

**HOW DO LOCAL GOVERNMENTS MANAGE THEIR
PERFORMANCE? THE EFFECT OF PSM, ORGANIZATIONAL,
AND ENVIRONMENTAL DETERMINANTS ON EFFECTIVE
PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN GHANA: THE CASE OF
LOCAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES IN THE GREATER
ACCRA REGION**

Juliana Abagsonema Abane

**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (Development Administration)
School of Public Administration
National Institute of Development Administration
2017**

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation	HOW DO LOCAL GOVERNMENTS MANAGE THEIR PERFORMANCE? THE EFFECT OF PSM, ORGANIZATIONAL, AND ENVIRONMENTAL DETERMINANTS ON EFFECTIVE PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT IN GHANA: THE CASE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES IN THE GREATER ACCRA REGION
Author	Juliana Abagsonema Abane
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Managing people for development is not an easy task and at the same time finding a management tool to effectively unleash the potential of employees to contribute to development through a local government system may appear a difficult exercise. In the management literature, reference is made to several tools developed, especially in private sector, to make organisations monitor and use performance information to measure employees' performance. However, the managerial principles that govern the public sector make it highly challenging to introduce management control systems which to a very large extent are carved out of the principles of private sector management. One significant observation of this challenge is that the ethos of the public sector is uniquely different from the private because there is goal-ambiguity in the former while the latter is a straightforward one, namely- profit maximisation. Despite the difficulty embedded in public sector management, there have been renewed efforts to introduce the principles of performance by results through performance management systems. Although this a doubtful step, largely because the rational bureaucratic system has been the main feature of public management since the introduction of new public management in the early part of the 1990s, many developing countries have experimented with performance measurement and management to ensure public managers deliver quality services and are accountable for their performance.

Performance by results or goals is not new because, from the work of Drucker (1954), which centres on management by objectives, organisations are supposed to align individual and organisational goals to achieve the overall mission of the organisation. In the same vein, Beer and Ruh (1976) use of the term 'Performance Management' which influenced the scholarly literature on performance management. However, one clear limitation of the extant literature on PM is that most scholars try to find a set of factors that explain its effectiveness by using rational theoretical frameworks with few attempts to include in this discussion, non-rational frameworks like national culture, organisational subcultures and public service motivation (PSM). This study comes handy to fill this gap by examining these set of variables along with other determinants of the organisation and the environment that may potentially explain the effectiveness of PM reforms in the Ghanaian context by focussing on the local level of management. Hence, this study developed a model that explains the relationship between three organisational and two environmental determinants, as well as the effect of PSM on the

four dimensions of effective performance management.

Using 441 local government service employees in the Greater Accra Region and a sample of 10 top management servants from three organisations: the Public Services Commission, the Office of the Local Government Service, and the Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council, the hypotheses were tested using multiple regression techniques. The various constructs of the variables were validated using exploratory factor analysis and to check the internal consistency of the individual scales, the alpha Cronbach reliability test was used. All the measurements used for the final analysis were suitable because during the factor analysis, some measures that had low correlation matrices were removed and those that met the cut-points were further screened for the multiple regression analysis.

The findings indicate that national culture and organisational subcultures have an effect on EPM. The results showed that, although national culture has implications for PM reforms in Ghana, the presence of organisational subcultures like religiosity and dishonest practices have the potential to impede the gains on PM institutionalisation in the country. The most important national culture traits in the context of Ghana that affect EPM are collectivism and male-dominance.

Furthermore, the findings of the study suggest that organisational determinants such as the development of result-oriented performance measures, the use of performance information as well as clear and measurable goals were significantly and positively related to total effective performance management. Also, with each of the four dimensions of effective performance management, only 'clear and measurable goals' had a negative and insignificant relationship with a performance review. Additionally, the findings indicate that the PSM construct has a positive and significant effect on EPM while two ('commitment to the public interest' and 'civic duty') of the five dimensions of the PSM construct had significant and positive impact on two dimensions of effective performance management, strategic planning and performance monitoring and evaluation. While 'attraction to policymaking' had a positive and significant effect on performance review and performance monitoring and evaluation. Likewise, compassion had a positive and significant effect on performance review. Whereas, 'self-sacrifice' had a positive relationship with all the four dimensions of EPM, but with no significant effect. However, the findings suggest that the environmental determinants, thus stakeholder participation and political support were least predictors of EPM, with 'stakeholder participation' having a positive relationship yet no significant effect EPM, whereas political support had a positive and significant effect on EPM. Nonetheless, the findings on the four dimensions of EPM, indicate that 'stakeholder participation' had a significant and positive effect on all four, while political support had a positive and significant effect on only three, except performance monitoring and evaluation. The implication is that the environmental determinants may not contribute to effective performance management, however, involving stakeholders and gaining the support of elected officials in some activities of the PM cycle, like strategic planning, performance monitoring, review and improvement, may in the long-run support performance-based reforms at the local government level. Finally, the use of goal-setting, structural contingency and public service motivation theories are useful in explaining the process by which effective performance management is achieved. By concentrating on these three theories, a more complex view of PM and how organisations can use this multidimensional view of EPM to increase the outcomes of

government programmes and projects at the local level have been offered.



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As early as 1985 you said to me “ N’bo ti hu lelike lawyer” literally- “ I want you to become a lawyer someday”. Daddy, I am pleased to inform you that I have not given up on becoming one. However, I have made it to the highest academic fleet by your kind words. This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my late father, Mr Abane Ayinlena

‘Every good and perfect gift is from above, coming down from the Father of the heavenly lights, who does not change like shifting shadows’ ‘James 1:17’

In everything give thanks to God and place your trust in God because he is the only entity who gives unconditionally. This is how far God has been with me through this journey, clearing every hurdle for me to soar like an eagle. The above verse signifies the true gift I have continuously received from God to pursue my dreams, despite the odds and the underprivileged position I found myself in. Even though my story is not unique of the enduring power of God, but it reaffirms my belief that there is nothing God cannot do because it is by His grace that we are saved.

