PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRANSACTIONAL REWARDS AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE AT TEACHERS' SERVICE COMMISSION, KENYA

BY

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DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for any degree in any other university. The work reported here has been carried out by me and all sources of information have been acknowledged with references.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family and to the memory of my late grandmother, Lactar Roselida Oluoch whose inspiration and wise counselling had a lifetime impact on my performance.

ABSTRACT

Teachers Service Commission, Kenya (TSC) has struggled to offer quality service to teachers in Kenya. In particular, it adopted performance management besides transactional rewards for its secretariat staff in 2005/2006 fiscal year to ensure quality, quantity, and efficiency in service provision. Performance management and transactional rewards are critical strategies in enhancing efficiency in employee performance. However, in the last 16 years, quality service has consistently declined at the TSC. Approximately 5000 teachers visit its head office monthly, to solve their work-related problems. Similarly, customer satisfaction level decreased from 73.5% in 2016 to 59.8% in 2018. The literature review reveal that the findings of transactional rewards and performance management on employee performance respectively needs evaluation, and involves contradictions to attract better policy and practice. Studies also suggests that transactional rewards and performance management are responsible for employee performance but have not revealed the effect of performance management on the relationship between transactional rewards and employee performance. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between transactional rewards, performance management, and employee performance at TSC, Kenya. The objectives were to: Establish the effect of transactional rewards on employee performance at TSC, Kenya; determine the effect of performance management on employee performance at TSC, Kenya; and establish the moderating effect of performance management on the relationship between transactional rewards and employee performance at TSC, Kenya. This correlational research study was anchored on Goal setting theory. Primary data were collected from the 1200 TSC secretariat staff stationed in counties in Kenya using structured questionnaires. Krejcie and Morgan Table, and Cluster sampling technique were respectively used to select 291 TSC secretariat staff, and randomly sample the counties. Pilot results (N=21) and expert reviewers respectively, established reliability between α=.720 and .933 for variables, and high validity that provides unbiased data allowing 8-10% random error. Multiple regression results revealed that transactional rewards (B=0.325, p=0.000, R^2=21%) and performance management (B=0.457, p=0.000, R^2=42%) respectively predicted employee performance while the interaction (ΔR^2=0.8%, p=0.042) explained the variation in employee performance. Transactional rewards and performance management thus significantly and positively affect employee performance, while performance management significantly moderates the transactional rewards-employee performance relations. The findings reveal that the existence of transactional rewards and performance management helps to improve performance at the TSC. Organizations should enhance the implementation and improvement of performance management, and integrate transactional rewards into their performance management framework for employee performance. Future research on the nature of this interaction effect should be conducted in private organizations.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

B	Benefits
CD	Career Development
EC	Employee Compensation
EP	Employee Performance
EXR	Extra Role Performance
GRC	Giving and Receiving Coaching
GRF	Giving and Receiving Feedback
HRM	Human Resource Management
HRPs	Human Resource Practices
ICT	Information Communication Technology
KACE	Kenya Advance Certificate of Education
KCE	Kenya Certificate of Education
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KSAs	Knowledge skills and abilities
OP	Organizational Performance
PE	Performance Execution
PMA	Performance Management Analysis
PM	Performance Management
PMS	Performance Management System
PMSs	Performance Management Systems
RS	Recruitment and Selection
SGO	Setting Goals and Objectives
T	Training
TRs	Transactional Rewards
TSC	Teachers Service Commission

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Adaptive performance- The extent to which an individual adapts to changes in a work system or work roles and includes learning new tasks, dealing with uncertain work situations, solving problems creatively, and adapting cultures, and individuals.

Coaching- This is directing, motivating, and rewarding employee behavior by the employer.

Compensation- Payments made to employees. These are usually referred to as tangible and relational returns which include cash and benefits; recognition and status, employment security, challenging work, and learning opportunities, respectively.

Contextual/citizenship performance- Behaviors directed towards maintaining the interpersonal and psychological environment that needs to exist to allow the task or technical core to operate.

Counter productive work behavior- Behaviors that harm the well-being of the organization, it includes such behaviors as absenteeism, theft, off-task behaviors, and substance abuse.

Declarative knowledge-: Information about facts and things including information regarding requirements of a given task, labels, principles, and goals.

Employee performance- Refers to more than one kind of behavior which employees display on the shop floor.

Extrinsic rewards- These include benefits provided by the employer, usually in the form of money, promotion, or benefits.

Financial rewards- These comprise all rewards that have a monetary value and add up to total remuneration whose elements include basic pay, pay contingent on performance, contribution, competency, or skill; and pay related to service, financial recognition scheme, and benefits such as pensions, sick pay, and health insurance.

Intrinsic rewards- These entail the satisfaction derived from the job itself, such as pride in own work, a feeling of accomplishment, or being part of a team.

Job analysis- A process of determining the key components of a particular job, including activities, tasks, products, services, and processes.

Job performance- The duties and responsibilities that are done as part of an employee's job assignments. It includes more than one kind of behavior which employees display on the shop floor.

Job behavior- How a job is done by an employee.

Motivation- Is about the choice to expend effort, choice of level of effort, and choice to persist in the expenditure of that level of effort by an individual.

Non-financial rewards- these focus on the needs people have to varying degrees for recognition, achievement, responsibility, autonomy, influence, and growth. They can be extrinsic or intrinsic.

Objectives- These are statements of an important and measurable outcome that, when accomplished, will help ensure success for accountability in an organization.

Performance- Is referred to as behaviors or what employees do in their place of work.

Performance management- This is a managerial control mechanism that helps employees to perform tasks to the best of their ability to produce the highest quality of work efficiently and effectively.

Procedural knowledge-: A combination of knowing what to do and how to do it. This includes cognitive, physical, perceptual, motor, and interpersonal skills.

Professional degree- Is a degree that offers technical skills to the holder in a specific field.

Recruitment- Locating and / or attracting qualified applicants for the employer's open position.

Rewards – The payments that provide personal satisfaction to employees who excel in attaining individual goals that contribute towards attaining organizational goals.

Selection-: The process of choosing the right candidates who are most suitable for vacant job positions in an organization.

Task/ Technical performance- The degree to which employees demonstrate proficiency in activities that are formally recognized which contribute to the organization's activities directly.

Training- The designed and implemented organizational official and developmental activities to make employees efficient and effective.

Transactional/tangible rewards- The value of cash payments and benefits received by employees as extrinsic incentives for their work.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter addresses an overview of the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose and objectives of the study, research hypotheses, scope of the study, significance of the study, and the conceptual framework.

1.1 Background to the Study

Literature abounds with the studies of Public Service delivery of quality, efficient, and effective social services to the citizens (Scotland, 2016; Lapuente & Van de Walle, 2020; Shittu, 2016). Further, the large body of literature suggests that the public service should employ and maintain professional, committed, knowledgeable, and well-remunerated personnel (Shittu, 2016). For this reason, nearly all countries of the world continue to ever reform their public services to be more responsive to the needs of their citizens (Lapuente & Van de Walle, 2020). Consequently, Public Sector Organizations (PSOs) strive to improve the quality, efficient, and effective service delivery to the general public (Scotland, 2016). This suggests that PSOs should improve their employee performance (EP) through motivation, and self-esteem (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020; Aguinis, 2014) by implementing performance management (PM) and transactional rewards (TRs) as part of the reforms in the public services (Lapuente & Van de Walle, 2020).

For this reason, the Government of Kenya introduced PM in PSOs in 2005/2006 fiscal year, as part of broader Public Sector Reform Programme to improve efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery (Obong'o, 2009). Consequently, Teachers Service Commission, Kenya (TSC) as a PSO in Kenya, adopted PM besides TRs for its secretariat staff in 2005 to improve their performance. This was to ensure efficient and effective service delivery in the teaching service in Kenya (Teachers Service Commission [TSC], 2016). The strategy was to enable

the TSC achieve its objectives for the fulfilment of the respective stakeholder demands efficiently and effectively (Okinda, 2014).

In this study therefore, PM is deemed as the strategy regarding the distribution of organizational rewards, such as pay increment, awards, and promotion, based on the performance of individual employees (Lee, 2019). Performance management is thus a managerial control mechanism that helps employees perform tasks to the best of their ability to produce the highest quality of work efficiently and effectively (Aguinis, 2018). It is a continuous process of recognizing, quantifying, and improving the performance of individuals and teams, and positioning performance with the strategic goals of the organization (Aguinis, 2018). PM is therefore a means to improving quality, performance, and collaborates for improved EP (Bacal, 2012). Managers use it as a tool that promotes result driven cultures, accountability, and transparency due to its strong theoretical base which improves individual attitudes and eventually EP (Vu et al., 2018). It therefore aims at improving functional, team, and individual performances (Armstrong, 2014).

Ideally, PM achieves its aims through the organization's mission, strategic goals, and the task; performance arrangement; performance of duty; performance judgement; performance examination; and performance renewal and contracting (Aguinis, 2018). A well designed and implemented PM therefore makes significant contributions to EP (Aguinis, 2018; Chowdhury et al., 2018). Consequently, managers should link individuals' goals and business priorities, coach effectively and distinguish compensation across levels of performance (Chowdhury et al., 2018). The key to achieving EP from PM is to implement a system that employees and managers perceive to be fair (Aguinis, 2014; 2018).

On the other hand, TRs are the value of cash payments and benefits received by employees as extrinsic incentives for their work (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). They compensate employees for the services offered (Joshi, 2016). Similarly, they reward specific performance by public employees for delivering services for government (Lapuente &Van de Walle, 2020).

Conversely, EP refers to more than one kind of behavior which employees display on the shop floor (Pradhan & Jena, 2016). Performance is what an employee does in the place of work (Mathis et al., 2016). It is about behavior and not what employees produce (Aguinis, 2014). Job performance is the overall expected value from employees' behavior, carried out over a set of periods of time (Motowidlo & Kell, 2013).

Despite implementing PM to improve quality, quantity, and efficiency of service provision, the same seems inadequate at TSC, Kenya (TSC, 2018). Indeed, quality, and quantity EP, and efficiency in service provision at the TSC has been decreasing over the years. For instance, PSC annual reports (2006-2009, 2011 and 2012) evaluated the TSC in terms of quality service rendered and in comparison to other PSOs at positions 71, 94, 72, 110, 135, and 122 out of 116, 124, 130, 139, 202, and 178 PSOs in 2006 to 2009 and 2011 to 2012 respectively except in 2010 when no PSO was evaluated. However, from 2013 to date, the efficiency of PM has not been evaluated among the PSOs to determine the level of quality and cost-effective service at the TSC. Similarly, it appears that the ineffective service tends to show no sign of reducing at the TSC (TSC, 2014). For instance, approximately 5000 customers visit the TSC head office monthly to sort out their work-related problems despite decentralizing the services up to sub county levels (Kauku, 2017). This deprived many learners contact hours with their teachers and compromised the quality of education. Likewise, customer satisfaction level plummeted to 59.8% in 2018 from 73.5% in 2016 (TSC, 2020). This shows that from 2013 to 2021, the effect of PM on EP has not been ascertained, and the inadequate

performance has not reduced at TSC, Kenya. Thus, the significant role PM plays in EP at TSC, Kenya remains unknown since 2013 to date. These positions and assertions show that quality service at the TSC has been significantly decreasing over the past years despite PM's significance in improving EP. This decrease in quality service may be attributed to the failure of PM to truly leverage EP in an effective way (Brown et al., 2019).

The foregoing may be blamed on the difficulties of making PM work out in many organizations (Cappelli & Tavis, 2019). Since 58% of executives globally believe that their current PM approach does not improve employee high performance (Buckingham & Goodall, 2015), the difficulties arise because according to some managers, PM restricts creativity, generates mountains of paperwork, and serves no real purpose (Cappelli & Tavis, 2019). The effectiveness of PM in improving EP thus remains doubtful. It is unclear therefore if PM's benefits have been experienced at TSC, Kenya. The 2015/2016 report on efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery reveals that the service delivery in the PSOs was either at an average or below average (Public Service Commission [PSC], 2016). Unless EP is emphasized in TSC, Kenya, her efforts to professionalize teaching service for quality education and development will be significantly compromised and it will continue portraying bad public image (TSC, 2019). There is therefore need to enhance EP at TSC, Kenya to a level that will sustain effectiveness of service delivery to enhance delivery of quality education, and good corporate image (Kirogo, 2019; TSC, 2019).

Studies on the relationship between PM, TRs, and EP tend to show that they are yet to be closely studied, particularly in the context of a large public organization. First, all studies on the effect of TRs on EP differ significantly. Several studies were on the effect of total rewards on EP with no specific attention to the effect of TRs on EP (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat, et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Pramono,

2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). On the other hand, one study on extrinsic rewards revealed positive relationship with EP (Chantal et al., 2022). Conversely, the study with some elements of TRs (cash bonus), produced an insignificant effect on EP (Nyanja et al., 2013). This suggests that the findings of the reviewed studies are mixed (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021; Nyanja et al., 2013; Chantal et al., 2022). Additionally, it suggests that few studies have attempted to establish the relationship between TRs and EP from an empirical approach (Nyanja et al., 2013; Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat, et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021; Chantal et al, 2022). Nevertheless, the missing link between TRs and EP were established in this study objective (Miles, 2017).

Conceptually, all the studies were fragmented: Nyanja et al. (2013) and Chantal et al. (2022) used correlational design in their study. Descriptive design was applied in the studies of (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ndungu, 2017). Census research design was applied by (Ranjan and Mishra, 2017; Pramono, 2021). In the same way, survey design was used by (Salah, 2016; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). By contrast, in this study objective, correlational research design was used. Hence, it follows that the studies differs in their research methodologies (Nyanja et al., 2013; Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat, et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021; Chantal et al., 2022). This points that there is method and design gap in the studies (Miles, 2017).

Some studies were conducted in different sites, where five studies were contextualized in a power utility, health facility, oil corporation, mining company, and public university respectively (Nyanja et al., 2013; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan &Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016;

Ndungu, 2017). The rest were conducted in commercial banks, a private school, a church diocese, and telephone companies respectively (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Chantal et al., 2022; Pramono, 2021; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). On the contrary, this study objective was conducted among the secretariat employees of a large public organization. The studies reviewed applied different numbers and nature of respondents. For instance, Nyanja et al. (2013; Chijioke et al., 2015; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017) used a sample size of 68, 95, and 102 respondents of managerial staff respectively. Ibrar and Khan (2015) Salah (2016) Ndungu (2017) Bagobiri and Paul (2021) respectively used 100, 308, 360, and 230 employees of unspecified cadre as respondents. Pramono (2021) used 52 employees on contract as respondents. In the same way, this study objective applied 296 TSC, Kenya secretariat employees as study participants. This shows that secretariat employees of a large public organization is under-researched in the prior studies (Miles, 2017).

The studies of Nyanja et al. (2013) Chijioke et al. (2015) Ibrar and Khan (2015) Riasat (2016) Salah (2016) Pramono (2021) Ranjan and Mishra (2017) Ndungu (2017) Bagobiri and Paul (2021) explored the effect of total rewards on EP. Conversely, Chantal et al. (2022) explored the effect of extrinsic rewards on EP. However, Nyanja et al. (2013) examined one aspect of TRs (bonus) and found that it has no effect on EP. The evidence suggests differences in variables, research designs, context of studies, nature and number of sample size, and mixed results between rewards and EP. For this reason, the effect of total rewards on EP has been extensively explored by researchers (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Nyanja et al., 2013; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017;Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). However, what remains to be explored is how TRs affect EP. This suggests that the level of direct influence of TRs on EP, however, remains unknown. Consequently, they were incorporated in this study and their effect on EP was established to fill the empirical gap (Mile, 2017).

Secondly, studies on effect of PM on EP did not address the issue effectively (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014; Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). The studies were dissimilar in their aims, research designs, participants, variables, measurements, statistics, sites, results, and conclusions. The study of Hanif et al. (2016) Mughal et al. (2014) Masome and Mangori (2017) described the effectiveness, weaknesses, drawbacks, and employee knowledge level of PM. On the other hand, the study of Owino et al. (2019) Shuriye and Wambua (2020) investigated influence of PMs on employee productivity, whereas Anitha (2014) studied the effect of employee engagement on EP. The rest determined the effect of PM on EP (Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Samwel, 2018). Instead this study objective examined the effect of PM on EP. This shows that there was a significant differences in variables among the studies. This showed of the gap of contradictory evidence (Miles, 2017).

The studies of Hanif et al. (2016) Mughal et al. (2014) were qualitative. Like this study objective, the rest were quantitative (Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). This suggests that there is method and design gap in the studies (Miles, 2017).

The number and type of participants in the studies of Mughal et al. (2014) Owino et al. (2019) Said et al. (2019) Masome and Mangori (2017) Soressa and Zewdie (2021) Shuriye and Wambua (2020) were 7, 310, 160, 103, and 207 mixed cadre employees respectively. Instead, the study of Hanif et al. (2016) Awan et al. (2020) Anitha (2014) Samwel (2018) applied 300, 285, 383, and 120 managerial staff as respondents. On the other hand, this study

objective applied 296 secretariat employees of mixed cadre. On the other hand, the studies were conducted within the respective context of civil service, the banking industry, referral hospitals, motor vehicle fund, airline industry, and regional government (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014; Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). Hanif et al. (2016) Soressa and Zewdie (2021) conducted their studies in the public sector in Pakistan and Ethiopia respectively. Mughal et al. (2014) Awan et al. (2020) did their study within the banking industry in Pakistan. Owino et al. (2019) Shuriye and Wambua (2020) undertook their studies in the county governments in Kenya, while Said et al. (2021) conducted their studies within airline industry. Finally, Masome and Mangori (2017) conducted their study in the insurance sector, whereas Anitha (2014) performed her study in small-scale organizations. Conversely, this study was done in a large public organization. This suggests the population of the studies that not represented in the reviewed studies (Miles, 2017).

The results of the thus were varied (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014; Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). The study of Hanif et al. (2016) found PM to have certain strengths and suffering from political meddling, while the study of Mughal et al. (2014) reported that PM dissatisfies employees and that it lacks motivation and proper reward system. Knowledge of PM being positively high and being positively associated with PM effectiveness were reported in the study of (Masome & Mangori, 2017). The variables of PMs having a significant and positive influence on employee productivity was found in the study of (Owino et al., 2019). Regarding PM, it was found to have a significant effect on EP in the study of (Said et al., 2021; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Samwel, 2018). Conversely, the effect of

employee engagement on EP was established in the study of (Anitha, 2014). On the contrary, this study determined a positive and significant effect of PM on EP. This suggests a contradictory evidence gap (Miles, 2017).

The research methodologies applied in the studies and their results were varied, dissimilar, and inconsistent. The evidence somehow indicated that PM was effective in organizations and had significant effect on EP (Owino et al., 2019; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Said et al., 2021). Conversely, the study of Mughal et al. (2014) showed a negative result. However, Masome and Mangori (2017) Anitha (2014) respectively indicate that knowledge of PM is high among employees and is positively associated with its effectiveness, while employee engagement had significant impact on EP. For this reason, the effect of PM in organizations and on EP has been explored extensively by researchers though with the identified gaps (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014; Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Samwel, 2018). What remains to be explored, however, is its effect on EP in a large public organization (TSC). In the same way, exploring whether the same findings hold given inconsistent results with new sample (296 mixed cadre of secretariat staff) and site (TSC) (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). PM was therefore incorporated in this study as a predictor variable on EP and its effect determined. Because the reviewed studies were dissimilar in the aspects of aims, research designs, participants, variables, measurements, statistics, sites, results, and conclusions. Thus, their findings cannot be generalized in other contexts because they may raise the issues of reliability and validity (Bryman, 2016).

Third, the analogous literature was used as proxy to the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relationship in this study objective because no similar studies had been done in this domain, were not conceptualized in a way that they could explain how TRs and PM interact

to influence EP (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija and Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park and Yang, 2019; Ken and Baloch, 2017). Mohammed et al. (2017) investigated the effect of compensation, performance appraisal and succession planning on EP, whereas Boonen (2018) examined the influence of human resource practices (HRPs) on EP and how the relationships is moderated by organizational support. Kumar et al. (2015) explored the possible relationship between use of PM and organizational performance, on the other hand Ismail et al. (2019) investigated the moderating role of management support in the positive relationship between performance appraisal, training, and development.

Furthermore, Lee (2018) explored the moderating factors determining the motivational effect of performance-based human resource management, while Makhija and Akbar (2019) examined the mediating role of intrinsic and extrinsic on motivation and moderating role of rewards attractiveness. Reza et al. (2021) examined the effect of total rewards system on the performance of employees with a moderating effect of psychological empowerment and the mediation of motivation in leather industry, whereas Malik et al. (2015) examined moderating effects of creative self-efficacy, reward importance, and locus of control. Park and Yang (2019) determined moderating effects of the timing of reward determination and performance standards between rewards and self-efficacy for sustainable intrinsic motivation, while Khan and Balochi (2017) examined performance based pay in the relationship between employee workplace behaviour and organization productivity. This review suggests that knowledge void gap exist in the studies (Miles, 2017).

Cross-sectional survey research design was employed in the studies of (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2021; Park & Yang, 2020) Khan and Baloch (2017). On the contrary, the

study of Kumar et al. (2015) was qualitative with exploratory factor analysis. The studies applied different numbers and nature of participants. Mohammed et al. (2017) Boonen (2018) Lee (2018) Makhija and Akbar (2019) Reza et al. (2021) Malik et al. (2015) Park and Yang (2019) Khan and Baloch (2017) applied 300, 464, 71790, 270, 384, 181, 352, and 855 mixed cadre employees as respondents respectively. On the contrary, the study of Kumar et al. (2015) incorporated 300 senior executives, managing directors and proprietors in the sample, while the study by Ismail et al. (2018) used 450 academics as their study participants. In the same way, the present study applied 296 secretariats as study participants with quantitative research approach and correlational research design.

The site of the studies were varied. In the context in which Mohammed et al. (2017) and Ismail et al. (2019) conducted their study were state polytechnics while Boonen (2018) Kumar et al. (2015) conducted their studies respectively in five main industries in Netherlands, and manufacturing and service firms in India. Lee (2018) Park and Yang (2019) conducted their studies in United States of America, whereas Makhija and Akbar (2019) Malik et al. (2015) Khan and Baloch (2017) conducted their studies in Pakistan. On the other hand Reza et al. (2021) performed their study in leather industries in Bangladesh, whereas the present study was conducted in a large public service organization. This shows a variation of research methods and a population that is under-researched in the prior studies (Miles, 2017).

As previously stated, the studies reviewed on the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relations were disjointed in variables (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija and Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park and Yang, 2019; Ken and Baloch, 2017). This is because they were analogous to this study since few studies on the moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP have been done. Moreover, their results were mixed (Mohammed et al., 2017;

Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). Thus, the knowledge gap in this study is mixed results.

Despite an increased interest in the moderation studies, it is surprising that minimal research has been done on the moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP. Moderation research on how PM affect the TRs-EP relations is scarce. Few studies have focused on how PM moderates TRs to affect EP and what this means descriptively and conceptually (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). This shows that no study to date has directly attempted to evaluate the moderation effect of PM in the TRs-EP relations from an empirical approach (Miles, 2017). Meaning, the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP has yet to closely studied in the context of a large public organization. Since studies on the effect of TRs on EP have revealed mixed results, and that the past studies have not focused PM as a profound moderator variable in the TRs-EP relationship, it was included in this study and its maximal effectiveness on EP was determined.

The lack of information regarding the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP is limiting because they are the kind of evidence that the management, practitioners, and academicians may need if they must continue supporting EP enhancement initiatives. This study attempted to add to the pool of research knowledge in the literature available on PM with the aim of determining the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya. It did not only establish the effect of TRs on EP, but also determined the effect of PM on EP at TSC, Kenya. Likewise, this study established whether any effect of TRs on EP may be moderated by PM at TSC, Kenya.

To conclude, the gaps in the reviewed studies include methodological and population gaps for all the study objectives. On the other hand, empirical gap was identified in the reviewed studies for objectives one and three. Conversely, evidence gap identified in the studies reviewed for objective two. Thus: A variation in research methods is desired to generate new insights (Miles, 2017). On the other hand, the secretariat employees are under-researched in the reviewed studies (Nyanja et al., 2013; Anitha, 2014; Lee, 2018). Empirical gap requires that the reviewed studies' findings need to be verified, while evidence gap involves contradictions in the studies reviewed (Miles, 2017).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

It is 16 years since performance management became an increasingly important employee performance improvement strategy at the Teachers Service Commission (TSC). The TSC adopted performance management besides traditional transactional rewards to its secretariat staff in 2005 to improve efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery. Despite adopting performance management as employee performance improvement strategy, however, the current service delivery system requires continuous adjustments and promotion to make it more effective. For example, the reports released on Performance Evaluation of Public Agencies and in contrast to other Public Sector Organizations rated the TSC in terms of quality service delivery at positions 71, 94, 72, 110, 135, and 122 out of 116, 124, 130, 139, 202, and 178 state corporations in 2006 to 2009 and in 2011 to 2012 respectively except in 2010 when no Public Sector Organization was ranked. Besides the relative low positions, approximately 5000 teachers are still visiting the TSC head office monthly, to solve their work-related problems. Additionally, the customer satisfaction level decreased from 73.5% in 2016 to 59.8% in 2018 at TSC, Kenya. The foregoing facts suggests the decrease in quality, quantity, and effective service over the years at the TSC. The current delivery system at the TSC therefore, makes teachers lose contact hours with their learners. Consequently,

compromising quality education. Moreover, its contribution to inefficient service provision, not only hinders TSC, Kenya from transforming and professionalizing the teaching service in Kenya for quality education and development, but also dents its corporate image. While theories suggest that transactional rewards should be responsible for employee performance, studies linking rewards and employee performance have focused on total rewards and bonuses, have found both significant and insignificant relationships and have not linked transactional rewards to performance. Performance management role in organizations is to improve performance, however, studies have not explained interaction between transactional rewards, performance management and employee performance. This limit managers on how the two variables can be used to improve performance. Therefore, containing this problem, would enhance the corporate image of TSC, Kenya and determine the reasons for lack of quality, quantity, and efficiency of service provision. Also, the TSC have employed over 324,096 teachers. It is therefore necessary to take action to enable it robustly execute teacher management function. This study therefore aimed to determine the relationship between transactional rewards, performance management, and EP at TSC, Kenya.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between transactional rewards, performance management, and employee performance at Teachers Service Commission, Kenya. The objectives of the study were to:

i. Establish the effect of transactional rewards on employee performance at TSC, Kenya.
ii. Determine the effect of performance management on employee performance at TSC, Kenya.
iii. Establish the moderating effect of performance management on the relationship between transactional rewards and employee performance at TSC, Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

$H_{01:}$ Transactional rewards have no significant effect on employee performance at TSC, Kenya.

H_{02}: Performance management has no significant effect on employee performance at TSC, Kenya.

H_{03}: Performance management has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between transactional rewards and employee performance at TSC, Kenya.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study determined the relationship between PM, TRs, and the performance of the secretariat staff at TSC, Kenya. The researcher determined the moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and the performance of the secretariat staff at TSC, Kenya with specific reference to those deployed in 47 Counties of Kenya. Further, the study was restricted to the effect of key factors of TRs and PM on the performance of the secretariat staff at TSC, Kenya. The duration of the study was between 2015 and 2021.

1.6 Significance of the Study

It is hoped that the findings of this study may be of interest to scholars interested in TRs, PM, and EP by providing useful information that can be used to improve theory and research and become a basis for literature review. Further, since this study used a sample in a large public sector organization in Kenya, a context which has been neglected in previous studies, it is hoped that it contributed to the understanding of the influence of both TRs and PM on EP and why organizations should introduce PM besides TRs to managers in general, and management of the TSC. It was equally hoped that it provided evidence in an organization that is in a period of transition following the introduction of PM. It was further hoped that the study identified connection between TRs, PM, and EP. Consequently, human resource managers and practitioners may use it to formulate effective human resource policies which

enhance higher levels of employee and organizational performance, and rewards that are acceptable to people. Thus, employees would be motivated to enhance their performance. The decision makers may use the findings of this study to decide on effective EP enhancement strategies. Moreover, this study may call for an innovative approach to managing employees in PSOs specifically in Kenya and in the developing countries. It is therefore believed that it provided empirical, useful, timely, sufficient, and readily accessible information and literature to successfully guide management control systems of organizations and performance of employees. Moreover, it has provided new empirical evidence on PM in the context of the teacher employer (TSC) in Kenya and by extension Africa, among others. Finally, this study was done within and among the TSC secretariat staff stationed in 47 Counties of Kenya.

1.7 Conceptual Framework

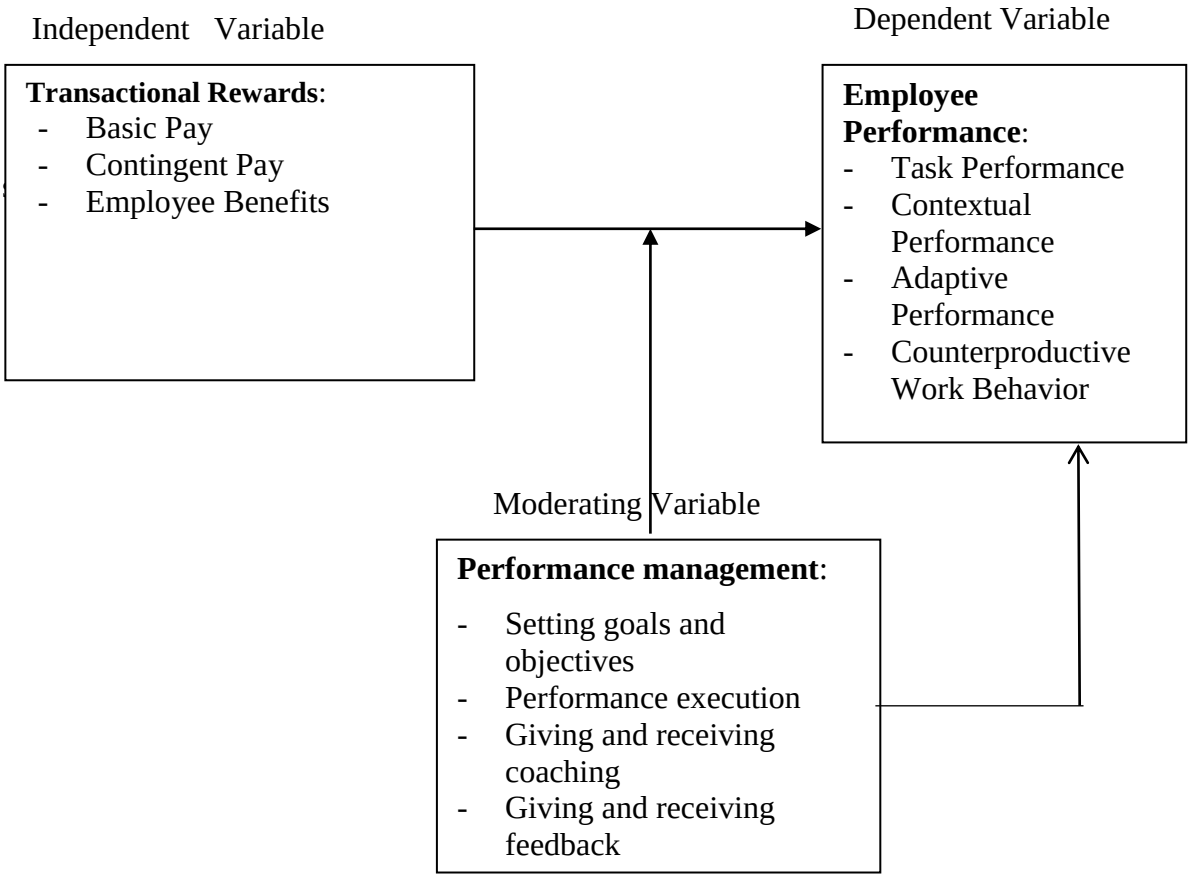

Figure 1:*Conceptual Framework on the Effect of TRs and PM on Employee Performance at TSC, Kenya*

Note. Adapted from Tiraieyari and Uli (2011) and Koopmans et al. (2011)

As shown in Figure 1, the conceptual framework of this study proposes the chain relationships that exist in organizations TRs' management framework, with PM in a constructively innovative approach to impact EP (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). This framework was adopted and modified from Tiraieyari and Uli (2011) whose study focused on gender and organizational tenure as two moderating variables of competency-performance relationships. From the adapted framework, the downward arrow was eliminated and only one upward arrow adapted with one: independent, TRs; moderator, PM; and dependent, EP variables, respectively unlike the study cited which investigated two moderators. Therefore,

not all aspects of the framework were adapted from (Tiraieyari & Uli, 2011). However, additional path from PM to EP was created to control for the direct impact of PM on EP so that the effect of PM on the TRs-EP relationship is not inflated (Hair et al., 2021). Job performance as a dependent variable was borrowed from the framework of Tiraieyari and Uli (2011) because tenure as PM was favorably associated with it. In the adapted framework, two socio-demographic variables were used as moderators, whereas in this study only one moderator, PM, was applied as a proxy to the two moderators mentioned above. This study was like the work of Tiraieyari and Uli (2011) in that employee job performance is the dependent variable with respective variables as the moderators. On the other hand, a heuristic conceptual framework of individual work performance as proposed by Koopmans et al. (2011) was also adopted. This is because it has integrated dimensions of individual work performance (Koopmans et al., 2013).

