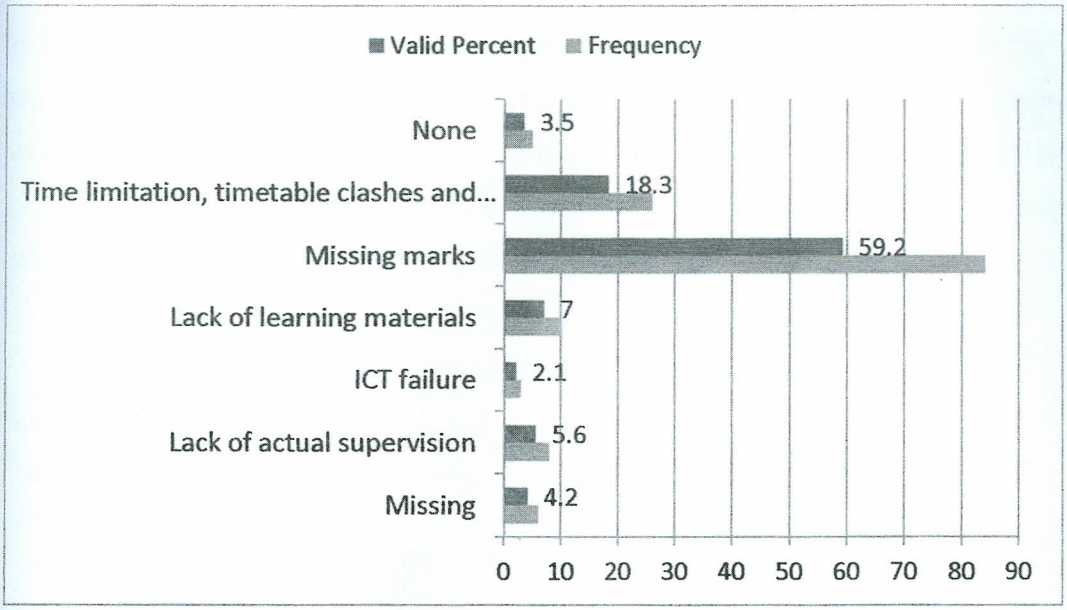

Figure 4.54: Areas of work received complaints on
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Table 4.48: Handling of complaints from the public

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Missing	5	3.5	3.5
Consultation and discussion	60	42.3	42.3
Assistance from office	77	54.2	54.2
Total	142	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

On whether the university where the respondent is working in has a public complaints office the findings are in Table 4.49.

Table 4.49: The university public complaints office

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	88	62.0	62.4
No	53	37.3	37.6
Missing	1	.7	
Total	142	100.0	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

In Table 4.49, 62.4% among respondents indicated that the university where they work in had a public complaints office, while37.6% said no. The role the public complaints office plays in resolving public complaints is illustrated in figure 4.55 and the findings were 19.0% receiving complaints, 24.6% acting on complaints, 17.6% public relations, 4.2% not aware, while 34.5% did not indicate.

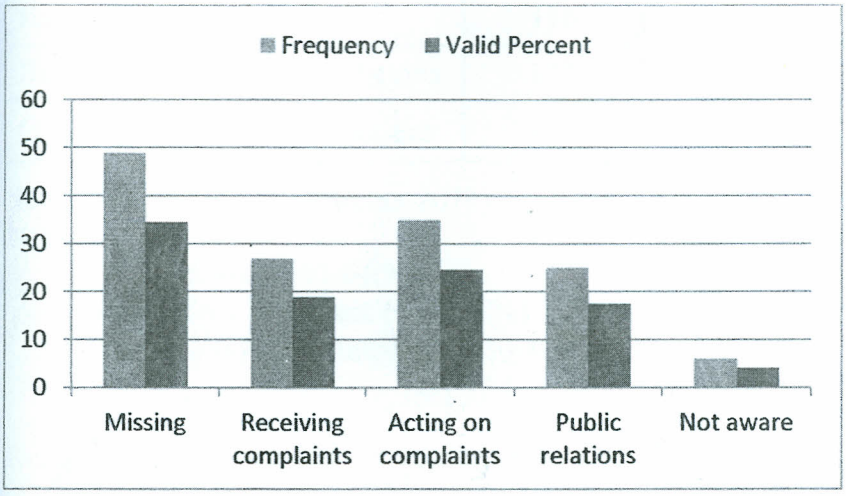

Figure 4.55: The role of public complaints office in resolving public complaints
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

4.3.9.12 Synthesis of Respondents' Appraisal of Performance Contracting

Most lecturers enjoy the freedom given them for research and part-timing (29%), learning by doing and further knowledge acquisition (27%), interaction with students and the prestige of being university professor (26%) as well as benefits from ICT and automation services (9%), and other socio-economic incentives. However, sometimes the teaching workload constitutes a burden for service delivery. It threatens teacher-student interaction (43%), teaching material contents (29%), and the marking of CATs and EXAMs (28%).

The most important aspects of the administrative work systems are presented in Table 4.50 below. It shows that Employee training (92%), Development of employees (91%), working facilities (89%) and Employee recognition (84%) are extremely important for improved performance. Moreover, university lecturers need Better working rules and regulations (79%) as well as a competitive take home package (74%) to enable them achieve their targets.

Table 4.50: Most important aspects of administrative work systems at university

Status	Frequency	Percent	Importance
Employee training	128	91.5	AAA
Development of employees	126	91.4	AAA
working facilities	124	89.2	AAA
Employee recognition	116	84.2	AAA
Better working rules, regulations	111	79.3	AA
Competitive take home package	109	77.8	AA

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

A= Important (50-64.9%)
AA= Very Important (65-79.9%)
AAA=Very very Important (80-100%)

Regarding their participation to community service at university most of the lecturers valued "better working facilities for handling public complaints" (84%) (Table 4.51).

Table 4.51: Most important aspects of community service at university

Status	Frequency	Percent	Importance
Value of better working facilities for handling public complaints	116	84.1	AAA
Continuous employee training and improved community service	110	79.8	AA
Value of employee development programme for community service	98	71	AA
Value of dependents' education support to improve community service	90	65.3	AA
Well paid employees engagement in community service	82	59.7	A
Value of scholarly titles' awards for improved community service	78	56.5	A

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

A= Valuable (50-64.9%)
AA= Very Valuable (65-79.9%)
AAA=Very very Valuable (80-100%)

However, many lecturers also needed a continuous employee training and improved community service (80%), employee development programme for community service (71%), the support of dependents' education (65%), the payment of engagement for community service (60%), and the award of scholarly titles for improved community service (57%).

In the same vein, most academic teaching members of staff expressed their interest in the improvement of their organizational environment (Table 4.52).

Table 4.52: Most important factors of the organizational environment at university

Status	Frequency	Percent	Importance
Better customer service	97	69.4	AA
Better utilization of academic resources	96	68.4	AA
Strengthening of academic process	90	64.8	A
Freedom to initiate academic programmes	89	63.6	A
Great automation of academic work	88	63.3	A
Enhanced individual autonomy	85	61.1	A
TOTAL VALID	138	100	

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

A= Moderate (50-64.9%)
AA= High (65-79.9%)
AAA=Great(80-100%)

The most important factors included: Better customer service (69%) and Better utilization of academic resources (68%). However, they also showed concern for Strengthening academic process (65%), granting more freedom to initiate new academic programmes (64%), enhancing automation of academic work (63%) and individual autonomy (61%).

Finally, though lecturers had different views about performance contracting, they unanimously agreed that Responsiveness (82%), Assurance (82%), Reliability (81%), Empathy (76%) and Tangibles (73%) were adequate measures for quality of service.

4.3.9.13 Recommendations by Respondents

The researcher engaged the respondents to give their views of performance contracting by giving them an opportunity to put their suggestions on the improvement of performance contracting in public universities. The respondents suggestions are captured and presented in figure 4.56.

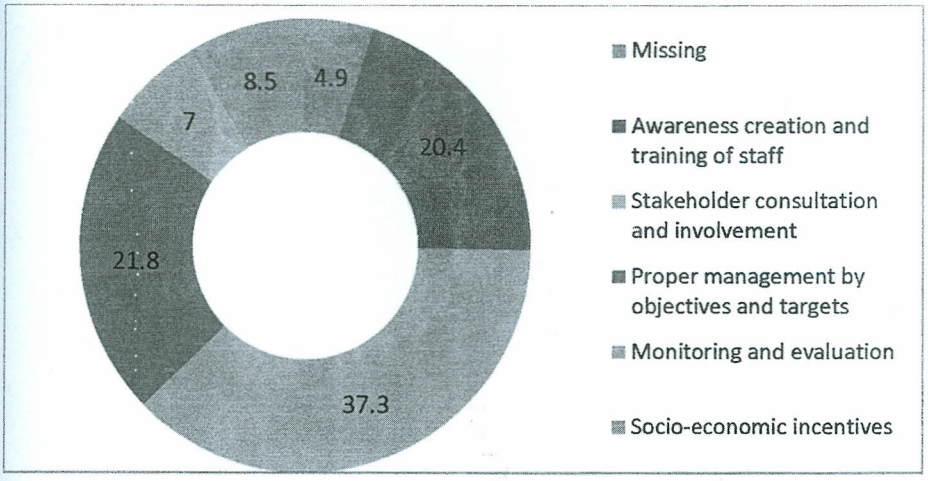

Figure 4.56:Suggestions to improve performance contracting and service delivery
Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

According to Figure 4.56, most respondents yearned for stakeholder consultation and involvement in the design of performance contracts (37%), Proper management by objectives and targets (22%), awareness creation and training of staff on performance contracting process and targets (20%),socio-economic incentives (9%), and the monitoring and evaluation of the whole process of performance contracting (7%).

4.4 Hypothesis Testing and Results Interpretation

4.4.1 Teaching Workload and Level of Service Delivery at the University(Ha_1)

4.4.1.1 Test of Multicollinearity between Predictors

Multicollinearity is strong in a regression when the Pearson correlation is equal to or above 0.7. Based on the correlation matrix presented in Table 4.53, this statement was not confirmed. Pearson correlation test depicted a significant but moderate relationship between Increase in demand of courses offered (PerCTS 13), Timely graduation (PerCTS 15) and Increase in number of graduates(Per CTS 19) at 95% confidence interval.

Table 4.53: Correlation between independent variables for the teaching workload[a]

Variable/Measure	*PerCTS 13*	*PerCTS 14*	*PerCTS 15*	*PerCTS 16*	*PerCTS 17*	*PerCTS 18*	*PerCTS 19*	*PerCTS 20*	*PerCTS 21*
Increased demand of courses offered (*PerCTS 13*)	1.000								
Increase in student enrollment (*PerCTS 14*)	0.148	1.000							
Timely graduation (*PerCTS 15*)	0.216**	0.458***	1.000						
Effective/ efficient teaching methods (*PerCTS 16*)	-0.014	0.312***	0.392***	1.000					
Reduction in customer complaints (*PerCTS 17*)	0.126	0.349***	0.420***	0.531***	1.000				
Increase in customer compliments (*PerCTS 18*)	0.077	0.365***	0.281***	0.315***	0.383***	1.000			
Increase in number of graduates (*PerCTS 19*)	0.229**	0.504***	0.490***	0.385***	0.417***	0.371***	1.000		
Timely examinations (*PerCTS 20*)	0.037	0.227***	0.538***	0.500***	0.482***	0.292***	0.619***	1.000	
Timely release of results (*PerCTS 21*)	0.031	0.209**	0.363***	0.404***	0.401***	0.299***	0.281***	0.577***	1.000

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

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

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

[a]Method: Pearson Correlation

The relationship between all the other remaining variables was mostly significant at 99% confidence interval but still weak or moderate. None of these correlations was beyond 0.70, thus providing an indication of independence between different predictors retained in the study. Hence, the significance of their relationships could only be explained by chance but not by collinearity. Consequently, the prediction of the quality of service delivery by workload effects could not expectedly be tainted by a problem of multicollinearity.

4.4.1.2 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

The Levene's test confirmed the assumption of equality of error variances between the quality of service delivery measured by the level of tangibles (EmploWS 11) and its corresponding predictors (Table 4.54). This test confirmed the existence of a strong relationship between them based on their homogeneity. However, this test nullified the hypothesis of homogeneity between all other dependent variables and their corresponding predictors. Therefore, the study considered the assumption that tangibles contribute to the quality of service delivery in public universities by easing employee's teaching workload as being accurate.

Table 4.54: Results of Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances [a,b]

Variable	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*Sig.*	*Conclusion*
Tangibles contributes to quality of service offered at the university	0.987	120	13	0.556	Homogeneity
Reliability contributes to quality of service offered at the university	2.726	120	13	0.022	Heterogeneity
Responsiveness contributes to quality of service offered at the university	11.012	120	13	0.000	Heterogeneity
Assurance contributes to quality of service offered at the university	6.856	120	13	0.000	Heterogeneity
Empathy contributes to quality of service offered at the university	3.485	120	13	0.007	Heterogeneity

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

[a] Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups

[b] Weighted Least Squares Regression - Weighted by Age

[c] Design: Intercept + PerTCS13 + PerTCS14 + PerTCS15 + PertTCS16 + PerTCS17 + PerTCS18 + PerTCS19 + PerTCS20 + PerTCS21

4.4.1.3 Model Estimation and Regression Strength Testing

Table 4.55 presents the correlation coefficients computed between the dependent variables for the quality of service delivery at university and the teaching workload factors (independent variables). Pearson Rho test established that the quality of service delivery as measured by the level of tangibles (EmploWS 11) was statistically related at 99% confidence interval to Reduction in customer complaints (PerCTS 17), Increase in customer compliments (PerCTS 18) and Increase in number of graduates(Per CTS 19).Tangibles were also linked to Increased students' enrollment(PerCTS 14) and Timely release of results(PerCTS 21) at 95% confidence interval; and Timely graduation (PerCTS 15)at 90% confidence interval.