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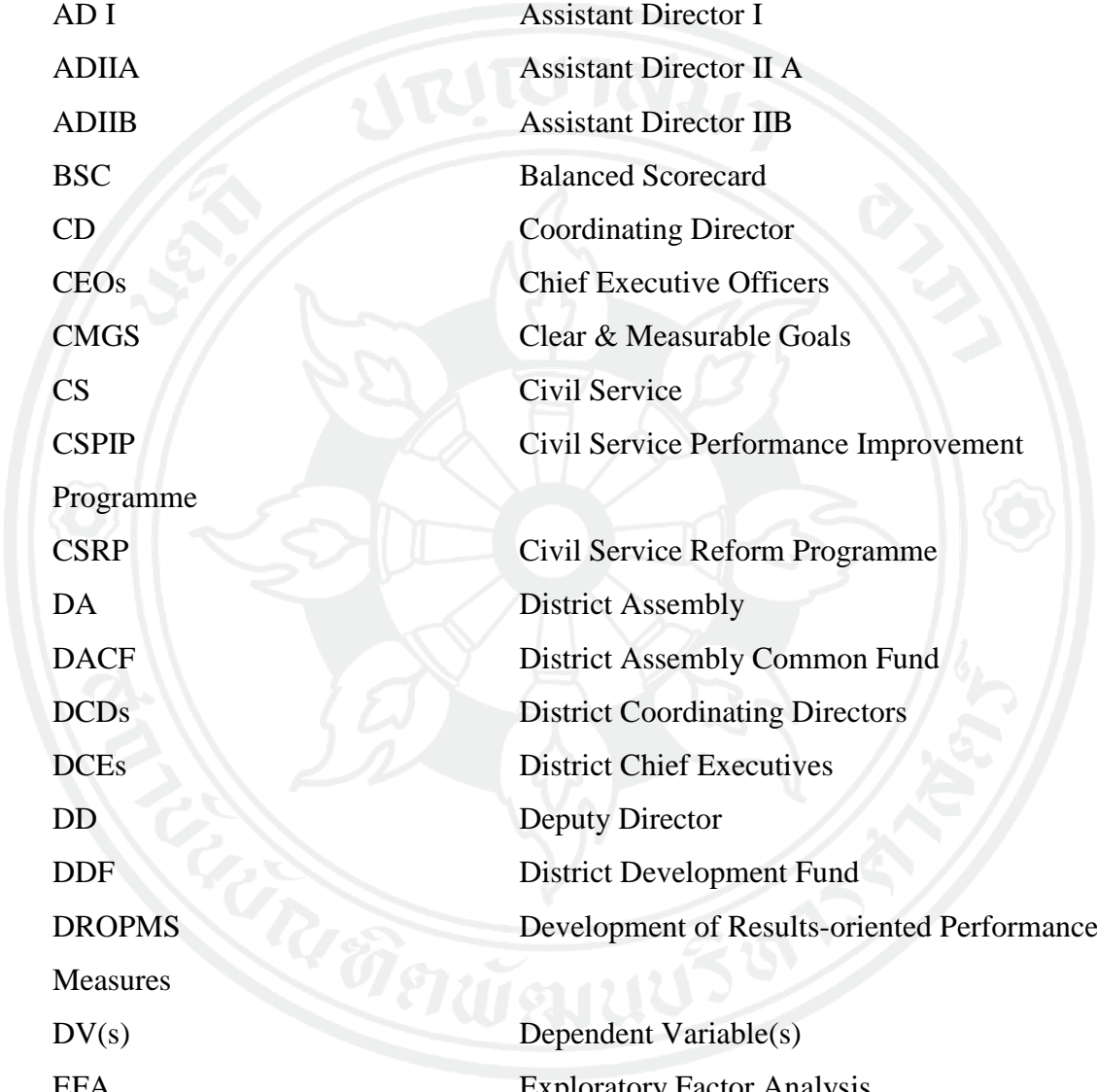
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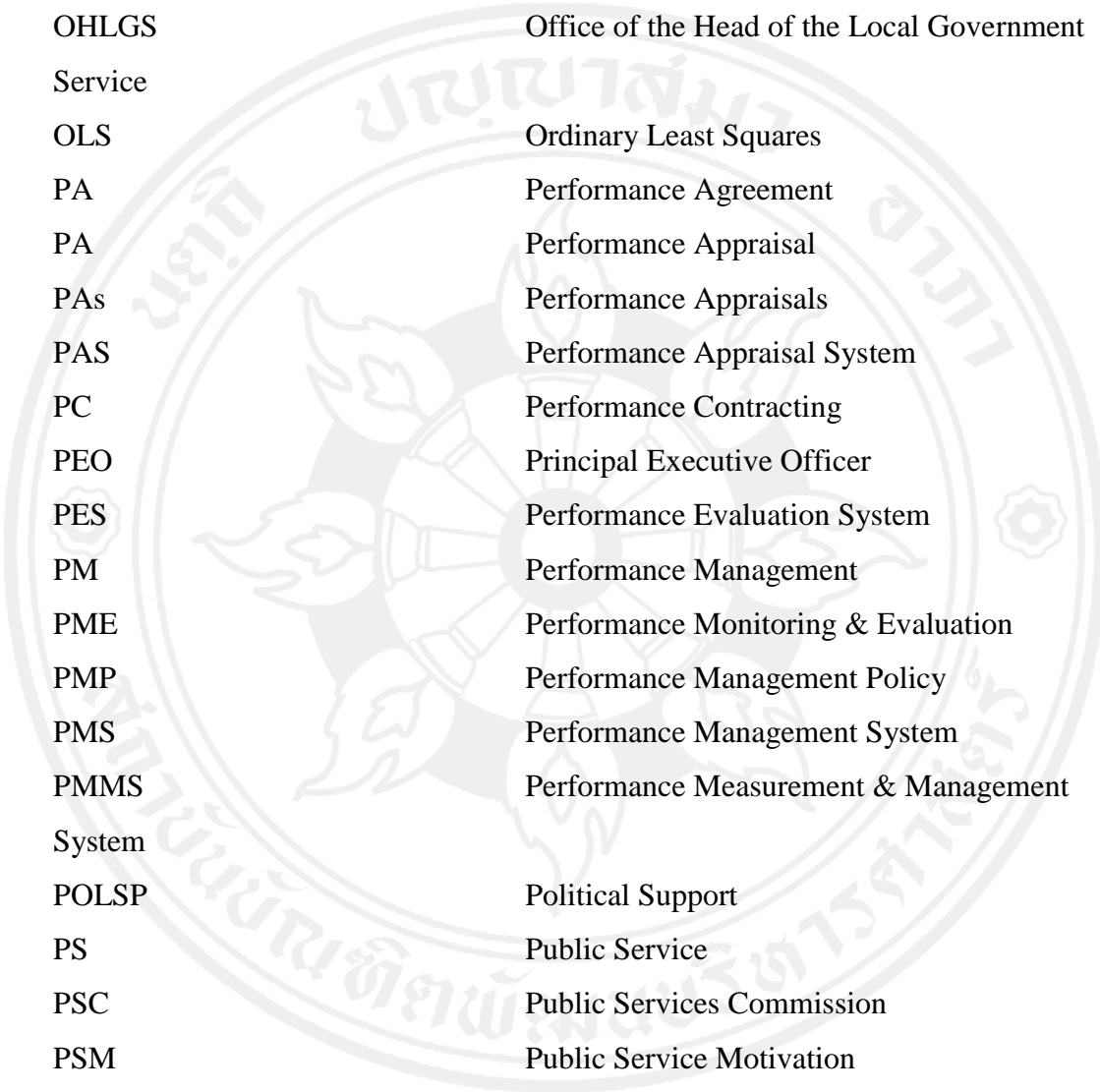
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS



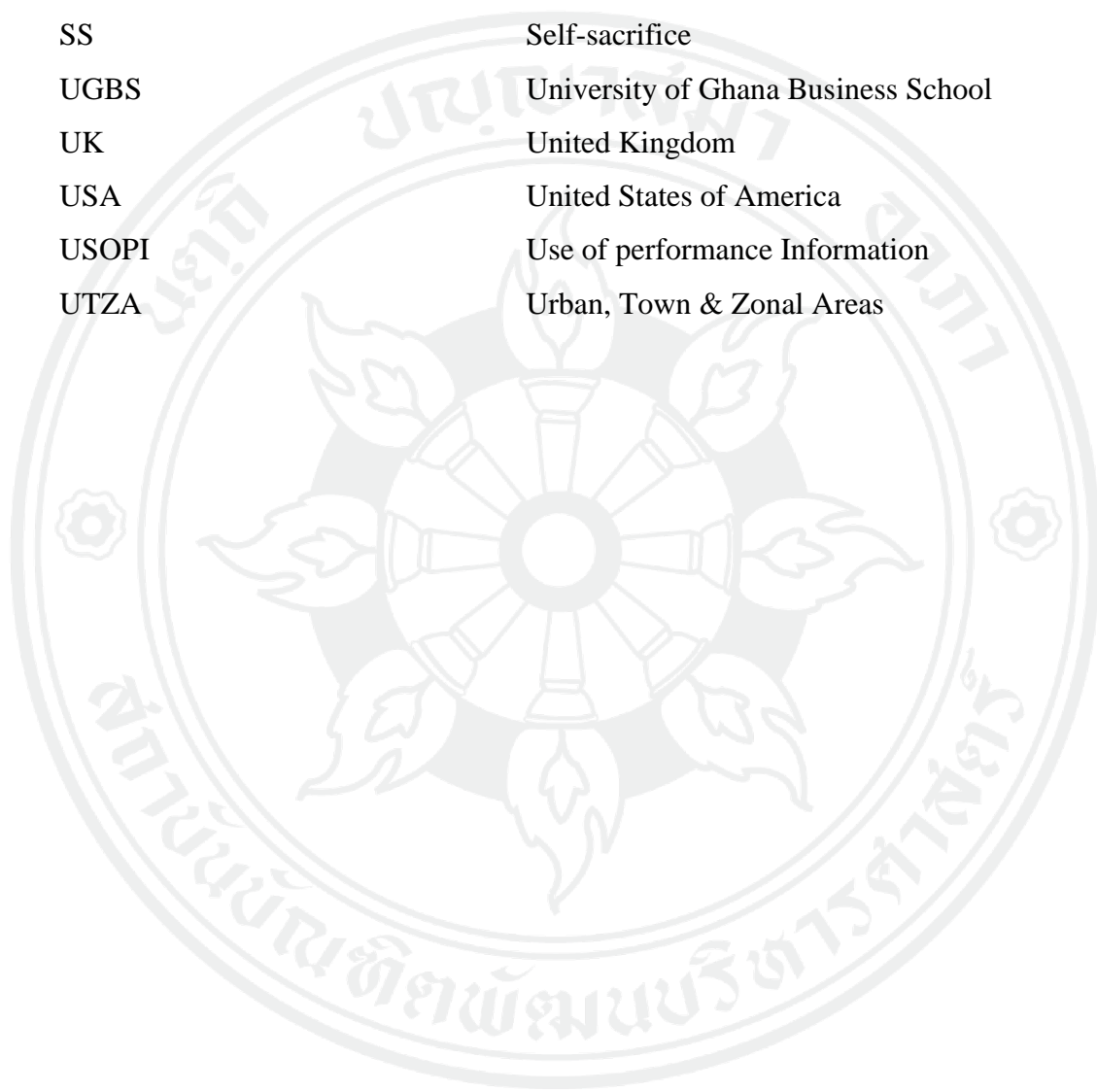
ACRS	Annual Confidential Reporting System
AD I	Assistant Director I
ADIIA	Assistant Director II A
ADIIB	Assistant Director IIB
BSC	Balanced Scorecard
CD	Coordinating Director
CEOs	Chief Executive Officers
CMGS	Clear & Measurable Goals
CS	Civil Service
CSPIP	Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme
CSR	Civil Service Reform Programme
DA	District Assembly
DACF	District Assembly Common Fund
DCDs	District Coordinating Directors
DCEs	District Chief Executives
DD	Deputy Director
DDF	District Development Fund
DROPMS	Development of Results-oriented Performance Measures
DV(s)	Dependent Variable(s)
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EPM	Effective Performance Management
ERP	Economic Recovery Programme
EU	European Union
FOAT	Functional Organisational Assessment Team
GAO	General Accounting Office
GPRA	Government Performance and Results Act

GARCC	Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council
GIMPA	Ghana Institute of Management & Public Administration
GoG	Government of Ghana
GST	Goal-Setting Theory
HoS	Head of Service
HR	Human Resource
HRM	Human Resource Management
IGF	Internally Generated Fund
ILGs	Institute of Local Government Studies
IRB	Institutional Review Board
IVs	Independent Variables
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer Olkin
KNUST	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology
KPAs	Key Performance Areas
KPIs	Key Performance Indicators
LED	Local economic Development
L.I.	Legislative Instrument
LGS	Local Government Service
MBO	Management By Objectives
MCDs	Municipal Coordinating Directors
MD	Mahalanobis Distance
MDAs	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MMAs	Metropolitan, Municipal Assemblies
MMDAs	Metropolitan, Municipal & District Assemblies
MHD	Medium Human Development
MNCs	Multinational Corporations
MMR	Mixed Method Research
MSD	Management Services Division
MTSD	Management and Technical Services Division
NPA	New Public Administration