According to the modified framework, as depicted in Figure 1, TRs is the independent variable and its key factors include basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020; Joshi, 2016). On the other hand, PM is the moderator between TRs and EP, and its facets include setting objectives and goals, performance execution, giving and receiving coaching, and giving and receiving feedback (Aguinis, 2018). Conversely, EP is the dependent variable and becomes the action domain for this study. Its components include task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counter-productive work performance (Aguinis, 2018; Koopmans et al., 2013).

With these specific variables, the tenets for goal setting theory developed by Locke (Locke and Latham, 2019) were adapted to read: The potential for EP improvement to occur on a shop floor is a function of the expectancy that EP improvement will lead to specific and desired rewards by employees (TRs) (Mullins & Christy, 2016). In addition, the interaction

of TRs with PM must be considered in relation to the expectation of attaining improved EP through TRs and PM (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Finally, the respective TRs and PM facets referred to in the foregoing, may be associated with motivation and higher performance of employees in a manner similar to that seen within other disciplines (Gkizani & Galanakis, 2022).

As applied in the conceptual framework of this study, Goal Setting theory is not dissimilar from the Expectancy and the Balanced Scorecard (BSC) theories. To illustrate, the suggestions of Expectancy theory are threefold: First, if employees puts in behaviour and efforts, they expect the attainment of the performance target (expectancy) (Armstrong and Taylor, 2020). Second, if the performance goals are met, they expect to receive rewards (instrumentality) (Mullins & Rees, 2023). Finally, if the value that individuals place on the rewards (valence) of performance outcome is based on their needs, goals, and values (Mullins & Christy, 2016), then they will strive to achieve high levels of EP (Debara, 2022). Conversely, the BSC perspectives are fourfold (Debara, 2022). Therefore, if employees believe among others that the following will be put in place; the best use of the tax payers money (customer perspective), cost-effective programme delivery (financial perspective), appropriate infrastructural facility (internal business process perspective), and effective communication (learning and growth perspective) (Isoraite, 2008; Mullins & Christy, 2016), then they will endeavor to achieve high levels of EP (Debara, 2022). Thus, this study conceptual framework involves aligning TRs with PM to impact EP.

Consequently, in the conceptual framework of this study, TRs is seen as an impetus which managers use to work with employees to get more and better work (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). On the other hand, TRs is seen by employees as an incentive for motivation for a given act because of the anticipated reward (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). Conversely, PM is

seen as an integrated process in which expectations are set, results are reviewed and measured, and performance is rewarded with pay rise, awards, and promotion (Aguinis, 2020; Lee, 2019). For these reasons, moderation implies that the causal relation between TRs and EP changes as a function of PM (Hair et al., 2021). The aim is to positively impact EP.

Finally, if employees and their supervisors believe that: their efforts and actions will be rewarded (TRs), PM-practices can be relied upon to improve their performance, and rewards are worthwhile, and the rewards are available within PM framework, then they will strive to achieve their goals (attain high levels of EP) (Mullins & Christy, 2023; Aguinis, 2018). The differential effect of PM on EP outcomes in relation to the effect of TRs was subsequently measured and tested. It was thus hypothesized that PM was reducing the influence of TRs on EP outcomes because PM provides information on how EP should be positively impacted (Aguinis, 2018). Further, the product of PM and TRs affected EP outcomes positively.

CHAPTER TWO

LITRATURE REVIEW

This chapter is divided into three sub-sections and the sub-sections address the following respectively; review of theory, concepts and context, analytical studies, and their synopses.

2.1 Review of the Theory and Concepts

2.1.1 Goal – Setting Theory of Motivation

In choice of a theoretical perspective for studying the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP, Goal Setting Theory (GST) provides a useful guide (Armstrong& Taylor, 2020). GST was propounded by Kurt Lewin and primarily developed by Edwin Locke in 1968 (Locke & Latham, 2019). Basically, this process theory of motivation emphasizes on the psychological processes that affect motivation (Mullins & Christy, 2016). Similarly, it attempts to identify the relationship among the changing variables which form motivation and actions required to influence employee behaviour and actions (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). GST have been applied to sports, academia, business, and organizational behaviour theory and practice (Gkizani & Galanakis, 2022; Jeong et al., 2021; Locke & Latham, 2019). In like manner, GST can also be applied to service organizations because it provides and explains causes of EP (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). The tenets of GST include goal clarity, goal challenge, goal commitment, goal feedback, and task complexity (Jeong et al., 2021).

GST accepts that people strive to achieve goals in order to satisfy their emotions and desires, and also tend to show that goals; guide peoples' responses and actions, direct work behaviour and performance, and lead to feedback (Mullins & Rees, 2023). Thus, GST is a theory of motivation that explains the relationship between the set goals and task performance (Jeong et al., 2021). GST therefore explains that employees' higher performance are unlocked when: Individuals set clear and specific goals, and the set goals are challenging but are within attainable limits (Bozkurt et al., 2017). The set goals; are aligned to employees goals, match

the employees expertise and skills, and provide feedback mechanism on goal achievement (Gkizani & Galanakis, 2022). Employees are involved in goal setting, and rewards lead employees to set and be committed to a high goal (Debara, 2022). Larger goals are broken down into smaller manageable tasks to ensure that work does not become too overwhelming (Gkizani & Galanakis, 2022; Debara, 2022). With these specific constructs, the formula for GST which was developed by Locke (Locke and Latham, 2019) would be adapted to read: The potential for EP to occur in a shop floor is a function of the expectancy that this activity will lead to specific and desired rewards by employees (Mullins & Christy, 2016). In addition, the interaction of TRs with PM must be considered in relation to the expectation of attaining improved EP through TRs and PM (Mullins & Christy, 2016). Finally, certain TRs and PM facets, such as basic pay, contingent pay and employee benefits, setting goals and objectives, performance execution, giving and receiving coaching, and giving and receiving feedback may be associated with motivation and higher EP in a manner similar to that seen within other disciplines (Gkizani & Galanakis, 2022).

Consequently, if employees and their supervisors believe that: First, their efforts and actions will be rewarded (TRs), second, PM-practices can be relied upon to improve their performance, and rewards are worthwhile, and third, the rewards are available within PM framework, then they will strive to achieve their goals (attain high levels of EP) (Mullins & Christy, 2016; Aguinis, 2018). This suggests that GST provides a framework for predicting, explaining, and influencing work motivation and performance (Debara, 2022). However, GST has the following contextual limitations: First, group goals limit the ability of over-achievers. Second, individuals anticipate future goal increases based on current performance and goal achievement can proactively work against them (Hecht, 2019).

2.1.2 Expectancy Theory

The theory that explains TRs and EP relationship in this study is Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory of Motivation, but virtually extended by Porter and Lawler in 1968 (Expert Programme Management [EPM], 2018). Expectancy Theory is virtually a process theory of motivation which emphasizes on the psychological process that affect motivation (Mullins & Christy, 2016). Similarly, it attempt to identify the relationship among the changing variables which form motivation and actions required to influence employee behaviour and actions (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020).

This theory impacts the fields of both management and psychology and their subfields of leadership, human resource management, and organizational behaviour respectively (Swain et al., 2020). It has been applied to productive organizations (Unda & Ramos, 2016). Similarly, it can be applied to service organizations because it has been used to analyse job selection, work performance, job satisfaction, organizational behaviour (Andrew, 2016; Swain et al., 2020).

Expectancy theory proposes that human beings are mostly rational decision makers who take actions with the aim to satisfy their needs and achieve their goals (Met & Ali, 2014). Hence, an individual will act in a certain way due to what she/he expect the result of that action will be (Mullins & Christy, 2016). Similarly, it is also about the mental processes regarding choices made by an individual (Adaeze, 2019).

Expectancy theory has three components; expectancy, instrumentality, and valence (Kanfer & Ryan, 2018). Expectancy is the belief that one's behavior and effort will result in the attainment of the performance target (Mullins & Rees, 2023). Instrumentality is the belief that one will receive a reward if the performance expectation is met (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Valence is the value that individuals place on the rewards of an outcome which is

based on their needs, goals, and values (Mullins & Christy, 2016). Explaining expectancy theory, Mullins and Rees (2023) suggested that the value of the rewards to individuals, so long as they satisfy their needs, and the probability that the rewards depend on the effort as perceived by individuals, determines the effort people put into their jobs.

With these specific constructs, the formula for expectancy theory which was extended by Porter and Lawler in 1968 (Armstrong and Taylor, 2020) was adapted to read: The potential for EP to occur on a shop floor is a function of the belief that one's behaviour and effort may result in the attainment of the performance targets (Mullins & Christy, 2016). In addition, the interaction of meeting performance expectation with rewards must be considered in relation to the expectancy of attaining improved EP through TRs (Mullins & Rees, 2023). Further, the value that individuals place on the rewards of an outcome must be considered in relation to attaining improved EP through TRs (Mulder, 2018). Finally, TRs factors such as basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits may be associated with motivation and higher performance of employees in a manner similar to that seen within other disciplines (Swain et al., 2020).

Therefore, if employees believe that: One's behaviour and efforts will result in the attainment of the performance targets (Armstrong and Taylor, 2020), one will receive a reward if the performance goals are met (Mullins & Rees, 2023), and the value that individuals place on the rewards of an outcome is based on their needs, goals, and values (Mullins & Christy, 2016), then they will strive to achieve high levels of EP (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). The greatest weaknesses of the theory is its inherent rationality assuming that employees always act purely out of self-interest with the desire for rewards (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). And yet, an employee may be motivated by other factors, regardless of the reward (Lander, 2018).

2.1.3 Balanced Scorecard Theory

The theory that explains moderation in this study is Balanced Scorecard (BSC). It was developed by Kaplan and Norton in 1992 (Namazi & Namazi, 2016). It is a contemporary universally multidisciplinary technique used to analyse cause and effect relationships and a stronger link to organizations strategy (Sayed, 2013). BSC is frequently used as the basis for measurement (Dreveton, 2013). It does not only take the view that what you measure is what you get, but also emphasizes that no single measure can provide a clear performance target (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). It was initially used in profits and non-profit organizations (Syalom, 2015). Correspondingly, the BSC perspectives can be changed to fit a wide variety of sectors (Pierce, 2022).

The BSC users generally links rewards to performance measures (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Its application is thus in the service sector cannot be overemphasized (Palatkova, 2015). BSC originally required managers to look at four related business perspectives (Madsen & Stenheim, 2015). The four related business perspectives in the BSC are customer, people, internal, and financial performance respectively (Pierce, 2022). The BSC puts strategy and vision of the organization at the center thus, can help align employees' individual performance with the overall strategy (Syalom, 2015). Similarly, it defines goals and assumes that people will adopt whatever behaviours and take whatever actions required to achieve those goals (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020).

Explaining the BSC, Armstrong and Taylor (2020) suggested that the rewards should be linked to performance measures and that no single measure can provide a clear performance target. This means that its usage reveals the form and strengths of all variables involved in the study (Madsen & Stenheim, 2015). Therefore, if employees believe that: One's performance will be measured, the individual will put greater effort to his/her job (Armstrong and Taylor,

2020), one will receive a reward based on the met performance expectation (Mullins & Rees, 2023), and the value of rewards that individuals will receive is thus linked to their performance measures (Mullins & Christy, 2016), then they will endeavor to achieve high levels of EP (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020).

2.1.4 Performance Management

Performance management (PM) is a continuous process of recognising, quantifying, and bettering the performance of individuals and teams, and positioning performance with the strategic goals of the organization (Aguinis, 2018). It deals with the challenges that organizations face in defining, measuring, and stimulating EP for the improvement of OP (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Thus, PM justifies the need for competitive advantage in organizations (Hunter, 2021). For this reason, PM, when executed well, improves employees' performance and the organization's performance overall (Chowdhury et al., 2018).

Armstrong and Taylor (2020) viewed PM as an aid to performing a supporting role for a broad range of managerial activities. According to Hassan (2021), PM aims to entrench a culture of high performance among individuals and teams for which they take responsibility for the continuous improvement of business processes, their own skills, and contributions within a framework provided by effective management. In the same way, Aguinis (2014) holds that PM involves a never-ending process of setting goals and objectives, observing performance, and giving and receiving ongoing coaching and feedback. It requires managers to ensure that employees' activities and outputs are congruent with the organization's goals. Aguinis (2018) Further posits that a never-ending process means that once PM is established in an organization, it informs an organization's culture and includes six closely related components. Namely; prerequisites, performance planning, performance execution, performance assessment, performance review, and performance renewal and re-contracting. The PM process enables individual jobholders to know what is expected of them in their jobs,

be clear about the organizational objectives, be entitled to regular feedback on their performance, be continuously supported by their managers, and be able to continuously assess their overall performance achievement (Mwita, 2000).

Aguinis (2018) further indicates that PM is a much broader function of human resource management (HRM) which encompasses joint activities between employees and supervisors such as goal setting, continuous progress and frequent communication, feedback and coaching for improved performance, implementation of employees' development programme and rewarding achievement. PM is thus an integrating process in which managers mutually set work expectations with their employees, assess and review results to enhance EP (Aguinis, 2014). According to Dessler and Varkkey (2020), PM means basing your employees' training, appraisals, and rewards on fostering and rewarding the skills and competencies that the employees need to achieve their objectives. Chowdhury et al. (2018) asserts that the principle of PM is differentiating compensation across levels of performance in addition to giving feedback and coaching.

To add value to the organization, managers, staff, and organizations should implement PM (Bacal, 2012). Which according to Dessler and Varkkey (2020) is possible when jobs are described in terms of skills and competencies to improve corporate performance and profits as a tool for countering competition. However, according to Armstrong (2014), PM is a natural process of management activities designed with performance review as its core activity. It also involves links to organizational performance, setting individual performance goals, providing regular feedback to those goals, providing opportunities for improving and linking results and rewards (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Consequently, the approach to PM requires aligning human resource practices (HRPs) in such a way that they maximize EP

(Armstrong, 2014). PM that does not make explicit the employee contribution to the organizational goals does not reflect true PM (Aguinis, 2014).

At systems level, PM is more likely to promote challenging organizational assumptions that stimulate warning and emphasizes employee values and participation (Bacal, 2012). Fisher et al. (2013) argue that PM is a critical factor related to an organization's long-term success in its ability to measure how well employees perform and then use that information to enable that performance to meet present standards and improve over time. Aguinis (2018) is of the opinion that performance assessment, and performance appraisal (PA) is the magnificent portion of the system level. Definite performance appraisal process, measuring performance, feedback and coaching are the principal parts of most PM.

Employers now embrace PM due to total quality, appraisal issues, and strategic planning: and increases in employee motivation and self-esteem, improved performance, clarification of job tasks and duties, clarification of supervisors' expectations, provision of self-insight and developmental opportunities to employees, provision of insight into employees' activities and goals, allowing for fairer and more appropriate administrative actions, communication of clear organizational goals, differentiation of poor and good performers, driving organizational change, encouraging voice behavior, and improving employee engagement (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020; Aguinis, 2014). In this regard, PM is seen as the most ideal model in the provision of service quality management which refers to the process of minimizing the performance gap between actual delivery and customer expectation by providing high performance (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Different models of PM stress its importance as a system for integrating the management of organizations and EP (Aguinis, 2014). PM thus serves as an important feeder to other human resource and development activities (Aguinis, 2018).

2.1.4.1 Performance Management in the Service Sector

All organizations irrespective of their sectors, should enhance their employees' performance and productivity for survival and competitive advantage (Jain & Gautam, 2016). PM has therefore become their strategy of choice to motivate, measure, and develop the performance of employees (Paulsen, 2021). Therefore, there is a need to shed light about PM and its effect in service and manufacturing sector organizations because they differ from each other in terms of their structure and operations (Jain & Gautam, 2016).

Service sector is the sector of the economy that produces and offers services (Corporate Finance Institute [CFI], 2020). Due to this, organizations in this sector plays a significant economic role in any country because they contribute 50% of the gross domestic product (Asian Productivity Organization [APO], 2013). Organizations in this sector include; public sector organizations, hospitality, transport, education, healthcare, tourism, retail and many more (CFI, 2020). Similarly, these organizations are differentiated by their own performance, services offered, and cost measurement system (Michael, 2019). Their employees are consequently required to work innovatively and creatively using tools and technology while following work processes (APO, 2022).

Service sector organizations suffer low productivity level just like manufacturing sector organizations, and PM is one of the effective tools that can be applied to enhance their performance (Clarke, 2013). PM in these organizations is used to set standards for improving the EP and productivity, and quality of service delivery (APO, 2022). Therefore, their PM includes activities, tools, and strategies for measuring and evaluating results to continuously improve (Vignieri, 2018). Similarly, it helps these organizations develop, recognize and award outstanding performers (Clarke, 2013). Therefore, their PM aims at improving quality of their service delivery by focusing on the achievement of end user needs (Ferreira & Otley, 2009).

Conversely, manufacturing sector organizations broadly include industries such as autos, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, printing, food, and beverages (Manyika et al., 2012). They are critically important to both the developing and developed economies (Budiono et al., 2021). For instance, they account for approximately 16% of global GDP and 14% of employment (Manyika et al., 2012). Subsequently, they will continue to hire workers, both in production and non-production roles. Due to competition, manufacturing firms are thus hard pressed to find, grow, and keep skilled talent (Paulsen, 2021). The PM in these organizations focuses on employee competencies, training, developing a secure and productive work environment, feedback, setting expectations, coaching, and employee participation in performance criteria (Dasgupta, 2023). Moreover, it; identifies the employee performance gap and employee with exemplary performance, creates efficient work schedule, improves goal setting and its inputs, increases worker engagement, rewards excellent performers and sanctions poor performers, and builds safer and less accident-prone workplaces (Paulsen, 2021). According to Dasgupta (2023) the PM in these organizations advocates for communication of goals to be achieved, reward and recognition, regular check-ins, learning and development, regular performance meetings, routine evaluation, and continuous performance planning and accountability.

2.1.4.2 Performance Management as carried out at TSC, Kenya

Like any other PSO in Kenya, the TSC is expected to improve in performance, accountability, quality of services, and value for money (Mwita, 2000). Consequently, it has been implementing PM since 2005 to get better organizational, teams and individual results by managing performance within a negotiated framework (TSC, 2018). At the TSC, the key results areas, level of performance and standards expected are identified and performance is objectively measured (TSC, 2021). Correspondingly, the PM process at TSC, Kenya also ensures that resources are availed for the attainment of its mandate (TSC, 2018). As a result, the TSC develops strategic plans which form the basis for its performance target setting

which is then cascaded to the individual level. Subsequently, the TSC Secretary enters a performance contract annually with the directors of various service areas to ensure that the TSC achieves its set goals (TSC, 2021).

To manage and improve performance of staff, the TSC uses performance appraisal system as the core of PM by requiring all Secretariat staff to complete the prescribed appraisal form in consultation with their immediate supervisors and countersigning officers (TSC, 2018). The leadership of the service areas eventually develops operational plans that deliver the desired goals. Based on the developed operational plans, the subordinates then develop work-plans derived from one of the respective service areas (TSC, 2021). The subordinates are then assessed and rated on their performance on a quarterly basis as the directors commit to explain the variances between the actual achievement and the targets (TSC, 2021).

2.1.5 Transactional Rewards

Reward is the compensation which an employee receives from an organization for his or her service (Dessler & Varkkey, 2013). It is an exchange of the service one employee has offered (Joshi, 2016). Transactional rewards (TRs) have two main components, direct and indirect financial payments like base pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits (Dessler & Varkkey, 2013; Joshi, 2016). This study chose TRs instead of total rewards because financial payments form a significant component of the cost structure of any organization (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). It account for 60% to 95% of the average organizational costs (Bomm & Kaimann, 2022).

2.1.5.1 Basic Pay

The base rate is the amount of pay (the fixed salary or wage) that constitutes the rate for the job (Bomm & Kaimann, 2022). It may be varied according to the grade of the job, or, for manual workers, the level of skill required (Armstrong, 2014). Many organizations use two pay categories, namely hourly and salaried, which are identified according to the way pay is

distributed and the nature of the jobs (Mathis et al., 2016). Basic pay may be influenced by internal and external relativities and / or through collective bargaining with trade unions or by reaching individual agreements (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Basic pay may be expressed as an annual, weekly, or hourly rate (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). Allowances for overtime, shift working, unsocial hours or increased cost of living may be added to basic pay (Armstrong, 2014).

2.1.5.2 Contingent Pay/ Variable Pay

These are additional financial rewards that may be provided in relation to performance, competence, skill, or experience (Armstrong, 2014). Variable payment is contingent on individual, team, and/or organizational performance and may differ from time to time (Bomm & Kaimann, 2022). Contingent pay may be consolidated with basic pay (Mathis et al., 2016). Contingent pay include bonuses or merit pay and stock options or stock prizes (Bomm & Kaimann, 2022). Where such payments are not consolidated (i.e., paid out as cash bonus) then, they are described as variable pay (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Individual contingent pay relates financial rewards to the performance, competence, and contribution or skill of individual employees (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). However, pay related to service, provided for teams and for organizational performance is also considered as contingent pay and contingent pay may be consolidated into basic pay or provided in the form of cash lump sum bonuses (Mathis et al., 2016).

Variable pay attempts to provide tangible rewards to employees for performance beyond normal expectations (Mathis et al., 2016). It includes individual incentives which encompass piece rate, sales commissions, cash bonuses, special recognitions (trips, merchandise), safety awards, and attendance bonuses; team or group incentives which comprise gain sharing, quality improvement, and cost reduction; and organizational incentives which consider profit

sharing, employee stock options, and deferred compensation (Fisher et al., 2013; Armstrong, 2014).

2.1.5.3 Employee Benefits

These are elements of remuneration given in addition to the various forms of cash pay and they include items that are not strictly remunerative (Fisher et al., 2013). They include pension schemes, personal security, financial assistance, personal needs, company cars and petrol, holidays, health care, flexibility, other rewards, and intangible benefits (Aswathappa & Dash, 2021; Mathis et al., 2016). Their objective is to increase commitment of employees to the organization among others (Armstrong, 2014). The strategic perspectives on benefits are to attract and retain capable employees and to control or cut costs (Mathis et al., 2016). There are voluntary and legally mandated benefits (Armstrong, 2014). Voluntary benefits are provided by the employers in order to compete for and retain employees and they include: Health care composed of vision care, wellness programme, and psychiatric counselling; financial education with credit unions, financial counselling, and educational assistance; insurance with life insurance, legal insurance, disability insurance; family oriented sickness care, dependent care, and alternative work arrangements; time off for military reserve, election, lunch and rest breaks, holidays and vacations, funeral and bereavement leaves, sick leave and paid time off; and social and recreation which include recreation programme, sporting activities, service awards, sponsored events, and cafeteria and food services (Aswathappa & Dash, 2021; Mejia-Gomez et al., 2020). Whereas the legally mandated benefits include workers' compensation, unemployment compensation, and severance pay; retirement security which include social security, early retirement options, pre-retirement counselling, disability retirement benefits, health care for retirees, pension plans, and individual retirement accounts (Torrington et al., 2014).

2.1.5.4 Transactional Rewards as used in TSC, Kenya

TSC, Kenya recognizes that a well-established reward system is imperative to good employment relationship (TSC, 2019). In this regard, the TSC proposed to use a variety of rewards to appreciate employees who excel in their performance (TSC, 2019). The types of rewards for secretariat employees as specified in performance recognition, reward and sanctions Policy for the secretariat, 2019 include but not limited to:- promotion to higher job group, appointment to administrative position, recognition for achievement, education tour, sponsorship for further studies, exchange programme, annual award programme, sponsorship for conferences, material awards, thirteenth salary, paid vacations and contract renewal besides the involuntary benefits and base pay. According to TSC (2019), the awards are categorized as professionalism and experience, exemplary work performance, outstanding initiative and creativity, excellence customer service, innovation in service delivery and elevated levels of integrity. The said rewards policy also provides for the criteria for identification of deficient performance together with the appropriate sanctions associated with the same. The main purpose of the said policy is to reward exemplary performance and sanction deficient performance to motivate employees for performance. The policy therefore operates in conjunction with the Constitution of Kenya (2010), TSC Act (2012), Employment Act (2007), and Code of Conduct and Ethics for Secretariat Staff (2018).

2.1.6 Employee Performance

Performance is what an employee does (Mathis et al., 2016). It is about behavior, not what employees produce (Aguinis, 2014). Job performance is the overall expected value from employees' behavior, carried out over a set of periods of time (Motowidlo & Kell, 2013). According to Jacobs et al. (2020), job performance relates to the act of doing a job. It is not a means to reach a goal within a job, role, organization, not the actual consequences of the acts performed within a job. Equally, it is not a single action but a single activity (Aguinis, 2018).

It is also strict behavior and a separate entity from the outcomes of the job which relate to success and productivity (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Employee performance (EP) common to all jobs have elements such as quantity output, quality output, timeliness of output, presence at work, and cooperativeness (Mathis et al., 2016). It thus determines the organizational quality performance (Hafizh & Aswar, 2020).

High performance results from appropriate behavior and the effective use of the required knowledge, skills, and competitiveness (Armstrong, 2014). Performance means both behaviours and results (Aguinis, 2018). Behaviors emanate from the employee and transform performance into action and are the product of mental and physical effort applied to tasks and can be judged (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). This is because performance is evaluative (its judgement is based on whether it helps advance or hinder organizational goals) and multi-dimensional (multiple behaviors are needed to describe an employee's performance) (Aguinis, 2018). This means that there are various kinds of behaviour that have the capacity to advance or hinder organizational goals (Aguinis, 2014).

In managing performance, competence factors need to be included in the process (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). This means that performance is determined by a combination of declarative knowledge (information), procedural knowledge (Know–how), and motivation (Willingness to perform) must be present for performance to reach satisfactory levels (Aguinis, 2018). Performance is thus a function of (declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and motivation) for which, if any of the three determinants of performance has a small value, then performance will have an exceptionally low value (Aguinis, 2014). Variables inherent in the organization may also constrain individual EP (Diamantidis & Chatzoglou, 2019). Leadership, organizational culture, working environment, motivation, and training all affect EP. Saifalislam et al. (2014) proposed setting competitive compensation level, training and

development, performance appraisal, recruitment packages, and maintenance of morale as HRM-practices that positively impact EP. In the same way, Muchhal (2014) concluded that the HRPs that positively and significantly associate with EP are practices that include recruitment and selection, placement, employee performance evaluation, compensation, and promotion. In a similar way, Bacal (2012) also stated that performance is affected by the interaction of work and the individual.

Employee performance is made up multiple dimensions (Rana et al., 2019). Task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counter-productive work behavior are the important individual work performance dimensions (Koopmans et al., 2013). They are relevant outcome measures of studies in the occupational settings (Koopmans et al., 2014). Work performance dimensions have been related to work generally, and developed to cover a large proportion of the total performance variance of employees (Aguinis, 2018). They capture the complexity and full range of behaviours that constitute an employee's performance at work (Koopmans et al., 2014). Employee performance is thus a function of individual work performance dimensions (Rana et al., 2019).

Task performance is the proficiency with which one performs central job tasks (Aguinis, 2018). Its outcomes include completing job tasks, work quantity, work quality, job skills, job knowledge, keeping knowledge up to date, working accurately and neatly, planning, and organizing, administration, decision making, solving problems, oral and written communication, monitoring, and controlling resources (Koopmans et al., 2013). On the other hand, contextual performance refers to individual behaviors that support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must operate (Armstrong, 2014). The activities required to be a good member of an organization include taking up extra tasks, effort, showing initiatives, enthusiasm, attention to duty, resourcefulness,

industriousness, persistence, motivation, dedication, proactivity, creativity, cooperating with and helping others, politeness, effective communication, interpersonal relations, organizational commitment, and / or coaching new comers on the job (Aguinis, 2014; Koopmans et al., 2013).

Counter-productive work performance refers to behavior that harms the well-being of the organization. These include absenteeism, presenteeism, theft, being late to work, engaging in off-task behavior, too many or longer breaks, complaining, tardiness, doing tasks incorrectly, accidents, insulting or gossiping about co-workers, fighting, or arguing with co-workers, disregard of safety, misusing privileges, aggression, and substance abuse (Aguinis, 2018). Adaptive performance on the other hand refers to the extent to which an individual adapts to changes in a work system or work roles which include solving problems creatively, generating new and innovative ideas, adjusting goals and plans to situations, learning new tasks and technologies, being flexible and open minded to others, understanding other groups or cultures, showing resilience, remaining calm, analysing quickly, and acting appropriately (Koopmans et al., 2013; Aguinis, 2018). Performance dimensions should be included in a performance management system for organizational success (Aguinis, 2014). Logically, therefore, deficient performance is attributed to inadequate leadership, bad management, or defective systems of work, and situational and personal factors (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020).

Judging performance requires assessment using clear standards (Armstrong, 2014). According to Bacal (2012) this has not been invented by anybody and suggests rating, ranking and objective based as methods of performance appraisal. On the contrary, Aguinis (2014) suggest behavior, results, and trait approach to measure results. Alternatively, Armstrong and Taylor (2020) give overall analysis of performance as written assessment, performance rating, forced distribution, quota system, and visual assessment as ways of

assessing performance. Consequently, wherever attempts are made to improve performance now and, in the future, PM will be present (Cappelli & Tavis, 2016). The management of performance would therefore require that organizational and individual aims and objectives be defined and set, corporate planning be done, organizational strategy and service objectives to jobs and clients be linked (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). In addition, staff training and development needs be identified, results be assessed through personal appraisal while using personal indicators (Cappelli & Tavis, 2016). Similarly, performance contracts should be signed, the knowledge gained through training should be used to modify attitudes, external and internal communication should be enhanced, and organizational development and performance review should be embraced (Mwita, 2000).

2.1.7 Moderation in Relationships

Moderation is where a relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable changes according to the value of a moderator variable (Dawson, 2014). Moderation therefore, implies an interaction effect (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). It specifies the condition under which a given predictor is related to an outcome (Memon et al., 2019). A moderator variable cannot only be chosen when there is a strong relationship between a predictor variable and outcome variable, but also when there is unexpectedly inconsistent relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable (Farooq & Vij, 2017). Particularly, the true relationship between variables is more revealed when critical moderating variables are inserted in the model (Namazi & Namazi, 2016).

A moderation could be: Enhancing, where increasing the moderator, strengthens the relationship (Andersson et al., 2014). Buffering, where increasing the moderator, weakens the relationship (Aguinis et al., 2017). Antagonistic, where increasing the moderator would reverse the relationship (Gardner et al., 2017). Therefore, according to Memon et al. (2019), inconsistent findings in past studies about the effect of a predictor variable on the outcome

qualifies the moderation testing. On the other hand, Farooq and Vij (2017) posits that the choice of a particular variable in a hypothesized relationships between the variables should have a strong theoretical support. In addition, a contextual factor found relevant from any field of study, can provide a strong basis for incorporating a variable into the study as a moderator (Dawson, 2014).

Furthermore, a moderator is a variable that affects the direction and /or strength of the relation between a predictor and an outcome variable (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014; Aguinis et al., 2017). Similarly, the moderator explains when and for whom a dependent variable and independent variable are related (Dawson, 2014). A moderator effect is therefore where the effect of one variable depends on the level of another variable (Hair et al., 2019). A single item and/or multiple items can be used to measure a moderator with reflective or formative indicators (Hair et al., 2021). Product-Indicator, Two-stage, and Orthogonalizing are the approaches for measuring moderation tests (Fassott et al., 2016).

As described, PM was incorporated in this study as a moderator because: it is not only an aid to performing a supporting role for a broad range of managerial activities, but is also found relevant across HRM activities (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020; Aguinis, 2018). Thus, a critical factor in EP (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Subsequently, its moderation effect on the TRs-EP relations was measured in this study as a single item reflectively (Hair et al., 2021). This was driven by the need to establish its new theoretical insight(s) (Andersson, 2014). The goal of PM is to create an environment where employees can perform to the best of their abilities and produce the highest-quality work most efficiently and effectively (Tardi, 2022). On the other hand, Hunter (2021) points out that PM justifies the need for competitive advantage in organizations. Moreover, PM aims to entrench a culture of high performance among individuals and teams. Similarly, it enables employees take responsibility for the continuous

improvement of business processes, their own skills, and contributions within a framework provided by effective management (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Ultimately, when PM is well executed, it provides a positive impact on EP (Chowdhury et al., 2018).