Table 4.55: Correlation between tangibles and teaching workload

Parameter	*Pearson Correlation*
Increase in demand of courses offered *(PerCTS 13)*	-0.091
Increased students' enrollment*(PerCTS 14)*	0.226**
Timely graduation (*PerCTS 15)*	0.173*
Effective and efficient teaching methodologies *(PerCTS 16)*	0.145
Reduction in customer complaints (*PerCTS 17)*	0.281***
Increase in customer compliments*(PerCTS 18)*	0.354***
Increase in number of graduates*(PerCTS 19)*	0.242***
Timely examinations*(PerCTS 20)*	0.133
Timely release of results (*PerCTS 21)*	0.208**

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

The tests of between-subjects effects established at 90% confidence intervals that there existed a strong relationship between the level of service delivery and the workload of the teaching members of staff of the universities selected in this study. The F test therefore failed to reject the hypothesis stating a positive relationship between employees' teaching workload and the level of service delivery in public universities in Kenya.

Table 4.56 shows that "tangibles", including physical facilities, equipment and staff appearance, significantly contributed to the quality of service delivery at the university (R^2 = 0.623; Adjusted R^2= 0.465; F= 3.955; Sig.= 0.000).

Table 4.56: Between-subjects effects for level of service by teaching workload

Parameter	*Tangibles* [a.]	
	F	*Sig.*
Increase in demand of courses offered (PerCTS 13)	2.406**	0.043
Increased students' enrollment (PerCTS 14)	1.115	0.354
Timely graduation (PerCTS 15)	2.295*	0.065
Effective and efficient teaching methodologies(PerCTS 16)	0.317	0.866
Reduction in customer complaints (PerCTS 17)	1.037	0.393
Increase in customer compliments (PerCTS 18)	4.472**	0.002
Increase in number of graduates (PerCTS 19)	4.111**	0.004
Timely examinations (PerCTS 20)	1.145	0.341
Timely release of results (PerCTS 21)	1.653	0.168
Corrected Model	*3.955***	*0.000**

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

a. R Squared = .623 (Adjusted R Squared = .465)

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

This was explained by increased demand for courses offered at selected universities (F=2.406; Sig.= 0.043), timely graduations ceremonies (F=2.295; Sig.= 0.065), increased customer compliments (F=4.472; Sig.=0.002) and increased number of graduates (F=4.111; Sig.=0.004). It shall however be noted that the increase in customer compliments (PerCTS 18) and number of graduates (PerCTS 19) were the most significant factors linked to tangibles that were explaining the level of service delivery by university lecturers. The remaining factors explained few outcomes only (Table 4.57).

Table 4.57: Parameter estimate for level of service delivery by teaching workload

Parameter	*Tangibles*	
	t	*Sig.*
Demand of courses[=1]	3.045***	0.003
Demand of courses [=2]	2.298**	0.024
Demand of courses [=3]	2.51**	0.014
Demand of courses[=4]	2.747***	0.007
Demand of courses[=5]	2.671***	0.009
Graduations [=1]	-0.242	0.809
Graduations [=2]	-0.651	0.517
Graduations [=3]	-2.921***	0.004
Graduations [=4]	-1.719*	0.089
Compliments [=1]	-2.32**	0.023
Compliments [=2]	-3.601***	0.001
Compliments [=3]	-1.148	0.254
Compliments [=4]	-2.239**	0.028
Number of Graduates [=1]	-2.641***	0.01
Number of Graduates [=2]	-0.083	0.934
Number of Graduates [=3]	-0.731	0.466
Number of Graduates [=4]	-2.693***	0.008

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

*Significance at 10%; Confidence intervals of 90%

**Significance at 5%; Confidence intervals of 95%

***Significance at 1%; Confidence intervals of 99%

Table 4.57 reveals the most significant parameters among different categories within a variable based on their *t* test values. The latter mostly pointed out to increase in demand of courses being offered as moderately important, important and very important. Timely graduation ceremonies as being important, increase in customer compliments as being both moderately important and very important while increase in the number of graduates was very important to some and not important to others. These categories were able to explain almost all the aspects of the level of service offered at the university.

4.4.1.4 Discussion on the Hypothesis Testing One (Ha_1)

In the literature review it is pointed out that universities have defined the role of academic staff to three domains of teaching, research, and service and that university academic staff do complex work in an increasingly demanding environment. It is further pointed out that universities are the only organizations focused on dual core functions of knowledge creation and knowledge transmission(Romainville,1996), and that academic staff members who spent the majority of their time teaching reported a preference for being rewarded for teaching effectiveness(Leslie, 2002). It is also noted that challenge, variety, and autonomy are key elements of the academic staff to engage in core activities such as critical thinking, reflection, and collegial interactions in the context of disciplinary interests and expertise. Reforms have sought to make universities more accountable to government, students as consumers, and the public generally (Winter et al.,2000).McInnes (2000) emphasized that workload systems management has increasingly been a factor in recent contract negotiations and collective employment agreements and therefore the need to investigate workloads issues such as increased stress on staff, development of creative solutions to ameliorate problems, and ''sustaining the primary sources of work satisfaction that best promote quality".

It is the wish of each and every student to be admitted in a competitive course in a public university, more so the number of students joining these universities has in the recent past increased due to the introduction of various degree programmes and the expansion of teaching programmes through self-sponsorship, open and distance learning, and evening classes in most of the major urban centres. This number has also grown due to the opening up of satellite campuses and the recent uplifting of middle level colleges to fully fledged universities. The increase of the students has had to push the universities to innovate more effective means of satisfying them. This has led to increased efficiency and effectiveness in various parameters in respect of students' enrolment, timely graduation ceremonies so as to join the labour market, teaching methodologies, timely examinations and timely release of examination results. Universities may expect a reduction in customer complaints, increase in customer compliments and ultimately increase in the number of students once these issues are addressed adequately.

4.4.2 Administrative Work Systems and Quality of Service Delivery(Ha_2)

4.4.2.1 Test of Multicollinearity between Predictors

The study did not suspect a multicollinearity problem in a regression between factors determining administrative work systems and the quality of service delivery at public universities of Kenya. Even though the Pearson correlation test showed a significant relationship between most of the predictors at 90% confidence interval and above, none of the predictors displayed a Pearson correlation equal to or above 0.7 (Table 4.58).Even though the Pearson correlation test showed a significant relationship between most of the predictors at 90% confidence interval and above, the study did not suspect a multicollinearity problem in a regression between administrative work systems' factors and their corresponding predictors, since none of the latter displayed a Pearson correlation equal to or above 0.7.

4.4.2.2 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

The Levene's test confirmed the assumption of equality of error variances between all dependent variables and their corresponding predictors (Table 4.59).

Table 4.59: Results of the Levene's test of equality of error variances [a, b, c]

Variable	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*Sig.*	*Observation*
Tangibles contribute to quality of service offered at the university	0.649	126	12	0.882	Homogeneity
Reliability contribute to quality of service offered at the university	0.562	126	12	0.942	Homogeneity
Responsiveness contribute to quality of service offered at the university	0.364	126	12	0.998	Homogeneity
Assurance contribute to quality of service offered at the university	0.463	126	12	0.983	Homogeneity
Empathy contribute to quality of service offered at the university	1.220	126	12	0.370	Homogeneity

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

[a] Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups

[b] Weighted Least Squares Regression - Weighted by Age

[c] Design: Intercept +EmploWS1+EmploWS2+.....+EmploWS10

Table 4.58: Correlations among administrative work systems' factors [a]

	EmploWS 1	EmploWS 2	EmploWS 3	EmploWS 4	EmploWS 5	EmploWS 6	EmploWS 7	EmploWS 8	EmploWS 9	EmploWS 10
Employee recognition	1.000									
Employee training	0.436***	1.000								
Development of employees	0.395***	0.573***	1.000							
Improved working facilities	0.380***	0.398***	0.393***	1.000						
Competitive medical cover	0.455***	0.277***	0.277***	0.280***	1.000					
Better employee working relations	0.246***	0.333***	0.286***	0.354***	0.518***	1.000				
Working rules and regulations	0.398***	0.312***	0.248***	0.319***	0.446***	0.462***	1.000			
Competitive take home package	0.387***	0.109*	0.077	0.293***	0.489***	0.387***	0.465***	1.000		
Out-of-office team building activity	0.258***	0.222***	0.269***	0.192**	0.259***	0.247***	0.309***	0.239***	1.000	
Assignment of other duties	0.112*	0.013	0.061	0.010	0.132*	0.014	0.097	-0.042	0.186**	1.000

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

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

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

[a.] Method: Pearson Correlation

Levene's test upheld a strong relationship between them based on their homogeneity. Therefore, the study confirmed the assumption that tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy contribute to the level of service delivery in public universities by easing employee's administrative work systems.

4.4.2.3 Model Estimation and Regression Strength Testing

Pearson correlation test confirmed at 90% confidence interval and above that administrative work systems' factors had a bearing on the quality of service delivery at public universities of Kenya (Table 4.60). Almost all the parameters showed a significant relationship between their predictors and the dependent variables, with exception of few predictants and predictors. For instance, Tangibles (EmploWS 11) were not directly related to improved working facilities (EmploWS 4), as Reliability (EmploWS 12)did not have a significant tie with out-of-office team building activities (EmploWS 9). Similarly, Responsiveness(EmploWS 13)was not statistically related with competitive medical cover (EmploWS 5), competitive take home package (EmploWS 8), and out-of-office team building activities (EmploWS 9). Moreover, the correlation between Assurance (EmploWS 14) and Employee recognition (EmploWS 1) as well as assignment of other duties (EmploWS 10) could not be established at 90% confidence interval. Finally, Empathy (EmploWS 15) and competitive medical cover (EmploWS 5) were not statistically correlated at 90% confidence interval. Nonetheless, it was possible to regress factors measuring the administrative work systems to the quality of service delivery to explain their contribution to performance contracting in public universities.

Results of the tests of between-subjects effects were quite eloquent when it came to probing the hypothesis stating: "employee's administrative work systems have a positive effect on the level of service delivery in public universities in Kenya". Table 4.61 depicts that medical cover and working relations are the main variables explaining the level of service offered at the university. Even though six other explanatory variables were found significant in explaining the level of service at selected universities, medical cover and working relations alone significantly predicted it by the availability of tangibles, by the reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy of staff members.

Table 4.60: Correlation between administrative work systems and service delivery[a]

Variables	*EmploWS 1*	*EmploWS 2*	*EmploWS 3*	*EmploWS 4*	*EmploWS 5*	*EmploWS 6*	*EmploWS 7*	*EmploWS 8*	*EmploWS 9*	*EmploWS 10*
EmploWS 11	0.289***	0.233***	0.286***	0.085	0.238***	0.225***	0.272***	0.274***	0.112*	0.154**
EmploWS 12	0.317***	0.350***	0.409***	0.159**	0.153**	0.253***	0.267***	0.114*	0.040	0.214***
EmploWS 13	0.218***	0.367***	0.328***	0.229***	0.110	0.249***	0.200***	0.046	0.096	0.140**
EmploWS 14	0.091	0.273***	0.396***	0.205***	0.085***	0.298***	0.208***	0.127*	0.214***	0.060
EmploWS 15	0.059	0.184**	0.300***	0.155**	0.074	0.127*	0.125*	0.123*	0.174**	0.157**

NOTES:

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

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed)

[a.]Method: Pearson Correlation

Table 4.61: Between-subjects effects for administrative work systems and service delivery

Parameter	Tangibles [a.]		Reliability [b.]		Responsiveness		Assurance [d.]		Empathy [e.]	
	F	Sig.	F	Sig.	F	Sig.	F	Sig.	F	Sig.
Recognition	0.826	0.512	3.739	0.007***	0.221	0.926	0.602	0.662	1.229	0.304
Training	0.812	0.49	2.458	0.068*	2.306	0.082*	0.831	0.48	2.413	0.071**
Development	4.113	0.009***	10.108	0.000***	1.613	0.191	0.641	0.591	4.825	0.004***
Working facilities	1.519	0.203	0.786	0.537	0.623	0.647	0.942	0.443	0.336	0.853
Medical cover	2.223	0.072*	2.368	0.058*	3.173	0.017**	2.169	0.078*	1.308	0.273
Working relations	3.285	0.024**	10.43	0.000***	3.62	0.016**	4.802	0.004***	5.108	0.003***
Rules and regulations	1.412	0.236	4.587	0.002***	1.319	0.268	1.265	0.289	0.699	0.595
Take-home package	1.509	0.206	2.481	0.049**	0.411	0.801	2.861	0.027**	1.549	0.194
Out-of-office activities	1.302	0.275	3.408	0.012**	1.281	0.283	1.994	0.100*	1.735	0.149
Other duties	0.948	0.440	1.615	0.177	0.175	0.951	0.450	0.773	0.984	0.420
Corrected Model	2.668	0.000	4.682	0.000	2.438	0.000	2.109	0.002	2.715	0.000