NPM	New Public Management
OCB	Organisation Citizen Behaviour
OCED	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and
Development	
OHCS	Office of the Head of Civil Service
OHLGS	Office of the Head of the Local Government
Service	
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
PA	Performance Agreement
PA	Performance Appraisal
PAs	Performance Appraisals
PAS	Performance Appraisal System
PC	Performance Contracting
PEO	Principal Executive Officer
PES	Performance Evaluation System
PM	Performance Management
PME	Performance Monitoring & Evaluation
PMP	Performance Management Policy
PMS	Performance Management System
PMMS	Performance Measurement & Management
System	
POLSP	Political Support
PS	Public Service
PSC	Public Services Commission
PSM	Public Service Motivation
PSMT	Public Service Motivation Theory
QUAL	Qualitative
QUAN	Quantitative
RCC	Regional Coordinating Councils
RCDs	Regional Coordinating Directors
RM	Regional Ministers
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme

SCT	Structural Contingency Theory
SDS	Service Delivery Standards
SEO	Senior Executive Officer
SOEs	State-Owned Enterprises
STAKHOP	Stakeholder Participation
SS	Self-sacrifice
UGBS	University of Ghana Business School
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
USOPI	Use of performance Information
UTZA	Urban, Town & Zonal Areas



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

At both the global level and the levels of developing countries, evidence on PM shows mixed results (Bouckaert and Halligan, 2008; Ter Bogt, 2008). At the same time, research indicates that most countries have achieved organisational effectiveness and high performance through performance management strategies (Baird, Schoch, & Chen, 2012; Bouckaert, and Halligan, 2008; Buchelt, 2015; Christensen, Lægreid, & Stigen, 2006; Jantz, Christensen, & Lægreid, 2015; Nurkholis, Sani Mohamad, & Ismail, 2014; Yadav & Dabhade, 2013). However, poor outcomes on PM reforms implementation in government organisations have also been noted (Karuhanga, 2010; Lutwama, Roos, & Dolamo, 2013; Rhodes, Ricardo, Melo, Ohemeng, Andrea & Sutiyo, 2012; Simpson & Buabeng, 2013; De Waal & Counet, 2009).

According to Latham, Borgogni, & Petitta, (2008), most performance management systems (PMS) are characterised by vague goals and are difficult to understand. They argue that legislators sometimes leave policy goal ambiguous so that public managers will share in the blame should those goals fail to achieve their intended purpose. Moreover, it is difficult to conceptualise goals in the public sector because some policy goals may have different interest groups and expectations, where legislators are unable to translate policy alternatives into smart and achievable goals (Latham et al., 2008; Moynihan, 2005).

The difficulties encountered by PM policies are not only limited to the global and developing country levels, Ghana as a Medium Human Development (MHD) country has made attempts to implement PM reforms in the public sector for the last three decades. Yet, evidence shows mixed outcomes since the 1970s (Public Services Commission, 2012). Some of the PM reforms that were introduced during the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) and the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) era such as the Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP), Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme (CSPIP) had little effect on public managers'

performance. The goals of these programmes failed to achieve the desired impact due to the poor performance culture in public organisations (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003; Ohemeng & Anebo, 2012). One of the reasons for the failure of these two programmes during the first phase was that the administrative structure of the civil service in the country was weak and could not contain the demands of the reforms (Ohemeng & Anebo, 2012).

To correct this gap, the government of Ghana introduced the Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP), nonetheless, the CSRP results fell below reasonable expectations (Ohemeng, 2011). Another PM programme to address the low-performance levels was the Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme (CSPIP) with the aim of improving service delivery, it was a performance culture and results-driven programme towards attaining value for money through accountability, transparency, customer satisfaction and the judicious use of public resources. The whole package proved unsuccessful (Ohemeng, 2011). The CSPIP had among other features, development and signing of performance agreements and contracts between the government and senior managers such as chief directors of various ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) (Ohemeng, 2011).

Even though it was a major attempt to implement PM reform, the CSPIP reform initiative failed to deliver on its objectives and the implementation outcomes were far below reasonable expectations of the civil service and public service delivery in general (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003). According to Adei and Boachie-Danquah (2003) and Ohemeng (2011), the CSPIP was not able to bring a performance culture into public organisations to any acceptable levels due to the inability of the old bureaucratic system to yield to change. A good number of factors have been reported to be associated with the failure of the CSPIP. Some of the reasons were given as, the weak design and implementation of the reform processes (Aforo and Antwi, 2012), the unrealistic assumption of the performance contracts, of developing brochures on work ethics and service delivery standards (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003). These factors in part failed to have an impact on the attitudes and the entrenched culture in the old bureaucratic order (Ohemeng, 2011). Similarly, Ohemeng (2009) notes that factors such as institutional fragmentation, lack of incentives, lack of political will and

commitment to the programme and the lack of citizens knowledge of and participation in the programme affected the success of the programme.

As a result, another PM reform initiative was introduced in 2007 to improve public organisations performance. The political will to implement this new initiative ended in a deadlock, and in 2009, the government exited without implementing the policy. Although, it was a brave attempt to legitimise a performance culture in public-sector organisations, the political support from Kuffour's administration was absent. Among other things, the policy sought to reform the human resource management policies and professionalise public sector organisations to strengthen their capacity to formulate and implement human resource policies. Under the flagship policy, organisations were to be resourced to be able to capture accurate information for recruitment, training and perform managerial functions effectively (Ohemeng, 2011). Subsequently, the PSC successfully implemented a new PM policy in 2012 with the aim of improving performance in the country. One significant improvement in this new policy is that it considers the participation of employees' in the implementation stage by involving them in the development of key performance areas (KPAs) and key performance indicators (KPIs). Despite the many attempts to institutionalise a PM policy in public organisations in Ghana, there is little empirical evidence to assess the role public service motivation (PSM) plays in the context of Ghana and this could have an impact on performance results.

From the literature, PM is an effective tool for improving the performance of public-sector organisations (Abane & Phinaitrup, 2017a) and at the same time, a mechanism where citizens could receive better quality service delivery by public managers. Yet for a PM reform to be effective, the goal-setting theory advocates for clear and measurable goals, for the development of result-oriented performance measures and the use of performance information for managerial decision-making. Meanwhile, these determinants from the organisational perspective require strong stakeholder participation and the support of political actors both from the internal and external environment of the organisation.

Though an effective PM can be driven by both organisational and environmental determinants, individual-level influence may reinforce positive outcomes on PM reforms either directly or indirectly (Kroll, 2015). As a result, the

study investigated the contributions of 'public service motivation' (PSM) and its impact on effective PM (EPM). It is also important to state that the variables used in the study were measured at the individual level of analysis. Therefore, the purpose was to observe middle managers' behaviour towards effective PM. The adoption of organisational level measurements to the individual level measurement is not unique to this study because studies such as (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2012a; Yang & Hsieh, 2007) have relied on organisational level variables to measure employees' perceptions towards performance management effectiveness.

1.2 Problem Statement

According to Aguinis, Joo, & Gottfredson (2012), PM demands that we think globally and act locally because the global community has different types of PM systems. One of the key underlying differences lies in national cultures which affect how PM systems are "designed and implemented" (Aguinis et al., 2012, p. 385). In the view of the authors, the cultural differences also impact on their effectiveness. A study of 97 multinational corporations located in Eastern European countries found that interpersonal attributes of managers had an influence on how feedback on performance is delivered. In addition, the way in which the feedback is delivered is linked to the local culture of those organisations (Claus & Hand, 2009).

Fundamentally, culture does play a role in the effectiveness of PM reforms the world over. However, there is the tendency to take-for-granted this significant role in the literature (Aguinis, 2013; Aguinis, Joo & Gottfredson, 2011). The effect of the context-dependence means that the culture of a country to a very large extent determines the outcomes of PM policies. The local culture of the people does influence the design and implementation of performance reforms (Aguinis et al., 2012; Ammons, 2002; Domingo, Oliva & Reys, 2011; Rhodes et al., 2012; Richards, Yeoh, Chong, & Popovic, 2017). For instance, Aguinis et al. (2012), observe that although the India economy is performing better, yet, there is serious attachment to values of paternalistic practices that may seek to undermine the implementation of PM which is anchored on coaching and strict supervision rather than directing or parental familial relationships that are usually found in some organizations in the Indian society. This practice of traditional norms and of values contradicting with rational economic models like PM reforms appears to be in sharp contrast. The

question that is central in addressing this systemic problem would be how to design and implement a PM system that considers norms and practices of the larger society without compromising the rationality of the PM doctrine. Given that PM is a purely rational motive concept, nevertheless, it is equally important to consider how non-rational motives could equally contribute to its effectiveness in the public sector.

Interestingly, the importance placed on the local culture in the PM literature has received less attention (Aguinis, 2013; Aguinis et al., 2011; Rhodes et al., 2012). This scenario means that the very context congruence argument is still at the fundamental level which needs further clarification to contribute to theory building in the public management literature since studies on the influence of culture on PM is mostly in the private sector firms or multinational corporations (Claus & Hand, 2009). In contributing to the importance of national culture on effective PM, Aguinis et al believe that because there is the tendency for cultural norms to change within a national context, PM systems should be designed and implemented along the same lines, thus once the cultural norms change, the PM systems should also change.

Apart from the context-dependency issue associated with EPM, there are key organisational determinants that support effective PM. They include, clear and measurable goals (Ammons & Roenigk, 2015; Latham et al., 2008; Stéphane Lavertu, Lewis, & Moynihan, 2013; Newcomer, 2007; Verbeeten, 2008), development of results-oriented performance measures (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Behn, 2003; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; De Lancer Julnes, 2006; Grizzle, 2002; Hatry, 2002; Nurkholis et al., 2014) and the use of performance information (Moynihan et al., 2012a; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Van Dooren, Bouckaert & Halligan, 2015).