It emerges from the review of the foregoing theory, that PM enhances and stabilizes EP. However, the following were still not available in literature: The effect of TRs on EP and how much of that effect is explained by PM. The lack of differential effect of TRs on EP as a function of PM, and yet theory suggests that PM is a contextual factor found relevant across managerial activities (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020; Aguinis, 2018). Hence, the link between TRs and EP and to which extent that relationship can be attributed to PM has been lacking. Therefore, in this study it was hypothesized that the relationship between TRs and EP would be stronger when PM reduces (Aguinis et al., 2017). Hence, the simple moderation analysis was applied to determine the effect of PM on TRs-EP relations (Memon et al., 2019). For this reason, the two-stage approach was applied in this study because it excels in terms of parameter recovery and statistical power (Becker et al., 2018). In addition, it explicitly exploits partial least square structural equation-modelling advantage to estimate the scores of the study variables (Hair et al., 2021). This study bridges this gap by establishing the influence of PM as a moderator in the TRs-EP relations.

2.2 Empirical Literature Review

Empirical review has advanced findings on other studies related to the influence of PM, TRs, and EP. As recommended by Ramdhani et al. (2014), a substantive, thorough and systematic search was done to identify concepts related to the topic of this study. The searches were conducted between May and August 2019 in computerized data bases such as ERIC (Educational resource information centre), EBSCO, PsycINFO, Google scholar, ProQuest, emerald and internet. The search was restricted to literature published less than 10 years ago and in English only. The eligibility of studies for inclusion was determined by the title,

abstract, concepts of EP or organizational performance, full and partial access, whereas exclusion criteria were based on not on work performance, not at the employee level, or not at the concept of EP, and publications that had restricted retrievals (Ramadhani et al., 2014). In total, the searches resulted in 50 hits from the databases, respectively (Creswell, 2014). Of these, 20 were dropped due to duplicity and 30 were found to be eligible on account of their title and abstract. It is also worth noting that some authorities provided useful guidelines and that some articles were retrieved from the internet because some were better supported by non-scholarly sources. The studies therefore provided information on this topic and many of them were on developing countries. The review compared the relevant literature to identify gaps in knowledge.

2.2.1 Effect of Transactional Rewards on Employee Performance

Nyanja et al. (2013) studied the effect of reward on EP at Kenya Power and Lighting Company (KPLC) Limited, Nakuru branch, Kenya. Their general aim was to determine the effect of reward on EP at KPLC and specifically to determine the effect of cash bonus on EP. Using correlational research design with 68 managerial employees as respondents, they found that cash bonus has insignificant effects on EP. Based on the findings, they recommended that organizations should focus on changing the intrinsic nature and content of jobs to achieve peak performance.

Chijioke et al. (2015) studied the effects of rewards on EP in selected commercial banks in Awka Metropolis in Nigeria. The purpose of their study was to determine whether a relationship exists between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on EP. They used 95 senior and middle management staff of eight banks as respondents to find the presence of a relationship between rewards and EP, and a significant difference on the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on EP. Based on the results, they recommended that a balance should be struck by managers in adopting the appropriate motivational measures to apply, and that management

should employ feedback mechanisms to inform them of the performance of various rewards systems.

Ibrar and Khan (2015) used a qualitative research design to study the impact of rewards on EP at Malakand Private School in Pakistan. Their aim was to investigate how EP is impacted by extrinsic rewards (bonus, lunch, work tools, car benefit, housing, private office, flexible office hours, free medical, relaxation room, and free tickets) and intrinsic rewards (welfare, recognition, opportunity for growth, involvement, appreciation, and training and development). They administered questionnaires to 100 respondents and used descriptive analysis, correlation, and multiple regressions to find a positive relationship between rewards and EP.

Riasat et al. (2016) studied the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on job satisfaction and job performance by concentrating on the mediating role of reward system in Pakistanis Hospitals in Cantt district Gujranwala. They used a quantitative research approach with a descriptive research design to determine the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The researchers administered questionnaires to 350 health sector employees including doctors and nurses who were randomly selected. Their results show that: Intrinsic rewards has significant and positive relationship with job performance and job satisfaction ($b= 0.398$, $b=0.314$, $p<0.05$) respectively. Extrinsic rewards has positive and significant relationship with job satisfaction and job performance ($b=0.39$, $b=0.387$, $p<0.05$) respectively.

Ranjan and Mishra (2017) studied impact of rewards on EP in Indian Oil Corporation, Patna region in India. They measured the impact of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards on EP. Through a census study, they collected data using structured questionnaire from 102 managerial employees. They used descriptive statistics and inferential statistics to find

significant relationships between the independent variables and dependent variable (EP) and that cash bonuses have a positive influence on EP. Based on the findings, they recommended that the government should ensure that the reward schemes are more employee oriented other than organization oriented and that individual employees should be able to pick their rewards as per their preferences.

Chantal et al. (2022) studied the relationship between extrinsic rewards and EP of Shyogwe Diocese in Rwanda. The scholars' aim was to establish the relationship between extrinsic rewards and EP. They used; a correlational and cross-sectional research designs, questionnaire survey, and an interview guide to obtain data. Their quantitative data were analyzed using frequencies, percentages, means, correlation, and regression analysis, while content analysis was used to analyze their qualitative data. The population of the study comprised of 300 pastors, teachers, administrative, audit department, human resource, and academic staff from Shyogwe Diocese. Their results showed that; there is a favorable relationship between extrinsic rewards and EP ($r = 0.758$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$), and intrinsic motivation has a stronger influence on employee creativity than extrinsic motivation.

Salah (2016) studied the influence of rewards on EP in Unified Mining Companies in Jordan. The study aimed to examine the influence of reward types (extrinsic, intrinsic, social and rewards mix) on EP. The study applied a quantitative research approach and survey research design. A self-designed questionnaire were used to collect primary data from a sample of 308 workers. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used for data analysis. The findings indicated that there was: First, significant positive relationship between extrinsic rewards and EP ($r=.592$, $p<0.01$). Secondly, correlation between Intrinsic rewards and EP ($r=.553$, $p<0.01$). Thirdly, correlation between social rewards and EP ($r =.497$, $p<0.01$). Finally, a degree of correlation was noticed between rewards mix and EP ($r=.459$, $p< 0.01$).

Pramono (2021) studied the effect of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards on performance with job satisfaction as intervening variable at PT. Telekomunikasi Indonesia, Tbk. Witel Jatim Surabaya. His research aimed at analysing the influence of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards to performance with job satisfaction as an intervening variable. Pramono (2021) adopted a quantitative research approach with census sampling technique and data was collected by distributing questionnaires to 52 contract employees division of Corporate Customer Access. Data was analysed using SEM-PLS and the results shows that: Intrinsic rewards has a positive and significant influence on performance, with a parameter of coefficient value of 0.063 and a significance value of 4.91 greater than the critical limit value of 1.96. Extrinsic rewards have a negative but insignificant effect on performance, with a parameter value of -0.063 and a significance value of 0.52 smaller than the critical limit of 1.96. Intrinsic rewards have a positive and significant influence on job satisfaction, with a parameter coefficient value of 0.62 and a significance value of 6.9 which is greater than the critical limit of 1.96. Extrinsic rewards have a positive and significant influence on job satisfaction, with a parameter coefficient value of 0.26 and a significance value of 2.14 greater than the critical limit of 1.96. Moreover, job satisfaction has a positive and significant influence on performance, with a parameter coefficient value of 0.28 and a significance value of 2.16 which is greater than the critical limit of 1.96.

Ndungu (2017) studied the effects of rewards and recognition on EP in public educational institutions: A case of Kenyatta University, Kenya. The researcher aimed at determining the effects of reward and recognition on EP in Kenyatta University. Their study adopted a quantitative research approach, descriptive research design, and stratified random sampling and purposive random sampling designs. The study did not only use questionnaire to collect primary data from a sample of 360 employees, but it also used the secondary data. The data obtained was analyzed through SPSS 20.0. Correlation and multiple regression analyses were

applied. Results showed significant positive relationship between reward, recognition and EP ($r=0.697$, $p<0.01$). In addition a positive and significant relationship was also observed between EP and extrinsic rewards ($r=0.699$, $p<0.01$), intrinsic rewards ($r=0.704$, $p<0.01$) and financial rewards, recognition rewards.

Bagobiri and Paul (2021) examined the impact of incentive management strategies on EP among telecommunication firms in Kaduna metropolis, Nigeria. They aimed to determine the impacts of monetary incentive management strategies and non-monetary incentive management strategies on EP among telecommunication firms in Kaduna metropolis. The study employed survey design method using a questionnaire to collect primary data from respondents in the study. The sample of the study was 230 employees from the head branches of four selected telecommunication firms in Kaduna metropolis. Census sampling technique was used to select the sample, and a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect primary data of the study. The data obtained was analyzed using descriptive statistics and regression analysis. The findings revealed that both monetary and non-monetary incentive management strategies have significant impact on EP ($R^2=0.682$, $p<0.00$). It further shows that both monetary ($b=0.740$, $p=0.010$) and non-monetary ($b=0.761$, $p=0.021$) incentives respectively significantly impact EP.

The literature has conceptualized the relationship between TRs and EP in threefold (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021; Nyanja et al., 2013; Chantal et al., 2022). Majority of the studies were on the effect of total rewards on EP (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). On the other hand, the study by Nyanja et al. (2013) was on the effect cash bonus on EP, while the study of Chantal et al. (2022) was on

the effect of extrinsic rewards on EP. Conversely, this study was on the effect of TRs on EP. Thus, the literature reviewed agrees that few studies have attempted to establish the relationship between TRs and EP from an empirical approach (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). Therefore, this review of the studies shows that there is lack of rigorous research in the studies reviewed concerning the effect of TRs on EP. This suggests an empirical gap in the studies reviewed regarding the effect of TRs on EP (Miles, 2017). The relationship between TRs and EP appear to be important and worthy of investigation in the context of EP. This is because TRs form a significant component of the cost structure of any organization (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). Moreover, research shows that TRs account for 60% to 90% of the average organizational cost (Bomm & Kaimann, 2022), while EP determines the organizational quality performance (Hafizh & Aswar, 2020). In addition, the previous studies have focused primarily on total rewards regarding the effect of TRs on EP. On the contrary, very little empirical research has been done on the relationship between TRs and EP (Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021).

By contrast, the findings of the reviewed studies are inconsistent. Nyanja et al. (2013) found the effect cash bonus on EP to be insignificant, while Chijioke et al. (2015) found significant difference on the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on EP. Similarly, Pramono (2021) found extrinsic rewards to have a negative insignificant effect on EP. However, the findings of the rest of the reviewed studies were positive and significant (Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021; Chantal et al., 2022).

The studies applied different research approaches and designs (Chijioke et al., 2015; Nyanja et al., 2013; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan and Mishra, 2017; Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021; Ibrar and Khan, 2015). Quantitative research approach was applied by (Chijioke et al., 2015; Nyanja et al., 2013; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan and Mishra, 2017; Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021). On the contrary, qualitative research approach was applied by (Ibrar & Khan, 2015). Consequently, the studies reviewed varied in their study designs. First, some studies applied correlational research design (Nyanja et al., 2015; Chantal et al. 2022). Secondly, descriptive research design was used in the studies of (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ndungu, 2017). Thirdly, survey research design was applied by (Salah, 2016; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). Finally, census study was applied by (Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Pramono et al., 2021). This shows that there is a methodological gap in the studies reviewed. It suggests inconsistencies in the application of research approaches and designs in the studies reviewed. This study established the effect of TRs on EP by addressing the gaps with quantitative research approach and correlational research design (Miles, 2017).

The studies applied varying population and nature of respondents (Nyanja et al., 2013; Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). Samples of 68, 95, and 102 managerial employees were respectively in the studies of (Nyanja et al., 2013; Chijioke et al., 2015; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017). Samples of 100, 308, 360, and 230 employees with no specificity to their cadre were similarly applied in the studies of Ibrar and Khan (2015) Salah (2016) Ndungu (2017) Bagobiri and Paul (2021) respectively. Likewise, 350 nurses and doctors were incorporated in the study of Riasat et al. (2016) as respondents. Conversely, Pramono et al. (2021) applied 52 contractual employees as

respondents. On the other hand, Chantal et al. (2022) used a sample that comprised 300 pastors, teachers, administrators, and human resource personnel as the respondents. Conversely, this study applied 296 TSC, Kenya secretariat employees of mixed cadre. In addition, the studies were based on different sites: Nyanja et al. (2013), state power utility company in Kenya; Chijioke et al. (2015), commercial banks in Nigeria; Ibrar and Khan (2015), a private school in Pakistan; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017), oil state corporation in India; Chantal et al. (2022), a church diocese in Rwanda; Salah (2016), mining company in Jordan; Pramono (2021) Bagobiri and Paul (2021), telephone companies in Indonesia and Nigeria respectively; Riasat et al. (2016), health facility in Pakistan; and Ndungu (2021), a state university in Kenya. And yet, in this study objective, a large public organization.

This review of the studies suggests a population gap. Secretariat employees of mixed cadre as study respondents in a large public organization have been unexplored and under-researched. Their study was important and worthy of investigation in the context of EP motivation because: TRs form a significant component of the cost structure of any organization, approximately, 60% to 90% of the average organizational cost (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020; Bomm & Kaimann, 2022). On the other hand, EP determines the organizational quality performance (Hafizh & Aswar, 2020). Further, previous research had focused primarily on line staff and non-categorized employees in smaller organizations. This implies that very little research had been done on the secretariat employees of mixed cadre in a large public organization. Hence, this study bridged that gap by researching the TSC, a large public organization in Kenya, an employer of more than 326, 096 teachers (TSC, 2020).

As described, there were three major gaps in the studies reviewed. First, methodological gap was identified in the studies reviewed in regard to the effect of TRs on EP. There is a lack of application of consistent research designs in the studies reviewed. Based on the review of

past studies, differences in the research designs were found in the studies reviewed on the effect of TRs on EP (Ndungu, 2017; Pramono et al., 2021; Chantal et al., 2022). This study sought to extend the study on the effect of TRs on EP by addressing the gaps with quantitative research approach and correlational research design.

Secondly, based on the review of the previous studies, there is a population gap. The gap is with the secretariat employees of the TSC. This population segment has been under-researched in the studies reviewed (Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016). In addition, secretariat employees encompasses several unexplored dimensions that lately have attracted research attention in EP (Nyanja et al., 2013; Chantal et al., 2022).

Finally, the researcher identified an empirical gap in the studies reviewed. There is a lack of rigorous research in the previous studies. The previous studies had focused primarily on the effect of total rewards, cash bonus, and extrinsic rewards on EP respectively (Bagobiri & Paul, 2021; Nyanja et al., 2013; Chantal et al., 2022). Very little research had been done on the relationship between TRs and EP to date to properly evaluate the problem. In this study we sought to provide a new inquiry on the relationship between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya by addressing the gaps in the studies reviewed. The study investigated the effect of TRs on EP.

The studies applied quantitative approaches to research and therefore relate to this study (Chijioke et al., 2015; Nyanja et al., 2013; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan and Mishra, 2017; Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021). However, the study by Ibrar and Khan (2015) was qualitative and therefore does not relate to this study. Despite the fact that some studies applied quantitative approach to research, their designs were not correlational and therefore did not relate to the current study (Nyanja et al., 2013; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan and Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu,

2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021). Descriptive designs were used in the studies by Chijioke et al. (201) and Riasat et al. (2016), while census design was used in the studies of Ranjan & Mishra (2017) and Pramono (2021). On the other hand, survey design was used in the works of (Salah, 2016; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). Alternatively, some studies applied quantitative approach to their research with correlational research design and relate to this study (Chijioke et al., 2013; Chantal et al., 2022). On the contrary, the study of Chijioke et al. (2013) does not relate to our study because it applied Chi-square to analyze data unlike this study which deployed regression analysis to analyze the data.

Another divergence is evident in the studies in terms of sample sizes and study sites (Nyanja et al., 2013; Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar and Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan and Mishra, (2017; Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021). The studies of Nyanja et al. (2013) Chijioke et al. (2015) Ranjan and Mishra (2017) used 68, 95, and 102 managerial employees as respondents, whereas Ibrar and Khan (2015) Salah (2016) Ndungu (2017) Bagobiri and Paul (2021) used 100, 308, 360, 230 employees of unspecified cadres as the respondents. In the same way, 350 nurses and doctors were used in the study of (Riasat et al., 2016), while 300 teachers, pastors, administrators, and human resource personnel were used in the study of Chantal et al. (2022) as study participants. Finally, 52 contractual employees were used as study sample in the study of (Ramona, 2021). Conversely this study used 296 TSC secretariat employees of mixed cadres as the study participants. However the studies were conducted in different sites (Chijioke et al., 2015; Nyanja et al., 2013; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan and Mishra, 2017; Chantal et al., 2022; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021; Ibrar and Khan (2015) unlike this study objective which was conducted in large a Public Sector organization with 296 secretariat employees of mixed cadre. In general, the empirical studies tried to establish the effect of total rewards other than TRs on EP and their findings are inconsistent

(Chijioke et al., 2015; Nyanja et al., 2013; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan and Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Pramono, 2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021; Ibrar and Khan, 2015). They thus do not relate with this study. The study of (Chantal et al., 2022), however, relates to this study because it established the effect of extrinsic rewards on EP.

2.2.2 Effect of Performance Management on Employee Performance

Hanif et al. (2016) studied PM in public sector of Pakistan. Their purpose was to describe the PM process in the context of Civil Service of Pakistan. The study participants (N=30) were composed of 28 middle, top level, and provincial management service whereas two were retired civil servants. Using qualitative research, they established that PMS was thorough, comprehensive, and disciplined tool for promotion and accountability. On the contrary, they also found that PMS suffered political interference, lack of qualification and standardization, and extraneous factors.

Mughal et al. (2014) conducted a qualitative study on implementation and effectiveness of performance management system (PMS) in Alfalah Bank in Pakistan. Their purpose was to identify the weaknesses and drawbacks of the current PM and to provide recommendations for more improvement. The population of the study included seven managerial and non-managerial employees drawn from different departments of the bank. The researchers applied interview questions and content analysis to gather and analyse data. The findings of their study show that the employees of Alfalah Bank faced the problem of dissatisfaction from their current PM and that the current PMS lacked motivation and proper reward system. They concluded that the PM of Alfalah bank lacked motivation and a proper reward system. They recommended direction and guidelines to improve the PMS.

Owino et al. (2019) conducted a descriptive cross-sectional study on influence of PMS on employee productivity in county referral hospitals in Kiambu County, Kenya. The variables

investigated were planning, appraisal, feedback, and reward. They used proportionate stratified random sampling to sample 310 respondents and SPSS version 22 to describe data and determine the extent of relationships. They found that all the four variables had a significant and positive influence on employee productivity.

Said et al. (2021) studied the impact of PMS on EP in Air Blue Airline in Pakistan using quantitative research method with a deductive approach survey strategy. Using 160 respondents and conducting regression and correlation analysis, they found a significant effect of PM on EP. They therefore concluded that there was a positive meaningful relationship between PM and EP.

Masome and Mangori (2017) assessed the effectiveness of PM in a motor vehicle accident fund in a small African country. The purpose of the research was to investigate the effectiveness of the current PM approach used by motor vehicle accident fund and to examine the knowledge level of the staff on PM and its impact on PM effectiveness. Several PMS characteristics were also analysed and their impact on effectiveness of PM discussed. A quantitative approach to the research was adopted and a survey in the form of a questionnaire was used to collect data from 103 participants. These included 15, 20, and 68 were executives, senior managers, and subordinates, respectively. Their research adopted a descriptive research design to find that the knowledge of PM is high and is positively associated with PM effectiveness. They recommended that workshops dedicated to disseminating information on PM to be held every quarter.

Soressa and Zewdie (2021) studied the effect of PM-practice on EP in public institutions in Jimma Town, Ethiopia. They determined the effect of PM-practice on EP in public institutions in Jimma Town. Their study adopted cross-sectional, and both descriptive and causal research design together with quantitative approach. Both primary and secondary data

were collected using questionnaire and document analysis. The sample for the study was 207 permanent employees and managers from selected seven public institutions in Jimma town were selected using simple random sampling technique. The study used both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze data. Results from correlation analysis indicated that: The independent variables have positive relationship with dependent variable of which, four have strong relationship with the dependent variable with the r values of 0.5968, 0.5998, 0.6124, and 0.6551 for performance training, performance appraisal, performance reward, and performance feedback respectively. It emerged that EP and performance planning had a moderate relationship with r values of 0.4681. Results from regression analysis indicate that: The independent variables statistically and significantly predicted EP ($F (5, 195) =34.83$, $p<.005$, adj.R^2=0.4582).

Awan et al. (2020) studied effectiveness of performance management system for employee performance (PMSE) through engagement strategy in private banks of Pakistan. The aim of their study was to explore the effectiveness of a comprehensive performance management system in terms of EP, and the mediating role of work engagement in that relationship. A sample of 285 employees was selected from various branches of private banks located across Pakistan. Their study adopted a mixed data collection strategy with a validated structured questionnaire. The results indicated a significant positive relationships of PMSE with TP and CP (β=.374, $p<.01$) and (β=.464, $p<.01$) respectively. Moreover, PMSE was also found to have a significant positive impact on EE (β=.527, $p<.01$). Similarly, the EE-TP and EE-CP relationships had a positive and significant impact of EE on their TP and CP respectively (β=.271, $p<.01$) and (β=.295, $p<.01$).

Shuriye and Wambua (2020) studied organizational performance management practices (PM-practices) and Employee Productivity in Garissa County Government, Kenya. Their study aimed at establishing the effect of organizational PM-practices on productivity of employees in Garissa County Government. Descriptive and exploratory research design was used in their study. Stratified sampling was used to classify the respondents and simple random sampling was used to sample 347 employees working in the County Government of Garissa. Questionnaires were used to collect primary data and the data collected were analyzed by inferential and descriptive statistics. Their finding indicated that PM-practices positively and significantly affect employee productivity (R^2= 0.706, $p<0.05$). They concluded that PM-practices were vital in explaining the productivity of employees in Garissa County.

Anitha (2014) studied the determinants of employee engagement and their impact on EP. The aim of her study was twofold. First, was to identify the key determinants of employee engagement and their predictability of their concept. Secondly, was to identify the impact of employee engagement on EP. Her study adopted a causal research design with random sampling technique to select 383 employees from middle to managerial level from small-scale organizations as the study sample. Data were collected using validated questionnaires. The findings of the study revealed that employee engagement had a significant impact on EP (R^2=0.597).

Samwel (2018) assessed the impact of PM on EP and organizational performance in selected private organizations in Tanzania. The purpose of his study was to assess the impact of PM on EP and organizational performance. The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design and involved a stratified sampling method to select a sample 120 human resource officers and managers as respondents. Data was collected using structured questionnaires and interviews and analyzed using simple linear regression and ANOVA. The findings reveal that

PM has a significant impact on EP (R=.499, R^2= .249) as well as on organizational performance (R=.330, R^2=.109). The study recommend that private organizations should maintain, continue practicing, and implementing effective PM systems, also to continue evaluating the performance of their employees frequently.

The literature reviewed on the effect of PM on EP showed that PM is a strategy of choice in organizations for individual and team performance (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014; Owino et al, 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). In spite of PM being the strategy of choice for individual and team performance, the studies revealed that PM: Suffered political interference, lacked qualification, and had extraneous factors (Hanif et al., 2016). It created dissatisfied employees, lacked motivation, and proper reward system (Mughal et al., 2014). In the same vein, one study revealed that employee engagement significantly affect EP (Anitha, 2014). However, some studies reveal that PM had a positive and significant impact on EP (Hanif et al., 2016; Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). This shows that the studies reviewed of have not addressed several contradictions in the findings concerning the reviewed literature. It was therefore concluded that there is an evidence gap in the studies reviewed concerning the effect of PM on EP (Miles, 2017). In addition, the studies reviewed did not address the effect of PM on EP holistically (Anitha, 2014; Awan et al., 2020; Hanif et al., 2016).

The researchers used either qualitative or quantitative research approaches together with their respective research designs (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014; Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). Qualitative research approach was applied

in some of the studies reviewed (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014), while the rest applied quantitative research approach (Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome and Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). Consequently, descriptive research design was used by (Hanif et al., 2016; Owino et al., 2019; Masome & Mangori, 2017; A wan et al., 2020), whereas case study research design was applied by (Said et al., 2021). On the other hand, causal research design was applied by Soressa & Zewdie (2021) and Anitha (2014), while content analysis was applied in the study of Mughal et al. (2014). Finally, exploratory and survey research designs were applied respectively by Shuriye & Wambua (2020) and Samwel (2018). On the contrary, the current study applied a quantitative research approach using correlational research design.

Qualitative studies bring out all aspects of the participants' feelings, opinions, and experiences, and enables useful collection of data (Shidur, 2017). On the other hand, quantitative studies allow for generalizability of the results of the study to the entire population and collection of data which are reliable, consistent, and concise (Almeida et al., 2017). However, in qualitative studies, authors often do not always consider contextual sensitivities and at times decide to introduce their own biases into the study (Galdas, 2017). Likewise, in quantitative studies, researchers tend to leave out the common meanings of variables understudy and fail to determine deeper meanings and explanations of the occurrence(s) (Shidur, 2017). The review of studies found inconsistencies in the application of research approaches and research designs. This suggests that variation of research methods was desirable to avoid distorted results (Miles, 2017). This study established the effect of PM on EP by addressing the gaps with quantitative research approach using correlational research design.

The studies were not only based in different sites, but also with varied sample sizes and profiles as the research respondents. Hanif et al. (2016) did their study within civil service of Pakistan, while the study of Mughal et al. (2014) was conducted within the banking industry in Pakistan. Owino et al. (2019) conducted their study in county referral hospitals in Kiambu, Kenya, instead Said et al. (2021) performed their research in the airline industry. Masome and Mangori (2017) conducted their study at Motor Vehicle Accident Fund (MVAF), in a small African country whereas, Soressa and Zewdie (2021) did their study in public institutions in Ethiopia. Awan et al. (2020) conducted their study at private banks of Pakistan. On the other hand, Shuriye and Wambua (2020) conducted their study at Garissa County Government, Kenya. Conversely, Anitha (2014) conducted a study in Coimbatore district, while Samwel (2018) did his study in Tanzania. However, this study was conducted in a large public organization in Kenya. In the same vein, Hanif et al. (2016) Mughal et al. (2014) Awan et al. (2020) Anitha (2014) Samwel (2018) respectively applied 300, 7, 285, 383, and 120 managerial staff as study respondents. Conversely, Owino et al. (2019) Said et al. (2021) Masome and Mangori (2017) Soressa and Zewdie (2021) Shuriye and Wambua (2020) respectively applied 310, 160, 103, 207, and 347 mixed cadre staff as study participants. On the contrary, this study used 296 secretariat employees of mixed cadre in a large public organization.

This review of the studies suggests a population gap. Secretariat employees of mixed cadre as study respondents in a large public organization have been unexplored and under-researched. Their study was important and worthy of investigation in the context of EP because PM is the strategy regarding the distribution of organizational rewards, such as pay raise, awards, and promotion, based on the performance of individual employees (Lee, 2019). Moreover, PM is regarded as a managerial control mechanism that helps employees perform tasks to the best of their ability to produce the highest quality of work efficiently and effectively (Aguinis,

2018). Further, earlier studies have focused on the line staff and mixed cadre employees in smaller organizations. This implies that very little research has been done on the secretariat employees of mixed cadre in a large public organization (Mile, 2017). This study therefore bridged that gap by researching TSC, Kenya, a large public organization, an employer of more than 326, 096 teachers (TSC, 2020).

As described, there were three major gaps in the reviewed studies. First, methodological gap was identified in the reviewed studies in regard to the effect of PM on EP. There is inconsistencies in the application of research designs in the studies reviewed. Based on the review of past studies, differences in the research designs were found in the studies reviewed on the effect of PM on EP. This study therefore sought to extend the study on the effect of PM on EP by addressing the gaps with quantitative research approach and correlational research design (Miles, 2017).

Secondly, based on the review of the earlier studies, there is a population gap. The gap is with the secretariat employees of the TSC. The secretariat employees of mixed cadre has been under-researched in the earlier studies. In addition, secretariat employees encompasses several unexplored dimensions that lately have attracted research attention in EP improvement (Mughal et al., 2014; Zoressa & Zewdie, 2021; Anitha, 2014).

Finally, based on the literature review, an evidence gap was identified in the studies reviewed regarding the effect of PM on EP. The studies reviewed revealed conflict and contradictions in their findings. Political interference, lack of qualification, and extraneous factors (Hanif et al., 2016); dissatisfaction of employees, lack of motivation, and proper reward system (Mughal et al., 2014); and employee engagement (Anitha, 2014), appear to be important and worthy of investigation in the context of EP motivation. The effect of PM on EP appear to be important and worthy of investigation in the context of EP because PM is the strategy

regarding the distribution of organizational rewards, such as pay raise, awards, and promotion, based on the performance of individual employees (Lee, 2019). Moreover, PM is regarded as a managerial control mechanism that helps employees perform tasks to the best of their ability to produce the highest quality of work efficiently and effectively (Aguinis, 2018).

In convergence with aim of our study, some of the reviewed studies applied quantitative research approach (Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome and Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2021; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018), while qualitative research approach was used by (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014). The other divergence that distinguishes this study from the studies reviewed is in research designs. The respective reviewed studies designed their studies using either and/or descriptive, content analysis, case study, causal study, and survey research designs, whereas this study applied correlational research design. Similarly, the current study differs with studies of (Hanif et al., 2016; Awan et al., 2020; Anitha, 2014; Samwel, 2018). This is because they applied 300, 285, 383, and 120 managerial staff as the study respondents, whereas this study used 296 secretariat employees of mixed cadre. Conversely, this study objective is in tandem with the rest of the studies because they applied mixed cadres of staff, though with various sample sizes as their respective respondents (Mughal et al., 2014; Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome and Mangori, 2017; Soressa and Zewdie, 2021; Shuriye and Wambua, 2020).

2.2.3 The Moderating effect of Performance Management in the relationship between Transactional Rewards and Employee Performance

Mohammed et al. (2017) studied management support as a moderator in the HRPs and EP relationship in state owned polytechnics in Nigeria. Their purpose was to investigate the effect of compensation, performance appraisal, and succession planning on employee's

performance within polytechnics. They used 300 employees of state-owned polytechnics as participants as well as a cross-sectional approach, Partial Least Squares method, and algorithm and bootstrap techniques to support for all the hypothesized relationships and signified a positive effect of compensation, performance appraisal, and succession planning on EP. The results further signify that performance appraisal, coupled with management support, enhances EP.

Boonen (2018) researched on the impact of employees' use of HRPs on EP and the moderating role of perceived organizational support and the employees' perspective to human resource (HR) effectiveness. The purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which employee development, career opportunities, PM, job design, communication and information sharing, participation, work-life balance, job security and rewards as aspects of HRPs influence on EP and to what extent this relationship is mediated by the perceived human resource effectiveness and moderated by the perceived organizational support. Their study used quantitative research approach with cross-sectional design and 464 employees working in various industries in Netherlands as participants. Their results showed a positive relationship between use of HRPs (career opportunities, PM, job design, communication and information sharing, participation, work-life balance, and job security) and human resource effectiveness ratings on EP. A negative relationship was also established between the human resource effectiveness ratings and HRPs (employee development and rewards) on EP.

Kumar et al. (2015) studied the relationship between PM and organizational performance in manufacturing and service firms. The study was conducted among participants of a major three-day Human Resources Management Conference in Goa, India. The study population was 300 senior HR executives representing organizations from across the country who were attending a national conference. They used 16.0 SPSS with exploratory factor analysis and

multiple regressions to find a significant relationship between PM-practices and perceived organizational performance. The study also revealed that there was a significant relationship between the independent variables and dependent variables, while performance appraisal was found to have no significant impact on organizational performance. They concluded that there was a meaningful relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables except performance appraisal and rewards, and that PM practices can help an organization achieve its growth.

Ismail et al. (2019) studied the moderating effect of management support on the relationship between HRPs and EP in the state-owned polytechnics in Nigeria. The purpose of their study was to investigate the moderating role of management support on the positive relationship between recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation, performance appraisal and succession planning and EP. A cross-sectional survey approach was used in which data were collected from 450 academics. The findings showed that recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal and succession planning were strong and positive predictors of EP, and management support was a moderator in training and development and performance appraisal-employee performance relationship, and in compensation-employee performance connection. They concluded that management and other stakeholders in the polytechnic sector need to provide support to stimulate positive employee behavior and enhanced EP.

Lee (2018) studied the motivational effects of performance management as based on expectancy theory in the US. The study by Lee (2018) explored the moderating factors determining the motivational effect of performance-based human resource management. Survey method with a sample size of 71,790 of the U.S. federal employees was applied in this study. The results indicated that the proposed model explained the significant portion

(61.6%) of the variance of the dependent variable, work motivation. The main effects of all variables showed significantly positive influences on work motivation; the challenging nature of the given tasks (coefficient = .358), the public service motivation (.315), and job-related autonomy (.157). Public service motivation (.303), self-efficacy (.083), job-related autonomy (.127), and resource abundancy (.017) significantly moderated the effect of PM on motivation.