NOTES

a. R Squared = .514 (Adjusted R Squared = .321)
b. R Squared = .650 (Adjusted R Squared = .511)
c. R Squared = .491 (Adjusted R Squared = .290)
d. R Squared = .455 (Adjusted R Squared = .239)
e. R Squared = .518 (Adjusted R Squared = .327)

*Significance at 10%; Confidence intervals of 90%
**Significance at 5%; Confidence intervals of 95%
***Significance at 1%; Confidence intervals of 99%

The F test confirmed at least at 90% confidence interval that a strong relationship existed between the two variables and that it was explained by factors related to administrative work systems rather than by mere chance. First, "reliability" significantly contributed to level of service delivery at the university (Adjusted R^2=0.511; F=4.682; Sig=0.000) through recognition (F= 3.739; Sig.= 0.007), training (F= 2.458; Sig.= 0.068), development (F= 10.108; Sig.= 0.000), medical cover (F= 2.368; Sig.= 0.058), working relations (F= 10.43; Sig.= 0.000), rules and regulations (F= 4.587; Sig.= 0.002), take home package (F= 2.481; Sig.= 0.049) and out-of office activities (F= 3.408; Sig.=0.012). Secondly, "empathy" or individualized caring and mentorship (Adjusted R^2= 0.327; F= 2.715; Sig= 0.000) determined the level of service offered at the university by means of training (F= 2.413; Sig.= 0.071), development (F= 4.825; Sig.= 0.004) and working relations (F= 5.108; Sig.= 0.003). Thirdly, "tangibles" significantly contributed to the level of service delivery at the university (Adjusted R^2= 0.321; F= 2.668; Sig= 0.000) via development (F= 4.113; Sig.= 0.009), medical cover (F= 2.223; Sig.= 0.072) and working relations (F= 3.285; Sig.= 0.024). Also, a significant contribution of "responsiveness" (Adjusted R^2= 0.290;F=2.438;Sig=0.000) was confirmed by training (F= 2.306; Sig.= 0.082), medical cover (F= 3.173; Sig.= 0.017) and working relations (F= 3.62; Sig.= 0.016). Finally, the contribution of "assurance" or the ability to inspire confidence (Adjusted R^2= 0.239;F= 2.109; Sig= 0.000) to the level of service delivery at the university was largely explained by medical cover (F= 2.169; Sig.=0.078) and working relations (F= 4.802; Sig.= 0.004).

In most of the cases the *t* test indicated that development of employees was disagreed upon in respect of service delivery, competitive employee medical cover was neither agreed on or disagreed on in respect of service delivery, better employee working relations was neither agreed on or disagreed on in respect of service and a competitive take home package was disagreed upon as a measure of service delivery. These were the most significant parameters among different categories assessed within each variable retained in table 4.62.

Table 4.62: Administrative work system parameters explaining the level of service delivery at selected universities

Parameter	Tangibles		Reliability		Responsiveness		Assurance		Empathy	
	t	Sig.	t	Sig.	t	Sig.	t	Sig.	t	Sig.
Recognition[=1]	-1.233	0.221	-3.781***	0.000	-0.449	0.654	0.46	0.646	-1.716*	0.089
Training[=2]	1.261	0.21	2.48**	0.015	0.561	0.576	-0.025	0.98	1.005	0.317
Training[=3]	-0.583	0.561	-0.778	0.438	-2.413**	0.018	-1.535	0.128	-1.446	0.151
Training[=4]	-0.666	0.507	-0.19	0.85	-1.3	0.197	-0.798	0.427	-2.265**	0.026
Development[=2]	-2.295**	0.024	-4.521***	0.000	-2.087**	0.04	-1.171	0.245	-2.423**	0.017
Development[=3]	0.743	0.459	1.189	0.237	-0.05	0.961	0.249	0.804	2.491**	0.014
Development[=4]	-1.809*	0.074	-1.65*	0.100	-0.535	0.594	-0.411	0.682	0.509	0.612
Medical cover[=1]	-2.071**	0.041	-0.393	0.695	0.035	0.972	0.088	0.93	-0.398	0.692
Medical cover[=2]	1.43	0.156	2.084**	0.04	1.304	0.195	2.476**	0.015	1.598	0.113
Medical cover[=3]	0.286	0.776	1.797*	0.075	2.478**	0.015	1.103	0.273	1.877*	0.063
Working relations[=3]	-2.644***	0.01	-4.954***	0.000	-3.249***	0.002	-2.916***	0.004	-3.746***	0.000
Rules and regulations[=2]	-1.225	0.224	-3.861***	0.000	-1.429	0.156	-1.207	0.23	-0.976	0.331
Take-home package[=2]	-2.14**	0.035	-2.878***	0.005	-0.522	0.603	-3.316***	0.001	-1.761*	0.081
Out-of-office activities[=2]	0.761	0.448	2.739***	0.007	-0.779	0.438	0.933	0.353	0.149	0.882
Out-of-office activities[=3]	-1.533	0.128	-1.719*	0.089	-1.516	0.133	-1.648*	0.100	-2.235**	0.028
Out-of-office activities[=4]	-1.796*	0.076	-1.028	0.307	0.107	0.915	0.256	0.798	-1.968*	0.052

NOTES

*Significance at 10%; Confidence intervals of 90%

**Significance at 5%; Confidence intervals of 95%

***Significance at 1%; Confidence intervals of 99%

Thence, development of employees, competitive medical cover, better employee working relations and a competitive take home package were finally the most significant categories that could explain almost all the aspects of the level of service offered at the university based on the administrative work systems. This gave an indication of the reliance of the level of service delivery on the general treatment of the personnel.

4.4.2.4 Discussion on the Hypothesis Testing Two(Ha_2)

Meeting challenges to deliver outputs and outcomes while simultaneously preserving valued process and academic discourse is a complex balancing act (Houston et al., 2006). The lack of such good care may be explained by an increasing tendency to assign different duties to lecturers, including various university management activities. Since these lecturers are charged with the duty of teaching, research and publications, management activities become a burden and tend to undermine good service delivery at academic level. This increased responsibility has led to more pressure on the lecturers to deliver in the different positions in which they serve. The different styles of leadership and their appropriate usage have been much debated (Schein,1988; Bensimon,1989; Middlehurst,1993; Bargh et al.,2000). Barnett (2003) felt leadership could help to promote ideological inclusivity through opening the debate between the competing ideologies of research and teaching. Through various interactions, conferences, seminars, workshops and exchange programmes the teaching academic members of staff are always being developed. The teaching staff members felt that a proper interaction between stakeholders as witnessed in classes, meetings, symposiums, conferences, seminars, workshops and graduation ceremonies led to improvement in the quality of service.

4.4.3 Participation in Community Service and Quality of Service Delivery(Ha_3)

4.4.3.1 Test of Multicollinearity between Predictors

The study did not uphold a multicollinearity problem in a regression between the quality of service delivery and its predictors corresponding to participation in community service. In many cases, the Pearson correlation test showed a significant relationship between most of the predictors at 90% confidence interval and above. Even so, the latter did not display a Pearson correlation equal to or above 0.7 (Table 4.63).

4.4.3.2 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Once more, tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy were said to have equal error variances with all their corresponding predictors (Table 4.64).

Table 4.64: Results of Levene's test of equality of error variances [a,b,c]

Variable	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*Sig.*	*Observation*
Tangibles contribute to quality of service offered at the university	1.092	125	10	0.479	Homogeneity
Reliability contribute to quality of service offered at the university	0.901	125	10	0.640	Homogeneity
Responsiveness contributes to quality of service offered at the university	2.281	125	10	0.075	Heterogeneity
Assurance contribute to quality of service offered at the university	0.889	125	10	0.651	Homogeneity
Empathy contribute to quality of service offered at the university	1.333	125	10	0.324	Homogeneity

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

[a.] Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups

[b.] Method: Weighted Least Squares Regression - Weighted by Age

[c] Design: Intercept + EmploCSS1 + EmploCSS2 + EmploCSS3 + EmploCSS4 + EmploCSS5 + EmploCSS6 + EmploCSS7 + EmploCSS8 + EmploCSS9 + EmploCSS10

Except responsiveness, Levene's test confirmed this assumption of homogeneity of variances between quality of service delivery predictants and their related predictors. Therefore, the remaining dependent variables were expected to provide an explanation of the level of service delivery in public universities by easing employee's participation in community service.

4.4.3.3 Model Estimation and Regression Strength Testing

As reflected in Table 4.65, employee's participation in community service has a significant impact on the quality of service delivery at public universities of Kenya. However, in most of the cases Pearson correlation test did not confirm at 99% confidence interval the existence of a strong relationship between the dependent variables and most of the predictors and above.

Table 4.63: Correlation between factors enabling participation in community service [a.]

Variable	*EmploCSS 1*	*EmploCSS 2*	*EmploCSS 3*	*EmploCSS 4*	*EmploCSS 5*	*EmploCSS 6*	*EmploCSS 7*	*EmploCSS 8*	*EmploCSS 9*	*EmploCSS 10*
Well paid employees (EmploCSS 1)	1.000									
Continous employee training (EmploCSS 2)	0.150**	1.000								
Rigorous employee development programme (EmploCSS 3)	0.393***	0.290***	1.000							
Employee with better working facilities (EmploCSS 4)	0.349***	0.116*	0.483***	1.000						
Employee promoted for achieving targets (EmploCSS 5)	0.360***	-0.070	0.261***	0.377***	1.000					
Best worker awards (EmploCSS 6)	0.211***	0.025	0.228***	0.288***	0.596***	1.000				
Transferring of employees (EmploCSS 7)	0.265***	-0.000	0.220***	-0.011	0.324***	0.393***	1.000			
A fully paid leave of absence (EmploCSS 8)	0.369***	-0.071	0.048	0.056	0.341***	0.420***	0.596***	1.000		
Award of scholarly titles for academic work (EmploCSS 9)	0.058	-0.021	0.043	0.031	0.154	0.163	0.225***	0.249***	1.000	
Support of dependants in educational programmes (EmploCSS 10)	0.094	-0.005	0.140*	0.084	0.244***	0.104	0.261***	0.226***	0.192**	1.000

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

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

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

[a.] Method: Pearson Correlation

Table 4.65: Correlation between quality of service delivery and community service

Parameter	*Tangible*	*Reliability*	*Assurance*	*Empathy*
EmploCSS 1	0.187**	0.115*	0.187**	0.165**
EmploCSS 2	0.07	0.037	0.151**	0.184**
EmploCSS 3	0.211***	0.167**	0.302***	0.298***
EmploCSS 4	0.226***	0.122*	0.263***	0.149**
EmploCSS 5	0.104	0.033	0.164**	0.08
EmploCSS 6	0.129*	0.028	0.141*	0.315***
EmploCSS 7	0.039	0.044	0.024	0.137*
EmploCSS 8	0.043	0.095	0.056	0.210***
EmploCSS 9	0.05	0.03	0.036	0.042
EmploCSS 10	0.018	-0.008	-0.011	-0.026

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

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

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

Assurance (EmploWS 14) and Empathy (Emplo WS 15) and others were among the few exceptions. For instance, the quality of service delivery measured by Tangibles (EmploWS 11) was highly related to Rigorous development programme (EmploCSS 3) and Best worker awards (Emplo CSS 6).Reliability(EmploWS 12) was significantly related to Well paid Employee (EmploCSS 1), Rigorous development programme (EmploCSS 3) and Employee better working facilities (EmploCSS 4). Consequently, possible strong regressions could only be expected for the above predictants and their corresponding predictors for explaining their contribution of employee's participation in community service to the quality of service delivery in public universities.

Results of the F test led to the acceptance of the working hypothesis stating that employees' participation in community service was positively related to the level of service delivery at the selected universities of Kenya. Different tests of between-subjects effects established at least at 90% confidence interval that the level of service delivery was significantly reliable on the participation by the teaching members of staff in community service through "tangibles", "reliability", "assurance" and "empathy" of academic teaching members of staff.