The organisational perspective holds that EPM is a results-based process influenced by the internal mechanisms of the organisation. More especially, clarity of organisational goals and strategic planning are determinants of successful outcomes on PM policies. To achieve the objectives of a PM system, the organisation must set clear and measurable goals through strategic planning by capturing the missions of the organisation (Ammons, 2002). Strategic planning is considered as the building block of an effective performance policy because the strategy formulation will determine the measurement criteria and the direction of the organisation's mission and vision planning and decision-making (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010).

The central problem with organisational determinants is that goal-setting is ambiguous, and goals could be vague (Kroll, 2015; Latham et al., 2008; Moynihan et al., 2012a). More so, the development of results-oriented performance measures is usually not straightforward because it is difficult to conceive public sector goals (Moynihan et al., 2012a, Latham et al., 2008). It should be noted that organisations are active participants in their environment and because they want to gain a competitive edge, they need to respond to the demands of the environment by setting key performance indicators which have stakeholders in mind. However, whereas this task by organisations is simple in the private sector because the major goal is profit maximisation, nonetheless, the ethos of the public sector may be a pendulum where profit maximisation may not be a priority rather the principle of equity and fairness may define the logic of public sector goals. Therefore, conceptualising and developing both efficient and accountable measures are ambiguous (Moynihan, 2008; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Van Dooren, et al., 2015; Van Dooren, 2011). Ammons (2002) and Behn (2003) agree that everyone is measuring performance but only output measures are considered, while little is being done to measure outcomes. The tendency for public organisations to set only output-oriented measures and neglect outcomes measures which are difficult to count may not be considered in a goal-setting trajectory (Behn, 2003; Hatry, 2002; Pollitt, 2013; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004).

Another problem that is associated with EPM is that the use of 'performance information' that is limited because of metric difficulties (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a). The literature on the PM from the rational perspective appears to be interested in several drivers of PM, yet it agrees that there is less use for performance data in public organisations (Moynihan & Pandey 2010; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Kroll & Vogel 2013; Wright et al. 2012). Performance information use refers to the purposeful and political uses for decision-making and advocacy for programme resources by public managers (Moynihan, 2005). The use of performance information in the public sector is for steering, for accountability and for rewarding performance (Van Dooren et al. 2015). Meanwhile, there are others who challenge the performance movement in the public sector and maintain that the nature of a public sector reform agenda creates a situation where political leadership pays lip

service to the implementation process and rarely makes use of any performance information (Radin, 2006). Because politicians rarely see or use performance information for decision-making at the governmental level, in most cases performance information is used for passive and perverse purposes by public managers to meet budgetary requirements and resource allocation (Moynihan et al., 2012a).

Consequently, Pollitt (2013) reports that public managers are also more likely to engage in cheating or gaming through manipulation of information to suit their intended purposes if the cost to use performance information is high (De Lancer Julnes, 2006; Pollitt, 2013). However, others have found out that public managers' use of operationalization information is an organisational behaviour that is influenced by the PSM levels of public managers (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). On the one hand, the use of the performance information paradox is a complicated one because PM systems that do not provide clear and compelling criteria for the use of the data may suffer no use because there are no costs for refusing to use them or it does not attract any additional benefit for their use in decision-making. On the other hand, if the performance metrics are difficult, most data generated from the process may be underutilised (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004).

Environmental determinants influence on EPM is context-dependent (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Conaty, 2012; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Otley, 1999). Bouckaert and Halligan report a comparative study of five countries and observe that countries with strong administrative culture and those experiencing political crisis, tend to have better outcomes on PM than emerging democracies (Rhodes et al., 2012). With the environmental determinism perspective, the role of political support and stakeholder participation offer inconclusive evidence (Lavertu & Moynihan, 2013; Pollitt, & Bouckaert, 2004; Yang & Hsieh, 2007). The two variables have mixed findings (Conaty, 2012; Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan, 2005; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Rhodes et al., 2012; Gianakis & Wang, 2000; Yang & Hsieh, 2007). The dynamics of the environment is important in organisational performance and effectiveness (Mintzberg, 1980; Oliver, 1991; Schoonhoven, 1981), yet, the extent of its effect on PM in different settings is minimal (Aguinis et al, 2012; Conaty, 2012 Otley, 1999).

Undoubtedly, organisational and environmental determinants may be denoted the 'black-boxes' to unlock EPM, however, the missing link in the boxes is PSM. Research on PSM is not new (Houston, 2000; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Perry, 1996; Perry & Wise, 1990) yet findings on it indicate that employees with higher levels of PSM perform better than those with lower levels (Grant, 2012). Public service motivation refers to motivation grounded in public institutions (Perry & Wise, 1990). The presence of PSM is seen when public managers perceive their work to have a significant impact on the society, it tends to induce extra role behaviour of employees (Moynihan et al. 2012a).

However, critical to this concept is that it can contribute to resolving the PM paradox in the public sector. Yet, the agency theory argues that agents may alter the mainstream goals and dilute the public goals. Nonetheless, this observation may be misleading because 'PSM' relies on the non-behaviour of agents to influence performance results. If employees with higher levels of PSM measured by the three main motives of PSM construct, 'rational, norm-based and affective motives', it may have an impact on PM objectives. The PM dogma is a rational concept that views the employee-employer relationship as a suspicious and information asymmetric problem. And the only way to check agency costs is through managing employee performance. The current state of the PM literature is not able to establish the PSM-PM relationship to resolve the paradox. This is because organisational decision-making is both rational and non-rational, which can both explain the PM effectiveness. At best, PSM can explain how a rational decision-making process can sometimes use the non-rational behaviour of agents to achieve desired performance.

From a methodological standpoint, research on PM in the public sector is mostly undertaken by means of qualitative or quantitative designs that are usually single methodological viewpoints. At the same time, the use of mixed methods is relatively smaller than the single methodological approaches in the literature. For example, there are several studies which employed the case study method (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Kroll & Proeller, 2013; Moynihan, 2005), others relied on qualitative methods (Adler, 2011a; Annan-prah & Ohemeng, 2015; Behery, Jabeen, & Parakandi, 2014; Karuhanga, 2010; Liang & Howard, 2007; Shahmehr, Safari, Jamshidi, & Yaghoobi, 2014; Silva & Ferreira, 2010; Stringer, 2007). Additionally,

some empirical studies are purely quantitative (Askim, Age & Knut-Andreas, 2008; Boland & Fowler, 2000; Bourdeaux, 2008; Boyne, Martin & Walker, 2004; Breitbarth, Mitchell, & Lawson, 2010; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Christensen et al., 2006; De Lancer Julnes & Holzer, 2001; A. de Waal, Goedegebuure, & Geradts, 2011; Dull, 2009; Helm, Holladay, & Tortorella, 2007; Mmieh, Mordi, Singh, & Asiedu-Appiah, 2011; Moynihan et al., 2012a). Whereas others employ mixed methods research designs (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Taylor, 2013). Nevertheless, the ratio of single methodologies to mixed methods is asymmetry and therefore, some have recommended studies that use both qualitative and quantitative techniques (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010).

In addition, studies on PM tend to focus on well-developed democracies in the West (Askim, 2015; Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Christensen et al., 2006; DeNisi & Smith, 2014; Hood & Peters, 2004; Jantz et al., 2015; Kroll, 2015; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010; Tantardini & Kroll, 2015; Ter Bogt, 2008), while little evidence exists in developing countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa (Akbar, Tabatabai, Karbasian & Mirbagheri, 2014; Chowdhury, 2011; Karuhanga, 2010; Ohemeng, 2011; Rhodes et al., 2012; Yadav & Dabhade, 2013).

1.3 Objectives of the Study

There are three main goals of this research, first, since the literature argues that the effective PM is context-dependent and that the national culture of a country may influence its outcomes, the study explored and examined the context-specific determinants and features of the Ghanaian culture that impact on PM in the Ghanaian experience. Second, the study developed a framework that explains the relationship between EPM and the independent variables, clear and measurable goals, 'development of results-oriented performance measures' and the use of performance information. Third, the research performs a regression analysis to test the effect two environmental determinants: stakeholder participation and political support and their influence on EPM in the Ghanaian experience. The role of PSM was also tested on the dependent variable, EPM, to see its effect size using the 'Stepwise' regression method. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- i. To examine determinants that influence EPM and what specific-determinants that defines the Ghanaian context
- ii. To examine the relationship between organisational determinants and their impact on EPM.
- iii. To examine the relationship between environmental determinants and their effect on EPM
- iv. To investigate the relationship between PSM and EPM

1.4 Research Questions

To address the critical gaps acknowledged from the extant literature and to answer the above-mentioned objectives, the study asked the following questions:

- i. What are the determinants of effective performance management?
- ii. What are the nature and the content of performance management reforms in Ghana?
 - a. What is the role of national culture on performance management reforms within the context of Ghana?
 - b. What are the challenges in implementing performance management reforms at both the national and local level of governance in the country?
- iii. How do organisational determinants impact EPM? And in what ways do these affect the overall effectiveness of PM in Ghana?
- iv. How do environmental determinants influence EPM?
- v. In what ways does PSM impacts EPM?

1.5 Significance of the Study

There are several reasons that warrant a study on PM at the local level in Ghana. Even though PM research has increased in the past 30 years or more, there is still unresolved issues and inconclusive evidence on the factors that support its effectiveness at the local level. This study is most beneficial because it is designed to explain PM effectiveness in transforming the management culture of local government organisations by drawing on the experiences of the Ghanaian local government sector. And to describe how and ways by which organisational and environmental determinants, as well as individual behaviour influence the overall effectiveness of PM implementation in the developing world. The research has

provided an in-depth understanding of the local government sector performance culture reforms from a developing country perspective to augment the literature on PM, on public management reform and on development administration as well as on public administration in general.