Makhija and Akbar (2019) studied linking rewards and creative performance: Mediating role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and moderating role of the attractiveness of rewards in IT sector in Pakistan. They aimed to examine the effects of tangible and intangible rewards on employee creative performance with two mediating variables of extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. Data were collected from primary sources using structured questionnaires. The sample of their study were 240 employees and their 30 immediate supervisors from information technology sector in Pakistan. They applied convenience sampling technique to collect data and used Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) to analyze data. The results revealed that: both tangible (Mean=0.260) and intangible (Mean=0.592) rewards have a positive significant impact on creative performance. Tangible rewards have significant impact on extrinsic motivation (Mean=0.362). The results further reveal that both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation has a significant mediating effect between intangible rewards and creative performance (0.064). Intrinsic motivation does not mediate between tangible rewards and creative performance (0.011). The attractiveness of rewards significantly moderates the relationship between intangible rewards and intrinsic motivation (-0.088). However, no moderation role is found between tangible rewards and motivation (-0.041).

Reza et al. (2021) studied the effect of total rewards system on the performance of employees with a moderating effect of psychological empowerment and the mediation of motivation in the leather industry of Bangladesh. Their purpose was to examine the impact of reward systems on EP, particularly in the leather industry in Bangladesh. They applied a quantitative research approach with survey design and structured questionnaire to collect data. The sample of their study were 384 employees of 7 private leather companies located in the district of Dhaka City and Savar. Data were analyzed using SmartPLS-3 with PLS-SEM technique of analysis. Their results show the mediating effect of the motivation in the relationship between total rewards factors and employee performance (β=0.181, p=0.003), while the interaction effect between psychological empowerment and total rewards factors had a significant and positive effect on the relationship (β=-0.134, p=0.039.

Malik et al. (2015) studied rewards and employee creative performance: The moderating effects of creative self-efficacy, reward importance, and locus of control in Pakistan. The sample of their study involved 181 pairs of focal employees and their supervisors. Using hierarchical regression analysis they found that: Creative self-efficacy significantly moderated the relationship between extrinsic rewards and creative performance (β=0.21, < 0.01). Locus of control significantly moderated the relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation (β=0.16, p<0.05).

Park and Yang (2019) studied the moderating effects of the timing of reward determination and performance standards between rewards and self-efficacy for sustainable intrinsic motivation. The purpose of their study was to determine the moderating effects of the timing of reward determination and performance standards on the relationship between pay-for-performance and self-efficacy. They adopted an experimental research design in their study. The sample of sample of the study were 352 participants recruited randomly through Amazon

Mechanical Turk using an online experiment. Questionnaires was used to collect data from the participants. The model was tested for mediation and moderation processes using regression analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results showed a moderating effect of performance standards on the relationship between pay-for-performance and self-efficacy ($F(2, 346) = 3.62$, $p < 0.05$).

Khan and Baloch (2017) studied performance based pay: A moderator of relationship between employee workplace behavior and organization productivity. They aimed to determine the role of performance-based pay between the employee behaviour and organization productivity in the insurance firms, private and public sector banks in Peshawar. Their research was based on epistemology with positivism. The sample of their study were 265 management and 590 the employees from whom data were collected. Primary data were collected through questionnaires. The regression model was used to test the variables. The findings of the insurance firm show that performance based pay has no moderating role between employee behavior and organization productivity ($R^2=0.292$), while performance based pay has partial moderating role between employee behavior and organization productivity ($R^2=0.561$). Similarly, the private sector banks results revealed that performance based pay had a moderating role between employee behavior and organization productivity ($R^2=0.553$).

The studies reviewed were analogous to PM and TRs-EP relations, and determined the moderating effect of other HRPs and/or some PM-practices on EP (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). Some studies revealed positive relationship between HRPs and EP (Mohammed et al., 2017; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019). The rest

revealed mixed results (Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Makhija & Akbar, 2019), while one study revealed no moderation in relationships (Khan & Baloch, 2017). As previously mentioned, studies on the moderating effects of all PM-practices on TRs-EP relations are scarce. This means that little empirical research has been done on the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP. This makes it difficult to predict with certainty the incremental contribution of PM on TRs-EP relations. There was need therefore, to broaden the search to examine analogous research with a view to determining the incremental contribution of PM in the TRs-EP relations (Boote & Beile, 2005).

For this reason, there appears to be an empirical gap in the reviewed studies. Meaning, none of the reviewed studies suggested PM as a moderator (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). Comparatively, no study had focused on PM as a profound moderating variable in the TRs-EP relationship, but on some PM-practices (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Lee, 2018). The rest focused either on the moderating effect of PM on other HRP relationships, or moderating effect of other HRPs on EP or organization productivity (Ismael et al., 2019; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). The unexplored moderating effect of PM in the relationship between TRs and EP appeared to be important and worthy of investigation in the context of EP. This is because the reviewed studies on the effect of TRs on EP revealed mixed findings (Boonen, 2018; Lee, 2018; Khan & Baloch, 2017). Further, theory suggests that PM is a much broader function of human resource management found relevant across managerial activities (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020; Aguinis, 2018). This shows that very little empirical research has been done on the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relations (Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017).

The nature and numbers of study sample varied in the studies reviewed. Samples of 300, 464, 71790, 270, 384, 181, 352, and 855 employees of mixed cadre were used as participants in the studies (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). In contrast, samples of 300 senior Human Resource executives and 450 academics were respectively used in some of the studies of (Kumar et al., 2015; Ismael et al., 2019). Similarly, this study used a sample of 296 TSC, Kenya secretariat employees of mixed cadre. Correspondingly, the studies were based on varied sites. The studies of (Mohammed et al., 2017; Ismail et al., 2019) were done at state owned polytechnics of Nigeria, whereas the research of Boonen (2018) was conducted in five main industries of Netherlands.

On other hand, Kumar et al. (2015) did their research in manufacturing and service industries of India, while the research of Lee (2017) was performed in a federal state of United States of America. Makhija and Akbar (2019) did their research among information and communication technology firms in Pakistan, whereas the research of Reza et al. (2021) was done at leather industry in Bangladesh. The research by Malik et al. (2015) Park and Yang (2019) Khan and Baloch (2017) were respectively done in Pakistan, United States of America, and at private and public banks in Peshawar, Afghanistan. On the other hand, this research was conducted in a large public organization, an employer of 324, 096 teachers in Kenya (TSC, 2020).

This review of studies indicates a population gap in the studies on the moderating effect of PM in the TRs-EP relations. It suggests that secretariat employees of mixed cadre in a large public organization have been unexplored and under-researched (Miles, 2017). The study of the secretariat employees was important and worthy of investigation in the context of the moderating effect of PM in TRs-EP relations. This is because their behaviour determines the

organizational quality performance (Hafizh & Aswar, 2020). It implies that very little research has been done on the secretariat employees of mixed cadre in a large public organization (Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019). This study therefore bridged that gap by researching TSC, Kenya, a large public organization, an employer of more than 326, 096 teachers (TSC, 2020).

The results of the studies reviewed were inconsistent. The results of Mohammed et al. (2017) Kumar et al. (2015) Ismail et al. (2019) Lee (2018) Reza et al. (2021) Malik et al. (2015) Park and Yang (2019) were significant and positive. On the other hand, the studies revealed lack of moderation in the relationships (Kumar et al., 2015; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). However, the study of Boonen (2018) revealed both positive and negative relationships. The review of studies therefore, identified an evidence gap in the studies reviewed on the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relations. Previous research addressed several aspects of the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relations: First, the results of the studies were significant and positive (Kumar et al. (2015) Ismail et al. (2019) Lee (2018). Secondly, lack of moderation in the relationships (Kumar et al., 2015; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). Finally, a positive and a negative relationships (Boonen, 2018). However, the previous studies have not addressed several contradictions in the findings concerning the previous research. This study has identified an evidence gap in the studies reviewed that are contradictory in their findings (Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Boonen, 2018; Ismael et al., 2019).

The studies varied in their research designs. Cross-sectional design was used in the studies of (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Ismail et al., 2019). On the other hand, survey design was deployed in the studies by (Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Khan & Baloch, 2017). Exploratory factor and experimental research

designs were respectively used by Kumar et al. (2015) and Park & Yang (2019). In the same way, a quantitative research approach with correlational research design were used in this study. This shows that the review of studies identified a methodological gap in the studies reviewed. It suggests inconsistencies in the application of research designs in the reviewed studies. Based on the review of research studies on the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relations, inconsistencies were found in the prior research on research designs. This study sought to establish a new inquiry on the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relations with correlational research design. The study on the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relations research was extended by addressing the gaps with correlational research design in the research methodologies (Miles, 2017).

As described in the foregoing, it can be concluded that the reviewed studies portray divergences in research designs, number and profile of respondents, variables, contexts, and results (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismael et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). None of the studies reviewed considered the relationship between PM, TRs, and EP distinctively, and used correlational research design like in this study (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismael et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). There is however, both agreement and disagreement that some PM-practices, and/or HRPs significantly moderates EP-relations, and/or other relations respectively (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Ismael et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019). In the same way, some studies disagree that PM-practices and/or HRPs significantly moderates the EP-relations, and/or other relations (Kumar et al., 2015; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). As evident from the foregoing, the studies do not only differ among themselves, but also from this study in terms

of research designs, number and profile of respondents, variables, contexts, and results (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismael et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). These suggest that the desired findings are missing from the studies to generate new insights as to how PM moderates the TRs-EP relations (Miles, 2017).

Theories indicate that TRs is enhanced by PM, and that TRs directly affect EP, it then gives a proposition that PM is a means by which TRs would affect any other variable. From the foregoing, it is therefore apparent that little empirical research has been conducted on PM as a moderator, especially in the relationship between TRs and EP. Even the outcomes of the few existing studies have inconsistently agreed on their effect. Based on Memon et al. (2019) suggestion, PM was therefore incorporated in this study because it is a contextual factor considered relevant across managerial activities (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). For this reason, this moderation research sought to determine whether the size or sign of the effect of TRs on EP depends in one way or the other on PM (Hayes, 2012).

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research design, study area, target population, sampling techniques and sample size, data collection methods, sources and data types, data analysis procedures and presentation, pretesting of research instrument, reliability and validity testing, methods of data analysis and presentation, model specifications and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

Research design is the overall strategy that the researcher chooses to integrate different components of the study into a coherent and logical whole (Kabir, 2016). The aim of research design is to provide a systematic explanation of how research questions were addressed in a quantitative study using empirical data (Thomas & Zubkov, 2023; Bhandari, 2023). It is a type of inquiry within the study approach that give specific direction for procedures in a research study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). It ensures that the research problem is effectively addressed (Creswell, 2014). The choice of research design should be determined by the purpose of the research (Bhandari, 2023). The choice, however, should be guided by the research paradigms; research approaches; and clear procedures for data collection, analysis, and interpretation of results (Bryman, 2016).

3.1.1 Research Paradigm

While the quantitative data were used to analyze the respective effect of TRs and PM on EP, and the moderating effect of PM in TRs-EP relations at TSC, Kenya. Typically, this research reflected a correlational research design (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This work was situated in the positivist paradigm tradition (Bryman, 2016) because it sought to determine the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya. Paradigms are the worldviews that represent the belief and value systems that guides a researcher as to how problems are solved within an area of study (Ebohon et al., 2021). Positivist paradigm was appropriate for this

study because it advocates for the use of quantitative research approach, methods, and designs (Creswell, 2014). It did not only underpinned the description of the parameters and coefficients in the data, but also enabled the understanding of the relationships among TRs, PM, and EP (Bhandari, 2023). The knowledge developed through positivist paradigm is based on a neutral and measurable observation of action, reaction or activity (Bryman, 2016). This paradigm proposes that research should be conducted with objectivity, and that the truth cannot be confirmed by senses (Ebohon et al., 2021). It thus posits that reality can never be understood when studying human behaviour and actions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), research using positivist paradigm applies deductive logic, formulates hypotheses and tests those hypotheses, offers operational definitions and mathematical equations, calculations, extrapolations and expressions, to reach conclusions. In spite of the foregoing, post-positivist paradigm was formulated since it applies the principles of natural science to studying human behaviour (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Post-positivist paradigm finds further expression in the quasi-experimental methodology model based on the premise that reality can never be fully understood; but at best, only approximated (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). It aims to provide explanations and to make predictions based on measurable outcomes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). These measurable outcomes were undergirded by empiricism (Babbie, 2021). This means that the problem of improvement in quality, quantity, and efficiency in service provision at the TSC was investigated by collecting verifiable empirical data, which supported the theoretical framework chosen and enabled the testing of the effect of the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya (Kivunja & Kuyini,2017). The results revealed significant effects of both TRs and PM on EP and the significant role played by PM in the TRs-EP relations.

This study aimed to test hypotheses on the connection between TRs and EP, PM and EP, and PM's effect on TRs-EP relations to understand their interconnection comprehensively (Kabir, 2016). Primary quantitative data were collected using a pre-tested research instrument (Aila & Ombok, 2015). The obtained data were analyzed deductively by using correlation and regression analyses that generated valuable insights that were presented in tables and textual write ups (Mutai, 2014). This suggests that this study provided a comprehensive view of the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP, however, the interpretations of the results were done objectively and impartially (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

3.1.2. Quantitative Research Approach

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya. Therefore, based on the post positivist assumptions, a quantitative research approach was adopted in this study to determine the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This suggests that quantitative approach to research was the most suitable for this study (Bryman, 2016). The general purpose of the quantitative research approach is to investigate a particular topic through the measurement of variables in quantifiable terms (Kabir, 2016). This is due to the fact that a quantitative research approach enables the identification of factors that influence an outcome and understanding of the best predictors (Bryman, 2016). Similarly, it tests theory and hypotheses and, discovers causal relations among variables (Creswell, 2014). This required that the relevant research design within quantitative research approach be chosen (Thomas & Zubkov, 2023). For these reasons, a correlational research design was chosen for this study (Babbie, 2021).

3.1.3. Correlational Research Design

The research design within a quantitative approach that shaped this study is the correlational research design (Bryman, 2016). This research design is focused primarily on answering research questions about relationships (Thomas & Zubkov, 2023). It also allows the measurement of variables and describe relationships between them with no influence from any extraneous variable (Bhandari, 2023). Moreover, correlational research design allows the measurement of variables and describe relationships between them with no influence from any extraneous variable (Bhandari, 2023). It also utilises the correlational statistic to describe and measure the degree of association and/or relationship between two or more variables (Bryman, 2016; Bhandari, 2023). In the same way, it includes more complex relationships among variables found in structural equation modelling techniques (Hair et al., 2021). In addition, a correlational research design not only reflects post positivist paradigm, but also comprises a cross-sectional design (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Thomas & Zubkov, 2023). Thus, it did not only provide appropriate framework for the study, but also determined how relevant information on inter-relationships among TRs, PM, and EP were obtained (Jilcha, 2020). This suggests that questionnaires is the relevant data collection method in correlational research design (Creswell, 2018; Babbie, 2021). This form of data collection method ensured that the issues raised by the respondents were addressed effectively (Creswell, 2014). Use of questionnaires is a data collection method that allows for collection of primary data from many participants at a single point in time (Bhandari, 2023). The questionnaires are not only designed to seek information on knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour from respondents but can also be administered online, by mail, by phone, or in person (Creswell, 2018). Further, data collected through questionnaires can be analysed statistically using correlation and/or regression analyses (Thomas & Zubkov, 2023).

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya. Therefore, pre-tested questionnaire with a rating scale and closed-ended questions were used to collect the numeric primary data at one point in time (Kabir, 2016). Thus, to analyse inter-relationships among the variables of this study, TRs, PM, and EP were identified as the study constructs and their hypotheses were formulated. Subs quently, quantifiable primary data were collected from the 296 TSC secretariat staff stationed in the counties of Kenya using the pre-tested questionnaires with closed ended questions. Eventually, the collected data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics to subject hypotheses to empirical scrutiny to reject or confirm them.

Finally, inferences were made from the findings of this study to all TSC, Kenya secretariat staff (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This correlational study thus examined EP at TSC, Kenya and attempted to quantify the influences that contributed to their impact (MacIntyre, 2014). The purpose of this research was to determine the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya, and how the sample results may be generalized to all TSC, Kenya secretariat staff (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). In addition, the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at the TSC were measured using multiple regression analysis. Thus, TRs, PM, and EP were measured on instruments, and the numeric data analysed using statistical procedures (Thomas & Zubkov, 2023).

3.2 Study Area

The study was conducted in TSC, Kenya offices in 47 Counties and more than 230 Sub-County TSC administrative units in Kenya**.** The choice of TSC, Kenya as the context of the study was guided by the fact that it was not the only single largest employer among the Public Sector Employers in Kenya, but also in East and Central Africa, and the choice of counties was informed by the fact that they had transferred services closer to the people

through decentralization of the TSC functions and improved teacher supervision at the institutional level (TSC, 2018).

Article 6 (1) of the 2010 Constitution of Kenya created the 47 Counties in Kenya. Whereas TSC, Kenya was formed in July 1967 through an Act of Parliament Chapter 212 Laws of Kenya. Moreover, formation of the TSC provided teachers with a single employer and uniform terms and conditions of service. It was charged with the mandate of registering, employing, promoting, disciplining, and paying teachers. However, in 2010, it was established and became one of the constitutional commissions in Kenya via articles 237(1) & 248(2) (i) of the Constitution of Kenya (2010). Article 237(2) & (3) of the Constitution of Kenya (2010) mandates the TSC to perform the following functions: register trained teachers; recruit and employ registered teachers; assign teachers employed by the commission for service in any basic public school or institution; promote and transfer teachers; exercise disciplinary control over teachers; terminate employment of teachers; review the standard of education and training of persons entering the teaching profession; review the demand for and supply of teachers; and advise the national government on matters relating to the teaching profession.

Section 11 of the TSC Act 2012 Laws of Kenya also mandates the TSC to perform the following functions: formulate policies to achieve its mandate; provide strategic directions, leadership and oversight to the secretariat; ensure that teachers comply with the teaching standards prescribed by the Commission under the TSC Act; manage the payroll of teachers in its employment; facilitate career progression and professional development for teachers in the teaching service including the appointment of head teachers; monitor the conduct and performance of teachers in the teaching service; and do all such things as may be necessary for the effective discharge of its functions and the exercise of its powers. In this regard,

Article 251 (1) (c) of the Constitution allows the Commission to recruit its own professional, technical, and administrative staff to form the secretariat as per section (18) (1) of the TSC Act 2012 Laws of Kenya. Consequently, it has employed over 3000 secretariat employees apart from the commissioners of whom about 1200 are stationed in the field to enable it discharge its mandates (TSC, 2017).

Since its inception, the number of registered teachers had grown from 30,000 in 1967 to over 600,000 of whom 324, 096 are under its employment (TSC, 2020). The TSC had decentralized its services to Kenya's 47 counties and more than 230 sub-counties. The Commission was headed by a chair and eight commissioners and was headquartered in the administrative capital city of Nairobi, Kenya.

Kenya is delineated by coordinates between the latitudes 0.0236'S and longitudes 37.9062'E and it is inhabited by 44 communities. It is bordered by Tanzania to the south, Uganda to the south-west, South Sudan to the north-west, Ethiopia to the north, Somalia to the north-east and on the south-east by the Indian Ocean. Located on the eastern coast of Africa and lies a stride of the equator and on the west of Lake Victoria. Kenya's total land boundary length is 3477 km and coastline of 536 km with the total area, including 11230 km^2 of water, 582650 km^2 of land, and a maximum length of 1131 km SSE-NNW and a maximum width of 1025 km ENE-WSW. The Population and Housing Census of 2019 revealed that Kenya is inhabited by 47.6 million persons with an annual growth rate of 2.2%. There is a total of 31,661 public primary and post primary educational institutions across the countries which are served by 324,096 teachers with a total enrolment approximated at 12,282,904 learners (TSC, 2020).

3.3 Target Population

The target population is a group of units about which the researcher wants to make judgement. They include groups of individuals, customers, products, or any subject the researcher is interested in (Mutai, 2014). On the other hand, the study population is the manageable population from which the sample of the study is selected in view of the research goals (Asiamah et al., 2017). Similarly, study population is the operational definition of target population (Hu, 2014). Therefore, the target population of this study were 3000 TSC secretariat staff as at 2017 who excluded the commissioners while, the study population were 1200 TSC secretariat staff stationed in 47 counties of Kenya (TSC, 2017). It is from the study population that the study sample of 291 secretariat staff were identified as participants, although five more also participated in the study. The county staff are comparable to the head office staff in terms of gender, age, educational level, professional qualification and experience, and job roles. They were chosen because counties had strengthened the decentralization of TSC functions and improved teacher supervision at the institutional level.

3.4 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

The sample for this study was selected using cluster sampling technique. Cluster sampling technique is a random sampling method which involves dividing the population into sub-groups (Shona, 2019). The researcher should therefore randomly select entire sub-groups and each sub-group selected should be similar in characteristics to the entire population (Bhardwaj, 2019; Shona, 2019). From each intact group selected, the researcher includes all the members of that specific group as units of observation (Mugenda, 2008). According to Mutai (2014) each cluster should be as like the others as possible and that within the clusters, the individuals should be heterogeneous. Babbie (2015) and Shona (2019) show that cluster sampling should be applied in a study when it is not possible to obtain a sampling frame because the population is large and dispersed. From all the clusters, a random selection of all

clusters is made as the nucleus from which the sample population is eventually derived (Mutai, 2014).

Single-stage cluster sampling technique was therefore used in this study. In single-stage cluster sampling, the researcher randomly select the number of required clusters for the sample and collect data from everyone within those clusters in one stage (Mutai, 2014). Besides, it was not possible to obtain a sample frame because 47 counties and over 230 sub counties in Kenya (the units of analysis in this study), are widely scattered geographically (Bhardwaj, 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Moreover, the staff of TSC secretariat within these counties were presumed to exhibit similar characteristics to the whole population and were therefore included in the sample as units of inquiry (Mugenda, 2008). And according to Mutai (2014) cluster sampling technique should be used when the population is dispersed and concentrated in natural clusters. In this study, there was a cluster-level frame with a randomized list of 47 counties and over 230 sub counties within Kenya, with an element-level frame created only for the selected clusters (Mutai, 2014). From the selected clusters, the sample size of the study was determined with a margin error of +/- 4%, confidence level of 95%, and a 50/50 chance that the sample contained the desired characteristics using sample size estimation Tables (Creswell, 2014; Mutai, 2014). The estimation Tables present sample sizes that are necessary for a given combinations of precision, confidence levels, and variability (Bryman, 2016).

Thus, in this study, the study population were 1200 TSC secretariat staff stationed in 47 counties of Kenya (TSC, 2017). The required number of respondents determined by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size estimation Table were 291 TSC secretariat staff although 296 of them participated in the study. This Table was used to determine the sample size because the population size was known, the population proportion is .5, and the degree of accuracy is

.05 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). On the other hand, the Table was used because it effectively determines sample size in an empirical study (Bukhari, 2020). Moreover, the estimated sample size (291) was sufficient enough to find significant or insignificant results if they are actually present or not (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014).

The logical cluster therefore was a county, and, each county had an average of 26 staff stationed in it (TSC, 2017). To determine the number of clusters (counties) needed in this study, the desired sample size, 291, was therefore divided by the average size of a cluster yielding 26 secretariat staff stationed in it. Thus, 11 counties were determined and therefore, Kiambu, Mombasa, Makueni, Bomet, Kakamega, Kisumu, Kericho, Homa Bay, Kisii, Vihiga, and Busia Counties were randomly selected. Consequently, all the TSC secretariat staff stationed in them were included in the sample as participants (Shona, 2019).

3.5 Data Collection Methods

This section presents sources and types of data, data collection procedures, instrument for data collection, pretesting of research instrument, reliability testing, validity testing, field work organization during data collection process, actual data collection process, and field work challenges.

3.5.1 Sources and Types of Data

Sources of data were the TSC secretariat employees stationed in 47 counties of Kenya. Self-designed questionnaires with closed-ended questions about attitudes towards TRs, PM, and EP were used to collect numeric primary data. The dependent variable, EP was ratio scaled.

3.5.2 Data Collection Procedures

This sub section describes form of instrument for data collection, form of data collection, pretesting of research instrument, testing for reliability and validity, field work organization during data collection process, actual data collection, and field work challenges. It further highlights the rights of the respondents.

3.5.2.1 Instrument for Data Collection

The self-designed structured questionnaire for this study was used to obtain relevant valuable information on the aspects of TRs, PM, and EP (Creswell, 2014; Aila and Ombok, 2015). The questionnaire had four sections, with section (a) requesting for the respondent's general information. Whereas sections (b-c) each measured TRs, PM, and EP on a 15, 17, and 16-item 5-point Likert scale, respectively. The 5-point Likert scale was anchored on strongly disagree to strongly agree with, neither agree nor disagree as the midpoint (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The questionnaire items were determined from the extensive review of TRs, PM, and EP literature to achieve content validity (Aila & Ombok, 2015). The instrument measured three, four, and four constructs of TRs, PM, and EP at ratio scales respectively, while categorical and continuous scales were applied to measure the items on the instrument (Mugenda, 2008) (Appendix iii).

3.5.2.2 Form of Data Collection

Data were collected from 296 participants through the self-administered questionnaire as hand-outs by the researcher in person (Mutai, 2014). This format guaranteed a high response rate, helped in cross-checking how the participants responded. It also allowed for clarification of any specific question which respondents did not understand (Crano et al., 2014).

3.5.2.3 Pretesting of Research Instrument

The self-formulated instrument required that its reliability and validity be established before being administered during the actual survey (Aila & Ombok, 2015). Demonstrating reliability of the instrument in research enables one to establish whether the results of a study are replicable, the measures that are devised for concepts are consistent, and a measure is stable or not (Aila & Ombok, 2015; Bryman, 2016). On the other hand, establishing the validity of an instrument entails identifying the integrity of the conclusions in any research (Aila & Ombok, 2015). Piloting was thus conducted in Migori County on 10th February 2021. The

objective of piloting is to ensure the flawless of interview process as a whole and the efficiency of the whole questionnaire (Lenzner & Otto, 2016). However, the number of participants to be piloted in a study is debatable. Mugenda (2008) proposes the number to be between 1% and 10% depending on the sample size. On the other hand, Lenzner and Otto (2016) recommends 10 to 200 participants. Whereas Perneger et al. (2014) recommends 30 participants. While Hilton (2015) proposes 5-15 participants. Therefore, to increase the likelihood of success of this study, the instrument was piloted in Migori County to 21 respondents who were randomly sampled and were heterogeneous to the intended participants in other counties, and within the range of the recommendations of (Hilton, 2015; Lenzner & Otto, 2016).

The randomly sampled County had 21 TSC secretariat staff of the 1200 study population, and all of them were piloted. The aim of the pilot test was to determine the validity and reliability of the research instrument as per the study objectives. Piloting ensured that the entire survey schedule ran smoothly, and that coding and analyses were done properly and efficiently (Lenzner & Otto, 2016). The pilot test was also done to establish whether there was question item flow and other areas for improvement, the instructions to respondents were clear, and the objectives of the study were being effectively addressed before the actual data collection process (Perneger et al., 2014). The pilot county was however, excluded in the main study. The research instrument which was piloted was the researcher's own developed questionnaires. Generally, the findings for piloting study indicated that the items in the instruments were very clear, understood well by the respondents, and the content was relevant and valid to the study. The respondents, however, suggested revision on HR technical terminologies to simplified common English language terms. The maximum time taken to administer the questionnaire was 15 minutes and the respondents had no issue with

the length of the questionnaires. The pilot results determined that content in the questionnaire is valid and relevant for collection of data for this research.

3.5.2.4 Tests for reliability

Reliability measures the degree to which the research instrument yields consistent results after repeated trials (Mugenda, 2008). To minimize random error, a reliability coefficient was computed using Cronbach's Coefficient at α= .7 to show the reliability of the results (Creswell, 2014). Test-retest technique was used on the instrument to show if the coefficient of reliability is acceptable, and the appropriate remedy was effected before the actual data collection.

The research instrument was duly tested for reliability using 21 respondents. The research tool was administered and readministered after a period of two weeks. When Cronbach (1951) alpha was applied, the instrument's test-retest yielded the coefficients of reliability of 0.898, 0.933, 0.720 for TRs, PM, and EP respectively as shown in Table 1. All in all, the instrument yielded the alpha coefficient of reliability of 0.933. This implies that the instrument yields data that has a high test-retest reliability and this is in line with Creswell and Creswell (2018) who established that correlation coefficient values between .7 and .9 is optimal for reliability results.

Table 1:*Summary of the Results of Reliability Test*

S/No	Constructs	Alpha	Comments	Changes Made
1.	TRs; performance related pay, competence-based pay, skill-based pay, and individual/team incentives	0.898	Questions on the meaning of performance related, competence and skill-based pay, and individual/team incentives.	The questions were revised to reflect that: Salary progression is linked to an assessment of individual performance; payment is in accordance with the type and level of obtained skills, knowledge, and experience that one applies in the workplace; pay increases are linked to the number or depth of skills that one has acquired and use in the workplace; and additional pay is given to employees who surpass the targets.
2	PM; performance evaluations and formal job performance discussions.	0.933	Questions on the aspects of evaluations and frequency of formal job performance discussions.	The questions were revised to reflect that: job performance evaluations and holding job discussions,
3	EP; workmates are always ready to help, effective communication, supervisor remaining calm, witnessed performance of private work, and witnessed fighting or arguments among colleagues.	0.720	Questions on which help, effective communication, remaining calm and witnessing.	The questions were revised to reflect: Cooperating with and ready to help, work performance is effectively communicated, my supervisor shouts, and seen or heard.

Source: Pilot data, 2021

3.5.2.5 Tests for validity

Validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data represents the phenomenon under study (Babbie, 2021). It is the extent to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure (Aila & Ombok, 2015). It enables the researcher to identify if the research instrument; allows the participants to understand the questions and whether the questions will mean the same thing to participants, will provide the data needed, and take a

longer or shorter time to complete (Mutai, 2014). Construct validity, content validity and criterion-related validity are the techniques of validating a study (Creswell, 2014). To determine the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences which were based on the research results, construct validity was applied to measure the theoretical concepts of TRs, PM, and EP in this study. Moreover, the study focused on whether the scores serve a useful purpose and have positive consequences when in practice (Aila & Ombok, 2015).

Construct validity is a measure of the degree to which data obtained from an instrument meaningfully and accurately represents a theoretical concept (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). It refers to how well a concept, idea, or behaviour has been translated into a functioning and operating reality (Aila & Ombok, 2015). Construct validity requires a researcher to establish theoretically derived hypotheses involving the concept under consideration (Mugenda, 2008). It can be assessed through an existing theoretical framework regarding the concept to be measured and the measurement must conform to the theoretical expectations (Aila & Ombok, 2015). According to Coulacoglou and Saklofske (2018), construct validity is an overarching term that encompasses all forms of validity. It refers to the extent to which a measure assesses what it purports to assess.

In this study, validity was established through analyst assessment with literature searches, and the results were corroborated by both the supervisors and HRM consultant. The supervisors determined that the instrument measured the concepts of TRs, PM, and EP. While the consultant used questionnaire validation form with construct and predictive validity. The results show that the instrument was highly valid and yields data that has construct validity, allowing 8-10% non-random error. The questionnaire was thus found to be valid and suitable for data collection subject to reorganizing it so that PM is first, followed by EP, then TRs to gain full attention of the respondent and achievement of the desired outcome (Appendix

XIII). This is because no data can have perfect validity (Mugenda, 2008). It was therefore concluded that the instrument for this study yields data that is both reliable and valid.

3.5.2.6 Field Work Organization during Data Collection

To ensure effective and efficient data collection, the researcher successively visited the sampled counties of Kiambu, Mombasa, Makueni, Bomet, Kakamega, Kisumu, Homa Bay, Kisii, Vihiga, Kericho and Busia together with their respective sub counties. The TSC facilitated the participation of secretariat staff from county directors to sub county directors. In particular, the TSC issued letters of authorization granting permission for access to their offices and staff for the actual data collection. Consultation was done with the County Directors whenever there were two or more activities taking place concurrently with a view to ensure non-disruption of the ongoing activities and smooth data collection process.

3.5.2.7 Actual Data Collection

The questionnaires was administered in person through pen and paper to all TSC secretariat staff in the sampled respective counties. Prior to this, the researcher obtained voluntary informed consent from the respondents and assured them of confidentiality and anonymity. The entry point into the sampled counties was the TSC County Directors' offices before proceeding to their respective sub counties. Of the 296 questionnaires, received back, none was found unusable. This represent 100% response rate, which is considered adequate for the study.