Table 4.66: Between-subjects effects for service delivery and community service

Parameter	*Tangibles* [a.]		*Reliability* [b.]		*Assurance* [c.]		*Empathy* [d.]	
	F	*Sig.*	*F*	*Sig.*	*F*	*Sig.*	*F*	*Sig.*
Well paid employee	1.581	0.186	1.023	0.4	0.393	0.813	1.087	0.368
Continuous training	1.777	0.126	0.256	0.936	1.679	0.148	0.476	0.793
Rigorous development	0.078	0.989	0.947	0.441	1.338	0.262	0.937	0.447
Better facilities	0.726	0.577	1.19	0.321	0.97	0.428	1.081	0.371
Promotion for targets	0.33	0.857	2.704**	0.035	1.965	0.107	2.877**	0.027
Best worker awards	2.78	0.032	2.56**	0.044	4.386***	0.003	1.89	0.119
Transfers	0.311	0.87	0.785	0.538	1.711	0.155	0.839	0.504
Paid leave of absence	5.236***	0.001	3.361**	0.013	0.981	0.422	1.869	0.123
Scholarly awards	0.847	0.52	0.957	0.449	1.174	0.328	1.702	0.142
Dependants support	1.316	0.27	0.894	0.471	0.693	0.599	2.441*	0.053
Corrected Model	*2.066****	*0.002*	*1.420**	*0.084*	*2.012****	*0.003*	*1.571***	*0.038*

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

a. R Squared = .502 (Adjusted R Squared = .259)
b. R Squared = .410 (Adjusted R Squared = .121)
c. R Squared = .496 (Adjusted R Squared = .249)
d. R Squared = .434 (Adjusted R Squared = .158)

*Significance at 10%; Confidence intervals of 90%
**Significance at 5%; Confidence intervals of 95%
***Significance at 1%; Confidence intervals of 99%

Based on results of Table 4.66, an emphasis can be put on "tangibles" (Adjusted R^2= 0.259; F= 2.066; Sig.= 0.002) and "reliability" (Adjusted R^2 = 0.121; F= 1.42; Sig.= 0.084), which significantly contribute to enhancing participation in community service at the selected universities through promotions based on achievements (F=2.704; Sig.= 0.035), worker awards based on results (F=2.56; Sig.= 0.044) and fully paid leave based on performance (F=3.361; Sig.=0.013). Besides, "assurance" (Adjusted R^2 = 0.249; F= 2.012; Sig.= 0.003) significantly bestows participation in community service at the university by means of rigorous employee development programme (F= 1.988; Sig.= 0.098), promotions based on achievements (F=2.877; Sig.= 0.027), scholarly titles' award based on academic performance (F= 1.91; Sig.= 0.10) and support of dependents' education (F=2.441; Sig.= 0.053). Finally, "empathy" (R^2= 0.434; Adjusted R^2= 0.158; F= 1.571; Sig.= 0.038) had a significant contribution to participation in community service at the university by means of worker awards based on results (F=4.386; Sig.= 0.003).

Table 4.67 provides results of the *t* test for the most significant categories within each of the above parameters. These results indicate that "fully paid leave based on performance" and "worker awards based on results" were ranked from "fairly valuable" to "very valuable" when it came to enhancing participation in community service, while employees' "promotions based on achievements" were found to be a hindrance ("not valuable at all") to incentivizing their participation in community service. Nonetheless, refusal to recognizing workers' performance (worker awards) was found to be grievously affecting employees' participation to community service. These findings revealed that the level of service delivery at universities also relies on Results Based Management (RBM) through personnel participation in community service.

4.4.3.4 Discussion on the Testing of Hypothesis Three(Ha_3)

As reflected in the literature review, major focus of attention in current higher education policy is on the adaptive responses which institutions are making to the rapid changes in political-economic and social relations. The institutions of higher education are being challenged to become more responsive to societal needs and to emerge from its myopic absorption with the detached concerns of ivory tower academia.

Table 4.67:Parameter estimate for level of service delivery by community service

Parameter	*Tangibles*		*Reliability*		*Assurance*		*Empathy*	
	t	*Sig.*	*t*	*Sig.*	*t*	*Sig.*	*t*	*Sig.*
Promotion for targets[=1]	1.008	0.316	2.887***	0.005	2.595**	0.011	2.993***	0.004
Best worker awards[=1]	-1.516	0.133	-2.292**	0.024	-4.019***	0.000	-2.486**	0.015
Best worker awards[=2]	-1.935*	0.056	-0.158	0.875	-0.684	0.495	-0.732	0.466
Best worker awards[=3]	0.69	0.492	0.446	0.657	-2.063**	0.042	-1.606	0.112
Best worker awards[=4]	-0.294	0.769	-1.337	0.185	-2.3**	0.024	-1.908*	0.06
Paid leave of absence[=2]	-0.316	0.753	-1.58	0.118	-0.841	0.402	-0.526	0.600
Paid leave of absence[=3]	-3.696***	0.000	-3.243***	0.002	-1.802*	0.075	-2.076**	0.041
Dependants support[=1]	0.078	0.938	0.019	0.985	0.878	0.383	0.445	0.658
Dependants support[=4]	0.781	0.437	1.419	0.159	-0.819	0.415	2.497**	0.014

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

*Significance at 10%; Confidence intervals of 90%

**Significance at 5%; Confidence intervals of 95%

***Significance at 1%; Confidence intervals of 99%

This has led to emergence of the 'market' or 'entrepreneurial' university characterized concerned with university-business partnerships, faculty responsibility for accessing external sources of funding, and by a managerialist ethos in institutional governance, leadership, and planning (Subotzky,1999).

It is further noted that recent developments in information technology and the need for flexibility and innovative responsiveness to rapidly changing market conditions due to globalization have significantly altered patterns of production, research and development and this has influenced the production of knowledge and, in turn, higher education. The production of new knowledge is increasingly occurring within new forms of social organization and it is observed that 'it is this critical nexus between knowledge, innovation and co-operation which provides a new perspective on higher education's relationship with society and the economy (Gibbons et al.,1994; Kraak, 1995; Schuler, 1995; Walshock, 1995; Gibbons, 1997; Scott, 1997; Slaughter and Leslie, 1997; Curne and Vidovich,1998; Polster and Newson,1998).

The local political-economic context and culture provides the key to understanding the characteristics of national higher education system and understanding a nation's educational structures and policies depends on looking for deeper cultural explanations of its social structures, its political economy and its position in global relations and therefore "knowledge is a social construct dependent upon institutional and national contexts, as well as the discipline and profession''. The cultural context of a specific environment directly shapes organizational culture, structure, functions and practices in the academy in that particular society. It is in this light that the relevance, purpose, and quality of higher education can be approached not in relation to abstract universals, but rather in terms of its contextualized fitness to purpose in relation to national development priorities and higher education policy goals. Developments in higher education have given rise to the 'entrepreneurial' or 'market' university and this has changed not only the epistemological and organizational forms of knowledge, but also the role of the state in relation to higher education (Tierney 1996).

Academics across the world are now faced with developing skills in interdisciplinary and team project management and networking, and in dealing with the media and an increasingly better informed general public. Management strongly encourages entrepreneurial activities among faculties. The best universities will have to adjust from being adept producers of knowledge to being creative reconfigurers of knowledge in solving increasingly complex problems. It can and should be oriented towards partnerships aimed at community development so as to actualize the institution mission of community service in an effective way. It is stated that there is an increasing pressure to bridge the gap between higher education and society and become active partners in addressing and solving our social ills (Gibbons, 1998). Higher education enhances its usefulness to society by, ''becoming a forum for critical community dialogues, by advancing practice-based knowledge and policies as well as upholding the creation of theory-based knowledge, and by utilizing faculty expertise in new ways''.

4.4.4 Organizational Factors Affecting Quality of Service Delivery at University(Ha_4)

4.4.4.1 Test of Multicollinearity between Predictors

Pearson test displayed, at 90% confidence interval and above, very significant correlations between all the predictors (Table 4.68). In most of the cases, the study ignored the existence of a multicollinearity problem in the regression of the working environment factors for quality of service delivery to their corresponding predictors, since the latter did not display a Pearson correlation equal to or above 0.7, except for the relationship between Better customer service(Contri6) and Focused and deliberate planning(Contri7).

4.4.4.2 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

The Levene's test confirmed the assumption of homogeneity of variances between Responsiveness (EmploWS 13) and Assurance (EmploWS 14) with their corresponding predictors, thus upholding a strong relation between these two categories (Table 4.69).However, this test nullified the hypothesis of equality of error variances between the other dependent variables and their corresponding predictors. Therefore, the study confirmed the assumption that responsiveness and assurance contribute to the level of

service delivery in public universities by easing their employee's working environment.

4.4.4.3 Model Estimation and Regression Strength Testing

Table 4.70 presents the correlation matrix of dependent variables measuring the quality of service delivery in public universities versus selected independent variables from the working environment. In most of the cases, Pearson Rho test supported at 90% confidence interval and above that there was a significant relationship between the working environment and the quality of service delivered in public universities of Kenya. However, for a few cases, it did not confirm the existence of such a strong relationship between the dependent variables and all the predictors.

Table 4.68: Correlation among organizational factors affecting service delivery

Variable	*Contri 1*	*Contri 2*	*Contri 3*	*Contri 4*	*Contri 5*	*Contri 6*	*Contri 7*	*Contri 8*	*Contri 9*
Initiation of new academic programmes	1.000								
Strengthening of academic processes	0.533***	1.000							
Enhancement of individualautonomy	0.483***	0.510***	1.000						
Greater automation of academic work	0.593***	0.512***	0.568***	1.000					
Better utilization of academic resources	0.574***	0.508***	0.556***	0.675***	1.000				
Better customer service	0.440***	0.377***	0.473***	0.619***	0.675***	1.000			
Focused and deliberate planning	0.456***	0.429***	0.506***	0.618***	0.643***	0.746***	1.000		
Better unit cost management	0.521***	0.381***	0.327***	0.551***	0.484***	0.567***	0.655***	1.000	
Freedom to take and manage risks	0.467***	0.477***	0.489	0.543***	0.521***	0.466***	0.480***	0.501***	1.000

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

*** All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Method: Pearson Correlation

Table 4.69: Results of Levene's test of equality of error variances [a,b,c]

Variables	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*Sig.*	*Observation*
Tangibles contribute to quality of service offered at the university	2.841	118	13	0.019	Heterogeneity
Reliability contribute to quality of service offered at the university	1.896	118	13	0.096	Heterogeneity
Responsiveness contributes to quality of service offered at the university	1.038	118	13	0.509	Homogeneity
Assurance contribute to quality of service offered at the university	1.491	118	13	0.212	Homogeneity
Empathy contribute to quality of service offered at the university	3.218	118	13	0.011	Heterogeneity

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

[a.] Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups

[b.] Method: Weighted Least Squares Regression - Weighted by Age

[c]. Design: Intercept + Contri_1 + Contri_2 + ... + Contri_9

Table 4.70: Correlation between quality of service delivery and organizational factors

Parameter	*Responsiveness*	*Assurance*
Contri 1	0.033	-0.029
Contri 2	-0.07	-0.101
Contri 3	-0.064	-0.015
Contri 4	0.09	-0.045
Contri 5	0.094	-0.069
Contri 6	0.123*	-0.074
Contri 7	0.216**	0.031
Contri 8	0.066	-0.088
Contri 9	0.032	-0.024

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

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

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

Method: Pearson Correlation

For instance, Pearson correlation test failed to demonstrate that the enhancement of individual autonomy (Contri 3) and, focused and deliberate planning (Contri 7) had a bearing on the quality of service delivery measured by the level of tangibles, reliability and empathy. Also, service delivery by the level of tangibles was delinked to a better utilization of academic resources (Contri 5), while responsiveness was not directly related to better customer service (Contri 6) and to focused and deliberate planning (Contri 7). Consequently, a regression of the contribution of the above predictants to the level of service delivery in public universities was possibly strong if these isolated predictors could be strengthened in the employee's working environment.

The tests of between-subjects effects proved beyond any doubt that the level of service delivery at university was significantly related to the working environment of the teaching members of staff selected in key universities of Kenya. Table 4.71 depicts that "responsiveness" (Adjusted R^2= 0.140; F= 1.557; Sig.= 0.047) and "assurance" (Adjusted R^2= 0.118; F= 1.458; Sig.= 0.076) as key moderators of the level of service delivery at selected public universities.

Table 4.71:Between-subjects effects for service delivery and organizational factors

Parameter	*Responsiveness*[a.]		*Assurance*[b.]	
	F	*Sig.*	*F*	*Sig.*
Freedom to initiate	1.171	0.329	0.626	0.645
Processes strengthening	1.1	0.362	0.471	0.757
Individual autonomy	0.83	0.510	0.877	0.481
Academics automation	0.888	0.474	0.304	0.875
Resource utilization	0.161	0.957	0.371	0.829
Customer service	1.737	0.149	0.994	0.415
Focused planning	3.071**	0.020	1.7	0.157
Cost management	0.703	0.592	2.908**	0.026
Risks take freedom	0.37	0.829	1.52	0.203
Corrected Model	*1.557***	*0.047*	*1.458**	*0.076*

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

[a.] R Squared = .390 (Adjusted R Squared = .140)

[b.] R Squared = .375 (Adjusted R Squared = .118)

*Significance at 10%; Confidence intervals of 90%

**Significance at 5%; Confidence intervals of 95%

***Significance at 1%; Confidence intervals of 99%

Organizational parameters that were found significant for explaining the level of service delivery included "focused planning" and "cost management"(Table 4.72). They were significant at 95% confidence intervals in creating an enabling organizational environment that was conducive for academic teaching. Organizational factors that were enabling "Assurance" for high levels of service delivery at the selected universities mainly included "better unit cost management", which was ranked from "fairly" to "highly" important. "Focused planning" was also significant but invaluable for most of employees for enabling both "Responsiveness" and "Assurance". Thus, it can be concluded that employees' assurance contributes to high levels of service delivery by enabling "better unit cost management" to enhance service efficiency.