The literature on PM in Ghana has focussed on central government agencies that are responsible for the reform initiatives, yet less emphasis has explored the local government level where a real performance culture is sought for in the forward march to reduce poverty and create a quality of human capital for both social and economic growth. Programme attention in this study was to explore and redefine the significance of PSM that has limited application in Sub-Saharan Africa's context and which may have the potential to influence the effectiveness and outcomes of PM reforms in Ghana and elsewhere on the continent. In this regard, the study is beneficial in three different unique ways that are discussed in the below.

1.5.1 Theoretical Contribution

This study advanced the discussions on the frameworks that could help to explain the phenomenon of PM. It bridges the gap between PM theories and studies on PM policies in the developing world context. The study has three theoretical contributions:

First, by investigating the context-dependent proposition of country models on PM reforms, the context-specific nature of the Ghanaian experience and its features were investigated for the first time in order to observe the differences and similarities of the Ghanaian model and how it has influenced an effective performance culture in the local government sector. Second, an individual-level analysis of the PM reforms in the local government sector was investigated for the first time, because most studies in Ghana are usually based on central government agencies and state-owned enterprises (SOEs). And third, the emphasis of the study was to provide an empirical test of PSM on EPM in the context of Sub-Saharan African where there is an unknown effect of the variable on PM.

Also, studies on this variable provide inadequate evidence on how PSM supports EPM. Therefore, the study discovered how PSM plays a significant role in EPM. By testing the PSM construct in Ghana, a major contribution to the theory has been provided, since the evidence shows that some cultures and contexts may

promote the development of PSM more than others (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). As a result, the study has contributed to theory and to the body of literature on PSM.

1.5.2 Contribution to Professional Practice

The conceptual framework of the study will contribute to practice, especially for practitioners to use the model as a guide for developing PM policies in Ghana. The framework captures both rational and non-rational perspectives on critical success factors of EPM such as clear and measurable goals, development of results-oriented performance measures and the use of performance information for decision-making to improve performance.

Also, the framework deals with the environment of the organisation and how stakeholders' participation is needed to ensure that employees own the PM assessment process. Although political support had little significance on the dependent variable, gaining external political support to enhance the implementation outcomes of PM reforms and human resource (HR) policies cannot be underestimated.

Most important is that by testing the presence of PSM in the Ghanaian local government sector, it may provide useful insight for helping organisational actors to explore their employees' possibilities to unleash their potential to contribute to organisational performance.

1.5.3 Contribution to Policy

This study provides evidence-based policy directions for policy makers and implementers in the public sector on the drivers of EPM in Ghana and elsewhere. Ghana will benefit from this study because the findings from the empirical data will help address the gaps in the PM policy of public sector organisations and offer recommendations to ensure an effective performance culture in the public service. Also, this study is timely to provide information on the new Local Government Service's (LGS) PM policy implementation outcomes among the 216 metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies (MMDAs) in the country. Also, the study is beneficial because the empirical data and findings may support the development of HR policies for local government employees in the country.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study is defined within the context of the research objectives and questions. First, the study deals with how context affects countries models of PM

reforms and what the determinants of EPM in the Ghanaian context are. Second, how do organisational and environmental determinants influence EPM? The literature review focusses on three main organisational variables: clear and measurable goals, development of results-oriented performance measures and the use of performance information. Additionally, the study takes account of the effect of environmental determinants on effective PM; therefore, two variables of interest, stakeholder participation and political support are examined extensively in the literature review. Third, the study focussed on how PSM supports EPM by increasing the effect size and statistical significance of organisational and environmental determinants in the regression analysis controlling for it.

More so, the study is a cross-sectional survey of local government employees in Ghana with specific focus on middle managers in the Greater Accra Region, and a case study of three institutions, the Public Services Commission (PSC), the Office of the Head of the Local Government Service (OHLGS) and the Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council (GARCC). The study encapsulates a major quantitative research design which is an attempt to test hypotheses and relationships that emerge from the literature review. The case study is an attempt to collect information which is peculiar to the Ghanaian situation. Also, the PSM variable is relatively new in the context of Ghana, hence, an attempt is made to test the five major PSM indicators in the survey to further validate the PSM construct. Also, the first objective of the study uses qualitative methods to find out the perspective of key organisational actors to obtain the determinants of EPM from the Ghanaian experience.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

The study assumes that the sample population is large enough to provide valid and accurate responses to the survey instrument. Also, the measures of the variables have been validated and found to be reliable so that they can yield adequate responses to the survey instrument. Initial screening of the survey instruments revealed that respondents provided candid responses during the pretesting of the instrument in the sample population.

In addition, the assumption of the study is that the measurement scales are adequate to answer the research questions because a reliability test of the individual scales showed a high reliability of the items. The Cronbach alpha ranged from .9 to .7

which reached an acceptable level of analysis. However, the PSM sub-scales showed a lower reliability of the scale in the sample population. Furthermore, the qualitative design has added support to the quantitative results and it serves as a cross-validation of the results that further improves the validity and credibility of the findings.

1.8 Organisation of the Chapters

The study is organised into seven chapters. Chapter I is the general introduction starting with the research problem under investigation, the objectives, the research questions, the significance, and the scope of the study. Additionally, the chapter attempts to highlight, the assumptions, the limitations and the disposition of the chapters.

Chapter II begins with the evolution of PM in the public sector, a review of global trends, the developing world and the Ghanaian perspectives on EPM are discussed extensively. More specifically, the chapter clearly traces the efforts that have been taken in institutionalising a performance culture in the Ghanaian context by tracing the historical attempts made with regards to the IMF reforms under the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). The decentralisation framework and the local government system are also presented in this chapter. The Local Government Service (LGS) and its attempts to manage district assemblies' performance are discussed as well. The chapter is key to understanding EPM because the context of PM is a necessary factor in managing performance in the public sector.

Additionally, Chapter II discusses the review of related theories of the study. Also, the chapter reviews the correlations between the dependent and the independent variables. The goal-setting theory (GST), the structural contingency theory (SCT) and the public service motivation theory (PSMT) are particularly highlighted. The three theories main assumptions, their suitability as the variables of the study are examined and discussed. Similarly, the independent variables, thus clear and measurable goals, 'development of results-oriented performance measures' and the use of performance information, on one the hand, are discussed as organisational variables. On the other hand, stakeholder participation and political support are elaborated extensively as environmental determinants. Furthermore, the relationships between the independent variables and EPM are discussed leading to the framing of the conceptual framework, and the subsequent development of the hypotheses are presented in this chapter.

Chapter III outlines in detail the methodology that was used for the data collection and analysis as well as the subsequent testing of the hypotheses of the study. There are eight major sections in this chapter: the philosophical assumptions of the study, the research design, the research strategy, and the sampling procedures; the operationalisation and the measurement of the variables are presented as well; the data management and the data analytic techniques are further explained for the quantitative data. The description of the measurement scale, as well as the procedures for data handling by identifying missing data, regularities and reliability of the measurement scale, are presented. Additionally, the case study design and the data collection procedures for the qualitative interviews are captured.

Chapter IV is devoted to data management and the presentation of the qualitative data for the objective one of the study. Data presentations, data coding and analysis are outlined in detail in this chapter. The dominant themes that emerged from the field interviews are presented and discussed in the form of narrative analysis.

Chapter V and Chapter VI are used for the presentation of the quantitative data. It includes the descriptive analysis of the demographic characteristics of the respondents. In these chapters, the Exploratory Factor analysis (EFA) of the variables are presented. In addition, the chapters focus on the presentation of the findings and at the same time the use of the multiple regression statistical model to test the hypotheses. The aim of the chapters was to observe the interactions between organisational determinants (clear and measurable goals, 'development of result-oriented performance measures' and the use of performance information) and their impact on effective PM. Further, the environmental determinants (stakeholder participation and political support) and PSM on the dependent variable. The total effects aimed to test the conceptual framework and the overall fitness of the model.

Chapter VII is in four parts; the first part is the integration and discussions of the two datasets and the second section summarizes the major findings of the study based on the objectives of the study. The third section draws conclusions from the findings and the fourth section makes recommendations for future research, practice and policy implications of the study. Figure 1.1 shows the organisation of the thesis.