3.5.2.8 Field Work Challenges

The data collection process was successful across the sampled counties, but some challenges were experienced during the field work. Owing to the prevalence of Covid-19 in the country, some participants: did not want to touch the questionnaires, hence were reluctant to participate in the study; were working from home; and were thus working in shifts. The researcher had to be available to persuade and arrange for several visitations to administer the

questionnaires. Similarly, several TSC officials were involved in simultaneous activities in training and interviews. This required the researcher to request to leave questionnaires with them to be filled and collected later with several cost implications. Finally, the lockdown of the country due to Covid-19 pandemic forced the researcher to postpone the data collection process to later dates.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedures and Presentation

Data analysis procedures started with the commencement of the data collection process. Various techniques were applied at various levels as described in the sub-sections below.

3.6.1 Data Screening, Cleaning and Coding

The data collected were systematically organized, checked for response bias, and examined for completeness and comprehensibility. Thereafter, they were converted into numerical codes to represent measurements of variables (Mutai, 2014). Data was then examined for missing values.

3.6.2 Data Analysis Preparation

The researcher entered data immediately every time after field work to ensure accuracy. Thereafter, the researcher manually compared the hard copies of the duly filled questionnaires against the punched data to address the discrepancies which might have occurred (Creswell, 2014). The data sets were also verified for accuracy and consistency through discrepancy checks. This was done to confirm whether non-valid codes had been entered. During the data analysis process, the respondents' demographic data were coded. However, TRs, EP, and PM together with their respective indicators were transformed into their raw forms to obtain their unstandardized scores (Becker et al., 2018). Then the respective results of TRs, PM, and EP were averaged. Similarly, the respective equations for TRs, and PM were then structured to determine their respective effects on EP.

On the other hand, to determine the effect of PM in the TRs-EP relationship, the main effects namely multiple regression analysis model was run to obtain the unstandardized scores of TRs, EP, and PM (Fassott et al., 2016). The scores obtained were then calculated and saved for further analysis. The unstandardized scores of TRs and PM were then mean-centred by subtracting their respective means and dividing the result by their respective standard errors (standardised) (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019). In contrast, EP was not standardised because changing the scaling of the dependent variable by additive constants has no effect on regression coefficients in equations containing interactions (Fassott et al., 2016). Both the unstandardized and standardised scores of TRs, PM, and /or EP were saved for the two-stage approaches (Fassott et al., 2016). This was followed with the computation of the product of the original unstandardized construct scores of TRs and PM together with the product of their centred versions, TRs*PM (Becker et al., 2018). The error term needed as indicator of the interaction term was then computed by regressing the product of the original unstandardized scores of TRs and PM on the original unstandardized scores of TRs and PM. The resulting error term of the regression was saved as an indicator of the interaction term. Finally, the product of the centered and the standardized TRs- and PM-scores were saved. In the second stage, the interaction term TRs*PM together with the latent variable scores of TRs and PM were used as independent variables in a multiple regression on the latent scores of EP. TRs*PM was thus added to the previous model and run to create the simple effect model. This process was to describe the slope of the regression of TRs and EP when PM is at its mean value (Fassott et al., 2016).

3.6.3. Data Analysis Techniques and Presentation

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in the analysis. The researcher simultaneously used them to provide meaningful simple summaries and to draw conclusions about a population as per the results obtained from the sample (Mutai, 2014). Thus, the data

were analysed quantitatively guided by the study objectives using IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (version 23) and MS-Excel automated data analysis tools. The choice was informed by the fact that these software renders themselves easy to manipulate and have capacity to analyse large datasets (Montoya, 2019). Consequently, the researcher successively regressed TRs, PM, and the interaction term on EP. The outcome were presented in percentages, mean, standard deviations, variance and skewness, standard error of skewness, kurtosis, and standard error of kurtosis using tables (Mutai, 2014).

3.6.4 Measurement of Variables

The variables varied and were measured on an instrument as a continuous score and the scores from the sample were expected to be normally distributed (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Ordinary least square (OLS) techniques were used to estimate various parameters associated with TRs, PM, and EP. The result of multiple regressions being conducted at 95% level of significance was compared with the result of OLS to determine the significance of performance estimated. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation analysis was undertaken to establish the magnitude and direction of the association between TRs, PM, and EP (Mutai, 2014). Subsequently, Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR) analysis was also conducted to establish the moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP and it provided the relative prediction of one variable among many in terms of the outcome (Creswell, 2014). The outcome was therefore presented in form of tables and textual write-ups because they enable readers refine and distil the data to glean relevant information (Mutai, 2014).

The constructs of this study were TRs, PM, and EP. They were all one-dimensional constructs which had a single underlying dimension because each was measured using a single test. These were operationalized and yielded data for analysis (Mugenda, 2008). TRs were operationalized as the value of cash payments and benefits received by employees.

While PM was operationalized as a managerial control mechanism which help employees to perform tasks to the best of their abilities to produce the highest quality of work efficiently and effectively. Similarly, EP referred to more than one kind of behavior employee's display on the shop floor.

Each construct had multiple indicators to measure them. The constructs for TRs include basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits; while those of PM are setting goals and objectives, performance execution, giving and receiving coaching, and giving and receiving feedback; and for EP are task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counter-productive work behaviour. The combination of these indicators represented TRs, independent variable; PM, moderating variable; and EP, dependent variable. TRs, PM, and EP were therefore constructed to represent five respective relevant attributes, where each attribute represented a value. Hence, values of these attributes were qualitative and therefore the researcher assigned numbers 1 to 5 respectively for these five attributes. Assigning the values to the number of attributes enabled the use of appropriate statistical tools for quantitative data analysis on the values that were assigned and how to interpret the data from those variables (Trochim, 2015).

The indicators were reflective measures because they reflected TRs, PM, and EP, respectively. These variables were measured at ratio scales because it produced measures of two points that are meaningful and interpretable (Kabir, 2016). The specific rating scale created for this research was Likert. Moreover, Likert items allow for more finely tuned responses including whether respondents are neutral to the statement (Pimentel, 2019). The created scale included Likert items to which respondents indicated their extent of disagreement or agreement for variables TRs, PM, and EP on a five-point scale, respectively.

A five-point Likert scale includes neither agree nor disagree (neutral) as mid-point in the scale. It provides independence to respondents to express a balanced judgement towards the constructs of this study (Joshi et al., 2015). Neutral agreement thus measured the respondents' degree of knowledge on the study constructs. TRs, PM, and EP were therefore measured on a 15, 17, and 16-item Likert scale, respectively. To sanitize the items on the Likert scale, the researcher applied Likert scaling method to select specific items for the final scale. Analyses to associate TRs and PM with EP were applied in this research (Mugenda, 2008). The choice of the TSC, Kenya was informed by the fact that it is the largest single employer among the public service organizations in Kenya.

3.6.5 Analysis for Missing Values

The real-world dataset at times has a lot of missing values. In this study therefore, missing values were predicted by regression method (Kumar, 2021). Missing values in a dataset is a situation where, in one or more variables, the valid data for some cases are unavailable for analysis (Emmanuel, 2021). A dataset with missing values may cause bias in it. It ends up jeopardizing the performance of the model (Kumar, 2021). In this study therefore, variables were applied to predict the presence of missing values and the results indicate that no variable had missing values.

3.7 Methods of Data Analysis and Presentation

3.7.1 Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics, correlation, and regression analysis were used to analyse data. Descriptive statistics enables the researcher to discover miscoded values, missing data, and other problems in data set (Mutai, 2014). It also enables the researcher to organize, summarize, interpret, and communicate quantitative information obtained from the study (Hayes, 2021). Pearson Product-Moment Correlation analysis was conducted to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationship between TRs and EP, and PM and EP. Multiple

regression analysis was conducted to establish the moderating effect of PM on TRs and EP relationship at TSC, Kenya (Montoya, 2019). Multiple regression analysis is an accessible data analytic technique in major statistical packages (Cote, 2021). A typical simple regression model is of the form:

$Y_i = f_i (X_i)$…….....…….....3.1

Where; Y= the outcome variable, f = shape of the relationship, X= predictor variable and $_i$ = (1, 2, 3 …n^{th}) individual employee.

Therefore, the general multiple linear regression model can be specified as a regression equation as:

$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \ldots + \beta_k k_i$…….……3.2

The Equation (3.2) can be re-specified after incorporating the error term as:

$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1i} + \beta_2 X_{2i} + \beta_3 X_{3i} + \ldots + \beta_k k_i + \varepsilon_i$……...……...…3.3

Where; Y_i = the outcome variable, β_0 = intercept, $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3 \ldots \beta_k$ are regression coefficients of predictors X_{1i}, X_{2i}, X_{3i}...X_{ki}, i = 1, 2, 3...n are individual responses and ε_i is the error term (Nikhil et al., 2015).

The analysis techniques were chosen to suit the requirements of each objective. The first and second objectives which sought to establish and determine the effect of TRs and PM on EP at TSC, Kenya respectively were analysed by use of Pearson Product-Moment analysis because TRs, PM, and EP were ratio scaled. The regression analysis involved a procedure where TRs and PM were created by centering them, creating product terms (TRs*PM), and structuring the equation (Hair et al., 2021). This allowed the single effect of TRs to describe the slope of the regression of TRs and EP when PM has a value of its mean (Fassott et al., 2016). The regression was run then for: dependent, EP and independent, TRs variables; the dependent, EP and moderating, PM variables; and the interaction term, TRs*PM of the dependent and potential moderating variable as specified in sections 3.7.1.1, 3.7.1.2, and 3.7.1.3

respectively. The study employed multivariate linear regression analysis to determine the association between the main effects of the outcome variable: EP and the predictor variables, TRs and PM.

The third objective was addressed by employing Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis (MMR). To determine the association between the simple effects of variables: EP and predictor variables, TRs and PM, the study employed multivariate linear regression analysis. This procedure involved the regression of the predictor variable, TRs, the potential moderating variable, PM and the cross-product interaction term, TRs*PM on the outcome variable, EP, respectively. If the cross-product/interaction term produces a meaningful change in the R- square value (that is, significantly increases the amount of variance accounted for in the criterion variable), then the moderating variable is identified as having a significant effect on the nature of the relationship between TRs and outcome variable, EP (Memon et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2021). The resulting regression models were expressed as follows:

3.7.1.1 Model Specification for Objective One

The outcome and predictor variables that interact during the functioning of the study are identified as below:

EP= f (TRs)…..……...…….…….……..…...… (3.4)

However, the several explanatory variables within TRs are Base pay (BP), Contingent pay (CP), and Employee benefits (EB)…..…….....…..... (3.5)

The regression model and corresponding general function representing EP as adapted from (Mukras, 2012; Mutai, 2014) and modified by me are as follows:

EP= f (TRs) = f (BP, CP, EB) …….…….……..…..…….... (3.6)

Thus, the mathematical form of the multiple regression model is expressed as:

$EP_i = \beta_0+\beta_1 BP_i + \beta_2 CP_i + \beta_3 EB_i$ …….....….....…..... (3.7)

The Equation (3.7) can be re-specified after incorporating the disturbance term as:

$EP_{i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 BP_{i} + \beta_2 CP_{i} + \beta_3 EB_{i} + \varepsilon_{i}$ ..... (3.8)

Where: *EP* is the employee performance; *i,* individual employee; *BP*, base pay; *CP*, contingent pay; *EB,* employee benefits; $\mathcal{E}$, error term; $\beta_{0,}$ the intercept; and β_1, β_2, and β_3 are the slopes of the variables BP_{i}, $CP_{i,}$ and *EBi* respectively.

3.7.1.2 Model Specification for Objective Two

The outcome and predictor variables that interact during the functioning of the study are identified as below:

EP= f (PM)..... (3.9)

However, the several explanatory variables within PM are setting goals and objectives (SGO), performance execution (PE), giving and receiving coaching (GRC), and giving and receiving feedback (GRF).

The regression model and corresponding general function representing EP as adopted from (Mukras, 2012; Mutai, 2014) and modified by me is as follows:

EP= f (PM) = (SGO, PE, GRC, GRF) ..... (3.10)

The mathematical form of the regression model can thus be expressed as:

$EP_{i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 SGO_{i} + \beta_2 PE_{i} + \beta_3 GRCi + \beta_4 GRF_{i}$ ..... (3.11)

The Equation (3.11) can be re-specified after incorporating the disturbance term as:

$EP_{i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 SGO_{i} + \beta_2 PE_{i} + \beta_3 GRC_{i} + \beta_4 GRF_{i} + \varepsilon_{i}$ ..... (3.12)

Where: *EP* is the employee performance; *i,* individual employee; *SGO*, setting goals and objectives; *PE*, performance execution; *GRC*, giving and receiving coaching; *GRF*, giving and receiving feedback; $\mathcal{E}$, error term; $\beta_{0,}$ the intercept; and β_1, β_2, $\beta_{3,}$ and β_4 are the slopes of the variables SGO_{i}, PE_{i} , $GRC_{i,,}$ and GRF_{i} respectively.

3.7.1.3 Model Specification for Objective Three

Figure 1 is a moderation conceptual model showing an outcome variable (EP), a predictor variable (TRs), and a moderator variable (PM). It explains how PM is connected to EP and TRs by an arrow which points to the relationship between TRs and EP. The model incorporates the statistical interaction term TRs*PM which is different from how it is graphically conceptualized (Memon et al., 2019).

The predictor, moderating, interaction, and outcome variables that interact during the functioning of the study are identified as follows:

EP = *f* (TRs, PM, (TRs*PM)) …… (3.13)

The Regression model and corresponding general function representing EP as adopted from (Gatignon, 2014; Memon et al., 2019) and modified by me are as follows;

Assuming a quasi-moderation, in a first step (Equation 3.14), a regression model is formulated for both the independent and the moderator variable. Subsequently, in a second step, interaction model is formulated (Equation 3.15) where both the moderator variable and the product are added into the regression equation.

$EP_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TRs_i + \beta_2 PM_i$…….……..…..……..… (3.14)

$EP_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TRs_i + \beta_2 PM_i + \beta_3 (TRs_i * PM_i)$…….....….....….....…. (3.15)

The Equation (3.15) can be re-specified after incorporating the disturbance term as:

$EP_i = \beta_1 TRs_i + \beta_2 PM_i + \beta_3 (TRs * PM_i) + \varepsilon_i$…… ....…….……..…… (1.16)

Where β_1 is the coefficient relating the predictor variable, TRs, to the outcome, EP, when PM =0, β_2 is the coefficient relating the moderator variable, PM, to the outcome, EP, when TRs =0, β_0 is the intercept in the equation, the inclusion of TRs*PM shows that the effect of TRs on EP is different for various values of PM, and ε_i is the residual in the equation.

The general form of the function and specific form of the function after incorporating the disturbance term should be:

$EP_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TRs + \beta_2 PM + \beta_3 (TRs*PM) + e_i$……..…….…….....…….... (3.17)

Thus, the resulting model (3.18) is a multiple regression equation which forms the basic moderation model and is therefore stochastic and deterministic, where TRs and PM represent the main effects of the predictors, and TRs*PM gives the simple effect, hence suitable for this research.

$EP_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TRs + \beta_2 PM + \beta_3 (TRs*PM) + \varepsilon_i$……..…..….....….. (3.18)

The regression coefficient for the interaction term, β_3, provides an estimate of the moderation effect. If β_3 is statistically different from zero, there is significant moderation of the TRs-EP relation in the data (Hair et al., 2021). Regression slopes that correspond to the prediction of EP from TRs at a single value of PM are termed as simple slopes.

Assumptions of the moderation model include OLS regression assumptions (Memon, et al., 2019). These are: (1) the outcome variable should be measured on a continuous scale (2) one continuous predictor variable and one dichotomous moderator variable (3) independence of residuals (4) linear relationship between outcome variable and the predictor variable for the dichotomous moderator variable (5) demonstration of homoskedasticity (6) data must not show multicollinearity (7) data must not show significant outliers (8) homogeneity of error variance (Lund & Lund, 2018). Number 8 requires that the residual variance in the outcome that remains after predicting EP from TRs is equivalent across values of PM (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2008).

In the linear specification (Equation 3.18), the parameters β_1, β_2 and β_3 have the following interpretations.

i) β_1 = the effect of a unit changes in TRs on EP

ii) β_2= the effect of a unit changes in PM on EP

iii) β_3 = the effect of a unit changes in TRs (PM) on EP

3.7.2 Data Presentation

The data obtained from the questionnaires were summarized using statistics such as mean, standard deviation, percentages, kurtosis, skewness, and frequencies. Summarized frequencies were produced to give measures of central tendencies which included simple means. Other statistical presentations included frequency distributions and proportions such as percentages. The data analysed was presented in form of tables.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Authorization to conduct this research was obtained from Maseno University School of Graduate Studies (SGS) (appendix VIII) and Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC) (appendix IX), and National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI) (appendix X). The researcher also considered the legal framework governing the conduct for academic research in Kenya was also considered by seeking permission from TSC, Kenya to conduct research among its secretariat staff deployed in the counties of Kenya. The TSC eventually granted permission by writing to the respective County Directors informing them about the upcoming study. The researcher had to carry along with me, both the soft and hard copies of the authorization and introductory letters. This was done in order to differentiate this study from the official surveys which are normally carried out by the TSC.

Data collection started off by first visiting the County Directors' offices then the Sub County Directors' offices who in turn informed their officers of the commencements of data collection process. In the meantime, the researcher took precautions not to interfere with the ongoing work processes. Participation in the study was voluntary, and respondents were treated with utmost courtesy and respect with the promise that the data provided would be treated with utmost confidentiality and kept under key and lock and destroyed after three years. Respondents thus did not have a place to print their names on the questionnaires other than an option of consent or not consent by ticking accept or not accept. The researcher exercised utmost transparency by explaining the benefits and risks associated with this study. They truthfully answered all the questions emanating from respondents throughout the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents the results of; statistical tests, the data descriptive and inferential statistics, moderation analysis on the hypothesized moderator variable, and data analysis, interpretation and discussion based on the objectives of this study. It also presents the responses based on demographic data and findings on the objectives of this study. The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya.

4.1 Results of the Study

4.1.1 Statistical Tests

4.1.1.2 Testing the Assumptions for Linear Regression Analysis

This study employed multiple linear regression analysis to analyse data because it is an accessible data-analytic technique contained in major statistical packages (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019). The fact that many people are skeptical about the usefulness of multiple linear regressions, especially for variable selection, it was imperative to establish that its assumptions were not violated as emphasized by (Mutai, 2014). The assumptions considered applicable when conclusions are drawn about a population based on a regression analysis done on a sample data are; type of variables, homoscedasticity, linearity, normality of residuals, and multicollinearity (Andrew, 2013; Nau, 2016). These assumptions are considered in the following subsections.

4.1.1.2.1 Types of Variables

As recommended by Sarangam (2020), all predictor and outcome variables must be quantitative or categorical, and continuous or ordinal respectively. They should thus have a linear relationship between them. In this study therefore, both the predictor variables, TRs

and PM and the outcome variable, EP were quantitative. The variables thus varied and did not violate the requirements of regression analysis (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014).

4.1.1.2.2 Linearity and Homoscedasticity

Linearity is data which is in a straight line when plotted in a graph. To meet the condition of linearity therefore, the outcome for each increment of predictor variables, should lie along a straight line (Liu et al., 2016). Thus, it is important to test this assumption because modelling a non-linear relationship using a linear model result in erroneous predictions (Vidhya, 2016). However, according to Sarstedt and Mooi (2014), satisfying this assumption requires the researcher to demonstrate a model where the regression parameters are linear. Regression analysis begins with regression notation (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). A simple regression model is noted as: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$ (Mugenda, 2008). Where: β_0, the intercept; β_1, the slope or change in Y, given a unit change in X_1; Y, the dependent variable; X_1, the independent variable; and ε, the error term. A positive or negative β_1 coefficient indicates an upward or a downward sloping regression line respectively (Sarstedt and Mooi, 2014). However, with multiple regression the equation was extended by adding one term for each new variable as: $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \ldots \beta_n X_n + \varepsilon$ (Mutai, 2014). Where: Y, the dependent variable; $X_{1\text{-}n}$, the independent variables; β_0, the intercept; $\beta_{1\text{-}n}$, the regression coefficients or change brought in Y by each X; and ε, the error term (Mugenda, 2008). Thus, the dependent and independent variables in this study were EP, TRs, PM, and TRs (PM) respectively and were modelled as: $EP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TRs_1 + \beta_2 PM_2 + \beta_3 TRs\ (PM)_3 + \varepsilon$. Where; β_0, is the intercept, and β_1, β_2, and β_3 are coefficients for each independent variable and indicate how a change in a predictor variable affects the outcome variable, holding other independent variables constant. Hence, the linearity assumption was satisfied.

The assumption of homoscedasticity is satisfied when the predictor variable(s), the variance of the errors' terms is constant at each level (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). The accuracy of the r coefficient may not be attained if the assumption does not hold (Dudovsky, 2018). This is because when data is heteroscedastic (non-constant variance), it leads to overestimation of the goodness of fit (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Consequently, enter method of regression was chosen whereby both TRs and PM indicators as the independent variables, and EP, the dependent variable were simultaneously forced into the model. This was done to ensure that the assumption of random error and homoscedasticity were satisfied.

4.1.1.2.3 Testing for Multicollinearity

It was appropriate that the presence of multicollinearity be tested because highly collinear items can distort the results and therefore not be generalizable and harmful to multiple regression (Frost, 2020). Multicollinearity occurs when one predictor variable is able to predict the other (Glen, 2015). This study measured multicollinearity of the independent variables by means of tolerance or variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF is the reciprocal of the tolerance (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Thus, tolerance of below 0.1 indicates serious multicollinearity problem (Nikhil et al., 2015). Similarly, a VIF value of 1 shows no correlation between this independent variable and any others, while VIF values between 1 and 5 suggest a moderate correlation which requires no corrective measures (Frost, 2020). Similarly, VIF values above 10 indicate collinearity issues (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014).

Table 2:*Collinearity Statistics*[a]

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		
TRs	1.000	1.000
Basic pay	.749	1.336
Contingent pay	.707	1.414
Employee benefits	.723	1.383
PM	1.000	1.000
Performance execution	.624	1.603
Setting goals and objectives	.493	2.028
Giving and receiving coaching	.583	1.715
Giving and receiving feedback	.518	1.929
TRs*PM	.224	4.463

a. Dependent Variable: Employee performance

Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 2 shows that the tolerances and VIFs corresponding to the independent variables respectively range between 0.224 and 1.000 which are above 0.1 as recommended by (Nikhil et al., 2015) and between 1.000 and 4.463 which is within the threshold of 5 as recommended by (Frost, 2020). These indicate that multicollinearity was not an issue.

4.1.2 Descriptive Statistics

According to Trochim et al. (2016), descriptive statistics describe the basic features of data. In addition, it provide summaries about the sample and the measures, and form the basis of every quantitative analysis of data in a study. Its purpose is to simplify and organize a set of scores (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2016). They are, however, a straightforward way of describing the data collected, but do not allow one to conclude beyond the data analysed or reach conclusions on hypotheses that might have been made (Babbie, 2021).

4.1.2.1 Summary of the Descriptive Statistics

Table 3: ***Summary of Descriptive Statistics***

Descriptive Statistics								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Performance Management	296	3.67	.683	.466	-.757	.142	1.272	.282
Employee Performance	296	3.38	.587	.344	-.125	.142	.171	.282
Transactional Rewards	296	3.08	.671	.450	-.032	.142	.213	.282
Valid N (listwise)	296							

Source: Field data, 2021

The mean is the average of a set of scores or measurements (Mutai, 2014). It is obtained by adding up the scores and dividing them by the number of observations (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2016). For this reason, a five-point Likert scale was used to measure TRs, PM, and EP. Likert scale is a psychometric response scale in which the study respondents to research questions specified their level of agreement to a statement in five points- strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree (Preedy & Watson, 2019). Table 3 indicates that the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed with TRs (M=3.08) and EP (M= 3.38) while they agreed with PM (M=3.67). This means that the knowledge of PM is high and is positively associated with EP at the TSC, Kenya (Masome & Mangori, 2017).

There was need to know how scores differed in magnitude among themselves around the mean of the distribution (Mutai, 2014). This is because samples consistently tend to be less variable than their populations, giving a biased estimate of population variability (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2016). Standard deviation was therefore applied because it gives the extent to which scores in a distribution deviate from their mean (Mugenda, 2008). The scores in TRs (SD=.671); PM (SD=.683) and EP (SD=.587) are clustered close together and variability is

small as shown in Table 3. This shows that the individual responses on average are a little less than 1 point from the mean. This means that respondents respectively neither agreed nor disagreed with TRs, EP, and PM. This implies that the PM at TSC, Kenya dissatisfy employees, lacks motivation, and proper reward system. The likely reason for this result is that the PM system at TSC, Kenya may have not been professionally designed, implemented, and was not operating as intended (Mughal et al., 2014).

Table 3 also shows that the distributions in this study are negatively skewed. Skewness is a measure of horizontal departure from distribution (Mugenda, 2008). Negative skewness implies that most of the measures are extremely high with very few low measures and the values are less than -1.0 (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2016). This means that the scores have piled up to the right-hand side and the tail tapered off to the left (Hair et al., 2022). Thus, TRs, PM, and EP are negatively skewed as indicated by the values -. 032, -.757, and -.125 respectively. The mass of the distribution is thus concentrated on the left, with PM and TRs being respectively the most and the least negatively skewed. This implies that the performance of most employees at the TSC are affected by TRs, while only a few employees' performance are affected by PM. It can therefore be concluded that the distribution is normal.

Kurtosis is a measure of vertical departure from normal distribution (Jushan & Serena, 2005; Mugenda, 2008). In a normal distribution, kurtosis will always be equal to 3 and a departure from it shows either a peaked (leptokurtic) or a flat (platykurtic) distribution (Hair et al., 2022). All variables were flat (platykurtic) .21, 1.27, and .17 for TRs, PM, and EP, respectively. This implies that their standard deviation from the mean is not outside the range of normality. Standard errors for skewness and kurtosis are all the same for TRs, PM, and EP at .142 and .282 for skewness and kurtosis, respectively. They reflect the functions of the sample size.

4.1.3 Response Rate

This research was undertaken in 11 out of 47 counties in Kenya. The randomly sampled 11 counties included Kiambu, Mombasa, Kisumu, Makueni, Kericho, Bomet, Busia, Kisii, Homa Bay, Kakamega, and Vihiga. There was only one study tool which was administered in the selected counties. The questionnaire targeted all the TSC secretariat staff stationed in those counties together with their job roles. The targeted participants numbered 291 although five more participated in the study. This implies that there was more than 100% response rate. Increases in sample size enhance the accuracy of results (Curwin & Slater, 2013).

4.1.4 Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

The demographic characteristics describe subgroups of respondents (Mutai, 2014). They thus provide data on research respondents and is required to establish whether respondents in each study differ in their attitudes toward the topics at hand (Habibi et al., 2022). Their examination in this study therefore enabled the identification of characteristics and factors that contribute to significant differences in individual employee motivation and performance. The key respondents in this study were all TSC, Kenya secretariat staff in the counties. Age, gender, academic and professional qualifications, experience, and job roles of 296 TSC, Kenya secretariat staff in the counties thus have a strong link and influence on the level of support needed to implement organizational strategies, initiatives, and processes. Due to this, there were varied responses from one respondent to another depending on the variation in these factors as captured in Table 4. This implies that employee behaviours based on varied demographic factors may impact on the support needed for successful implementation of work improvement strategy. The respondents were therefore requested to indicate their demographic characteristic and their responses are indicated in Table 4.

Table 4: ***Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents***

S/NO.	DESCRIPTION	TOTAL (N=296)				
	Age Category	*Frequency*	*Percentage*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Variance*
1	19-25 years	5	1.7	4.20	1.277	1.633
2	26-32 years	23	7.8			
3	33-39 years	62	20.9			
4	40-46 years	79	26.7			
5	47-53 years	73	24.7			
6	54-60 years	53	17.9			
7	Above 60 years	1	.3			
	Total	296	100			
	Gender					
1	Male	161	54.4			
2	Female	135	45.6			
	Total	296	100			
	Academic Qualification					
1	CPE/KCPE	4	1.4			
2	KCE/KCSE	131	44.3			
3	KACE	8	2.7			
4	Bachelor's degree	90	30.4			
5	Master's degree	58	19.6			
6	PhD	5	1.7			
	Total	296	100			
	Professional Qualification					
1	Diploma	69	23.3			
2	Higher diploma	30	10.1			
3	CPS/CPA	22	7.4			
4	Professional degree	97	32.8			
5	Trade/Technical/Vocational training	4	1.4			
6	Certificate	58	19.6			
7	None	16	5.4			
	Total	296	100			
	Work Experience (Years)					
1	Less than 5	53	17.9	3.47	1.703	2.901
2	5-10	38	12.8			
3	11-15	63	21.3			
4	16-20	56	18.9			
5	21-25	32	10.8			
6	Above 26	54	18.2			
	Total	296	100			
	Job Roles					
1	Regional Director	3	1.0			
2	County Director	11	3.7			
3	RQAS	4	1.4			
4	CHRO	19	6.4			
5	Sub county director	49	16.6			
6	County accountant	17	5.7			
7	ICT officer	8	2.7			
8	SCHRO	58	19.6			
9	Office administrator	18	6.1			
10	Clerical officer	52	17.6			
11	Support staff	18	6.1			
12	Driver	14	4.7			
13	Office administrative assistant	18	6.1			
14	Records officer	7	2.4			
	Total	296	100			
	Job Scale Bracket					
1	4-6	28	9.5			
2	7-9	132	44.6			
3	10-12	89	30.1			
4	13-15	47	15.9			
	Total	296	100			

***Source*: Field data, 2021**

4.1.4.1 Respondents Age Range

Table 4 indicates that the mean age range of the respondents was 40 to 46 years (M=4.20). Meaning individual responses are concentrated around the employees with the age range of 40 to 46 years old and dispersion was small, however on the average, they were a little over our findings point, away from the mean age range (SD=1.28). Some respondents (43%) were in the age bracket of between 47 to above 60 years old. This suggests that the TSC secretariat staff were not skewed towards older people. Implying, it consistently renews its workforce with fresh and young talents. The age of the study respondents was a key factor for progressive, effective implementation, and sustainability of EP enhancement strategies. However, core task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, counter-productive work behaviors, resistance to change and innovative behaviors; had no consistent relationship with age up to mid-60 years, may be higher for mature workers, lower for mature workers, may be lower for mature workers and have no relationship with age respectively (Bertolino et al., 2013). The age of respondents who were 50 years and older was alarming and a factor to reckon with. This is because the majority could be on the verge of retirement. The extent to which this group could enthusiastically steer and sustain new work processes and strategies is in question. However, reaction to the PM implementation process and sustainability could not be attributed to the age factor. Moreover, according to Kunze et al. (2013), employee age was negatively related to resistance to change.

The issue of age and worker effectiveness, however, remains debatable in HRM research. Joseph (2014) conducted a study in Singapore on age diversity and its impact on EP in both manufacturing and service industries. The study revealed that the age diversity of the workforce does not significantly impact EP with the conclusion that the employees in Singapore neither admire nor criticize age diversity. Ali (2020) researched the relationship between age and job performance. His findings revealed no conclusive relationship between

age and job performance and that experience was a better predictor of job performance than age. Guzzo et al. (2022) studied the impact of age and experience on work unit performance and found that tenure positively affects unit performance whereas age has no effect. Zabel and Baltes (2015) conducted a study on ageing and work. They found that the way work is defined can impact the way it impacts outcomes in the workplace such as absenteeism, innovative behaviour, and safety behaviour. They also found that negative stereotypes held about older workers were not supported by data.

4.1.4.2 Respondents Gender

Table 4 indicates that male participants were 54.4% while female respondents were 45.6%. Although there were more male participants than female among the secretariat staff at TSC, Kenya, but it is a significant step towards disrupting gender norms. It implies that the TSC recognizes workforce diversity because discrimination based on gender has a substantial impact on EP (Elsawy & Elbadawi, 2022).

4.1.4.3 Respondents Highest Academic Qualification

As shown in Table 4, most respondents had KCE/KCSE qualification (44.3%), followed by Bachelors' Degree (30.4%) and Masters' Degree (19.6%) as their highest academic qualifications, respectively. This shows that there was a high proportion of employees with lower education at TSC, Kenya. Education is a cultural and learning process that develops cognitive and physical abilities (Ishola et al., 2018). It thus improves the employee quality, and ability to introduce, imitate, and apply advanced technologies; and drive the spread of new knowledge (Wang & Liu, 2016). Similarly, literature shows that employees with higher tertiary education perform their tasks better than those with lower qualification (Ishola et al., 2018). This means that employees with higher education can make good management, and therefore improve the efficiency of technology applications than employees with primary education or secondary education (Wang & Liu, 2016). Further, according to Wang and Liu

(2016), primary and secondary education had no significant positive impact on economic growth. As described, inadequate performance at the TSC can be attributed to the performance of many employees (44.3%) who possess primary and secondary education. Indeed, respondents with primary and secondary education were interviewed to ascertain whether their behaviours contributed to the inadequate performance at the TSC.