Table 4.72: Parameter estimate for level of service delivery by organizational factors

Parameter	Responsiveness		Assurance	
	t	Sig.	t	Sig.
Focused planning[=1]	-2.376**	0.020	-2.15**	0.034
Focused planning[=3]	-0.559	0.578	-0.778	0.439
Cost management[=1]	1.527	0.130	2.144**	0.035
Cost management[=2]	0.206	0.837	2.645***	0.01
Cost management[=3]	0.052	0.959	3.123***	0.002
Cost management[=4]	0.027	0.978	2.401**	0.018

Source: Field Data (Researcher 2013)

Notes:

*Significance at 10%; Confidence intervals of
**Significance at 5%; Confidence intervals of 95%
***Significance at 1%; Confidence intervals of 99%

4.4.4.4 Discussion on the Testing of Hypothesis Four (Ha_4)

The literature review has highlighted that performance contracting changes the basic role of the contract and the assumptions on which the contract is based, in the incentives that the contract seeks to create, and in the expectations of the various parties. It is noted that there is an inherent tension, between pay for activity and pay for results(Donahue,1989). Performance contract only specifies what results should be produced, and gives one the

flexibility to determine how best to produce and then pays only when it has been successful. Stability of resources enhances the motivating effect of contracts. The political top; must respect the operational autonomy of the contracted individuals and central units should be provided with strategic management and monitoring capacities in order to play their role (Bouckaert and Balk 1999). Performance contract management should be accompanied by a performance-oriented change in organizational structure and management culture. Management instruments, focusing on performance and costs in the field of human resources and financial management, should be developed in an integrated way. There is need for a good definition of outputs and solid performance measure. Performance contracting must be complemented by other instruments of control such as ombudsman, quality charters, and regulations concerning transparency and openness. Performance contract management should be embedded in a trust-based relationship between the government, the organization and the individual. The organization and the individual should receive a maximum amount of autonomy within the limits of the control capacities of the government. This implies a correct use of incentives and sanctions. Evaluations should involve the two contracting parties. There should be regular overall evaluations and audits of benefits and drawbacks of the implemented contract in order to learn from these experiences (Bouckaert and Balk 1999).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations based on the empirical results of the study. It also presents suggested areas for further and future research.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The cornerstone of this study has been the establishment of performance contracting relationship to service delivery in the public universities in Kenya. The overall objective of this study was to determine the relationship of performance contracting and service delivery in public universities in Kenya. The intention was to bridge the existing knowledge gap in this area. Past research has largely shown that performance contracting is one of the management tools introduced by the Kenyan government as part of the reforms to improve transparency, accountability and service delivery, but this has however shown a disconnect in service delivery since setting of targets is not done through discussions. In addition understanding performance contract pitfalls and risks might aid innovation and success in effective implementation of performance contract in the public universities in Kenya.

Empirical evidence was collected from three (3) public universities, with consideration being put to members of academic staff in three schools from each of the selected university. The total number of staff members who responded to the questionnaire amounted to 142 people. The general objective of this study was to determine the relationship of performance contracting and service delivery in Public Universities in Kenya. Four specific objectives were formulated and discussed in chapter four.

Findings from this study have shown that university lecturers had different views about performance contracting, they unanimously agreed that Responsiveness (82%), Assurance (82%), Reliability (81%), Empathy (76%) and Tangibles (73%) were

adequate measures for quality of service. Lecturers expressed different versions and terminologies of performance contracting that encompassed phrases such as: agreement on workload targets, recruitment and management by objectives for effectiveness and efficiency, government reforms for better service delivery and evaluation of the employees by themselves or the institution. That majority of the staff worked in departments which were on a performance contract and they had also signed a performance contract for the academic year in which this research was undertaken; That involvement of internal stakeholders in performance contracting was felt to be great in respect of university management board, top level management and council members; That in respect of implementation of performance contract by universities at individual level majority felt that it was average. It was also found that the greatest number of teaching academic members of staff were not involved in setting of performance targets; That in terms of appropriateness of the targets there was a division with a greater number stating that the targets were appropriate and others stating that they were not appropriate; That the negotiation process for the performance contract was rated between poor and good by most respondents. That; the challenges associated with performance contracting were ranked by most of the respondents to be slightly important to very important; That the rating of overall service delivery before implementation of performance contracting was average while after implementation it was poor raising a concern as to whether the implementation tools were understood by the staff; That the findings observed majorly that there was no relationship of management tools comprising of strategic plan, performance management, annual budget and employment contract to service delivery.

Results show that 43% among lecturers ranked inadequate teacher-student interaction as the most important, 11.3% ranked large material contents as most important, 17.6% ranked compressed teaching content as most important, 27.5% ranked inappropriate marking of CATs and examinations as most important. The study confirmed at 95% confidence interval the assumption that employees' teaching workload contributes to the quality of service delivery in public universities through availability of tangibles.

The study also upheld at least at 90% confidence interval the hypothesis that tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy contribute to the level of service delivery in public universities by easing employee's administrative work systems. Medical cover and working relations were the main administrative systems explaining the level of service offered at selected public universities of Kenya. It shows that employees' training (92%), development of employees (91%), working facilities (89%) and employees' recognition (84%) are extremely important for improving their performance. Moreover, university lecturers need Better working rules and regulations (79%) as well as a competitive take home package (74%) to enable them achieve their targets.

With regards to their participation in community service at university level, most of the lecturers valued "better working facilities for handling public complaints" (84%). However, they also needed a continuous employee training and improved community service (80%), employee development programme for community service (71%), the support of dependents' education (65%), the payment of engagement for community service (60%), and the award of scholarly titles for improved community service (57%). Hence, the quality of service delivery in public universities was also significantly related to employees' participation in community service through tangibles, reliability, assurance and empathy at 90% confidence level and above. Results indicate that "fully paid leave based on performance" and "worker awards based on results" were ranked from "fairly valuable" to "very valuable" when it came to enhancing participation in community service. These findings revealed that the level of service delivery at universities also relies on Results Based Management (RBM) through personnel participation in community service.

However, university lecturers also showed concern for strengthening academic process (65%), granting more freedom to initiate new academic programmes (64%), enhancing automation of academic work (63%) and individual autonomy (61%).However, employees' assurance contributed at 5%significant level to high levels of service delivery by enabling "better unit cost management" to enhance service efficiency. The most important organizational factors included: better customer service (69%) and better utilization of academic resources (68%).

Research on performance contracting practices has put an intense focus on the performance standards that are quality, quantity, and timeless. This research has suggested a performance-based contracting that is characterized by specifications of the outcomes, expectations of the contract and the requirement that any renewals or extension be based on the achievement of the identified outcomes. The focus of performance contracting is on operating efficiency, and therefore should be strengthened.

5.3 Conclusions

This study's main concern was to determine the relationship of performance contracting and service delivery in public universities in Kenya. The thesis was based on four specific objectives. This section draws conclusions based on each objective.

According to objective one which was concerned with determining the extent to which employee's teaching workload affected the level of service delivery in public universities in Kenya, it can be concluded that the level of service delivery in respect of the teaching workload and in consideration of the various variables used to measure the level of service delivery was majorly determined by increased demand for courses offered at selected universities, timely graduations ceremonies, increased customer compliments, increased number of graduates, reduction in customer complaints, effective and efficient teaching methods, timely release of results and novel teaching methods. In view of these observations the universities should try as much as possible to link the performance contracting practices to these variables, sustain them and equip its staff with the necessary tools and skills besides giving feedback to its customers and also linking the courses offered to the industry. It is worth noting that increase in student enrollment and timely examinations in regard to teaching workload was not considered as affecting the level of service and this can be explained by the presence of many modules and programmes which have been introduced to take care of the various needs of the customers, and that universities also continuously assess the students through various types of examinations which include class presentations, discussion groups, take away assignments and continuous assessment tests besides the final

semester examinations and supplementary examinations.

The second objective of this study was to evaluate how employee's administrative work systems contributed to service delivery in public universities in Kenya. It can be concluded that the level of service delivery was explained by recognition of academic staff members, training of academic teaching staff, medical cover for staff, working relations in the universities, rules and regulations of the universities, take home package and out-of office activities, development of staff members. These variables were not equally the same in explaining the level of service delivery in the selected universities and therefore a call to the management of the universities to put enough efforts so as to establish the root cause of the weak variables and consequently strengthen them for purposes of improving overall service delivery. It should however be noted that improved employee working facilities, involvement in out-of-office team building activities and assignment of other duties was not considered as contributing to the level of service delivery and this can be explained by the experiences undergone by academic teaching staff members in which case their offices are of shared nature, again more often than not they are not able to participate in team building activities due to the match needed time in disseminating knowledge, carrying out academic research and publishing.

The third objective was concerned with examining how employee's participation in community service was related to service delivery in public universities in Kenya. It was concluded that promotions based on achievements, worker awards based on results, fully paid leave based on performance, rigorous employee development programme, scholarly titles' award based on academic performance and support of dependents' education. It was however noted that well paid employees, continuous employee development, an employee with better working facilities and transferring of employees were not key explanatory variables when it came to community service, and this can be explained by noting that what the teaching academic members are already offering is a community service and they are already trained in their respective fields and therefore what they offer is not tied to any significant financial gain but by passion of the impact the knowledge they disseminate creates to the larger community and the

world at large.

The fourth and final objective of this study was to establish the relationship between working environment and the level of service delivery in public universities in Kenya. The study based on the observation and discussions in chapter four concluded that, greater automation of academic work, better utilization of academic resources, better customer care and better unit cost management were key contributors to level of service delivery. The absence of "more focused and deliberate planning", and to some extent, that of "greater automation of academic work", could be a threat to creating a working environment that is conducive for high levels of service delivery. Thus, it can be concluded that employees contribute to high levels of service delivery when there is an enabling working environment that enhances the efficiency of their work. It was also noted that freedom to initiate new academic programmes, enhancement of individual autonomy, strengthening of academic processes and freedom to take and manage risks were not significant in contributing to the level of service delivery. This can be explained by the fact that universities are run and managed on a daily basis by well established committees and boards which are governed by university charters, mission statements, vision statements, core mandate, rules, regulations and policy statements.

5.4 Recommendations

From the descriptive findings and based on the recommendation of the teaching academic members of staff who were the respondents in this study, the researcher recommends that for performance contracting to enhance service delivery; there should be stakeholders consultation and involvement, proper management by objectives practices and setting of challenging and attainable appropriate targets, awareness creation and training of staff, socio-economic incentives, and continuous monitoring and evaluation by the university managements.

The findings in objective one indicated that demand for courses offered, timely graduations ceremonies, increased customer compliments, increased number of graduates, reduction in customer complaints, effective and efficient teaching methods,

timely release of results and novel teaching methods in respect of teaching workload had significant contribution to the level of service delivery. This study recommends that the universities should strengthen these significant variables in consultation with the various stakeholders and also consider bringing on board any others which were either considered in this study or not provided they would add value to service delivery.

The second objective findings were that recognition of academic staff members, training of academic teaching staff, medical cover for staff, working relations in the universities, rules and regulations of the universities, take home package and out-of office activities, development of staff members in respect of employees' administrative work systems were significant towards contribution of service delivery. This study recommends that the management of the various universities should extend its efforts and resources towards establishing the root cause of the weak variables which included employee working facilities, involvement in out-of-office team building activities and assignment of other duties and consequently strengthen them for purposes of improving overall service delivery.

The third objective was concerned with examining how employee's participation in community service was related to service delivery in public universities in Kenya. The findings were that promotions based on achievements, worker awards based on results, fully paid leave of absence based on performance, rigorous employee development programme, scholarly titles' award based on academic performance and support of dependents' education were significant in contributing towards service delivery in the public universities. It was however noted that well paid employees, continuous employee development, an employee with better working facilities and transferring of employees were not key explanatory variables when it came to community service, and therefore this study recommends further interrogation of this observation since the university should always be considered as a community of scholars and the pillar and white tower of knowledge which should benefit the larger community in all spheres of knowledge since the final product is a holistic graduate.

The fourth and final objective of this study was to establish the relationship between working environment and the level of service delivery in public universities in Kenya. The study found that, greater automation of academic work, better utilization of academic resources, better customer care and better unit cost management were significant to level of service delivery. The study recommends that the universities should endeavour to engage the academic teaching members of staff in designing appropriate working environment which would be both conducive to them and the general public. The study further recommends that the academic members of staff should be interrogated so as to be able to establish from them what they consider as an appropriate working environment for the purpose of service delivery improvement.

5.5 Contribution to Knowledge

This study has unveiled the relationship between performance contracting and service delivery in public university of Kenya. A number of strategic measures related to performance contracting have been evoked, including university market share, employee competence, number of graduates, customer satisfaction, number of students admitted, student population and income generated. It was also found that if the management of public universities was supportive of innovative ideas from the academic teaching members of staff, ICT and automation of services (e.g. CCTV for examination surveillance), and socio-economic incentives, they would perform better. Thence, the teaching workload for the academic members of staff was to be balanced to enable them enjoy a bit of freedom for research, staff specialization and part-timing, learning by doing and knowledge acquisition, interaction with student and participation in community service. This study also unearthed the challenges related to teaching large classes, and during long and late hours, clashing time-tables and travels, limited time and short semesters. The study further revealed that other hindrances to service delivery; inadequate teacher-student interaction, large material contents, compressed teaching content, inappropriate marking of continuous assessment tests (CATs) and final examination, compressed teaching content and large material contents. To overcome these challenges the study suggested the division of classes and group discussions, flexible schedule and perseverance, self-organization and co-teaching and

co-marking. A final area of interest to managers was that of public complaints. In order to take care of customer needs, a public complaints office was to be established in each institution to receive complaints, act on them and achieve public relations.