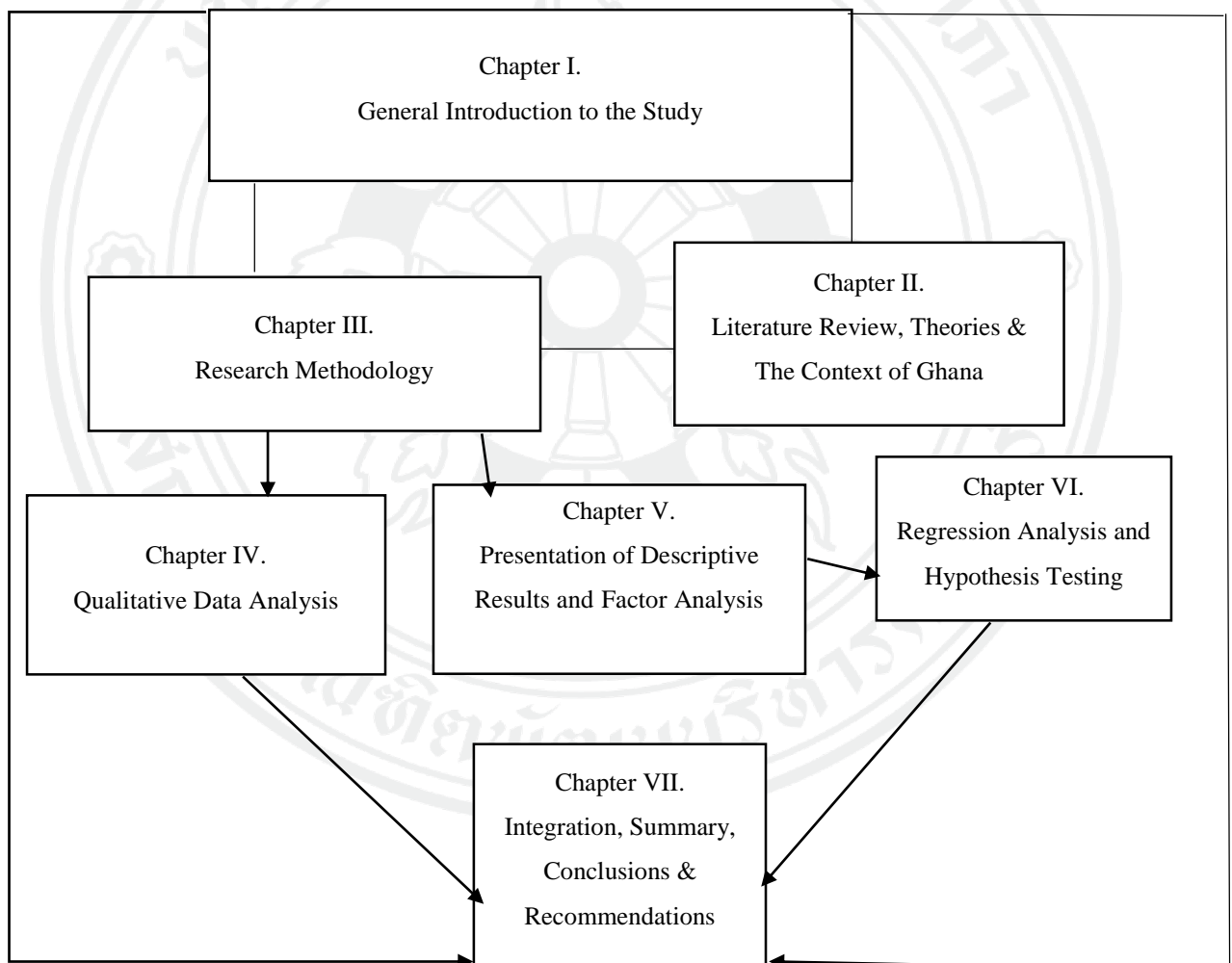


Figure 1.1 Flowchart of the Dissertation Chapters

1.9 Chapter Summary

The foregoing discussion gives a general introduction to the study. The chapter included the problem statement and the significance of the study. The problem statement was captured in this chapter through the analysis of the extant literature as the basis for the present study. The chapter examined the significant contribution of the study to literature, practice and policy implications and why it is important to conduct this study. Additionally, the chapter discussed the scope, the assumptions and the limitations of the study. The study limitations were identified to be related to the usual shortcomings of a survey method as well as the fact that the PM context is not universally the same. However, there are certain basic topologies that can be found in PM systems such as goal setting, development of performance measurement system, performance monitoring and review. Therefore, the findings of the study are in tandem with these typologies without many deviations except for the context-dependence view where the Ghanaian cultural attributes were found as the literature suggested and they were subjected to critical discussions. The study is presented in seven chapters for coherent discussions of the various aspects of the study. The next chapter presents the literature review and the context of the Ghanaian experience.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW, THEORIES AND THE CONTEXT OF GHANA

2.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter outlined the context and the problem statement and the objectives of the study. This chapter consists of two parts: general literature review and the context of Ghana, and the theoretical review as well as the development of the conceptual framework and the hypotheses. The first review draws on the gaps that need further research in relation to which this study is significant. Most specifically, it presents strictly empirical results and conceptual reviews on the drivers, challenges and successes of performance management (PM) systems in general. The aim of this part is to offer an extensive overview as well as a review of the literature and the benefits as well as the challenges that PM implementation has faced in the public sector. Additionally, the review is devoted to a survey of the different perspectives on PM in the context of Ghanaian by identifying the gaps which this study aims to fill.

The second part begins with the review of the related theories. The section discusses the basic assumptions of the theories and how they relate to the dependent and independent variables. It is important to state that the use of a performance management system (PMS) and performance management (PM) is used interchangeably in the literature and this observation is treated the same way in the study, but when the need to distinguish the two is called for, it is done. In addition, the correlation between the independent variables and the dependent variable is discussed, the framing of the hypotheses and the consequent development of the conceptual framework forms the last part of the chapter. The review ends with a summary of the entire chapter.

Performance management (PM) is an organisational strategy used to achieve its goals and objectives. Effective performance management (EPM) involves strategic planning, development of results-oriented performance measures, by providing

performance feedback and communication, performance rewards and training. It also entails enhancing good performance through performance rewards and performance improvement programmes. More specifically, the chapter discusses the theoretical influence of a new public management (NPM) model, an effective performance management system, its dimensions and related theories that have had a significant influence on PM. The chapter concludes with a summary of the main points raised in the discussions of the literature.

2.2 The Evolution of PM in the Public Sector

Performance management systems (PMS) have a long history from the scientific management era to new public management (NPM) or reinventing government (Armstrong, 2009; Haque, 2003). However, public management scholars observe that PMS has preceded NPM and it 'has been around for a hundred years or more' (Van Dooren, Bouckaert, & Halligan, 2015, p. 43). Since the evolution of PMS, the scholarly community has focussed on how performance management (PM) research could provide empirical solutions to influence public managers' use of public resources.

Furnham (2004) believes that PMS evolved after the death of Christ (AD), thus in the first century. Furnham observes that 'depending on what you read and how loosely you interpret PMS you can find evidence of PMS in AD China or Rome' (p. 83). The history of PMS traces its roots to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries 'in both America and Britain where there is evidence of early forms of performance appraisals' (p.83-84). These performance appraisals systems were mostly found in western countries' armies, but by the close of the 1960s, a good number of firms in America and Europe had introduced performance appraisals into their management systems (Furnham, 2004).

The earliest forms of performance management systems were in the form of performance appraisals and they were more legalistic and normative in character with phrases such as 'equal opportunities, civil rights that were practised by many organisations because failure to adopt these systems had legal implications' (Furnham, 2004, p.84). Research suggests that in the 1970s, 1980s/1990s in America and Britain, PMS were more prevalent in public sector organisations rather than in

private sector organisations and this era met the emergence of the new public management and a reinventing of government doctrines (Furnham, 2004; Newcomer & Caudle, 2011; Sanderson, 2001; Silva & Ferreira, 2010).

Similarly, Armstrong (2009) traces the history of the modern performance management system to the work of Fredrick W Taylor in the 1920s, but Armstrong (2009) also refers to Koontz (1971) that the first ever known performance appraisal 'took place during the Wei dynasty [AD221-65] when the emperor employed an 'imperial rater' (Armstrong, & Baron, 1998; Armstrong, 2009, p.11; Rowland, 2016) to assess the performance of the royal family. Armstrong also observes that in the 'sixteenth century, Ignatius Loyola created a system for formal rating of the members of the Jesuit Society' (p.11).

Performance management systems have both convergence and divergence with most authors being either sceptics and supporters, however, the most important development of PMS in public-sector organisations in the 1980s was the emergence of the new public management (NPM) movement (de Waal & Coevert, 2007; Newcomer & Caudle, 2011). The 'received view' is not without controversies. In contrast to this view, Van Dooren et al (2015) observes that 'the antecedents of contemporary performance measurement and management have a long lineage and performance ideas have been around for a hundred years or more' (p. 43). The authors argued that PMS predates but will outlive NPM (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010).

Van Dooren, Bouckaert & Halligan, (2010) provide eight movements namely; 'social surveys, scientific and the science of administration, cost accounting, performance budgeting, social indicators, NPM and evidence-based policy' (p.44) that are attributed to performance management whose main goal is to see change in performance by performance measurement and management (PMM) reforms. Van Dooren et al. consider all performance movements as political. Van Dooren et al. further explain that the three categories of movements can be further classified into 'policy movements and management movements' in which the policy stream focusses on performance results of organisations and public management while the latter deals with the internal aspect of performance outputs and productivity. These distinctions are not mutually exclusive because it is possible for the two unique groups to pursue

either performance results or outputs (Van Dooren et al., 2015) The movements in the view of the authors can be grouped into three-time lines:

- Pre-World War II
- The 1950s to the 1970s, which parallels the development of the welfare state and the growth of government
- The 1980s onwards, when welfare states witnessed mass social problem crisis.

In the search for global solutions to the limitations imposed by the traditional management systems, the new public management (NPM) model emerged as performance measurement or management (Armstrong, 2009). Government agencies in the US and other places such as Australia, Canada and the UK implemented new and strategic performance measurement systems with the aim of making public agencies more efficient and effective (Aguinis, 2013; Armstrong, 2009; Atkinson & McCrindell, 1997; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Hood, 1995). This led to the adoption of reforms on PM systems in the public sector as a wave of the second-generation reforms coined as New Public Management or reinventing government (Hood, 1991; Osbourne, & Gaebler, 1992). The second-generation reforms promised a business-like, profit-oriented, efficient, effective and economic rationality of the public sector. The NPM model tries to bring private sector managerial philosophies into the management of public organisations and aims to make sector employees more responsive, customer-oriented, transparent and accountable to citizens (Hood, 1991). One of the key features of the NPM is performance measurement which seeks to quantify performance and manage employee performance (Ter Bogt, 2008).