4.1.4.4 Respondents Highest Professional Qualification

As shown in Table 4, most respondents possessed professional degrees (32.8%). This was followed by professional diploma holders (23.3%). This means that 56.1% of TSC secretariat staff possessed skills and professional capacity required to perform their tasks effectively and efficiently thereby leaving out a considerable number of staff (43.9%) with no professional qualification which may be preventing them from offering quality service. Professional degrees and diplomas are the qualifications which provide the holders with the requisite skills and knowledge to perform a particular job task without acquiring an additional qualification. Thus, professional qualifications prepare and equip supervisors together with their subordinates with the specific technical and practical knowledge and skills to manoeuvre the PM implementation process robustly. Consequently, if many employees possess different professional qualifications from multiple fields, they should be in a better standing to manage and facilitate PM process efficiently and effectively because of their enhanced perspectives and ideas. This, in turn, makes service more efficient and of a higher quality. Professional qualification for supervisors and even subordinates is a key component in achieving the purpose of PM. In other words, professional qualifications provide employees with both declarative knowledge (information) and procedural knowledge (ability) that should enable them offer superior performance (Aguinis, 2018). It is also the vehicle that enables expertise that creates new capabilities, possibilitize superior performance, encourages innovation, and enhances customer value (Anuradha, 2015).

4.1.4.5 Respondents Years of Experience

Table 4 indicates that the respondents' mean years of experience were between 16-20 years (M=4.47). This means that the individual observations are less spread out around the mean and the deviation is small by at least two points away from the mean (SD=1.70). The respondents with work experience of 20 years and above at the TSC secretariat are only 29%. This also means that few but important respondents had participated in the PM implementation process when it was initiated at TSC, Kenya in 2005/2006 fiscal year. This suggests that many of the respondents may have not been effectively socialized into the PM system, hence experiencing low PM-practices. Respondents of less than 5 years could be newly recruited employees into the TSC, Kenya secretariat service. Guzzo et al. (2022) demonstrated that the more the years of service, the better the performance.

4.1.4.6 Respondents Job Roles

The respondents were requested to indicate their job roles. The results are captured in Table 4. The TSC organogram reflects the office of regional directors as superior to the offices of county directors. In addition, the county directors' offices are also superior to sub-county directors' offices while, the rest of the staff offer support services in the respective offices. However, the job scale of the respective office heads depends upon the substantive job scale of the incumbent office holder. Majority of responders were sub county human resource officers (19.6%), clerical officers (17.6%), and sub county directors (16.6%). Job roles of employees determines the quality service an organization offers. They help managers determine what an employee is supposed to do when onboard. It is apparent that some job roles are under-represented, which was an indicator of understaffing in some supporting job roles, hence inefficiency in job performance. Job roles, when effectively played, enable the organization to deliver quality service to its clients (Hafizh & Aswar, 2020).

4.1.4.7 Respondents Job Scale Bracket

The TSC secretariat job scales ranges from one as the highest down to 15 as the lowest job scale. Table 4 shows that many respondents were in job scale brackets of 7-9 (44.6%) and 10-12 (30.1%). The job scale bracket of 7-9 is a middle level management yet they were the majority in this study. This therefore means that the supporting role is understaffed, a situation which may impact on efficient and effective service delivery.

4.1.5 Transactional Rewards at TSC, Kenya

The first objective establishes the effect of transactional rewards (TRs) on employee performance (EP) at TSC, Kenya. This objective tested TRs and employee benefits, contingent pay, and basic pay as its major constructs. All the constructs had their respective measures which were also tested. The results are captured in Table 5 below:

Table 5: ***Percentage of Responses on TRs***

Constructs of TRs	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Basic pay	(5) 1.7	(47) 15.9	(105) 35.5	(114) 38.5	(25) 8.4
Contingent pay	(13) 4.4	(86) 29.1	(151) 51.0	(43) 14.5	(3) 1.0
Employee benefits	(4) 1.4	(26) 8.8	(147) 49.7	(108) 36.5	(11) 3.7
Average for TRs	(2) .7	(46) 15.5	(176) 59.5	(69) 23.3	(3) 1.0

Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 5 shows the summary of effect of TRs and its constructs on EP as follows: 5(1.7%), 47(15.9%), 105(35.5%), 114(38.5%), and 25(8.4%) strongly disagreed, disagreed, neither agreed or disagreed, agreed, and strongly agreed with basic pay; 13(4.4%), 86(29.1%), 151(51.0%), 43(14.5%), and 3(1.0%) respectively strongly disagreed, disagreed, neither agreed or disagreed, agreed, and strongly agreed with contingent pay; and 4(1.4%), 26(8.8%), 147(49.7%), 108(36.5%), and 11(3.7%) strongly disagreed, disagreed, neither agreed or disagreed, agreed, and strongly agreed with employee benefits. Overall, 2(.7%), 46(15.5%), 176(59.5%), 69(23.3%), and 3(1.0%) respondents respectively strongly disagreed, disagreed,

neither agreed or disagreed, agreed, and strongly agreed with TRs. This means that reward and business strategy at TSC, Kenya are not integrated (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020).

In regard to 105(35.5%), 151(51.0%) and 147(49.7%), it is evident that a considerable number of respondents cannot demonstrate their knowledge on the understanding of basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits respectively, thus TRs. This implies that at TSC, Kenya employees could not meaningfully differentiate their compensation across levels of performance. The levels of performance at TSC, Kenya are graduated as excellent, very good, good, fair, and poor. This means that TSC, Kenya is without meaningful different compensation across levels of performance. Similarly, several respondents 177(60%) could not relate their remuneration to their performance. This means that rewards and sanctions are not linked to measurable performance, together with skills possessed by employees and their competencies. This implies that incentive management process is not built within the PM framework of TSC, Kenya (Chowdhury et al., 2018).

Table 6: ***Measures of Variability of Responses on TRs***

	Basic pay	**Contingent pay**	**Employee benefits**	**TRs**
Mean	3.36	2.79	3.32	3.08
Std. Deviation	.906	.780	.743	.671
Variance	.821	.609	.552	.450
Skewness	-.228	-.039	-.254	-.032
Std. Error of Skewness	.142	.142	.142	.142
Kurtosis	-.375	.058	.460	.213
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.282	.282	.282	.282

Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 6 indicates that mean values of all variables range from M=2.79 for contingent pay to M=3.36 for basic pay. The average mean for TRs in TSC, Kenya during the period of the study is (M=3.08, SD=.671) which implies that there were significant differences among the

values of TRs. Similarly, there are differences among the values of basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits.

4.1.6 Performance Management at TSC, Kenya

The second objective determines the effect of performance management (PM) on employee performance (EP) at TSC, Kenya. This objective tested goal setting, performance execution, giving and receiving coaching, and giving and receiving feedback as the major facets of PM although in each facet, there were other constructs which were tested. Table 7 shows total responses for PM.

Table 7: ***Percentage Responses on PM***

	Giving and receiving Feedback	Giving and receiving Coaching	Setting Goals and Objectives	Performance Execution	PM
Strongly Disagree	(3)1.0	(5)1.7	(3)1.0	(3)1.0	(2) .7
Disagree	(15)5.1	(24)8.1	(33)11.1	(11)3.7	(12)4.1
Neither agree or Disagree	(65)22.0	(100)33.8	(100)33.8	(15)5.1	(86)29.1
Agree	(178)60.1	(134)45.3	(140)47.3	(173)58.4	(178)60.1
Strongly Agree	(35)11.8	(33)11.1	(20) 6.8	(94)31.8	(18) 6.1

***Source*: Field data, 2021**

From Table 7, it is evident that 65(22.0%), 100(33.8%), 100(33.8%) and 15(5.1%) respectively neither agreed nor disagreed with giving and receiving feedback, giving and receiving coaching, setting goals and objectives, and performance execution. These results imply that supervisors were not effectively implementing PM-practices at TSC, Kenya. Meaning they may not be interested, or did not have the skills to implement PM (Armstrong, 2014). Similarly, the combined number of respondents have disagreed and neither agreed nor disagreed with the constructs of PM. This considerable number of employees N=83, N=129, N=136, and N=29 suggest that supervisors evaluated the subordinates once a quarter without an ongoing effort to provide feedback and coaching so that performance could be improved (Aguinis, 2018). Employees' potential thus had not been unlocked to maximize their own

personal and professional potentials. Table 7 further shows that 2(.7%), 12(4.1%), 86(29.1%), 178(60.1%) and 18(6.1%) strongly disagreed, disagreed, neither agreed nor disagreed, agreed, strongly agreed with PM, respectively. This implies that more than half N=178 (60.1%) of the respondents had attributed their performance to PM-practices at TSC, Kenya. Quite a considerable number of respondents N=86(29.1%) felt some ambivalence towards PM and its effect on EP at TSC, Kenya. This suggests that PM is inconsistently and haphazardly applied by supervisors at TSC, Kenya (Bomm & Kaimann, 2022). It was therefore improperly implemented to benefit employees through feedback, the provision of opportunities to achieve, the scope to develop skills, and guidance on career paths (Armstrong &Taylor, 2020).

Table 8: ***Measures of Variability of Responses on PM***

	Giving and receiving Feedback	Giving and receiving Coaching	Setting Goals and Objectives	Performance Execution	PM
Mean	3.77	3.56	3.48	4.16	3.67
Std. deviation	.761	.857	.819	.764	.683
Variance	.579	.735	.671	.584	.466
Skewness	-.854	-.450	-.446	-1.339	-.757
Std. Error of Skewness	.142	.142	.142	.142	.142
Kurtosis	1.359	.258	-.007	3.204	1.272
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.282	.282	.282	.282	.282

Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 8 shows that mean values of all variables ranged from M=3.48 for setting goals and objectives to M=4.16 for performance execution. The average PM at TSC, Kenya at the time the study was conducted is (M=3.67, SD=.683). This implies that there were significant differences among the values of PM. In addition, there were differences among the values of giving and receiving feedback, giving and receiving coaching, setting goals and objectives, and performance execution.

4.1.7 Employee Performance at TSC, Kenya

This variable was tested using the indicators of task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counter-productive work behaviour. In each of the indicators, there were also other measures which were tested. The results are indicated in Table 9.

Table 9: ***Percentage Responses on EP***

	Task Performance	Contextual Performance	Adaptive Performance	Counter-productive Work Performance	EP
Strongly Disagree	(1).3	(3) 1.0	(2) .7	(50) 16.9	(1) .3
Disagree	(5) 1.7	(3) 1.0	(44) 14.9	(107) 36.1	(10) 3.4
Neither agree or disagree	(51) 17.2	(19) 6.0	(169) 57.1	(88) 29.7	(164) 55.4
Agree	(158) 52.7	(166) 56.1	(75) 25.3	(45) 15.2	(118) 39.9
Strongly agree	(83) 28.0	(105) 35.1	(6) 2.0	(6) 2.0	(3) 1.0

Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 9 shows that 51(17.2%), 19(6.0%), 169(57.1%), and 88(29.7%) respondents had neither agreed nor disagreed with task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counter-productive work performance, respectively. This considerable number of respondents could not attribute their performance to the management of individual employees, teams, and organizational performance. The situation implies that PM has not permeated through every function of TSC, Kenya. Respondents 1(.3%), 10(3.4%), 164(55.4%), 118(39.9%) and 3(1.0%) strongly disagreed, disagreed, neither agreed nor disagreed, agreed, and strongly agreed with EP, respectively. This shows that N=164 (55.4%) of the respondents have neither agreed nor agreed with EP, implying more than half of the employees did not understand the essence of job performance as a major factor in the realization of organizational goals and objectives. Meaning the majority cannot attribute their performance to the effect of PM. This apparently affected operational efficiency. Further, since it is evident that rewards and sanctions were not based on levels of performance at TSC,

Kenya, it can therefore be concluded that employees are at liberty to behave as they wanted, or they were placed where their expertise was not fully utilized.

Table 10: ***Measures of Variability of Responses on EP***

	Task Performance	Contextual Performance	Adaptive Performance	Counter-productive Work Performance	EP
Mean	4.06	4.24	3.13	2.49	3.38
Std. deviation	.741	.703	.703	1.008	.587
Variance	.548	.495	.494	1.017	.344
Skewness	-.557	-1.256	.046	.268	-.125
Std. Error of Skewness	.142	.142	.142	.142	.142
Kurtosis	.512	3.844	.213	-.590	.171
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.282	.282	.282	.282	.282

***Source*: Field data, 2021**

Table 10 indicates that mean values of all variables ranged from M=2.49 for counter productive work performance to M=4.06 for task performance. The average TSC, Kenya EP during the study period is (M=3.38, SD=.587), implying significant differences among the values of EP. There were differences among the values of task performance, contextual performance, and adaptive performance whereas there was no difference with the value of counter-productive work performance. This means that TSC, Kenya had been attracting and retaining the right talents. Research shows that individuals with high integrity levels are better decision makers at any level of management (Thagichu, 2023).

4.2 Hypothesis Testing and Operational Models

This sub section presents the testing of various hypotheses as formulated in chapter one. It involves the use of regression analysis. The predictive regression models were developed to estimate outcome variable in cases where there is correlation between predictor and outcome variables. This, make it possible for the reader to know the relative importance between the

various predictor variables. The choice of the relevant model for this study was informed by such factors as data type, number of predictor and outcome variables, and nature of the expected relationships. In this study multivariate and moderated multiple regression analyses were therefore used to produce models for the relationship in various areas. To test the hypotheses, both correlation and regression analyses were used. Correlation analysis was used to identify the strength and direction of the relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variable. On the other hand, regression analysis was used to establish the effect of the predictor variables on the outcome variable.

4.2.1 Correlation Analysis

To measure the degree of relationship among the variables, correlation analysis was carried out and the results are indicated in Table 11. The results as in Table 11 show the association between TRs, PM, interaction between PM and TRs, and EP at TSC, Kenya.

Table 11: ***Association between TRs, PM, Product of TRs and PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya***

		Average EP	Average TRs	Average PM	Centered TRs times PM
Pearson Correlation	Average EP	1	.456	.644	.003
	Average TRs	.456	1	.501	.174
	Average PM	.644	.501	1	.107
	Centered TRs times PM	.003	.174	.107	1
Sig.(2-tailed)	Average EP	.	.000**	.000**	.482
	Average TRs	.000**	.	.000**	.001
	Average PM	.000**	.000**	.	.033
	Centered TRs times PM	.482	.001	.033	.
N	Average EP	296	296	296	296
	AverageTRs	296	296	296	296
	Average PM	296	296	296	296
	Centered TRs times PM	296	296	296	296

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

Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 11 show that PM (r=0.644, p=0.000), TRs (r=0.456, p=0.000) and the product of TRs and PM (r=0.501, p=0.000) have a moderate significant positive association with EP at TSC, Kenya, respectively (Mutai, 2014; Hair et al., 2019). This further means that 64.4%, 45.6%, and 50.1% in EP at TSC, Kenya can be significantly associated with PM, TRs, and the interaction of TRs and PM, respectively, although the existence of association between two or more variables does not necessarily imply any causal relationship (Curwin & Slater, 2013). The findings suggest a possibility of a positive relationship between TRs, PM, product of PM and TRs, and EP at TSC, Kenya.

The respective influences of the constructs of TRs and PM on EP at TSC, Kenya were isolated for further correlation analysis and the results are respectively shown in Tables 12 and 13.

Table 12:*Association between the Constructs of TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya*

		Average EP	Basic Pay	Contingent Pay	Employee Benefits
Average EP	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig.(2-tailed)	296			
	N				
Basic Pay	Pearson Correlation	.385 .000**	1		
	Sig.(2-tailed)	296	296		
	N				
Contingent Pay	Pearson Correlation.	.352 .000**	.419 .000**	1	
	Sig.(2-tailed)	296	296	296	
	N				
Employee Benefits	Pearson Correlation	.467 .000**	.503	.566 .000**	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	296	.000** 296	296	296
	N				

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

Source: **Field data, 2021.**

The constructs that form TRs are basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits. Therefore, the results which indicate the extent to which each construct is related to EP and to what extent the variation in each of them changes with the variation in EP at TSC, Kenya are shown in Table 12. Basic pay (r=0.385, p=0.000), contingent pay (r=0.352, p=0.000), and employee benefits (r=0.467, p=0.000). All had these moderate significant positive association with EP at TSC, Kenya. This means that 38.5%, 35.2%, and 46.7% in EP at TSC, Kenya can be significantly associated with basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits respectively, although the existence of an association between two or more variables does not necessarily imply any causal relationship (Mukras, 2012; Curwin & Slater, 2013). The findings suggest a possibility of a positive relationship between basic pay, contingent pay, employee benefits, and EP at TSC, Kenya.

Table 13: ***Association between the Constructs of PM and EP at TSC, Kenya***

Correlations.

		Setting goals and objectives	Giving and receiving feedback	Giving and receiving coaching	Performance execution	Average EP
Setting goals and objectives	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig.(2tailed)					
	N	296				
Giving and receiving feedback	Pearson Correlation	.721	1			
	Sig.(2tailed)	.000**				
	N	296	296			
Giving and receiving coaching	Pearson Correlation	.551	.710	1		
	Sig.(2tailed)	.000*	.000			
	N	*	**	296		
		296	296			
Performance execution	Pearson Correlation	.554	.578	.409	1	
	Sig.(2tailed)	·000*	.000	.000		
	N	*	**	**	296	
		296	296	296		
Total employee performance	Pearson Correlation	.557	.617	.538	.589	1
	Sig.(2tailed)	.000*	.000	.000	.000**	
	N	*	**	**	296	296
		296	296	296		

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

Source: **Field data, 2021.**

The constructs that form PM are setting goals and objectives, giving and receiving feedback, giving and receiving coaching, and performance execution. The results which indicate the extent to which each construct is related to EP and to what extent the variation in each of them changes with the variation in EP at TSC, Kenya are shown in Table 13. Setting goals and objectives (r=0.557, p=0.000), giving and receiving feedback (r=0.617, p=0.000), giving and receiving coaching (r=0.538, p=0.000), and performance execution (r=0.589, p=0.000), all had moderate significant positive association with EP at TSC, Kenya. This means that 55.7%, 61.7%, 53.8%, and 58.9% in EP at TSC, Kenya can be significantly associated with setting goals and objectives, giving and receiving feedback, giving and receiving coaching, and performance execution respectively, although the existence of association between two or more variables does not necessarily imply any causal relationship (Curwin & Slater, 2013). The findings thus suggest the possibility of a positive relationship between setting goals and objectives, giving and receiving feedback, giving and receiving coaching, and performance execution and EP at TSC, Kenya.

4.2.2 Regression Analysis

4.2.2.1 Hypothesis Testing for Objective One

The first objective establishes the effect of transactional rewards (TRs) on employee performance (EP) at TSC, Kenya. To test this hypothesis, multiple linear regression analysis was carried out and results are indicated in Table 14.

Table 14: ***Regression Coefficients of TRs[a]***

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.374	.114		20.761	.000**		
TRs	.325	.037	.456	8.794	.000**	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Average EP

b. ** Indicates statistical significance at 5% level

Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 14 shows that TRs (B=0.325, p=0.000) is a significant positive predictor of EP. The t-statistic of 8.79 against a p-value of 0.000 suggests that the coefficient of TRs is significant. This implies that for every unit change in TRs, the EP at TSC, Kenya changes by 0.325 EP. This result supports expectancy theory which confirms creation and maintenance of strong links between employee high effort, high performance, and acceptable rewards for quality customer service (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). The null hypothesis that transactional rewards have no significant effect on EP at TSC, Kenya is therefore rejected. The standard error which is a measure of uncertainty about the true value of the regression (TRs) coefficient is 3.7%. The variance of inflation factor for TRs is 1. This is within the threshold of 5 recommended by Frost (2020) shows that multicollinearity is not a matter of concern.

A summary of the regression model on the relationship between TRs and EP is captured in Table 15.

Table 15: ***Summary of the Regression Model on Relationship between TRs and EP***

					Change statistics					
	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	DW-Statistics
TRs	.456	.208	.206	.3975310	.208	77.327	1	294	.000	1.943

a. Predictors: (Constant), Average TRs
b. Dependent Variable: Average EP
Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 15 shows that the value of R=0.456 indicates there is a moderate multiple correlation coefficient between TRs and EP (Mutai, 2014). The variations in EP are explained by variations in TRs by R^2 = .208 implying that TRs accounts for 20.8% of EP variations at TSC, Kenya. The adjusted R^2 = .206 is so close to R^2 (difference of only 0.002) which is much lower than 0.5 threshold suggested by (Naibei et al., 2014) implies that the model is valid and a stable predictor of EP at TSC, Kenya. The standard error of the regression, which

is the estimated standard deviation of the error term for this equation, is 39.8%. ANOVA represented by F-statistics (F=77.32, p=0.000) indicate that the multiple regression equation accurately explain variation in EP given its significant value. This suggests that the estimated model fitted the research data well. The error terms were statistically independent with DW statistic values being at 1.94 for TRs which indicates that there is no serious autocorrelation. The effect is thus significant (p=0.000). It can therefore be concluded that TRs significantly affect EP at TSC, Kenya. The model equation for this relationship is: EP =2.374+ 0.325TRs...……...……. (4.1).

Although the focus of this study objective was the analysis of the effect of TRs on EP at TSC, Kenya, analysis of the effects of the constructs that formed TRs was also done. The findings of this analysis are respectively shown in Table 16.

Table 16: ***Regression Coefficients for the Indicators of TRs***

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.281	.162		14.063	.000**		
Basic pay	.098	.040	.151	2.422	.016**	.749	1.336
Contingent pay	.163	.048	.217	3.380	.001**	.707	1.414
Employee benefits	.095	.050	.120	1.894	.059	.723	1.383

a. Dependent Variable: Average EP
b. ** Indicates statistical significance at 5% level
Source: **Field data, 2021**

Table 16 shows basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits as the constructs that formed TRs. As shown in Table 16, there was a significant positive relationship between contingent pay, basic pay, and EP at TSC, Kenya (B_2=0.163, p=0.001) and (B_1=0.098, p=0.016) respectively. This implies that for every unit change in basic pay and contingent pay, the EP at TSC, Kenya changes by 0.098 and 0.163 units, respectively. However, employee benefits had an insignificant positive influence on EP at TSC, Kenya (B_3=0.095, p=0.059). This implies that although each employee receives benefits, such benefits may not

be attractive to them (Met & Ali, 2014; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017). The contingent pay (β_2=0.217, p=0.001) had the strongest effect on EP at TSC, Kenya. The standard error of basic pay, contingent pay, and employee benefits were .040, .048, and .050, respectively. The variance of inflation factors corresponding to the independent factors ranges between 1.336 and 1.414, which meet the threshold of 5 recommended by Frost (2020) attests that multicollinearity is not an issue. The regression model equation for this relationship is:

EP= 2.281 + 0.098BP + 0.163CP + 0.095EB.....…….…… (4.2).

The finding of the first study objective compares with the findings of several past studies. Chijioke et al. (2015) investigated the effects of rewards in selected commercial banks in Awka metropolis in Nigeria and found a significant relationship between; intrinsic rewards and EP (R^2=0.165), extrinsic rewards and EP (R^2=0.211), and a significant difference on the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on EP (R^2= 0.816). This is because both the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards affect people differently (Almohtaseb et al., 2017). Equally, Ibrar and Khan (2015), investigated the impact of rewards on EP at Malakand private school in Pakistan and found a positive relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and EP. Nonetheless, they did not report the level of the significance of their finding (R^2).

Riasat et al. (2016) investigated the influence of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards on job satisfaction and EP in an oil corporation in India and found a significant relationship between; extrinsic rewards and job satisfaction and EP (B=0.39, B=0.387, p<0.005), intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction and EP (B=0.398, B=0.314, p<0.005). This is because extrinsic and intrinsic rewards play a motivational role in the personality of employees and urge them to produce loyalty and show good performance (Munir et al., 2016). Correspondingly, Ranjan and Mishra (2017) investigated the impact of rewards on EP in Indian Oil Corporation, Patna region India and found that there was a positive relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic

rewards and EP (X^2=129.111, d.f=4, p=9.48). This is because most employees do not base their satisfaction and commitment on the reward received although some studies believe that financial rewards positively influence job satisfaction (Almohtaseb et al., 2017). Similarly, Nyanja et al. (2013) studied the effect of rewards on EP at Kenya Power and Lighting Company Limited in Nakuru, Kenya and reported an insignificant effect of cash bonus on EP (X^2 =0.338, d.f=2, p=0.8). This is because bonuses are distributed at the discretion of employers and can easily be stopped than pay rises (Bomm & Kaimann, 2022).

Chantal et al. (2022) established the relationship between extrinsic rewards and EP in Shyogwe diocese in Rwanda and found a positive relationship between extrinsic rewards and EP ($r = 0.758$, $p = 0.000 < 0.05$). This is because extrinsic rewards represent to employees what their employer thinks of them (Edirisooriyaa, 2014). In the same way, Salah (2016) examined the influence of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards on EP in Jordan and found significant positive relationship between: Extrinsic rewards and EP ($r=.592$, $p<0.01$). Intrinsic rewards and EP ($r=.553$, $p<0.01$). This is due to the fact that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards have the main role of keeping employees motivated and attached with their work (Ajmal et al., 2015).

Pramono (2021) analyzed the influence of intrinsic rewards and extrinsic rewards on performance in Telkom industry in Indonesia and found that: Intrinsic rewards had a positive and significant influence on performance, with a parameter of coefficient value of 0.063 and a significance value of 4.91 greater than the critical limit value of 1.96. Extrinsic rewards has a negative insignificant effect on performance, with a parameter value of -0.063 and a significance value of 0.52 which was smaller than the critical limit of 1.96. This is because many people are motivated to work for different reasons (Almohtaseb et al., 2017). Similarly, Ndungu (2017) determined effects of rewards and recognition on EP at Kenyatta University

in Kenya and found a positive and significant relationship between EP and extrinsic rewards ($r=0.699$, $p<0.01$), and intrinsic rewards ($r=0.704$, $p<0.01$). This is because extrinsic rewards support the direct satisfaction of money needs, while intrinsic rewards acknowledge, motivate, and attach the employees to their work (Ajmal, 2015). On the other hand, Bagobiri and Paul (2021) determined the impacts of monetary and non-monetary incentive strategies among Telkom firms in Nigeria and found that both monetary and non-monetary incentive management strategies had a significant impact on EP ($R^2=0.682$, $p<0.00$). It further show that both monetary ($b=0.740$, $p=0.010$) and non-monetary ($b=0.761$, $p=0.021$) incentives respectively significantly impact EP. This is due to the fact that both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards have the main role of keeping employees motivated and attached with their work (Ajmal et al., 2015).

The findings of the studies reviewed show that total rewards affect EP significantly and positively just like this study objective finding (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021). In the same way, the study of Chantal et al. (2022) found that extrinsic rewards had a significant positive relationship with EP just like this study objective. On the contrary is the finding by Nyanja et al. (2013) which found that cash bonus had an insignificant effect on EP which can be attributed to the way rewards are structured at Kenya Power and Lighting Company Limited. Similarly, the study of Pramono (2021) also found that extrinsic rewards had a negative insignificant effect on EP.

Unlike the finding of this study objective, the studies reviewed investigated the effect of total rewards on EP, whereas this study investigated the effect of TRs on EP, therefore, their findings do not corroborate the finding of this objective (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Nyanja et al. 2013; Riasat et al., 2016; Salah, 2016; Pramono,

2021; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri and Paul, 2021). However, the finding of this study objective corroborate the findings of Nyanja et al. (2013) and Chantal et al. (2022).

Notably, most research has been on the effect of total rewards on EP (Chijioke et al., 2015; Ibrar & Khan, 2015; Riasat et al., 2016; Ranjan & Mishra, 2017; Salah, 2016; Ndungu, 2017; Bagobiri & Paul, 2021). Conversely, the three studies on the effect of extrinsic rewards have conflicting findings (Nyanja et al., 2013; Chantal et al., 2022; Pramono, 2021). Few researchers have taken the effect of TRs as a profound variable on EP into consideration. The effect of TRs on EP was thus still unknown. This study therefore sought to establish the effect of TRs on EP at TSC, Kenya in order to bridge the gap. The result indicates that TRs is a significant positive predictor of EP (R^2=0.208) where, a salary point or scale increases in TRs increases EP by 20.8%. This shows that total rewards are not only the determinant of EP as shown in the past studies but also TRs. The significance of the findings of the first study objective is that at least for the first time, an attempt has been made to inform an understanding of how TRs influence EP. It has thus enhanced the theory of the relationship between TRs and EP. However, the results of this study should be treated with caution due to little previous studies on the effect of TRs on EP.

The residual diagnostics were carried out and the results are captured in Table 17. The residuals of the transformed data when plotted indicate that they are normally distributed with a mean of zero when the histogram is bell shaped (Nikhil et al., 2015).

Table 17: ***Residual Statistics for the Effect TRs on EP***

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.721	4.001	3.358	.204	296
Residual	-1.663	1.029	.000	.397	296
Std. Predicted Value	-3.132	3.157	.000	1.000	296
Std. Residual	-4.184	2.589	.000	.998	296

***Source*: Field data, 2021**

The results in Table 17 indicate that the bell-shape of the histogram was realized because the residuals are distributed around their mean. It is noted that residuals are identically distributed with the mean being at zero and at equal variance. It can therefore be concluded that the model met the assumption of homoscedasticity.

4.2.2.2 Hypothesis Testing for Objective Two

The second objective determines the effect of PM on EP at TSC, Kenya. To test this hypothesis, multiple linear regressions were carried out and results are indicated in Table 18.

Table 18: ***Regression Coefficients of PM[a]***

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.646	.120		13.691	.000		
PM	.457	.032	.644	14.438	.000**	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Average EP
b. **. Indicates statistical significance level at 5% level (2-tailed)
***Source*: Field data, 2021**

Table 18 shows that PM (B=0.457, p=0.000) is a significant positive predictor of EP at TSC, Kenya. The t-statistic of 14.44 against a p-value of 0.000 suggests that the coefficient of PM is significant. This implies that for every unit change in PM, the EP at TSC, Kenya changes by 0.457 EP. The result of this study objective supports goal-setting theory which emphasizes the setting of specific ambitious goals with commensurate incentives between the employee and supervisor for high performance (Bozkurt et al., 2017). The null hypothesis that PM has no significant effect on EP at TSC, Kenya is therefore rejected. The standard error, which is a measure of uncertainty about the true value of the regression (PM) coefficient is 3.2%. The variance of inflation factor for PM is 1. This is within the threshold of 5 which is recommended by Frost (2020) indicating that multicollinearity is not a point of concern.

Summary of the Regression Model on the Relationship between PM and EP is captured in Table 19.

Table 19: ***Summary of the Regression Model on Relationship between PM and EP***

	Change statistics									
	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	DW-Statistics
PM	.644	.415	.413	.3417428	.415	208.458	1	294	.000	1.930

a. Predictors: (Constant), Average PM
b. Dependent Variable: Average EP
Source: Field data, 2021

Table 19 shows that the value R= 0.644 indicates there is a moderate multiple correlation coefficient between PM and EP (Mutai, 2014). The variations in EP are explained by variations in PM as shown by R^2 = 0.415 implying that PM accounts for 41.5% of EP variations at TSC, Kenya. The adjusted R^2 = 0.413 is so close to R^2 (difference of only 0.002) is much lower than 0.5 threshold suggested by (Naibei et al., 2014) implies that the model is valid and a stable predictor of EP at TSC, Kenya. The standard error of the regression, which is the estimated standard deviation of the error term for this equation, is 34.2%. ANOVA represented by F-statistics (F=208.45, p=0.000) indicate that the multiple regression equation accurately explain variation in EP given its significant value. This suggests that the estimated model fitted the research data well. The error terms were statistically independent with DW statistic values being at 1.93 for PM. This indicates that there is no serious autocorrelation. The effect is significant (p=0.000). It can therefore be concluded that PM significantly affected EP at TSC, Kenya. The regression model equation for this relationship is: EP =1.646+ 0.457PM.....……..... (4.3).

Although the focus of this study objective was the analysis of the effect of PM on EP at TSC, Kenya, analysis of the effect of the constructs that formed PM was also done. The findings of this analysis are respectively shown in Table 20.