Finally, a methodological point of view, this study went beyond the confines of traditional economic evaluation tools for measuring performance to embrace organizational tools of management science and obtain insights into salient problems facing academic teaching members of staff in public universities of Kenya. To enhance corporate governance and organizational performance, the research assessed the efficiency, effectiveness and accountability of administrative work systems and governance practices within Kenyan public universities to safeguard the quality of service delivery by academic teaching members of staff, and curb unwarranted inefficiencies and frauds, and possibly save them from collapse. Finally, while most studies on 'the determinants influencing implementation of performance contracting in Kenya' focus on non-parametric methods this study used normal distributions (F and t tests) embedded within a General Linear Model (GLM) to derive university employees' perception on performance contracting and their motivation to get involved in community service and the setting of primary objectives, definition of strategies, and determination of performance targets. It complimented studies that have been done to compare the successes and failures in state corporations in respect of performance contracting implementation.

5.6Areas of Further Research

There was a need to interrogate further the causes of poor rating of service delivery after implementation of performance contracting in the public universities. Further research also needs to be carried out to establish the main reasons as to why academic teaching members of staff were not involved in setting of performance contracts. The management tools appropriate for implementation and monitoring of performance contract should also be established through further academic research. It is also of utmost importance to establish how factors which in these research were found to be a hindrance to service delivery: inadequate teacher-student interaction, inappropriate

examinations, compressed teaching content and large material content could be overcome. Further research should also be carried out to establish the major reasons attributed to employees' promotion based on achievements and recognition of employees performance as a hindrance to participation in community service.

Finally, since this study did recourse to normal distributions (F and t tests) alone to derive determinants of the relationship between performance contracting and service delivery in public universities of Kenya, it could not establish factors that needed non-parametric methods. Further researches are thus recommended to derive university employees' perception on performance contracting and workload based on non-parametric methods. Such studies would complement the results of this study or be used for comparison purpose.

REFERENCES

Ahorani, Y.(1986).The Evolution and Management of State Enterprises. Cambridge: Ballanger.

Allen, J.W. (1989).Use of the Private Sector in Corrections Service Delivery. Washington DC: Urban Institute.

Archer, W. (2005). Mission Control? Modernising Human Reource Management in Higher Education. Oxford: Higher Education Policy Institute.

Atiyah, P.S. (1981). An Introduction to the Law of Contract, 3rd Ed. Oxford: Clarendon press.

Avery, G. (2000). Outsourcing public health laboratory services: A blue print for determining whether to practice and how. Public Administration Review, Vol. 60 (4): 330-337.

Awang, A. (2002).Vice-Director, Academic Section, National School of Administration, Bandung, Indonesia.

Bargh, C., Boccok, J., Scott, P. and Smith, D. (2000). University Leadership: The Role of the Chief Executive. Buckingham: SRHE/ Open University Press.

Barnard, E., Cloette, L. and Patel, H. (2003). Language and technology literacy barriers to accessing government services. Traunmuller, R, Electronic government

Barnett, R. (2003) Beyond All Reason: Living with ideology in the University. Buckingham: SRHE/ Open University Press.

Bayer, A.E. (2000). The American Academic Profession. Professionalism in graduate teaching and mentoring. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University press

Behn, R and Kant, P.(1999).Strategies for avoiding the pitfalls of performance contracting. Public productivity and management review 22: 470-489

Behn, R.D. (1997a).Broken Windows and Production Targets. Governing.10 (6): 68.

Behn, R.D. (1997b).Linking Measurement and Motivation: A Challenge for education. Advances in Education and Administration 5: 15-58.

Bellamy, S., Morley, C., and Watty, K. (2003).Why business academics remain in Australian universities despite deteriorating working conditions and reduced job satisfaction: An intellectual puzzle. Journal of Higher Education Policy Management 25: 13-28.

Bensimon, E. (1989) How College Presidents Use Their Administrative Groups: 'Real' and 'Illusory' Teams. Atlanta, GA: ASHE.

Benton, J.E and Menzel, D.C (1992).Contracting and Franchising County Services in Florida. Urban Affairs Review.

Borg, W.R and Gall, J.P (1996). Educational Research: An Introduction (6th ed.). NewYork: Longman.

Bouckaert, G, and Balk W (1999). Public productivity measurement, Disease and Cures. Public Productivity and Management Review.

Braskamp, L. and Wergin J.F. (1997). Universities and the new social contract. In: Tierney, W.G. (ed.), The Responsive University: Restructuring for High Performance. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Bringle, R.G and Hatcher, J.A. (1996).'Implementing service learning in higher education'. Journal of Higher Education, Vol. 67 (2).

Brown T and Potoski, M. (2003).Contract Management Capacity in Municipal and county governments. Public Administration Review, Vol. 63(2): 136-137

Brown, M. M. and Brudney, J.L. (1998). A "Smatter, better, faster, and cheaper'' government; contracting and geographical information system. Public administration review, Vol. 58(4): 335-345

Brown, T. and Potoski, M. (2001). The influence of transaction costs on government services production decisions. Presented at the 6th National Public Management Research Conference, Indiana University, October 2001.

Brown, T. and Potoski, M (2003). Contract management capacity in municipal and county government. Public Administration Review, Vol. 63(2): 136-137.

Carver C.S (1989). Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. Journal of Personality and Social psychology.

Chalmers, A. (1998).Workloads and stress in New Zealand universities. Report for the New Zealand Council for Educational Research and The Association of University Staff of New Zealand. Wellington: Chalmers.

Chi, K.S. and Devlin, K.A. (1989). Use of the private sector in employment and job training. Washington DC: Urban Institute.

Chi, K.S. (1993).Privatization in state government: Options for the future. State Trends & Forecasts, Vol. 2(2): 2-39.

Chomsky, N.(1997). Neo-liberalisation and Global Order: Doctrine and Reality. Seminar Paper presented at the Centre for African Studies. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Clark, B.R. (1995).'Leadership and innovation in universities: From theory to practice',

Tertiary Education and Management, Vol. 1(1): 7-11.

Clark, B.R. (1997).'Common problems and adaptive responses in the universities of the world: Organizing for change'. Higher Education Policy 10: 3-4.

Clark, B.R. (1998). Creating Entrepreneurial Universities: Organizational Pathways of Transformation. Oxford: Pergamon/ Elsevier Science.

Coaldrake, P., and Stedman, L. (1999). Academic work in twenty first century: Changing roles and policies. Canberra: Occassional paper series, Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs, Australia.

Coase, R.(1937).The Nature of firm.Economica,4,386-405,Critique."Journal of Health Politics, Policy and Law, Vol. 17 (2): 233-53.

Cohen,L. & Holiday,M.(1998).Practical statistics for students.London ,Paul Chapman.

Cronbanch, Lee J. (1955).Construct Validity in psychological tests. Psychological Bulleting, Vol 52(4): 281-302.

Curne, J.and Vidovich, L. (1998). Globalisation and Australian Universities: Policies and Town.

Davies, J. (1995) The Training of Academic Heads of Department. In: A. Brew (ed.), Directions in Staff Development. Buckingham: SRHE/Open University press, pp. 118-132

Denhardt, R.B (2008), Managing Human Behaviour in Public and Non-profit organizations. London: Sage Publications.

Dilger, R. J, Moffelt, R. R and Struyk, L.(1997). Privatization of municipal services in America's largest cities. Public Administration Review, Vol. 57(1): 21-26.

Dill, D.D. (1997). 'Markets and higher education: An introduction'. Higher Education Policy10: 3-4.

Directorate of Personnel Management (DPM) (2004) Targeted Voluntary Early Retirement Scheme 2004-2008

Domberger, S. (1998).The contracting organization, Oxford University Press, New York, NY.

Donahue, J.D. (1989). The Privatization decision. Public ends, Private means. New York: Basic Books.

Dorwart, R, M. Schlesinger, and R. Pulice. (1986). "The Promise and Pitfalls of Purchase of Service Contracts''. Hospital and Community Psychiatry 37(9):875-78

Duignan, P. (2011). An introduction to outcome theory. Outcomes theory knowledge base, Issue 218.

Eden, D. (1988). Pygmalion, goal setting and expectancy: Compatible ways to boost Productivity. Academy of management journal, 36: 319-348

Elmore, R.F (2007). "When Good Policies Go Bad: Political Accountability and Quality of Service Education''. Oxford: Worcester College.

Easterby-Smith,M,ThorpeR.and Lowe A(2002).Management research; An introduction (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Fairweather, J. (1996).Faculty work and Public Trust: Restoring the value of Teaching and Public Service in American Academic life. Allyn and Bacon.

Ferris, J.M and Graddy, E.(1991). Production costs, transaction costs, and local government contractor choice. Economic Inquiry, 24(July): 541-554.

Field, A (2006). Discovering statistics using SPSS. London: Sage Publications.

Gibbons, M., Limoges, C., Nowothy, H., Schwartzman, S., Scott, P. and Trow, M. (1994). The new production of knowledge: The Dynamics of Science and Research in Contemporary Societies. London: Sage Publications.

Gibbons, M. (1997).What Kind of University? Choices Concerning Knowledge and Curricula. Paper presented at the CHEPS/OU/CHE Conference on what kind of University? London, June 1997.

Gibbons, M. (1998). Higher Education Relevance in the 21st Century. Paper presented at the UNESCO World conference on Higher Education. Washington: The World Bank.

Globerman, S and Vining A.R (1996).A framework for evaluating the Government. Contracting-out decision with an application to Information Technology, Public Administration Review, Vol. 56(6): 577-586.

Gmelch, W. and Burns, J.(1994). Sources of Stress for Academic Department Chairpersons. Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. 32 (1): 79-94.

GoK. (2004). Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation handbook. Nairobi: Government Press.

GoK. (2005a). Information Booklet on Performance Contracts in the Public Service. Directorate of personel management. Nairobi: Government Press.

GoK. (2005b). Performance Contracting Steering Committee Sensitization Manual on Performance Contracts in the State Corporations. Nairobi: Government Press.

GoK. (2010). Review of Performance Contracting in the Public Sector September 2010. Nairobi: Government Press.

GoK. (2001). A Strategy for Performance Improvement in the Public Service. Government press. Nairobi.

GoK. (2003). Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment creation. Nairobi: Government Press.

Greene J. (1996). How much Privatization? A research note, examining the use of privatization by cities in 1982 and 1992. Policy studies journal, Vol. 24(4): 632-640

Greer, C.R, Youngblood, S.A and Gray, D.A. (1999). "Human resource management outsourcing; the make or buy decision'', academy of Management Executive, Vol. 13 (3): 85-96.

Harman, G. (2001). Academics and institutional differentiation in Australian higher education. Higher Education Policy, 14: 325-342.

Harman, G. (2002). Academic leaders or corporate managers: Deans and heads in Australian higher education,1977 to 1997.Higher Education Management and Policy,14: 53-70.

Harman, G.(2003).Australian academics and prospective academics: Adjustment to a more commercial environment. Higher Education Management and Policy,15,105-122.

Heck,U.and Rogger ,A.(2004).Knowledge Management for e-service-delivery-a conceptual approach within e-government. Wimmer, M.A (Ed), knowledge management in Electronic government.

Hilmer F. (1993). The National Competition Policy, Australian Government publishing services, Canberra.

Hirsch, W.Z. (1995). Contracting out Urban Governments, University of California, Los Angeles.

Houston, D., Luana H., Meyer and Shelley Paewai (2006).Academic Staff Workloads and Job Satisfaction: Expectations and Values in academe. Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management Vol 28 (1): 17-30.

Hunter, J.D and Gates, C.R (1998), "Outsourcing: 'functional'; 'fashionable,' or 'foolish'' in Griffin, G (ed) Management theory and practice moving to a New era, Macmillan Education Australia Pty.ltd, Melbourne, pp 133-44.

Institute of Medicine,(1990),Consensus Development at the National Institute of Health; Improving the programme. Washington, DC.: National Academy Press.

Jackson, M.(1999) The Role of Head of Department in Managing Performance in UK Universities. International Journal of Education Management, Vol. 13 (3):.142-155.

Jenkins, A. (2004). A Guide to Research Evidence on Teaching-Research Relations, The Higher Education Academy,383

Jenkins, W.L, leeuw, F.L. and Van thiel S. (in press). Quangos, evaluations and accountability in the collaborative state. In A. Gray (Ed). Evaluation and New public Management London; Transaction

Jones, L,. and Thompson F.(2007). From Bureaucracy to Hyperarchy in Netcentric and Quick learning organizations. Exploring future management practice.Information age.

K'angira P.E.C. (2008).Conditions necessary for implementation of Performance contract Strategy; The Case of Kenyan Judiciary staff. MBA Project (Unpublished). Nairobi: University of Nairobi.