2.3 The New Public Management (NPM) Model

By discussing the characteristics of the NPM, it will be possible to fundamentally show how the public sector began using PM reforms to improve public service delivery as most OCEDs countries and governments in the UK and the US introduced market-oriented and private sector ethos into the management of public organisations during the early 1980s and the late 1990s. This is fundamentally necessary because many studies on PM draw on the principles of NPM as their frameworks for understanding its roots in the public sector (Boukaert & Hallinga, 2008; Rhodes et al., 2012; Silva & Ferreira 2010; Van Dooren et al., 2015).

Therefore, by situating the study of the NPM model at the centre, a reasonable insight can be brought to add to the discussions and results of the present study.

Social crisis and fiscal pressures of the 1970s led to different measures being adopted to make government work better and more cost-effective (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015). The Fiscal austerity measures, efforts to improve public productivity and provide alternative service delivery mechanisms, including contracting out and privatisation were part of economic rationalism that was waving around the 1970s governments of Margret Thatcher and Ronald Reagan of the United Kingdom and the United States of America respectively. While in Europe, and in countries such as New Zealand and Australia similar reforms were introduced that bear semblance to the NPM model. The reforms swept throughout these countries with such magnitude that could be compared with a '20 tsunami', with some countries being described as success stories because the reforms transformed the nations better than they were: while others have been described as catastrophic (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015).

Among other things, the NPM is said to be part of a global management revolution that has left few governments in the world untouched (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015, p. 155). According to Denhardt and Catlaw, the heart of the 'revolution is a criticism of both the responsiveness and effectiveness' of public organisations (p. 155). The NPM is considered as a second-generation wave of reforms that occurred in the neo-Weberian state. The growth of NPM was also influenced by public managers' search for a solution to reform the administrative system and the bureaucracy, as well as to redefine their missions and goals. Governments around the world also needed the catalyst to reform their shrinking economies and find solutions that were based on economic rationality. The core assumptions of governments were to restructure the state, decentralise decision-making built by market-based technologies and theories (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015).

Without any doubt, the leading model that has had an influence on PM systems is the NPM which provided the intellectual ideas where countries were asked and challenged to reform their state agencies to become more business-like, result-oriented, to reduce the size of the public sector and become more effective and efficient (Hood, 1991). The NPM advocates managerial philosophies for public sectors to become performance-based with focus on flexibility, accountability and

performance measurement which seeks to improve public service delivery by reducing wastage and at the same time, focus on goals, mission and strategic formulation of government objectives (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015; Hood & Peters, 2004). The NPM doctrine legitimises the performance culture in state agencies to focus more on results or outcomes rather a traditional focus on input-output process. The NPM doctrine advocated for public enterprises to privatise public services, allowing competition in a free market system with the aim of making public institutions efficient and effective in order to have value for money in the use of public resources.

Evidence suggests that the NPM had its intellectual influence from the public choice theory and managerial philosophy (Gruening, 2001). However, Gruening points out that performance measurement has its roots in traditional public administration, in the principal-agent theory and in public policy and public management. Contributing to this subject, Denhardt and Catlaw (2015) argue that the NPM has theoretical difficulties because it emphasises the transfer of managerial values from the private sector into the public sector and that this is in contravention to the ethos of the long-standing public administration doctrine. To a very large extent, the NPM has injected private business ethos or the idea to run government more like a business than what the conventional public administration ethos of public values and serving the public good stood for. Much of the ideas of NPM is founded on the public choice theory that sees public managers as self-seeking individuals who if left unmanaged through performance measures, would pursue their own interest which is detrimental to the principal goals. However, it also meant that NPM touched on the very foundation of public service motivation (PSM) of managers within the public administration tradition in which public servants see the value of their work to society as the motive driving their effort in providing services to the citizens. In effect, the coming into being of the NPM reforms weakened the 'spirit de corps' of the civil servant and replaced it with performance management (PM) (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015).

Denhardt and Catlaw provide three reasons for which the NPM had much influence and intellectual justification. First, new institutional and public-choice economics had laid the foundation for the NPM. The new institutional economics and public choice searched for transaction costs, information asymmetries, and user

choice and incentive structures (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015) to make public institutions more efficient. The burgeoning interest in institutions and institutional design, as well as the comparative advantages of various organisational structures for service delivery, had a significant impact on NPM. Second, the public policy movement was much influenced by the doctrines of the NPM. The public policy movement had an interest in policy implementation and a pursuit of this in the form of 'public management', as argued in the implementation literature, as it exhibits a primary interest in high policy-making success and executive leaders were urged to pursue policy implementation as a critical success factor of public policies (Silva & Ferreira, 2010). The last reason is said to have been influenced by the global managerial movement (Hood, 1991). The scientific management of the early 20th century, contemporary managerialism focussed on professional management expertise in achieving measurable performance outcomes and enhancing productivity (Armstrong, 2009).

According to Denhardt and Catlaw (2015), the NPM had theoretical difficulties because its interest in transporting managerial values from the private sector into the public domain was different from the traditional Weberian bureaucracy which only concentrated on the efficiency of outputs processes. Another problem with the NPM is the attempt to redefine the public interest with customer interest and its critics believe that this conception is misleading because citizens and customers are not the same in governance. The usage of 'customer' to refer to citizens with varied interest and their relationships with government is technically uncalled for because customers only seek service but beyond service, citizens demand and expect more than trading to things such as promoting a set of principles that are inherent in the public sphere (Denhardt & Catlaw, 2015).

Another area of theoretical difficulties is the denial of the public role in determining the expenditure of public funds and the design of programmes. This is because the NPM rests on the entrepreneurial spirit as much as the reinventing government does. Public resources are public and must remain so and citizens rather than customers should determine what to do with those resources. At the same time, citizens should determine who allocate, who provide services and not diversification,

privatisation, contracting out which is likely to lead to exploitation and corruption of the public purse by a few individuals.

Despite the theoretical difficulties, the NPM doctrine has a number of implications for effective PM results and government performance. First, the NPM reforms aimed at addressing the pitfalls of government through performance measurement and extensive contracting out (Hood, 1991). However, this move has many implications for countries with pluralistic and fragmented political systems and issues of responsiveness, effectiveness and accountability mechanism that go beyond government. Because governments cannot account for contractors and subcontractors of the services they provide to the public, it would be better to manage the performance of public institutions through PM reforms. Meanwhile, governments must be accountable to the citizens and not to contractors through a system of performance management where public managers are made to account for their stewardship.

Besides, the issue of performance measurement and management, as advocated by the NPM doctrine, has resulted in an emphasis and over-reliance on measures that emphasise outputs rather than results or outcomes (Van Dooren et al., 2015). This is because the public servant is setting targets that he aims to achieve in a short period of time without looking at their effect in the long-term, and the implication is that public service delivery takes a longer time to see any effect. For example, if a teacher prepares his/her course based on what he/she is expected to achieve within a term, it is likely that the teacher may not have an idea of what the effect of the course content will have on the student, whether positive or negative. But the teacher has achieved his targets without knowing the consequences of that target. In that sense, the course outline is measurable (outputs) but the knowledge imparted (outcomes) is not measured. The paradox of the performance measurement and management poses more questions for the NPM doctrine.

Likewise, many developing countries that pursue the NPM reforms reported worse performance of public sector managers with a deepening poverty incidence and especially inequalities because the NPM reforms witness mass diversification and privatisation of State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs) that were characterised by corrupt practices and political patronage (Domfeh, 2004). Even in the post-NPM reforms era,

governments have had to refurbish these enterprises and make them more responsive to provide quality services. In Ghana, for example, government after government have privatised and re-privatised SOEs but nothing seems too far-fetched insofar as we are fixated on a private-led economy or a market-led economy. Figure 2.1 shows characteristics of NPM.

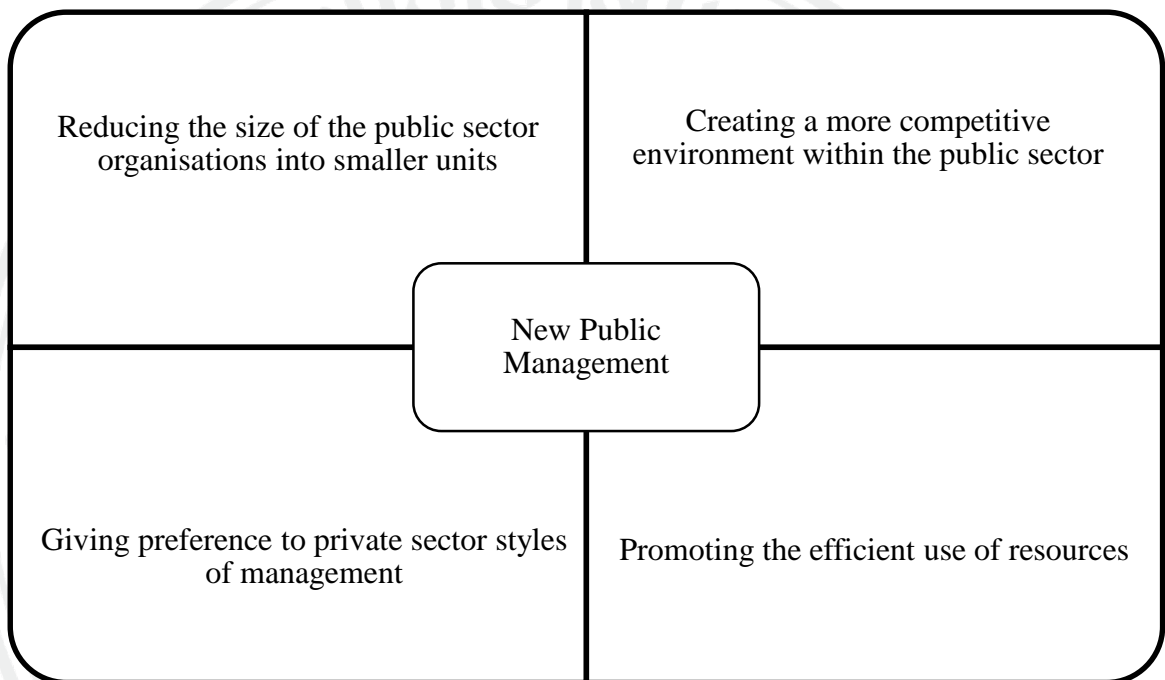


Figure 2.1 NPM Model (Silver & Ferreira, 2010)

2.4 Performance management and Measurement Tools

Performance management has been transformed from pure rating of employees' performance to a holistic approach that considers results, behaviour and development of employees in general. This transformation has brought in several tools that could be used to help organisations to effectively monitor and track individual performance and the overall strategy of the organisation. Two of these tools are Management by Objectives (MBO) and the Balanced Scorecard (BSC) developed by Drucker (1954) and Kaplan & Norton (1992) respectively (Fowler, 1990; Kaplan & Norton, 1996; Kaplan, 2010; Rowland, 2016).