Table 20: ***Regression Coefficients for the Indicators of PM***

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.385	.171		8.088	.000**		
Performance Execution	.180	.046	.234	3.880	.000**	.624	1.603
Setting Goals and Objectives	.154	.049	.214	3.156	.002**	.493	2.028
Giving and Receiving Coaching	.063	.043	.091	1.463	.145	.583	1.715
Giving and Receiving Feedback	.129	.051	.168	2.532	.012**	.518	1.929

a. Dependent Variable: Average EP
b. **. Indicates statistical significance level at 5% level (2-tailed)
***Source*: Field data, 2021**

Table 20 shows that there was a significant positive relationship between the constructs that formed PM namely -performance execution (B_1=0.180, p=0.000) setting goals and objectives (B_2=0.154, p=0.002) giving and receiving feedback (B_4=0.129, p=0.012) and EP at TSC, Kenya. This implies that for every unit change in performance execution, setting goals and objectives, and giving and receiving feedback, the EP at TSC, Kenya changes by 0.180, 0.154, and 0.129 units, respectively. However, giving and receiving coaching (B_3=0.063, p=0.145) as a construct that also formed PM, has an insignificant positive influence on EP at TSC, Kenya. This means that as at the time of conducting this research, the programme for coaching might have not been initiated at TSC, Kenya. Alternatively, the supervisors may not be implementing PM effectively. Table 20 further indicates that performance execution (β_1=0.234, p=0.000) has the strongest effect on EP at TSC, Kenya. The variance of inflation factors for the independent factors ranges between 1.603 and 2.028, which meet the threshold of 5 recommended by Frost (2020) attests that multicollinearity is not a concern. The

regression model equation for this relationship is: EP = 1.385 + 0.154SGO + 0.180PE + 0.063GRC + 0.129GRF…….. (4.4)

The finding of the second objective of this study compares with the past studies. According to Armstrong (2014), to stimulate EP for the enhancement of organizational performance, is to entrench a culture of high performance among individuals and teams within a framework provided by effective management. Most of the culture of high-performance falls within the ambit of PM (Aguinis, 2018). This study objective finding therefore concurs with the findings of some studies. First, Said et al. (2021) studied the impact of PMS in an airline company in Pakistan and found a positive association between PM and EP (R^2 =.618). This is because the contributions of PM to the organizational goals are clearly explained (Aguinis, 2014). Secondly, Soressa and Zewdie (2021) determined the effect of PM-practices on EP in public institutions in Ethiopia and found that PM had a positive and significant effect on EP (F=5, 195) =34.83, p<.005, adj.R^2=0.4582). This result may be attributed to regular review and discussions with employees and provision of regular constructive feedback (Aguinis, 2018). Thirdly, Awan et al. (2020) explored the effectiveness of PM on EP in the branches of private banks in Pakistan and found that PM has a positive and significant impact on EP (β=.527, p<.01). This is because the performance of employees are regularly evaluated and objective feedback provided (Armstrong and Taylor, 2020). Fourthly, Samwel (2018) assessed the impact of PM in Tanzania and found that PM positively and significantly impact EP (R^2= .249). This is because there is continuous assessment and management of employees' work (Maake et al., 2021).

However, the finding of this study objective does not corroborate the findings of: First, Hanif et al. (2016), studied PM in the public sector of Pakistan, and found that PM has certain strength, and could not function effectively due to political interference, lack of qualification

and standardization, and extraneous factors. They did not however, collect data for analysis to determine the extent of the effect (R^2). Second, Mughal et al. (2014) studied the scope of PM effectiveness in Alfalah Bank in Pakistan and found dissatisfaction with the current PM and that it lacks motivation and proper reward system. They however, did not gather data to determine the level of dissatisfaction with the PMS. The likely reason for this result is that the PMS in this institution may not have been professionally designed and implemented and was perhaps not working as intended (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Third, Owino et al. (2019) explored the influence of PMS on employee productivity in County referral hospitals of Kiambu County in Kenya and found a significant and positive influence of PMS on employee productivity (R^2 =.577). Fourth, Masome and Mangori (2017) studied the impact of PMS in a motor vehicle accident fund in a small African country and found that the knowledge of PM was high and was positively associated with PM effectiveness. This is because the study of Masome and Mangori (2017) dealt with how knowledge of PM affected performance management effectiveness. Fifth, Anitha (2014) determined the impact of employee engagement on EP and found that employee engagement has a positive and significant impact on EP (R^2=0.597).

Notably, this study objective finding does not align with the findings of any study reviewed because they did not use a correlational research design to guide their studies (Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014; Owino et al., 2019; Said et al., 2021; Masome & Mangori, 2017; Soressa & Zewdie, 2021; Awan et al., 2020; Shuriye & Wambua, 2020; Anitha, 2015; Samwel, 2018). Nonetheless, many studies have been on PM effectiveness in organizations (Masome & Mangori, 2017; Hanif et al., 2016; Mughal et al., 2014) and on the effect of PM on employee productivity (Owino et al., 2019). However, the rest studied the effect of PM on EP in Airline Company, public institutions in Jimma town of Ethiopia, branches of private banks of Pakistan, and small organizations in Tanzania (Said et al., 2021; Soressa & Zewdie,

2021; Awan et al., 2020; Samwel, 2018), whereas this study was conducted in a large public organization with a national outlook. The effect of PM on EP in a large public sector organization with the national outlook was thus still unknown. The second objective determined the relationship between PM and EP at TSC, Kenya. The results indicate that PM was a significant positive predictor of EP (R^2=0.457) where, a unit increase in PM-practices resulted in an increase of 45.7% in EP at TSC, Kenya.

The result from this study objective shows that PM is not only effective in private or public sector, industry based, sector based, branch based, and regional based organizations as shown in the past studies, but also on EP in a large public organization with a national outlook. The significance of the finding of this study objective is that it contributes to the understanding of the influence of PM on EP by giving empirical evidence in a large public organization with the national outlook. It therefore enhances the theory of the relationship between PM and EP.

The residual diagnostics were carried out and the results are captured in Table 21. The residuals of the transformed data when plotted indicate that they are normally distributed with a mean of zero when the histogram is bell shaped (Nikhil et al., 2015).

Table 21: ***Residual Statistics for the Effect of PM on EP***

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.183	3.973	3.358	.287	296
Residual	-.996	1.332	.000	.341	296
Std. Predicted Value	-4.088	1.995	.000	1.000	296
Std. Residual	-2.915	3.899	.000	.998	296

Source: **Field data, 2021**

The result in Table 21 indicates that the bell-shape of the histogram was realized because the residuals are distributed around their mean. It is noted that residuals are identically distributed

with the mean being at zero and at equal variance. It can therefore be concluded that the model had met the assumption of homoscedasticity.

4.2.2.3 Testing of Moderation Effect

The third objective establishes the moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya. In this study therefore, a moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP was tested by the single moderator analysis in a moderated regression analysis with the two-stage approach. The two-stage approach excels in terms of parameter recovery and statistical power (Becker et al., 2018). It also explicitly exploits partial least square structural equation-modelling advantage to estimate the scores of the study variables (Hair et al., 2021).

In order to develop the moderation model, the main effects model were therefore departed from, which reflects the linear effects of TRs and PM on EP (Fassott, et al, 2016). This led to Equation (4.5): $EP = \beta_0' + \beta_1'TRs + \beta_2'PM + \varepsilon'$. ……...… (4.5).

Where: β_0' is the intercept, β_1', and β_2' are the slopes of TRs and PM, respectively, while the unexplained variance is explained by ε', the error term, and ' shows that the regression coefficients obtained from Equation (4.5) will differ from those of Equations 4.6 to 4.8 and they represent the main effects. β_1' and β_2' are thus first partial derivatives quantifying the change in EP depending on the change in either TRs or PM if the other is held constant (Fassott et al., 2016).

Equation 4.6 is the multiple linear regression model which shows the joint effect of TRs and PM on EP. With the sample data, 4.6 multiple regression equation that explains whether PM changes the strength and/or direction of the relationship between TRs and EP is estimated. In a moderated multiple regression, the idea of a moderating effect is that the slope of TRs is no longer constant. Instead, it depends linearly on the level of PM, the moderator. The structural

equation of the model depicted in Figure 1 can thus be formulated as follows: $EP = \beta_0 + (\beta_1 + \beta_3 PM)\ TRs + \beta_2 PM + \varepsilon$……. (4.6).

Equation 4.6 can mathematically be rearranged to have either of the following two forms:

$EP = \beta 0 + \beta_1 TRs + \beta_2 PM + \beta_3\ (TRs*PM) + \varepsilon$…..……...…….…. (4.7).

$EP = (\beta 0 + \beta 2\ PM) + (\beta 1 + \beta 3 PM)\ TRs + \varepsilon$……...……...……. (4.8).

Equation (4.8) provides a way of looking at the model: For a fixed level of PM, $(\beta_0 + \beta_2 PM)$ is the intercept, and $(\beta_1 + \beta_3 PM)$ is the slope of TRs (Kenny, 2018). Particularly, β_0 and β_1 represent the intercept and the slope of TRs when PM is at its mean value (Hair et al., 2021). Equations 4.6 to 4.8 show that single effects describe the strength of an effect when both TRs and PM have mean values. If PM is at its mean value, then EP is expressed by TRs in the form of a single regression with the intercept β_0 and the slope β_1. How the intercept and the slope of this single regression change when PM has a value different from zero can be seen from Equation (4.8) (Fassott et al., 2016). Using the two-stage approach, in conjunction with moderated multiple regression analysis, moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya was therefore estimated, and the results are as captured in Table 22.

Table 22:*Regression Results of the Moderating effect of PM on the Relationship between TRs and EP[a]*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	3.358	0.023		145.335	0.000**		
TRs	0.325	0.037	0.456	8.794	0.000**	1.000	1.000
2 (Constant)	3.358	0.019		172.322	0.000**		
TRs	0.127	0.036	0.178	3.529	0.000**	0.749	1.335
PM	0.394	0.036	0.555	10.969	0.000**	0.749	1.335
3 (Constant)	3.383	0.023		148.528	0.000**		
TRs	0.138	0.036	0.193	3.798	0.000**	0.734	1.361
PM	0.395	0.036	0.557	11.073	0.000**	0.749	1.336
TRs *PM	-0.062	0.030	-0.090	-2.041	0.042**	0.969	1.032

a. Dependent Variable: Average EP
b. **. Indicates statistical significance level at 5% level (2-tailed)
***Source:* Field data, 2021**

As shown in Table 22, the linear effect of TRs (B=0.325, p=0.000) on EP was significant and positive before the inclusion of PM in the model. The effect of TRs on EP was thus significantly positive and for a unit change in TRs, the EP changes by 0.325 units. On the other hand, after the inclusion of PM in the model, the effect of TRs (B_1 = 0.127; p= 0.000) and PM (B_2 = 0.394; p= 0.000) on EP were still significant and positive, and t-statistics of 3.52 and 10.96, and p-values of 0.000, respectively. The results represent the change in EP depending on the change in either TRs or PM if the other is held constant (Fassott et al., 2016). This implies that for every unit change in TRs, the EP at TSC, Kenya also changes by 0.127 units. Similarly, any additional unit change in PM changes the EP at TSC, Kenya by 0.394 units. Consequently, as PM changes by a fixed value, the effect of TRs on EP at TSC, Kenya changes by a constant amount. These results confirm the goal setting theory that tying

workers' pay to their performance is ineffective and employers should provide challenging work (Bozkurt et al., 2017). The standard error which is a measure of uncertainty about the true value of the regression (TRs and PM) coefficients is 3.6% respectively. The variance of inflation factor (VIF) for TRs and PM is 1.335 for each and meets the threshold of below 5 which is recommended by Frost (2020) attests that multicollinearity was not a problem.

Comparably, Table 22 indicate that the estimated value of TRs*PM (B_3=- 0.062; p=0.042) was significant. It expresses how the effect of TRs on EP (B_1=0.138; p=0.000) changes when the mean value of PM (B_2=0.395; p=0.000) is increased or decreased by one unit (Hair et al., 2021). This result show that the relationship between TRs and EP differs as a function of PM (Hair & Hult et al., 2022). Meaning, the more the PM-practices, the weaker the relationship between TRs and EP. These results show that if the mean value of PM (0.395) is increased or decreased by one unit, the estimated effect of TRs on EP (0.138) is expected to change by -0.062 units. Jointly, these results suggest that for a unit change for higher levels of PM, the effect of TRs on EP (0.138) is expected to decrease by -0.062 units. On the other hand, for a unit change for lower levels of PM, the effect of TRs on EP (0.138) is expected to increase by -0.062 units. This means that the TRs to EP relationship is not the same for all employees at TSC, Kenya but differs depending on the level of PM- practices (Hair et al., 2021).

These findings imply that the effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya is stronger for employees who experienced lower PM-practices than those on higher PM-practices. This means that the distributed rewards for performance on a task are not commensurate with the level of effort put in and performance achieved by the employee (Indeed Editorial Team [IET], 2023). It can therefore be concluded that, at the TSC, employees could not meaningfully differentiate their remuneration across levels of performance (Bo, 2023). The reason could be linked to a mismatch between PM-practices

and incentive management process at the TSC (Chowdhury et al., 2018). Consequently, long service employees performing the same jobs, end up earning promotion and more pay at the expense of an employee who contribute more than others and ought to be compensated accordingly (Maycock et al., 2015). Such practice would thus not reinforce and strengthen the effect of TRs on EP at TSC, Kenya. Similarly, it hinders the achievement of the principle of equal pay for work of equal value to all employees (Varkkey & Dessler, 2020). On the other hand, it means that PM is about developing employees and rewarding them in the broadest sense (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020).

The inadequate performance at the TSC could therefore be linked to two factors that inhibit performance. These are: the seniority rules which determines pay increases and promotions for workers on lower grades, and strong merit scores meant good advancement prospects for supervisors (Cappelli & Tavis, 2016). Further, research shows that seniority based pay has been used in many organizations for many years but has failed to improve EP (Maycock et al., 2015).

The results of this study objective support goal-setting theory which emphasizes the setting of specific ambitious goals with commensurate incentives between the employee and supervisor for high performance (Bozkurt et al., 2017). Similarly, it also supports expectancy theory which affirms creation and maintenance of strong links between employee high effort, high performance, and acceptable rewards for quality customer service (Dessler & Varkkey, 2020). Similarly, it is also consistent with the theory of Balanced Score Card that is used to analyse cause and effect relationships and a stronger link to the organizations' strategy (Palatkova, 2015). The standard error, which is a measure of uncertainty about the true values of the regression for TRs, PM, and TRs* PM effect estimate is 0.036, 0.036, and 0.030 EP, respectively. The t-statistic of -2.041 against a p-value of 0.042 suggests that the coefficient

of the interaction term is significant. It can therefore be concluded that PM has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya. The null hypothesis that PM has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya is thus rejected. The variance of inflation factors (VIFs) for TRs, PM, and TRs*PM are 1.361, 1.336 and 1.032, respectively meets the threshold of below 5 recommended by Frost (2017) which indicates that multicollinearity is not a cause of concern.

On the contrary, the estimated value (β_3=-0.090; p=0.042) in Table 22 indicates a negative interaction effect between TRs, PM, TRs*PM, and EP (Nieminen, 2022). This suggests that the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP is weakened when TRs*PM is introduced in the model (Hair et al., 2021). Based on Hair and Hult et al. (2022) proposed conventional effect size, the absolute value of (0.090) suggests a moderate interaction effect. However, the negative sign (-) of 0.090 shows that the interaction between TRs and PM leads to a decrease in the relationship between TRs and EP (Hair & Hult et al., 2022). In essence this could mean that the combined effect of TRs and PM on EP is less than what is expected based on their individual effects, (β_1=0.193; p=0.000) and (β_2=0.557; p=0.000) (Nieminen, 2022). Therefore, based on the nature of this interaction effect, researchers should further investigate the moderating effect of PM in the TRs-EP relations to understand how TRs and PM interact to influence EP in a large private organization.

Summary of the Regression Model on the Product of TRs and PM is captured in Table 23.

Table 23: ***Summary of the Regression Model on the Product of TRs and PM[d]***

					Change statistics					
	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	Std. Error	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	DW-Statistics
1	·456[a]	.208	.206	.3975310	.208	77.327	1	294	.000	
2	·662[b]	.439	.435	.3352730	.230	120.326	1	293	.000	
3	·668[c]	.447	.441	.3334770	.008	4.164	1	292	.042	1.947

a. Predictors: (Constant), Centred TRs[a]
b. Predictors: (Constant), Centred TRs, Centred PM[b]
c. Predictors: (Constant), Centred TRs, Centred PM, Centred TRs*PM[c]
d. Dependent Variable: Average EP[d]
Source: **Field data, 2021**

From Table 23, the degree of association between TRs and EP before the introduction of PM is 0.456, which implies that there was a moderate association between TRs and EP (Mutai, 2014). The standard error of the regression is 39.7%. The R^2 of 0.208 explains the variations in EP because of changes in TRs. It shows that 20.8% variations in EP can be explained by TRs. However, when PM was included in the model, the degree of association went up to 0.662 although it still implied a moderate association. The standard error of the regression is 34%. The value of beta in model 1 is 0.208 for the TRs while it has been increased to 0.439 in the introduction of PM between TRs and EP in TSC, Kenya.

The increasing value of beta in Table 23 shows that PM has a significant effect among TRs and EP. The R^2 of 0.439 explains the variations on EP because of changes in TRs. It shows that changes in TRs results into 43.9% variations in EP. Similarly, when the interaction term was introduced in the model, the degree of association again went up to 0.668 and still implying a moderate association. The standard error of the regression is 33.3%. The value of beta in model 2 is 0.439 while it has increased to 0.447 in the introduction of TRs*PM among TRs, PM, and EP in TSC, Kenya.

The increasing value of beta in Table 23 shows that PM has a significant moderating effect in the TRs-EP relationship. The R^2 of 0.447 explains the variations on EP because of changes in TRs. It shows that 44.7% variations in EP can be explained by TRs as moderated by PM. The adjusted R^2 = 0.441 is so close to R^2 (difference of only 0.006) is much lower than 0.5 threshold suggested by (Naibei et al., 2014) implies that the model is valid and stable for prediction. The change in R^2, 0.008 shows that the increase in variation in EP is explained by the addition of the interaction term (TRs*PM). This implies that 0.8% increase in the variation in EP is additionally explained by the addition of the interaction term and therefore, could be attributed to PM effect.

In other words, the interaction between TRs and PM explained an additional 0.8% of the variance in EP over and above the 43.9% explained by the first order effects of TRs and PM alone. The increase is thus statistically significant (p=0.042), and it can be concluded that moderation has occurred, and main effects are also significant (Fassott et al., 2016). This result is supported by Memon et al. (2019) who proposed in their editorial to moderation analysis that research should focus on the significance of the moderating effect. However, Sarstedt and Mooi (2014) suggest that, when interpreting B coefficients, the researchers should keep the effect size in mind. Given that, the significance of a B coefficient only indicates an effect different from zero (Hair et al., 2021), and therefore, does not necessarily mean that the effect is managerially practicable (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Consequently, a distinction was made between the statistical and practical significance of this study objective result as proposed by (Bodner, 2017; Hair et al., 2021). The reason is to provide substantive meaning to the practical understanding of PM in its relationship with TRs and EP (Memon et al., 2019). This approach allowed for the evaluation and communication of the practical effect size of a simple effect using conventional and proposed guidelines, respectively (Bodner, 2017).

The effect size provides an estimate of the magnitude of change (Bodner, 2017; Hair et al., 2021). In this study, standardized effect size was used to determine the effect size. This is because the outcome of the study was measured in units using Likert scales. Further, Likert scales have the established convention that allows the researcher to establish the strength of the effect size (Kenny, 2018). The effect size is often displayed in the form of index (f^2) (Memon et al., 2019). Cohen's f^2 is a measure of effect size used for a multiple regression (Cohen et al., 2003). The f^2, and how much it contributes to R^2 as a function of PM was calculated as proposed by Fassott et al. (2016) in their editorial to moderation analysis. Moreover, the calculation of f^2 was also in line with the recommendation of Hair et al. (2021) in their workbook. Thus, drawing on Hair et al. (2021), the f^2 was calculated with the formula shown in Equation (4.9). The practical magnitude of the moderating effect was therefore assessed by comparing the proportion of variance explained (R^2) of the main effect with the R^2 of the full model (Hair et al., 2022).

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{included} - R^2_{excuded}}{1 - R^2_{included}} \quad \text{.....(4.9).}$$

Where; f^2= effect size of interaction term, $R^2_{included}$ and $R^2_{excluded}$ are the R^2 values of the independent variable when the interaction term of the moderator model is included in or excluded from partial least square path model. Therefore, substituting for Equation (4.9):

$f^2 = 0.447 – 0.439/1 - 0.447 = 0.014$…… (4.10).

Thus, $f^2 = 0.014$..…… (4.11).

There are numerous standardized effect sizes available to represent the simple effects that underlie statistical interactions and none should be considered superior in all research contexts (Bodner, 2017). According to Cohen et al. (2003) the general guidelines for assessing f^2 suggest values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 to represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively. Conversely, Aguinis et al. (2005) have shown that the average

effect size in tests of moderation is only 0.009. On the other hand, Kenny (2018) proposes that 0.005, 0.01, and 0.025, respectively, constitute more realistic standards for small, medium, and large effect sizes of moderation respectively. Against this background, Hair and Hult et al. (2022) recommend that standard cut off values for the f^2 (effect size) do not apply when interpreting the interaction term's effect. Instead f^2 values of 0.005, 0.01, and 0.025 should be considered as evidence for small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively. As can be seen in this study the practical magnitude of this simple effect is 0.014. The foregoing implies that PM contributes a significant medium moderating effect on the TRs-EP relationship at TSC, Kenya. After moderation, ANOVA values, representing the F-statistics (F=4.164, p=0.000) suggest that the estimated model fits the research data well. Durbin-Watson statistics is 1.94, which depicts an absence of autocorrelation.

The finding that the moderating effect of PM that improves the model's good fit is statistically evident, indicates that if employees earned more of what they need and want (TRs) for more and better work (EP), then they are more likely to work with their managers to set expectations and, measure and review results (PM). Eventually, this would determine both quantity and quality output, timeliness of output, presence at work and cooperativeness (EP) by an individual employee. The implication is that the TRs-EP relationship does not operate independently to improve EP but its predictive power is enhanced and stabled by PM. This finding may also imply that the more the payment (TRs) is increased for more and better work (EP), the more the chances of consistently implementing PM and the higher the improvement in EP. The regression model equation for this relationship is:

EP= 3.383 + 0.138TRs + 0.395PM + (-0.062TRs*PM)……..… (4.12).

The finding of the third objective of this study provides evidence that PM has a significant moderating effect on TRs-EP relationship. In this study objective, the moderating effect of PM in the relationship between TRs and EP was examined. Consequently, the analogous moderation empirical studies were reviewed because no similar research had been done in this domain (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). Similarly, the reviewed empirical studies were on the moderating effect of human resource practices (HRPs) and /or the more process driven aspect of PM, performance appraisal (PA) (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). The implication here is that, the studies were not on the moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP in a truly holistic way as compared to this study objective (Brown et al., 2019). Nonetheless, the differences and similarities between the findings of the reviewed studies and the finding of this study objective were examined (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). The finding of this study objective cannot, however, compare totally with the findings of the reviewed studies because they did not establish the moderating effect of PM on the TRs-EP relations in a truly holistic way (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017).

Kumar et al. (2015) considers PM as a predictor variable on organizational performance. Equally, Mohammed et al. (2017) also considers PM as a predictor variable but investigates an element of PM, PA. Boonen (2018) regards PM as a mediator although he also examines it as a moderator among other HRPs on EP. Ismail et al. (2019) also investigates PM as an

independent variable but only the aspect of PM, PA among other HRPs on EP is investigated. The rest of the moderation studies did not investigate PM, TRs, and EP relationship (Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch 2017). The finding of this study objective thus does not corroborate the findings of the reviewed studies (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017).

Despite non-total comparison between this study objective finding and the findings of the studies reviewed, they are comparable to some extent. The findings of the studies as compared to the finding of this study objective are found to be inconsistent (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). For instance: The findings of Boonen (2018) and Ismail et al. (2019) suggest that the efficacy of PM on EP can be negative. Kumar et al. (2015) finds that PA had no significant impact on organizational performance. Ismail et al. (2019) finds the absence of management support as a moderator in the relationship between PA and EP. Mohammed et al. (2017) found that PA and management support enhances EP; Lee (2018) found that public service motivation (.303), self-efficacy (.083), job-related autonomy (.127), and resource abundancy (.017) significantly moderated the effect of PM on motivation. Makhija and Akbar (2019) found that the attractiveness of rewards significantly moderated the relationship between intangible rewards and intrinsic motivation (-0.088), and that tangible rewards did not moderate motivation (-0.041). Reza et al. (2021) found that the interaction effect between psychological empowerment and total rewards factors had a significant and positive effect on the relationship (β=-0.134, p=0.039). Malik et al. (2015) found that creative self-efficacy significantly moderated the relationship between extrinsic rewards and creative performance

(β=0.21, < 0.01), in the same way locus of control also significantly moderated the relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation (β=0.16, p<0.05). Park and Yang (2019) found that performance standards moderated the relationship between pay-for-performance and self-efficacy (F (2, 346) =3.62, p<0.05). Khan and Baloch (2017) found that performance based pay had no moderating role between employee behavior and organization productivity in the insurance firm (R^2=0.292), while performance based pay had partial moderating role between employee behavior and organization productivity in the insurance firm (R^2=0.561).

Similarly, the findings of some reviewed studies signified significant positive relationship between HRM practices and organizational performance or EP, respectively (Kumar et al., 2015; Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Ismail et al., 2019). Namely, the findings of: Mohammed et al. (2017) provided support for all the hypothesized relationships and signified positive effect of compensation, PA, and succession planning on EP, but they did not empirically solidify their study by collecting and analysing relevant data to support their assertion (R^2); Boonen (2018) found a significant positive relationship between use of HRPs including PM and that human resource effectiveness ratings moderated by perceived organizational support (R^2=11.7%); Ismail et al. (2019) found that management support is a moderator in training and development and PA-EP relationship, and in compensation-EP connection (R^2=66%); Kumar et al. (2015) found significant relationship between PM-practices (goal oriented systems, reward systems, employee development, justice perception by individuals, individual competence review, except PA) and perceived organizational performance (profitability R^2=23.7%, employee productivity R^2=36.2%, great place R^2=38.1%, and public image R^2=25%) with no overall R^2 for organizational performance.

Nonetheless, the studies focused on the moderating effect of HRPs on either organizational performance, motivation, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards or EP, whereas few researchers had taken on the moderation effect of PM on TRs-EP relations into consideration (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). This suggests that there are significant differences between the findings of the studies reviewed and the finding of this study objective (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). Similarly, it demonstrates that PM significantly moderates the TRs-EP relationship, and that it may offer solutions to employee inadequate performance. However, the benefits of this study objective finding, must be balanced against building the incentive management process within the PM framework at TSC, Kenya (Armstrong & Taylor, 2020).

Theories indicate that TRs is enhanced by PM, and that TRs directly affect EP, it then gives a proposition that PM is a means through which TRs would affect any other variable. So far the past studies have not focused PM as a moderator in the relationship between TRs and EP (Mohammed et al., 2017; Boonen, 2018; Kumar et al., 2015; Ismail et al., 2019; Lee, 2018; Makhija & Akbar, 2019; Reza et al., 2021; Malik et al., 2015; Park & Yang, 2019; Khan & Baloch, 2017). This shows that little previous work considers PM as a moderating variable in the relationship between TRs and EP. As previously mentioned, it is apparent thus that considerable less empirical research has been conducted on PM as a moderator, especially in the relationship with TRs and EP. Even with that little, their outcomes have inconsistently agreed on their effect. In this study, the researcher has focused PM as a moderator in the TRs-EP relations. Therefore, based on Baron and Kenny (1986) suggestion, this moderation research sought to determine whether the size or sign of the effect of TRs on EP depends in

one way or another on PM (Hayes, 2012). The result of this study objective indicates that PM significantly moderates TRs-EP relation by 0.8%. It further shows that PM makes significant and medium contribution to EP through TRs. The significance of the finding of this study objective is that at least, for the first time, an attempt has been made to inform an understanding of how PM moderates the TRs-EP relationship. It has thus advanced the theory between PM and TRs-EP relationship.

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between TRs, PM, and EP at TSC, Kenya. A review of current literature reveals that the respective findings of the studies on the effect of TRs and PM on EP do not only need empirical verification, but are also are contradicting. The alternative of the relationship between TRs and EP being moderated by PM has since revealed mixed results. The results of this study, however, show that TRs and PM affect EP significantly, while PM moderates the TRs-EP relations significantly. These findings show empirical evidence in a large public sector organization. The significance of the findings of this study is that at least for the first time, an attempt has been made to inform an understanding of the moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP. It can therefore, be concluded that the findings of this study have advanced the theory between TRs, PM, and EP relationship.

The residual diagnostics was carried out and the results are presented in Table 24. The residuals of the transformed data when plotted indicate that they are normally distributed with a mean of zero when the histogram is bell shaped (Nikhil et al., 2015).

Table 24: ***Residual Statistics for the Product of PM and TRs, TRs, and PM[a]***

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.857	3.999	3.358	0.298	296
Residual	-.844	1.182	.000	0.331	296
Std. Predicted Value	-5.033	2.142	.000	1.000	296
Std. Residual	-2.531	3.545	.000	.995	296

Dependent Variable: Average EP

Source: **Field data, 2021**

The results in Table 24 indicate that the bell-shape of the histogram was realized because the residuals are distributed around their mean. It is noted that residuals are identically distributed with mean being at zero and at equal variance. It can therefore be concluded that the model had met the assumption of homoscedasticity.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations as per the study findings. It discusses the conclusions based on the research objectives and hypotheses and analyses conducted in the preceding chapter; implications for policy, theory, and practice; implications for methodology; limitations of the study; recommendations for further research; and the contributions which this study has made to the body of knowledge.

5.1 Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between transactional rewards (TRs), performance management (PM), and employee performance (EP) at Teachers Service Commission (TSC), Kenya. The study was based on three specific objectives. Moreover, each specific objective had its own theme from which the hypothesis was drawn.

The first objective was to establish the effect of TRs on EP at TSC, Kenya. Results indicated significant positive effect between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya. The TRs indicator of contingent pay reported the highest significant positive effect on EP, followed by basic pay, and employee benefits. This implies that of the TRs indicators, contingent pay and basic pay were the most highly regarded in terms of their influence on EP improvement in comparison to employee benefits at TSC, Kenya. The foregoing notwithstanding, the null hypothesis H_{01}: TRs have no significant effect on EP at TSC, Kenya was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis accepted.

The second objective was to determine the effect of PM on EP at TSC, Kenya. Further, results indicated a significant positive effect of PM on EP. The PM indicator of performance execution reported the highest positive and significant effect on EP, followed by setting goals and objectives, giving and receiving feedback, and giving and receiving coaching. This

implies that of the PM indicators, performance execution and setting goals and objectives were the most highly regarded in influence on EP in comparison to giving and receiving feedback, and giving and receiving coaching at TSC, Kenya. Accordingly, the null hypothesis H_{02}: PM has no significant effect on EP at TSC, Kenya was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis accepted.

The third objective was to establish the moderating effect of PM on the relationship between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya. The results indicated positive and significant ΔR^2 for all the regressors, PM and TRs. This implies that PM is a significant positive predictor on the relationship between TRs and EP. Consequently, null hypothesis H_{03}: Performance management has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between transactional rewards on the performance of employees at TSC, Kenya was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis accepted.

5.2 Conclusions

Based on the results of the study and contrary to the past studies which did not include the contribution of PM interaction with TRs on EP, it was established that PM and TRs together affect EP. This was a confirmation to the employers that they needed to be applied together. Therefore it was concluded that: First, according to objective one, the results were significant due to the fact that TRs had been explored and described through all three indicators and their influence on EP contrary to isolated single comparisons seen in the past studies. Secondly, as per the second objective, the results were significant due to the fact that the constructs of PM has been explored and described through all the four indicators and their influence on the EP indicators in contrast to few comparisons seen in the past studies. Thirdly, in reference to the third objective, the relationship between TRs and EP is significantly and positively moderated by PM. PM thus increases our understanding of the TRs-EP relations. In short,

these results further suggest that both TRs and PM positively influence EP at various significant levels.

5.3 Recommendations

In reference to objective one, it is recommended that the implementation and/or enhancement of TRs at TSC, Kenya should be aligned to EP. In regard second objective, it is recommended that managers should enhance the implementation and improvement of PM to improve EP (Aguinis, 2018; Armstrong & Taylor, 2020). Concerning objective three, it is recommended that managers should integrate financial rewards into their PM framework as it plays a significant role in EP enhancement.

Notwithstanding these recommendations to TSC, Kenya, they are equally applicable to the government, academicians, and practitioners. Moreover, these stakeholders would use the findings of this study for theory and practice. This should also entail formulating EP policies that; align employee remuneration to EP, enhances improvement and implementation of PM, and builds incentive management process within the PM framework.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

This study has determined that TRs influence EP in contrast to prior research. Similarly, it has not only established how PM affects EP but also determined how PM moderates the relationship between TRs and EP at TSC, Kenya contrary to the studies reviewed. Based on this, future research should further investigate the nature if this interaction to understand how TRs and PM interact and influence EP in a large private organization.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

The limitations of a research study are the limiting conditions that influence the interpretation of the findings and restrict their applications to other situations, and cannot be eliminated (Mutai, 2014). However, the same conditions affected this study. The respondents responded to a self-developed questionnaire with inherent limitations (Aila & Ombok, 2015; Smith &

Noble, 2014). This could have led to overestimating or underestimating the findings with consequences of hurting construct validity (Aguinis & Jeffrey, 2014). This possible bias was minimized by pre-testing and piloting the research instrument (Bryman, 2016). Secondly, little previous research studies misdirect research, misconceive study gap, and impact interpretation of findings (Moura, 2017). Analogous literatures were therefore used to explore the topic to overcome the bias (Creswell, 2014).