Keller,G.(1998).'Does higher education research need revision? 'The Review of Higher Education. Association for the Study of Higher Education 21: 3.

Kelman, S.(1990).Procurement and public Management: The fear of discretion and the quality of government performance. Washington DC: AE press.

Kerr,S.(1975).On the folly of rewarding A, while hoping for B. Academy of Management journal, 18: 769-782.

Kettl, D.F (1993),Sharing power; public governance and private markets, Washington, D.C: Brooking Institution.

Kettner, P. and Martin, L.L. (1995). Performance contracting in human services. An initial assessment. Administration in social work.

Kimathi, D.K. (2011). Effect of Performance Contracting on perceived service delivery in the Kenya Civil Service in Eastern provincial headquarters. MBA Project (Unpublished). Nairobi: Kenyatta University.

Kobia, M. and Nura M. (2006). The Kenyan Experience with performance contracting, African Association for Public Administration and Management. Arusha, Tanzania

Korir, P. (2006).The Impact of Performance Contracting in State Corporations: The Case of East African Portland Company Limited. MBA Project (Unpublished). Nairobi: University of Nairobi.

Kothari, C.R. (2009). Research methodology, methods and techniques, New age international publisher, New Delhi.

Kraak, A. (1997).''Globalisation, changes in knowledge production, and the transformation of higher education''. In: Cloete,N et al. (eds.), Knowledge, Identity and Curriculum Transformation in Africa. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Kraak, A.and Watters, K. (1995). Investigating New Knowledge Production: A Western Cape Higher Education Case Study. Cape Town: National Commission on Higher of South Africa.

Krathwoh, D.R. (1998). Methods of Educational and Social Science Research: An Intergrated Approach(2nd ed.). New York: Longman.

Landau, M. (1969). Redundancy, rationality and the problem of duplication and overlap. Public Administration Review, Vol. 39(6): 346-358

Larvery, P. (1999). Smart Contracting for Local Government Services. Processes and Experiences. Westport,CT: Praeger.

Leslie, D.W. (2002).Resolving the Dispute:Teaching is Academe's Core value. The Journal of Higher Education, 73: 49-73.

Lienert, I. (2003). Civil Service Reform in Africa: Mixed Results After 10 Years'. International Monetary Fund. Finance and Development, Vol. 35 (2).

Locke E. (1978). The Ubiquity of the Technique of Goal Setting in Theories of and Approaches to Employees Motivation. Academy of Management Review: 594-601.

Locke, M.J. (1968). Ethical issues in collection development. Routledge.

Lodge, G and Kalitowski, S. (2007).Innovation in government: international perspectives on civil service reform.

ManCur, O. (1973). Evaluating performance in the public sector. National Bureau of Economic research.

Manyura, P.J. (2005). Corporate governance and organizational performance: The case of companies quoted at the Nairobi Stock Exchange. MBA Project (Unpublished). Nairobi: University of Nairobi.

Mark S, Phillip, L. and Adrian, T.H. (2003). Research Methods for Business students. Delhi: Pearson Education Limited.

Martin, L. L. (2002a). Performance-Based Contracting for Human Services: Lessons for Public Procurement. Journal of Public Procurement 2(1): 2002-71

Marwaha, J.and Tommerdah, J. (1995). "Outsourcing your Customer Service.'' Telemarketing Vol.14 (2): 84-9.

McInnes, C. (1999). The work roles of academics in Australian universities. Canberra: Detya.

McInnes, C. (2000). Changing academic work roles: The everyday realities changing quality teaching. Quality in Higher Education,6: 143-152.

McNeil, W. (1994). Changes in Supervision as counselors and therapists gain experience; Professional psychology, Research and Practice, Vol. 25

Mersman, Gerhard, and Gero Von Harder(2002).Change Management. Jarkata: Lembaga Administrasi Negara.

Menon,N and Umapathy, S. (1990). Current budgeting practices in the U.S. Industry. The State of the Art. Newyork: Quorun Books.

Meyer, M.W and Gupta, V. (1994). The performance paradox. Research in organizational behavior 16: 309-369.

Meyer, M.W and Shaughnessy, O. (1993). Organizational design and the performance paradox. In: R. Swedberg (Ed). Explorations in economic sociology, pp 249-278. New York: Russel Sage foundation.

Middlehurst, R. (1993). Leading Academics. Buckingham: SRHE/Open University Press.

Middlehurst, R. (2004). Changing Internal Governance: a Discussion of Leadership Roles and Management Structures in UK Universities. Higher Education Quarterly, 58(4): 258-279.

Ministry of State Apparatus Reform. (2003). Letter of Decision No.63/2003.The General Guidance for Public Service Implementation. Jakarta.

Mueller, D. (1989). Public choice 11.Cambridge.Cambridge University Press.

Mugenda, O. and Mugenda, A. (2003). Research methods. Quantitative and Qualitative methods. Nairobi: Rev ed.

Musa, P. Dlamini. (2001)."Contract Plans and Public Enterprise Performance" Tangier, Morocco

Mwaura,.J.M. (2009).Performance Contracts and Intrapreneurial Development in State corporations: The Case of National Housing Corporation, Kenya. MBA Project (Unpublished). Nairobi: Kenyatta University.

National Association of State Purchasing Officials (NASPO). (1997). State and Local government purchasing: Principles and practices. Lexington, KY: NASPO.

Niskanen, W.A. (1971). Bureaucracy and Representative Government. Chicago. Aldine Atherton.

Njenga, F.(2008).Employee State of Psychological Contract following implementation of performance contracts; Case of Municipal Council of Thika Managers. MBA Project (Unpublished). Nairobi: University of Nairobi.

Noel E and Hilary T.(1990). Approaches to learning, evaluation of teaching, and preferences for contrasting academic environment. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, Netherlands.

Nthiga, M.W. (2010). The determinants influencing implementation of Performance contracting in Kenya Revenue Authority. MBA Project (Unpublished). Nairobi: Kenyatta University.

O'Hare, M., Leone, R. and Zegans, M. (1990). The privatization of imprisonment; A Managerial perspective. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University press.

O'Hare, D. (2002). Building the knowledge society. Information Society Commission. Report to Irish Government.

O'Leary, R. (1996). Managing Contracts and grants. In: Perry (Ed), The Handbook of Public Administration. San Francisco: Jersey-Bass.

Obong'o, S.O. (2009). Implementation of Performance Contracting in Kenya. International Public Management Review, Vol 10 (9).

OECD. (1999). In Search of Results: Performance Management Practice. Paris, France.

OFPP. (1998). A Guide to best practices for performance- based service contracting. Washington DC, USA.

OFPP. (1997)."Memorandum dated August 8, 1997, for Agency Senior Procurement Executives, the Deputy Under Secretary of Defense(Acquisition Reform) and performance-based service contracting(pbsc) point of contract, subject: Pbsc checklist''. Washington, DC: USA.

Ondari-Okemwa, E. (2004).Impediments to promoting access to global knowledge in Sub-Saharan Africa, Library Management: 361-375.

Ondari-Okemwa, E.(2006). An investigation into the practices, procedures, and challenges of knowledge management in government-owned organizations in Kenya. PhD Thesis. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Ondari-Okemwa, E and Smith, G.(2007). Knowledge management and enhanced Government-service delivery in Kenya. University of Stellenbosch Business School, South Africa.

Opiyo, H. (2006). Civil Service Reform Policy in Kenya: A review of the Retrenchment Strategy: Discussion paper series: Institute of Policy Analysis and Research.

Orr, L. (1997). Globalisation and the Universities: Towards the 'Market University'?, Social Dynamics, Vol. 23(1): 42-84.

Osborne, D. and Gaebler, T. (1992). Reinventing Government. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Ostrom, E.and Ostrom V. (1977). Public goods and public choices. Alternatives for delivering public services. Boulder, CO: Westview press.

Patterson, G. (1996). New Zealand universities in an era of challenge and change, occasional paper No.4. Palmerston North: New Zealand Department of Management Systems.

Performance Contracts Steering Committee (2005). Sensitization/Training Manual performance contracts in the public service. Nairobi, Kenya.

Pinchot, G. and Pinchot, E.(1993).The end of bureaucracy and the rise of the intelligent Organisation. San Francisco: Berret-Koehler.

Politt,C and Bouckaert, G. (2000). Public management reform: A Comparative Analysis. Oxford: Oxford University press.

Polster, C. and Newson, J. (1998). Reclaiming Our Centre: Towards a Robust Defense of Academy Autonomy. Paper presented at the World Congress of Comparative Education, Cape Town.

Porter, L. and Lawler, E. (1968). Managerial attitude and performance. Homewood, IL: Irwin

Power, M. (1997). The audit society. Oxford: Oxford university press

Praeger, J. (1994).Contracting out government services: Lessons from the private sector.Public administration review, Vol. 54(2): 176-184.

World Bank. (2002). Public Enterprises in Sub Saharan Africa. Washington D.C: World Bank.

World Bank. (1989). Public Sector Management and Private Sector Development. Washington, D.C: The World Bank, March 1989.

WPS. (1989). 160 Quick Learning Organizations: Exploring Future Management Practice. Information age.

Rakowsky, J (1997). Law May Disconnect Schools, Libraries from internet grants. Boston Globe, pp 1-18.

Results Based Management (RBM) Guide, Kenya (2005). Training Manual. Kenya

Rimmer, S (1998):"Competitive tendering and Outsourcing-initiatives and methods,'' Australian journal of Public Administration, vol. 57 No. 4, pp 75-84.

Riley, T.B. (2003).Knowledge management and technology: international tracking survey report, government telecommunications and informatics services, Public Works and Government Services, Canada.

Robert, M and Peter,D(1999).Privatization of public services; organizations reform, effort in public education health, American Journal of Public health.

Romainville, M. (1996).Teaching and research at university: A difficult pairing. Higher Education Management, 8: 135-144.

Rousseau, D. (1995). Psychological contracts in organizations. California: Sage.

Savas, E.S. (1989). Privatization in State and local government. Greenwood publishing group.

Schein,E. (1988). Organizational psychology. London: Prentice-Hall International Editions.

Schuler, T.(ed.)(1995). Changing University? Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Scot, P.(1997). 'Changes in knowledge production and dissemination in the context of global competition'. In: Cloete,N e.t al.(eds), Knowledge, Identity, and Curriculum Transformation in Africa. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Sekaran, U. (2003). Research methods for business; A skill building approach (4thed.). New Jersey: John Willey and Sons, inc.

Shattock, M. (2003). Managing Successful Universities. Buckingham: SRHE/The Open University press.

Shetterly, D. (2000). The influence of contract design on contractor performance. Public Performance& Management Review 24(1): 53-68.

Shirley, M.M.(1989).Evaluating the performance of public enterprises in Pakistan. Public Sector Management and Private Sector development. The World bank, march 1989 WPS 160.

Simon, W. (2006). European Review of Contract Law,Vol. 2 (1): 51-76.

Skinner, B.F. (2006). The experimental analysis of operant behavior. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, Vol. 291: 374-385.

Slaughter, S. and Leslie, L. (1997). Academic Capitalism: Politics, Policies, and the entrepreneurial University. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University.

Smith A. and Juliana R. (2002). Organizational Communication in Networked Public sphere. Berlin: Freie Universityn Berlin.

Smith, S.R. and Lipsky, M. (1993). Nonprofits for hire; The Welfare State in the age of contracting. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Smith. P. (1995). The use of Performance Indicators in the Public Sector. Journal of the royal statistical society, Vol. 153: 53-72.

Smith, R.F.I. (2004).Focusing on Public Value: Something New and Something old? Australian Journal of Public Administration.

Smyth, J. (1995).A Policy Analysis of Higher Education Reform in Australia in the context of Globalization. Melbourne Studies in Education. Melbourne: LaTrobe university Press.

Snell, L. (2001). Foster care privatization update. Privatization Watch No. 292 (April): 67.State of Kansas (2000).''Minutes of the joint meeting with the SRS Oversight Committee & Children's Issues Committee OF Kansas State Legislature. September 26, 2000''.

Stein, J. (1990),The Impact of Human Resource Policies on Employees; Balancing work and Family life. London: Sage Publications.

Stoker, G. (1997). Governance as theory. UK: Blackwell Publishers.

Subotzky, G. (1999). Alternatives to the entrepreneurial university. New modes of knowledge production in community service programs. Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Sullivan, K. (1997). What should count as Work in the 'Ivory Tower'?:Determining academic workloads in tertiary institutions, a university case study. NZARE monograph No.6. Wellington: New Zealand Association for Research in Education.

Sullivan, T.J. (2001). Methods of social research Fort Worth: Harcourt College Publishers, Summer Time

Teicher, J. and Dow. N (2002).E-government in Australia: Promise and progress. Information Polity. The international journal of Government and Democracy in the information age.

Terenzini, P. (1996).'Rediscovering roots: Public policy and higher education research' The review of Higher Education 20,1. Association for the Study of Higher Education.

Tierney, W.G. (1996). 'The academic profession and the culture of the faculty: A perspective of Latin American universities,' In: Tierney, W.G and Kempner, K.

(eds), The social role of Higher Education. New York and London: Garland Publishing.

Tierney, W.G. (ed) (1997). The Responsive University: Restructuring for High Performance. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University.

Tierney, W.G. and Kempner, K. (eds)(1997). The social role of Higher Education. New York and London: Garland Publishing

Tubbs, M. (1986). Goal setting. A meta-analytic examination of the empirical evidence. Journal of applied psychology 71(3): 474-483

Tully, S. (1994). Why to go for Stretch targets. Fortune, 145-158.

United Nations. (2006). Becoming Knowledge focused; A practical approach to Managing knowledge in International Organizations. Vienna: Knowledge Management Associates.

US General Accounting. (1995).Worker protection; Federal Contractors and Violations of Labor Law. Washington DC, USA

US General Accounting Office. (1997).Privatization: Lessons learned by state and local government. Washington DC, USA.

Vinson, E. (1999). Performance contracting in six state human service agencies. Washington, DC: The urban Institute

Vroom, V. (1964). Work and Motivation. John Willey. New York, USA.

Walshock, M. (1996). Knowledge Without Boundaries: What American's Research Universities Can Do for the Economy, the workplace, and the Community. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ward, K. and Wolf-Wendel, L. (1997). A Discourse Analysis of Community-Based Learning: Moving from ''I'' to ''We''. Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Association for the Study of Higher Education, Albuquerque, New Mexico, November.

Warker, H. (2001). In-house Production in Government. London: Sage Publication.

Weber, M. (1978). Economy and Society, 2 Vols. Edited by G. Roth and C. Wittich, Berkeley: University Press, California.

Wedel, K. (1974). Contracting for public assistance social services. Public Welfare 32:57-62

Weimer, D.L and Vining, A.R. (1992).The craft of Policy Design. Can it be more than that? Policy Studies review.

Williams, I.(1994). 'Competing for quality; Competition in the supply of Central Government Services, Managing Change in the New Public Sector. Longman, Harlow, pp 216-27.

Williamson, O.E. (1983).Vertical Merger Guidelines; Interpreting the 1982 Reforms; California Law Review Vol. 71: 2.

Williamson, O. E, (1985). The economic, institution of capitalism: Firms, Markets, relational contracting. New York: Free press.

Winter, R., Taylor, T. and Sarros, J. (2000). Trouble at mill: Quality of academic work life issues within a comprehensive Australian university. Studies in Higher Education, 25: 279-294.

Womack, J.P, Jones, D.T and Roos, D. (1990).The Machine that changed the world: The Story of lean production. New York: Rawson Associates.

Yair, A. (1981). Performance Evaluation of State-Owned Enterprises: A Process perspective. Management Science Vol. 27 (11): 1340-1347.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Philip Wambua Peter
School of Business
Business Administration department
P.O.Box 43844-00100
Nairobi.

07/11/2012.

Dear Sir/ Madam.

SUBJECT:REQUEST FOR INFORMATION

I am a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) student at Kenyatta University. As part of my doctoral work am undertaking a research on **"PERFORMANCE CONTRACTING AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN SELECTED KENYAN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES"**. The aim is to establish the relationship between performance contracting and service delivery. It is my kind and humble request that you assist me by filling the attached questionnaire. I undertake to assure you that the information you provide will be used solely for academic purposes and all responses will remain confidential.

Thank you very much for you time and co-operation.

Philip Wambua Peter.

Appendix II: Questionnaire

Questionnaire for Academic teaching staff Employees in Public Universities in Kenya.
Please provide the information as requested herein.

A:Socio-Demographic information

1. What is your current position? (Tick appropriately).

Tutorial fellow ☐

Assistant lecturer ☐

Lecturer ☐

Senior lecturer ☐

Associate Professor ☐

Professor ☐

2. What is your title (Tick appropriately) Mr/Mrs/Ms/Miss/Dr/Prof
3. What is your age bracket? (Tick appropriately).

Under ----------30 years ☐

30----------40 years ☐

40----------50 years ☐

50----------60 years ☐

Above 60years ☐

4. What is your gender (tick appropriately)

   i) Male

   ii) Female

5. What is your highest level of education? (Please tick one).

University first Degree	
University Post Graduate Diploma	
University Post Graduate Degree	
Doctorate degree	

6. In which Public University are you working? (Tick as appropriate)

   i) University of Nairobi.

   ii) Kenyatta University.

   iii) Moi University.

   iv) Egerton University College.

   v) Maseno University.

   vi) Jomo Kenyatta University College of Agriculture and Technology.

   vii) Masinde Muliro University College of Science and Technology.

7. In which School/faculty are you working.....

8. How long have you been in your current position?(state in years).....

9. On what terms have you been employed? (Tick one). Permanent/Contract

PART B: Performance Contracting

10 .Are you aware that Public Universities are on a Performance Contract? Yes/No

11 .Please state briefly what you understand by Performance Contract in Public Universities .....

12.Isyour Department on a Performance Contract for the current Academic Year? Yes/No

   12.1 Have you signed a performance contract for the current academic year? Yes/No

13. To what extent would you say the following categories of individuals are involved in

the process of developing the Public Universities Performance Contract? (Please rank each category), where 1=Not aware, 2=Never involved,3=Somehow involved,4=fairly involved and 5=Greatly involved

Category	Not aware	Never Involved	Somehow Involved	Fairly Involved	Greatly involved
University council members					
University management board members					
Top level management					
Middle level management					
Operational Staff					

14. How well do you feel the Public Universities Performance Contract has been implemented at the individual employee level(where 1=very poor, 2=poor,3=averagely, 4=Well,5=Very Well)

Very Poor	Poor	Averagely	Well	Very Well

15. Are you involved in setting of performance contract targets for yourself? Yes/No

16. How appropriate are the targets the Department has set out in the current Performance Contract? (where 1=not appropriate, 2=appropriate,3=moderately appropriate, 4=Very appropriate, 5=Best appropriate)

Not appropriate	Appropriate	Moderately appropriate	Very appropriate	Best appropriate

17. How would you rate the negotiation process for the Performance Contract between employees and the University management? (Where 1=very poor, 2=poor, 3=good, 4=very good,5=Excellent)

Very poor	Poor	Good	Very good	Excellent

18.Performance Contracting in Public Universities is associated with a number of challenges.Please rank the following challenges in order of importance using the five point scale where 1 = Not Important at all, 2 = Slightly important,3 = Reasonably important,4 =Important and 5 = very important

Challenges	Rank				
	1	2	3	4	5
Disagreement on measuring variables					
Slow pace of communication					
Misunderstanding of targets					
Resistance of culture change					
Resistance from fear of loss of jobs					
Non-linkage of staff performance to rewards					
Slow implementation					
Misunderstanding of performance matrix weights					

19. State the extent to which you agree with the following contributions in respect of performance contracting in public universities.(where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=Fairly agree, 4= Agree,5=Strongly agree)

Contribution	5	4	3	2	1
Freedom to initiate new academic programmes.					
Strengthening of academic processes					
Enhancement of individual autonomy.					
Greater automation of academic work					
Better utilization of academic resources					
Better customer service					
More focused and deliberate planning					
Better unit cost management					
Freedom to take and manage risks					

20. How would you rate overall service delivery in this university before and after implementation of Performance Contracts? (Please tick once for each period)

Before		After	
V. Good		V. Good	

Good		Good	
Average		Average	
Poor		Poor	
Don't Know		Don't Know	

21. What is the relationship between performance contracting in a public university and the following management tools/instruments?

Management tools/ Instruments	**Relationship**		
	Direct	**Indirect**	**Not related**
Strategic Plan			
Performance Management			
Annual Budget			
Employment contract			

22. To what extent do you feel the following performance contracting strategic measures are important to public universities.

1 =Not important 2 =Moderately Important 3 = Important
4 =Very important 5=Very Very Important

Strategic Measure	**Rank**
Market Share	
Employee competence	
Number of graduates	
Customer Satisfaction	
Number of students admitted	
Student population	
Income generated	

Part C: Performance Contracting, teaching workload and service delivery.

23. Do you think the management of public universities is supportive of innovative teaching ideas from employees that could improve service delivery? Yes/No

24. What is the recommended teaching workload in your university per academic year?...

25. Was your teaching workload in the last academic year more than the recommended? Yes/No

26. If yes to the above (24), did you find any challenges teaching more than Recommended workload? Yes/No

27. If yes to the above (25),what were the challenges?

i).....

ii).....

iii).....

28.If yes to the above (25), how did you overcome the challenges?

i).....

.ii).....

.iii.....

29.What aspects of the teaching workload do you consider a hindrance to service delivery

i).....

ii).....

iii).....

iv).....

30. Please rank your response to question (28) in order of importance.

.....

31. What do you consider as the most attractive aspect of your work?

i).....

ii.....

iii).....

32. Which areas in service delivery do you think require innovativeness in your university?

i).....

ii).....

iii).....

33.In your period of service as an employee of a public university have you come-up with an idea which you consider innovative and implemented it? Yes/No

34.If yes, how did the customer respond to the implemented idea? Where 1=Not satisfied, 2=Satisfied, 3=Fairly satisfied, 4=Highly satisfied, 5=Excellently satisfied

Excellently satisfied	
Very satisfied	
Fairly satisfied	
Satisfied	
Not satisfied	

35. To what extent would you rank the following as effective measures of customer satisfaction. Where:1 =Not important 2 =Moderately Important 3 = Important 4 =Very important 5=Very Very Important

Measure	Not important	Moderately important	Important	Very important	Very very important
Increase in demand of courses offered					
Increase in student enrolment					
Timely graduation ceremonies					
Effective and efficient teaching methodologies					
Reduction in customer complaints					
Increase in customer compliments					
Increase in the number of graduates					
Timely examinations					
Timely release of results					

36 .Has the concept of performance contracting improved effectiveness and efficiency in your job? Yes/No

Part C: Employee administrative work systems and Service delivery

37. State the extent to which you agree with the following statements in regard to performance contracting, administrative work systems, and service delivery.(Where 1=Disagree strongly,2=Disagree,3=Neither agree nor disagree,4=Agree,5=Agree strongly).

Statement	Rank				
	1	2	3	4	5
Employee recognition leads to improved service delivery.					
Employee training increases the level of service delivery.					
Development of employee improves service delivery.					
Improved employee working facilities leads to better service delivery.					
Competitive employee medical cover improves service delivery.					
Better employee working relations improves service delivery					
Considerate ,better working rules and regulations leads to improvement in service delivery					
A competitive take home package improves service delivery.					
Involvement in out-of –office team building activities improves service delivery.					
Assignment of other duties leads to better service delivery.					

38. State the extent to which you think the following descriptions contribute to the quality of service offered by your institution. Where 1=No Extent,2=Some extent,3=Moderate extent,4=High extent, 5=Great extent

Description	1	2	3	4	5
Physical facilities, equipment and staff appearance(Tangibles)					
Ability to perform service dependably and accurately(Reliability)					
Willingness to help and respond to customer need(Responsiveness)					
Ability of staff to inspire confidence and trust(Assurance)					
The extent to which caring individualized service is given(Empathy)					

Part D : Employee community service and service delivery.

39. How would you rank the following statements in respect of performance contracting, community service and service delivery? (Where 1=Not valuable at all,

2= valuable, 3=Fairly valuable, 4=Very valuable,5=Very very valuable).

Statement	Rank				
	1	2	3	4	5
Well paid employees engage in community service.					
Continuous employee training leads to improved community service.					
A rigorous employee development programme is essential for community service handling,					
An employee with better working facilities would handle public complaints effectively.					
An employee promoted for achieving targets handles community service efficiently.					
Best worker awards would improve an employees handling of community service.					
Transfering of employees would improve handling of community service.					
A fully paid leave of absence for exemplary performance improves community service.					
Award of scholarly titles for academic work leads to improved community service.					
Support of dependents in educational programmes improves community service handling.					

40. What main areas of your work have you received complaints on?

i).....

ii).....

iii).....

41. How have you been handling the complaints from the public?

i).....

.ii).....

.iii).....

42. Do you have a public complaints office in your institution? Yes/No

43. If yes, what role does it play in resolving public complaints?

.....

.....

44. What recommendations would you give to improve performance contracting in relation to service delivery in your institution...

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

THANK YOU SO MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix III: Denied Research Permit

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE - CHANCELLOR
(Research, Production & Extension)
Prof. Lucy W. Irungu B.Sc., M.Sc., Ph.D.

P.O. Box 30197-GPO.
00100,Nairobi-Kenya
Telephone: +254-20-2315416 (DI), 318262

Fax:0202317251
Email:dvcrpe@uonbi.ac.ke

UON/RPE/3/5

November 23, 2012

Philip Wambua Peter
Kenyatta University
School of Business
P.O. Box 43844-00100
NAIROBI

Dear Wambua,

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

We refer to your request to the Vice-Chancellor, dated November 9, 2012 on the above subject and advise you that it is not possible to allow you collect data for your research thesis entitled: ***Performance Contracting and Service Delivery in Public Universities in Kenya*** from our Institution at the moment.

The approval is hence declined and regret the inconvenience caused to you.

LUCY W. IRUNGU
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
(RESEARCH, PRODUCTION AND EXTENSION)
&
PROFESSOR OF ENTOMOLOGY

Copy to: Vice-Chancellor
DVC, A&F
DVC, AA
DVC, SA

ISO 9001:2008 CERTIFIED