Consequently, the following constructs were identified as potential confounders in this study because of their positive association with EP, TRs, and PM (Vetter & Mascha, 2017). Leadership with empowerment and participation; organizational culture with shared values, and customer orientation as elements; working environment with office space, infrastructure, working tools, interpersonal relationship, and work interaction as attributes; and HRM practices such as recruitment and selection packages, placement practices, and grievance handling procedures (Zulfaqar et al., 2012). They were, however, held constant across treatments among the respondents through elimination by subject restriction to avoid overestimation of the results and hurting internal validity (Babbie, 2021). The researcher thus expected them to be the same among all TSC, Kenya secretariat staff. However, the remaining residual confounders were adjusted in the analyses to solve the research problem (Tolles & Meurer, 2016). Although the sample of this study was limited to TSC, Kenya, the sample would not inhibit the results from being generalized across all organizations in Kenya irrespective of their type, sector, or industry since it may be appropriate to them (Aguinis, 2018).

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Cover Letter

C/o Department of Business Administration,

School of Business and Economics,

Maseno University,

P.O. Private Bag, Maseno.

Date…….

Dear Participant,

I am a student at Maseno University pursuing a PhD course in Human Resource Management. As part of the requirements, I am carrying out the research entitled "Performance Management in the Relationship between Transactional Rewards and Employee Performance at Teachers' Service Commission, Kenya." The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between transactional rewards, performance management and secretariat performance at TSC, Kenya. Your participation in this study is paramount because it is hoped that the study findings will contribute to the understanding of the influence which both transactional rewards and performance management have on employee performance and why organizations should introduce performance management besides transactional rewards to employees.

Kindly assist in this endeavor by sparing 10-15 minutes of your time to answer the questions provided in the enclosed questionnaire. Your identity is not required and will remain anonymous. Thus, the information you will provide will be used for academic purposes only and treated with utmost confidence. However, the findings of the thesis will be published and a copy supplied to TSC and/ or would be accessed through Maseno University open portal for published research. If you have any question regarding the survey, you can contact me on mobile cell phone No: 0721420720 or my supervisors; Dr. Christine Bando and Dr. Mise J. A. through Department of Business Administration, School of Business Economics, Maseno University.

I would be grateful if you could complete the questionnaire and return it immediately upon receipt. Thank you in advance for participating in this study.

Yours sincerely,

Amon Abuor Onyango

PhD/BE/060/2015

Appendix II: Informed Consent Participants of Adult Age

Dear study participant,

My name is Amon Abuor Onyango and I am a student at Maseno University undertaking Doctor of philosophy degree (PhD) in Human Resource Management. I am doing research study entitled Performance Management in the Relationship between Transactional Rewards and Employee Performance at Teachers' Service Commission, Kenya. The purpose of correlational study will be to determine the relationship between transactional rewards, performance management, and secretariat performance at Teachers' Service Commission, Kenya. The objectives of the study are to: establish the effect of transactional rewards on secretariat performance at TSC, Kenya; determine the effect of performance management on secretariat performance at TSC, Kenya; and establish the moderating effect of performance management on secretariat performance at TSC, Kenya. The population for the research is TSC secretariat staff except the commissioners.

Your participation will involve completing the questionnaire approximated to take 10-15 minutes of your time, which will be administered to you by and returned to the researcher in person. For the purposes of this research, the results of your individual assessment remain confidential as only aggregated data from the questionnaire will be used to describe the moderating effect of performance management on the relationship between transactional rewards and employee performance at TSC, Kenya for the population. After the researcher completes the thesis, he will debrief you on the findings. The results of the study may be published but your identity will remain anonymous to any third party. In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you. The benefits which may accrue to you are effective policies that may be instigated by the findings of this research study. You may request for a copy of the results of this thesis which will be available when the study is completed and published. Alternatively, you will have the possibility of access to the general results of this thesis at the end of the study via the research tab of Maseno University on their website that is open to the public, which provides direct links to the published articles. If you have any questions regarding the research study, please either call me at +254721420720 or email at onyangoamonabuor@yahoo.com; or contact me via Department of Business Administration, School of Business and Economics, Maseno University, P. O. Box Private Bag, Maseno, Kenya. For questions about your rights as a study participant, or any concerns, or complaints, kindly contact Secretary, the Maseno University Ethics Review Committee, Private Bag,

Maseno; Telephone numbers: 057-51622, 0722203411, 0721543976, 0733230878 and/or via email at muerc-secretariate@maseno.ac.ke; muerc-secretariate@gmail.com.

Being a participant in this study, the following are for your understanding:

1. If you may decide not to be part of this study or want to withdraw from the study at any time, you can do so with ease at any time.
2. Your identity including but not limited to your; name, place of work, designation and gender will remain anonymous.
3. The researcher, herein referred to as Amon Abuor Onyango, has fully explained the nature of the research study and has answered all your questions and concerns.
4. The researcher will develop a way to code the data to ensure that your and other bio-data are protected.
5. Data collected will be kept in a safe place under key and lock and destroyed after three years.
6. As a study participant, you are allowed to ask any question regarding the conduct of this research and your rights.
7. The results of this study may be published.

"By signing this form, you agree that you understand the nature of the study, the possible risks, and benefits to you as a participant, and how your identity and information provided will be kept anonymous and confidential. When you sign this form, this means that you are of an adult age capable of making independent decisions and that you are not coerced to participate in the study, thus your permission to volunteer or not as a participant in the study that is described here." (Kindly Tick One Below).

() I accept the above terms.

() I do not accept the above terms.

Signature of the participant: ----------

Date: ----------

Signature of the researcher: ----------

Date: ----------

Appendix III: Questionnaires for TSC Secretariat Staff Deployed in the 47 Counties of Kenya.

Introduction

This questionnaire is meant to help collect data for the study on *Performance Management in the Relationship between Transactional Rewards and Employee Performance at Teachers' Service Commission, Kenya*. The purpose of this Correlational study will be to determine the relationship between transactional rewards, performance management, and secretariat performance at Teachers Service Commission, Kenya. Consequently, you have been identified as a potential respondent for which you are kindly requested to spare 10-15 minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire using pen and paper. The information given is absolutely for academic purposes only, and shall be treated with utmost confidentiality. Kindly respond truthfully and accurately to every item in this questionnaire. Remember that there is no wrong or right answer.

Being a participant in this study, the following are for your understanding:

1. If you may decide not to be part of this study or want to withdraw from the study at any time, you can do so with ease at any time.
2. Your identity including but not limited to your; name, place of work, designation and gender will remain anonymous.
3. The researcher, herein referred to as Amon Abuor Onyango, has fully explained the nature of the research study and has answered all your questions and concerns.
4. The researcher will develop a way to code the data to ensure that the information that you will volunteer to this study remain confidential.
5. Data collected will be kept in a safe place under key and lock and destroyed after three years.
6. As a study participant, you are allowed to ask any question regarding the conduct of this research and your rights.
7. The results of this study may be published and your name will not feature anywhere in the report.

"By signing this form, you agree that you understand the nature of the study, the possible risks, and benefits to you as a participant, and how your identity and information provided will be kept anonymous and confidential. When you sign this form, this means that you are of an adult age capable of making independent decisions and that you are not coerced to

participate in the study, thus your permission to volunteer or not as a participant in the study that is described here."

(Kindly Tick One Below).

() I accept the above terms.

() I do not accept the above terms.

Signature of the participant: ----------

Date: ----------

Signature of the researcher: ----------

Date: ----------

Instructions*:* *Please read the statements/questions carefully before giving the responses required. It is important that you respond accurately to every item in this questionnaire.*

(a) This section assesses the respondent's general information: (Please (√) tick appropriately)

1. Please specify your age category.

(a) 19-25 years (c) 33-39 years (e) 47-53 years (g) Above 60 years

(b) 26-32 years (d) 40-46 years (f) 54-60 years

2. Please specify the gender with which you closely identify.

(a) Male (b) Female

3. Specify your highest academic qualification.

(a) CPE/KCPE (b) KCE/KCSE (c) KACE

(d) Bachelor's Degree (e) Master's Degree (f) PhD

4. What is your highest professional qualification?

(a) Diploma (b) Higher Diploma (c) CPS/CPA (d) Professional Degree

(e) Trade/ Technical/Vocational Training (f) Certificate (g) None

5. For how long have you worked at the TSC secretariat?

(a) Less than 5 years (b) 5-10 years (c) 11-15 years

(d) 16-20 years (e) 21-25 years (f) Above 26 years

6. What is your job role at the TSC secretariat?

(a) RD (b) CD (c) RQA& SO (d) CHRO (e) SCD (f) CA

(g) ICT O (h) SCHRO (i) Office Administrator (j) CO (k) Support Staff

(l) Driver (m) Office Administrative Assistant (n) Records Officer

7. Please specify your TSC job scale bracket

(a). 4-6 (b). 7-9 (c). 10-12 (d). 13-15

(b) This section determines performance management (PM) at TSC, Kenya.

Direction: *Please rate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by ticking (√) the right response on a Likert scale as outlined below; Where **1**=Strongly disagree, **2**=Disagree, **3**=Neither agree or disagree, **4**=Agree, and **5**=Strongly agree.*

No	**Statements: Since the introduction of performance management system to the TSC secretariat staff: -**	**Ratings**				
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
PM1	Receiving feedback about my performance motivates me.					
PM2	I feel recognized and valued at work.					
PM3	Work performance evaluation system has helped the supervisors to gain a better understanding of employees' contribution to the Commission.					
PM4	The specific criteria that define job success are clarified and defined more clearly.					
PM5	Employees have a better understanding of their strengths and weaknesses that help them better define future career paths.					
PM6	Job performance evaluations are fair and equitable.					
PM7	The Job training that I receive from my supervisor is effective.					
PM8	I hold formal job performance discussions with my supervisor.					
PM9	Good and poor performers are quickly identified on a timely basis.					
PM10	Managers and subordinates receive useful information about how their job performance is seen by their					

	supervisors.					
PM11	There is career development, coaching, and direction to employees.					
PM12	Individual job performances have been linked to actionable development planning.					
PM13	I feel completely involved in my work.					
PM14	I am completely focused on my job duties whenever at work.					
PM15	I am determined to give my best effort at work each day.					
PM16	My competencies have been improved					
PM17	My accountability has been improved					

(c) This section establishes employee performance (EP) at TSC, Kenya

Direction: *Please rate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by ticking (√) the right response on a Likert scale as outlined below; Where **1**=Strongly disagree, **2**=Disagree, **3**=Neither agree or disagree, **4**=Agree, and **5**=Strongly agree*

No	**Statements: Since the introduction of performance management system to the TSC secretariat staff: -**	**Ratings**				
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
EP1	I do plan and organize my work.					
EP2	My supervisor ensures that my work is completed within the specified quantity and quality.					
EP3	My supervisor allows me to make decisions regarding my job duties without his/her involvement.					
EP4	My job description allows me to utilize my job skills.					
EP5	My workmates are cooperating with ready to help me.					
EP6	My work performance is effectively communicated to me.					
EP7	I get along well with others at work.					

EP8	I am ready to take on extra tasks.					
EP9	Employees are allowed to generate new and innovative ideas.					
EP10	The learning of new tasks and technologies are sponsored.					
EP11	There is flexibility to my complaints on work related performance.					
EP12	My supervisor shouts at me whenever there is an error in my work.					
EP13	I have seen a colleague performing a private work during the working hours.					
EP14	I have worked with a colleague who abuses drugs.					
EP15	I have seen and/or heard about a colleague fighting or arguing with co-workers.					
EP16	I have seen and/ or heard about late submission of data or reports to the respective offices.					

(d) This section establishes transactional rewards (TRs) at TSC, Kenya

Direction: *Please rate how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by ticking (√) the right response on a Likert scale as outlined below; Where **1**= Strongly disagree, **2**= Disagree, **3**= Neither agree or disagree, **4**= Agree, and **5**= Strongly agree.*

No	**Statements: Since the introduction of performance management system to the TSC secretariat staff: -**	**Ratings**				
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
TR1	My salary progression is linked to an assessment of my individual performance.					
TR2	I am paid in accordance with the type and level of obtained skills, knowledge, and experience that I apply in the workplace.					
TR3	My pay increases are linked to the number or depth of skills I have acquired and uses in the workplace)					
TR4	My basic salary has improved.					

TR5	There are adequate allowances for overtime.					
TR6	TSC gives additional pay to employees who surpass targets.					
TR7	The employees' compensation schemes have improved.					
TR8	Social security provided to me is adequate.					
TR9	There are the best early retirement options.					
TR10	Pre-retirement counselling provided to employees is effective.					
TR11	Pension plans provided to employees are the best.					
TR12	Life insurance provided to employees have improved.					
TR13	Medical facilities provided me are effective.					
TR14	Time off for elections, lunch break, funerals, sickness, holidays, and vacations are adequate.					
TR15	Social and recreation facilities for cafeteria and food services, sporting, and service awards are efficient and effective					

Appendix IV

Table 1: R.V. Krejcie and D. W. Morgan (1970) Sample Size Estimation Table

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	354
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	191	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	370
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	226	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	254	2600	335	1000000	384

Appendix V: Budget

S/No	Item	Quantity	Unit Cost (Kshs.)	Total (Kshs.)
1.	**Production of Proposal**			
	-Typesetting and Printing	73 Pages	50 per page	3,650.00
	-Photocopying	73 x 6 copies	3 per page	1,314.00
	-Spiral Binding	6 copies	20 per copy	120.00
	-Flash Disk	1	1,500	1,500.00
	-CD	1	100	100.00
2.	**Internet Search**			
	-Browsing	30 days (about 4 and a half weeks) x 3 hours	120 per hour	10,800.00
	-Printing	200 pages	10 per page	2,000.00
3.	**Transport**			
	-Vehicle hire for pilot study	2 Counties for 2 days	5,000 per trip	10,000.00
	-Fare from Nyamira County to Kisumu for Proposal consultations	10 trips	1,000 return Journey	10,000.00
4.	**Correction of Proposal**			
	Printing	73 pages	40 per page	2920.00
	Photocopying	73 x 4 copies	3 per page	876.00
	Spiral Binding	4 copies	20 per page	80.00
5.	**Submission of Proposal to MUERC**			
	-Printing	73 pages	40 per page	2,920.00
	-Photocopying	73 x 3 copies	3 per page	657.00
	-Spiral Binding	3 copies	20 per copy	120.00
	-Fees	MUERC	5,000	5,000.00
6.	**Final Documents**			
	Browsing for Literature	30 days x 3hrs	120 per hours	10,000.00
	Printing	300 pages	10 per page	3,000.00
7.	**Data Collection**			
	Transport to Counties	15 counties	5,000 per county	75,000.00
8.	**Questionnaire**			
	Photocopy	291 x 7 pages	3 per copy	6,111.00
9.	**Research Permit**	1 from NACOSTI	2,000	2,000.00
10.	**Data Analysis**			
	Consultant	-	10,000	10,000.00
11.	**Visit to Supervisors**			

	Fare from Nyamira to Kisumu	5 trips	1,000 per return journey	5,000.00
12.	**Production of Thesis**			
	-Typesetting	200 pages	50 per page	10,000.00
	-Photocopying	200 pages x 10 books	3 per page	6,000.00
	-Spiral binding	10 books	500 per book	5,000.00
13.	**Binding**			
	-Correction of Thesis	10 books	500 per book	5,000.00
	-Final Binding	10 books	1,200 per book	12,000.00
	Total			**201,168.00**
14.	**Contingencies**	**10% of total**		**20,116.80**
	Grand Total			**221,284.80**

Appendix VI: Regions within Kenya together with their respective counties

1. Nyanza Region;
   i). Nyamira
   ii). Kisumu
   iii). Homa Bay
   iv). Siaya
   v).Kisii
   vi). Migori

2. Coast Region;
   i). Tana River
   ii). Kwale
   iii). Lamu
   iv). Taita/Taveta
   v). Mombasa
   vi). Kilifi

3. Central Region;
   i).Kiambu
   ii). Murang'a
   iii). Nyeri
   iv). Nyandarua
   v). Kirinyaga

4. Western Region;
   i). Kakamega
   ii). Busia
   iii). Vihiga
   iv). Bungoma

5. North Eastern Region;
   i). Mandera
   ii). Isiolo
   iii). Garissa
   iv). Marsabit
   v). Wajir

6. Rift Valley Region;
   i). Narok
   ii). Laikipia
   iii). Baringo
   iv). Nakuru
   v). Kajiado
   vi). Bomet
   v). Nandi
   vi). Kericho
   vii). Trans Nzoia
   viii). Uasin Gishu
   ix). Elgeyo Marakwet
   x). West Pokot
   xi). Samburu
   xii). Turkana

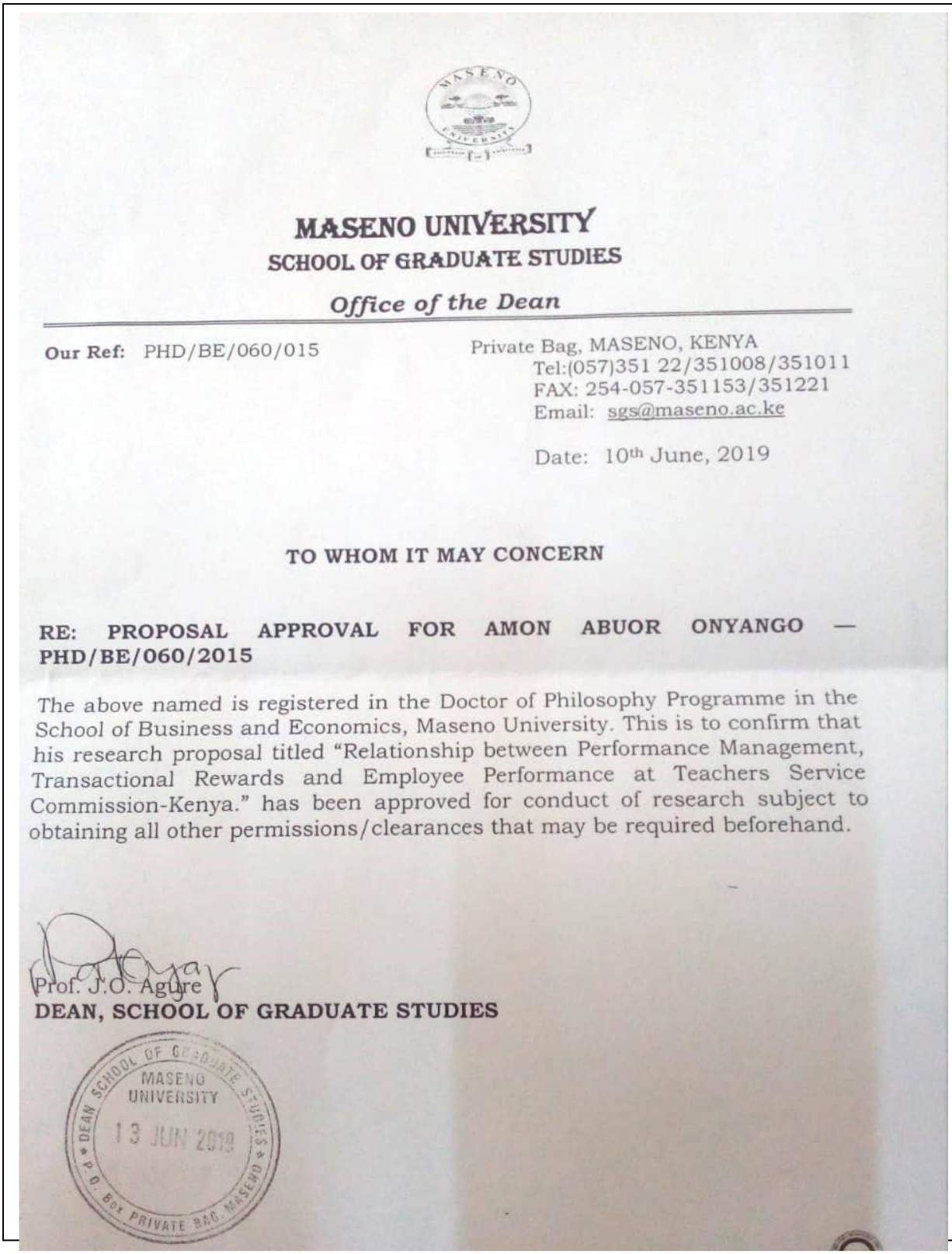
7. Eastern Region;
   i).Tharaka-Nithi
   ii). Machakos
   iii). Meru
   iv). Embu
   v). Makueni
   vi). Kitui

8. Nairobi City Region

Appendix VII: Research Plan

Activity	**2018**	**2019**	**2020**	**2021**
Proposal writing and Defense.				
Data Collection				
Data Analysis and Report Writing				
Defense of the Report				

Appendix VIII: Clearance Letter from SGS



MASENO UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

Office of the Dean

Our Ref: PHD/BE/060/015

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

Date: 10th June, 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: PROPOSAL APPROVAL FOR AMON ABUOR ONYANGO — PHD/BE/060/2015

The above named is registered in the Doctor of Philosophy Programme in the School of Business and Economics, Maseno University. This is to confirm that his research proposal titled "Relationship between Performance Management, Transactional Rewards and Employee Performance at Teachers Service Commission-Kenya." has been approved for conduct of research subject to obtaining all other permissions/clearances that may be required beforehand.

Prof. J.O. Agure
DEAN, SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

MASENO UNIVERSITY
13 JUN 2019
P.O. Box PRIVATE BAG, MASENO

Appendix X: Research License from NACOSTI

MASENO UNIVERSITY ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

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

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

REF: MSU/DRPI/MUERC/00743/19

Date: 7th August, 2020

TO: Amon Abuor Onyango
PG/PHD/BE/00060/2015
Department of Business Administration
School of Business and Economics, Maseno University
P. O. Box, Private Bag, Maseno, Kenya

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Relationship between Performance Management Transactional Rewards and Employee Performance at TSC, Kenya

This is to inform you that **Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC)** has reviewed and approved your above research proposal. Your application approval number is MUERC/00743/19.The approval period is 7th August, 2020 – 6th August, 2021.

This approval is subject to compliance with the following requirements;

i. Only approved documents including (informed consents, study instruments, MTA) will be used.
ii. All changes including (amendments, deviations, and violations) are submitted for review and approval by **Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC).**
iii. Death and life threatening problems and serious adverse events or unexpected adverse events whether related or unrelated to the study must be reported to **Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC)** within 24 hours of notification.
iv. Any changes, anticipated or otherwise that may increase the risks or affected safety or welfare of study participants and others or affect the integrity of the research must be reported to **Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC)** within 24 hours.
v. Clearance for export of biological specimens must be obtained from relevant institutions.
vi. Submission of a request for renewal of approval at least 60 days prior to expiry of the approval period. Attach a comprehensive progress report to support the renewal.
vii. Submission of an executive summary report within 90 days upon completion of the study to **Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC)**.

Prior to commencing your study, you will be expected to obtain a research license from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) https://oris.nacosti.go.ke and also obtain other clearances needed.

Yours sincerely

Prof. Philip Owuor
Chair, MUERC

MASENO UNIVERSITY APPROVED 07 AUG 2020

Appendix IX: MUERC

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: **508942**

Date of Issue: **13/September/2020**

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Mr.. AMON ABUOR ONYANGO of Maseno University, has been licensed to conduct research in Baringo, Bomet, Bungoma, Busia, Elgeyo-Marakwet, Embu, Garissa, Homabay, Isiolo, Kajiado, Kakamega, Kericho, Kiambu, Kilifi, Kirinyaga, Kisii, Kisumu, Kitui, Kwale, Laikipia, Lamu, Machakos, Makueni, Mandera, Marsabit, Meru, Migori, Mombasa, Muranga, Nairobi, Nakuru, Nandi, Narok, Nyamira, Nyandarua, Nyeri, Samburu, Siaya, Taita-Taveta, Tanariver, Tharaka-Nithi, Transnzoia, Turkana, Uasin-Gishu, Vihiga, Wajir, Westpokot on the topic: Relationship between Performance Management, Transnational Rewards and Employee performance at Teacher Service Commission -Kenya for the period ending : 13/September/2021.

License No: **NACOSTI/P/20/6638**

508942

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

HE SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION ACT, 2013

he Grant of Research Licenses is Guided by the Science, Technology and Innovation (Research Licensing) Regulations, 2014

ONDITIONS

1. The License is valid for the proposed research, location and specified period
2. The License any rights thereunder are non-transferable
3. The Licensee shall inform the relevant County Director of Education, County Commissioner and County Governor before commencement of the research
4. Excavation, filming and collection of specimens are subject to further necessary clearence from relevant Government Agencies
5. The License does not give authority to tranfer research materials
6. NACOSTI may monitor and evaluate the licensed research project
7. The Licensee shall submit one hard copy and upload a soft copy of their final report (thesis) within one of completion of the research
8. NACOSTI reserves the right to modify the conditions of the License including cancellation without prior notice

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
off Waiyaki Way, Upper Kabete,
P. O. Box 30623, 00100 Nairobi, KENYA
Land line: 020 4007000, 020 2241349, 020 3310571, 020 8001077
Mobile: 0713 788 787 / 0735 404 245
E-mail: dg@nacosti.go.ke / registry@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke

Appendix XI: Application to Conduct Research

TSC COUNTY DIRECTOR'S OFFICE,
NYAMIRA COUNTY,
P.O. BOX 981 – 40500,
NYAMIRA.
TEL: 0721420720/0731714660
EMAIL: onyangoamonabuor@yahoo.com

28th September, 2020

THE SECRETARY,
TEACHERS SERVICE COMMISSION,
PRIVATE BAG,
NAIROBI.

THRO'
THE TSC COUNTY DIRECTOR,
NYAMIRA COUNTY,
P.O. BOX 981 – 40500,
NYAMIRA.

Dear Madam,

RE: AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON JOB PERFORMANCE OF TSC SECRETARIAT STAFF

I am a TSC Secretariat employee currently deployed in Nyamira County as a County Human Resource Officer. However, I am a PhD student in Human Resource Management at Maseno University. I have developed a research proposal entitled "Performance Management in the Relationship between Transactional Rewards and Employee Performance at Teachers' Service Commission, Kenya."

The Maseno University Ethics Review Committee (MUERC) has reviewed and approved the research proposal through the approval number MUERC /00743/19 vide their letter Ref. No: MSU/DRP/MUERC/00743/19 dated 07/08/2020 a copy of which is attached for your verification. In addition to the foregoing, the National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI) has granted me a license to conduct research through License No: NACOSTI/P/20/6638 vide their letter Ref. No: 508942 dated 13/09/2020 a copy of which is attached for your reference.

This research is intended to be conducted up to August 2021 among all Secretariat Staff deployed in any of the 29 sampled counties in Kenya.

The purpose of this letter therefore, is to humbly request you to grant me an authority to conduct this research since its findings may form the basis of policy improvement on the performance of secretariat.

I commit to adhere to all ethical requirements and policy dictates of the commission and to provide a copy of the final thesis to the commission upon completion of the research.

Thank you in advance.
Yours faithfully,
Amon A. Onyango
TSC/500514

Appendix XIII: Questionnaire Validation Form

QUESTIONNAIRE VALIDATION FORM

Validated By : Felgona A Omollo
Human Resource Consultant

Contact : P O Box 2153 – 40100
Kisumu
+254708984809
FelgonaOmollo2@gmail.com

Validator Questionnaire Assessment Form

Scale	Interpretation	Description
5	Very Highly Valid	The questionnaire is valid and can provide unbiased data, allowing 0-5% error
4	Highly Valid	The questionnaire is valid and can provide unbiased data, allowing 8-10% error
3	Valid	The questionnaire is valid and can provide unbiased data, allowing 11-15% error
2	Less Valid	The questionnaire is valid and can provide unbiased data, allowing 16-20% error
1	Not Valid	The questionnaire is valid and can provide unbiased data, allowing 21-25% error

Section	Section Title	Indicators	Rating				
			5	4	3	2	1
a	Reward	A tricky section , hence the researcher may need to do deeper analysis/interviewing to eliminate bias and subjectivity in order to gather factual data for the intended purpose			√		
b	Performance Management	This section of the questionnaire has the ability to gather factual data for the intended purpose		√			
c	Employee Performance	This section of the questionnaire has the ability to gather factual data for the intended purpose		√			

Overall Rating = 4: Highly Valid

Summary

In assessing the validity, the following validity types were applied:

Construct Validation:

The construct was observed to determine that the content of the questionnaire is addressing the topic overall and that it is fully representative in order to ensure that the desired measurement will be actually achieved.

Predictive Validation:

For detection of whether the respondents' answers can predict certain aspects of behaviours, particularly on the individual sections of reward and employee performance.

The questionnaire was found to be valid and suitable for data collection, subject to considering and auctioning the recommendation below.

Recommendation

There is need to re-look the flow of the questionnaire in order to gain full attention of the respondent and achieve the desired outcome as outlined in the table below.

No.	Section	Remarks
1	Section B – The organization (PM System)	The flow of the story should be sequential, hence start with this section indicating first and foremost that the organization has a PM system in place to guide the respondents mind towards giving a true reflection of their view of the system and its effects on their individual performance
2	Section C – The employee	It then focuses to the individual and the job in relation to the impact/effect the PM system has on them with regard to the environment, performance and delivery on their roles
3	Section A – Reward	The focus here is on the reward of the work and career in relation to PM. By this time, the attention of the employee is fully focused on the questionnaire in order not to be emotional/personal when rating of this section. Reward is usually a tricky area hence it is necessary to garner the respondents' full attention through the flow/sequence of the questionnaire to attract effective feedback in this section,

Signed:..... Date: 06 November 2020

Appendix XIV: Authority to Conduct Research

TEACHERS SERVICE COMMISSION

Tel : 2892000/0722-208-552
Email : info@tsc.go.ke
Web: www.tsc.go.ke

TSC HOUSE
KILIMANJARO ROAD
UPPER HILL
PRIVATE BAG- 00100
NAIROBI, KENYA

When replying please quote
Ref. Nº: TSC/R. A/VOL.03/52/64

27th October, 2020

AMON ABUOR ONYANGO
TSC NYAMIRA COUNTY OFFICE
P O BOX 981-40500
NAIROBI.

<onyangoamonabuor@yahoo.com>

RE: REQUEST TO COLLECT DATA

Your request to collect data to inform your research on: **"Relationship between Performance Management, Transactional Rewards and Employee Performance at Teachers Service Commission, Kenya"** has been granted.

You are advised to proceed to TSC County Directors – Homa Bay, Kericho. Kisumu, Bomet, Makueni, Kakamega, Vihiga, Kisii, Busia, Mombasa, and Nairobi for assistance.

On completion of the exercise, you are expected to submit **one hard copy and a soft copy** in **pdf** of the research report to our office.

FATUMA M. ABDI
FOR: SECRETARY
TEACHERS SERVICE COMMISSION

Copy to: TSC COUNTY DIRECTOR- **HOMABAY, KERICHO. KISUMU, BOMET, KITUI, KAKAMEGA, VIHIGA, KISII, BUSIA, MOMBASA AND KIAMBU**

Appendix XIV (a): Case Processing Summary for Transactional Rewards

Case Processing Summary

	Transactional Rewards	Cases			
		Valid		Missing	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
Total Employee Performance	1	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	1	3	100.0%	0	0.0%
	1	3	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	3	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	5	100.0%	0	0.0%
	Disagree	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	7	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	3	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	4	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	8	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	10	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	5	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	12	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	10	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	11	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	14	100.0%	0	0.0%
	Neither agree or Disagree	9	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%

Case Processing Summary

	Total Rewards	Cases			
		Valid		Missing	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
Total Employee Performance	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	18	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	11	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	9	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	16	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	11	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	21	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	7	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	11	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	5	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	8	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	4	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	Agree	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	3	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	3	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	Strongly Agree	1	100.0%	0	0.0%

Appendix XIV (b): Case Processing Summary for Performance Management

Case Processing Summary

	Total Performance Management	Cases			
		Valid		Missing	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
Total Employee Performance	1	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	1	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	2	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	5	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	7	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	4	100.0%	0	0.0%
	Neither agree or Disagree	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	4	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	5	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	4	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	4	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	3	100.0%	0	0.0%
	3	10	100.0%	0	0.0%

Case Processing Summary

	Total Performance Management	Cases			
		Valid		Missing	
		N	Percent	N	Percent
Total Employee Performance	3	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	8	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	9	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	12	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	14	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	13	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	13	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	19	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	13	100.0%	0	0.0%
	Agree	14	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	10	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	8	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	9	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	6	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	9	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	11	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	7	100.0%	0	0.0%
	4	5	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	7	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	4	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	4	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	1	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	2	100.0%	0	0.0%
	5	2	100.0%	0	0.0%