2.4.1 Management by Objectives (MBO)

Performance management is a modernist and post-modernist approach to organisational management. The very first modern PM concept was introduced by Drucker's work on management theory and his subsequent development of the Management by Objectives (MBO) as a tool for measuring employee and organizational performance (Armstrong & Baron, 1998; Rowland, 2016). Fowler (1990) argues that the main principles of the MBO have been transformed into a PM system in the post-modernist approach to managing organizational effectiveness and performance.

Drucker, (1954) who proposed the management by objectives (MBO) doctrine as a key determinant of organisational performance maintains that organisations must set clear goals to achieve organisational effectiveness. The management of objectives doctrine changed to performance appraisal and now PM. The importance of the MBO concept is goal setting and Drucker (1954) provides a series of steps to be used when organisations are setting their performance goals. According to Drucker, the process of goal setting involves five steps in both the public and private sectors. The MBO suggests that (1. the overall objectives of the organization must be set with an action plan derived from it, (2. the second step requires the organisation to be prepared for the successful implementation of the action plan, (3. individual goals, (4. periodic appraisals, as well as feedback, is followed to ensure effective implementation of the action plan and (5. appraisals of performance by results (See Table 2.1 below).

Table 2.1 Distinction between MBO and PM

MBO	PM
Packaged systems	Tailor-made systems
Applied to Managers	Applied to all staff
Emphasis on individual objectives	Emphasis on corporate goals and values
Emphasis on quantified performance measures	Inclusion of qualitative indicators
Jobs divided into key results areas (KRAs)	Jobs divided into principal accountabilities
Objectives set for each KRA	Objectives set for each accountability

MBO	PM
Performance measures	Performance indicators (including KPIs)
Task and personal goals	Task and personal goals
Annual appraisal including discussion of new goals	Annual appraisal including discussion of new goals
Most schemes use complex paperwork	Some schemes have complex paperwork
Schemes ‘owned’ by specialists	Schemes ‘owned’ by line management
Top-down system	Joint process
Monolithic system	Flexible process
May not be a direct link to pay	May not be linked to performance pay
Focus on performance achievements	Focus on development as well as performance

Source: Adapted from Fowler (1990) and Armstrong (2009)

2.4.2 The Balanced Scorecard (BSC)

The PM balanced scorecard is widely used by many organisations in their performance cycle (Bartlett, Johnson, & Reckers, 2014; Kaplan & Norton, 2007). The scorecard measures customer and external stakeholders’ satisfaction, and the financial and internal business process of the organisation to achieve the strategic goals. In addition, the scorecard engages in customer satisfaction surveys to ensure the quality of service provided an organisation. Another feature of the scorecard is the measurement of productivity scores, shareholder feedback, suppliers’ performance scores, customer loyalty feedback cards and financial scorecards (Bourne, Neely, Platts, & Mills, 2002; Rowland, 2016). Also, the balanced scorecard is an improvement over the traditional measurement system which perceives performance rating in simplistic terms that follow a logical conclusion. However, performance measurement is not a straightforward one because in most cases organisational actors may manipulate data to achieve their intended goals which may not represent the reality on the ground (Pollitt, 2013).

The balanced scorecard uses both the traditional financial measurements and includes quantitative and qualitative reviews of an organisation’s relationship with its customers’, other external stakeholders, internal business processes as well as learning

and growth scores to measure the level of achievement of the strategy and goals of the organisation (Kaplan & Norton, 2000). The balanced scorecard measures both soft and hard measures of business goals. By using the balanced scorecard, organisations are matching tangible and intangible goals with the environment of the organisation (Rowland, 2016). The balanced scorecard is an ‘outside-In’ approach to individual and organisational performance towards the long-term growth of the organisation. Figure 2.2 shows the balanced scorecard.

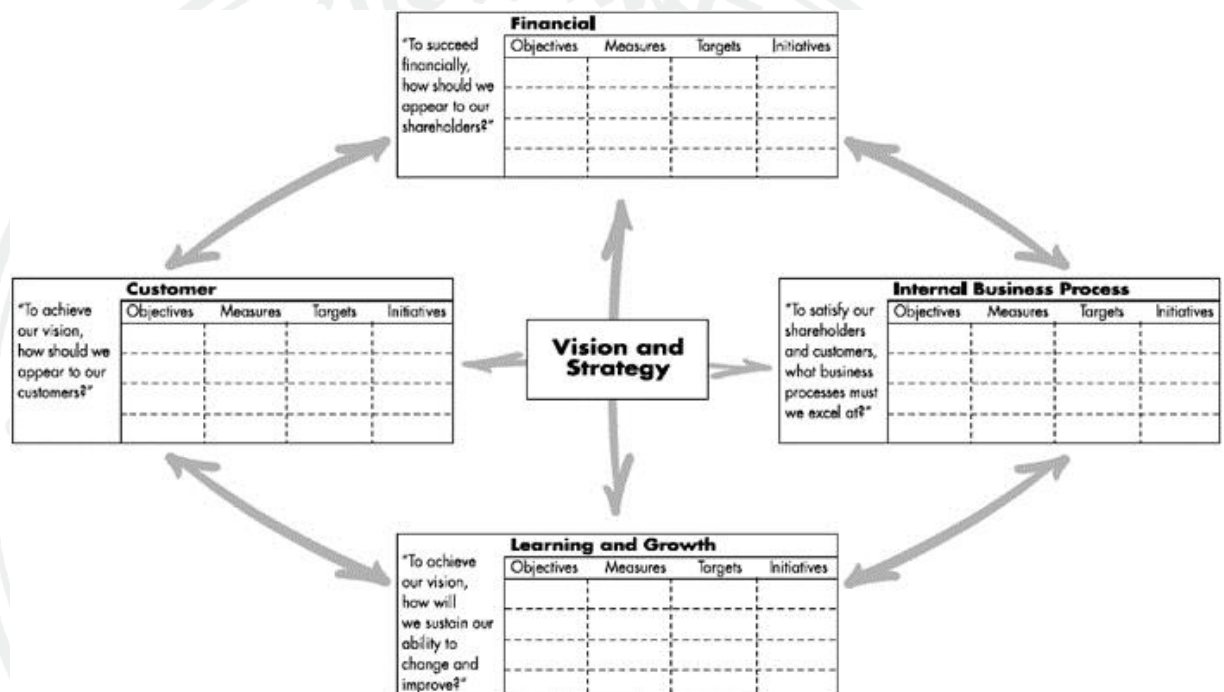


Figure 2.2 Balanced Scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1996, p.54)

2.5 Effective performance management (EPM)

Even though PM is attributed to Peter Drucker who wrote extensively in management and organisational literature with his famous management by objectives (MBO) in 1954, it was not until, the introduction of the term ‘performance management’ (PM) by Beer and Ruh's (1976) Beer study that the term has gained more research than any other concept in Public Administration and Management for the past four decades. Drucker called for organisations and their management to set clear goals that should be agreed by management and employees so that evaluations of performance could be measured. However, its widespread in public sector

organisations has its history dated to the emergence of the new public management (NPM) doctrines in the public sector (Van Dooren et al., 2015). Since its introduction into the public sector, research has concentrated on finding factors that impact on its effectiveness (Biron, Farndale, & Paauwe, 2011; Hawke, 2012; A. Taylor & Taylor, 2013). One significant impact of PM in the public sector is that factors that affect its outcomes are context-specific (Pollitt, C., & Bouckaert, 2004).

Performance management as a managerial tool has been argued in the literature to predate the NPM model (Van Dooren et al., 2015) is an effective tool to make government institutions more relevant and cost-effective. Although the NPM ideas permeate the principles of performance management systems, there are contested views on PM as an effective model for performance in the public sector. On one the hand, the first group see PM as a managerial approach to reform public institutions based on a top-down approach to implementing changes in public institutions, and there is the absence of major actors and little presence of the internal environment, specifically public employees or civil servants, in the process. On the other hand, the second group holds that PM is a tool that attracts the participation of actors in the performance process with the aim of improving and managing the desired performance in the long-run. The implication is that PM is a productivity measure in organisations.

Effective performance management is an ongoing process of strategic planning, setting of organisational and individual goals, defining quality performance measures, providing feedback and communication as well as reward employees and train employees for performance improvement (Helm, Holladay, & Tortorella, 2007). Again, effective performance management is a 'continuous process of identifying, measuring and developing the performance of organisational members and aligning performance with the strategic goals of the organisation' (Biron et al., 2011, p. 1295).

Despite the burgeoning literature on EPM, conceptualising the term is a difficult exercise to undertake because EPM outcomes are context-dependent implying that their effectiveness depends on other factors outside the domain of organisations and the PM process itself (Pollitt, 2013). As a result, the term 'performance management' has been used in different ways and this has resulted in a large volume of work on the conceptualization of the term. One of the widely quoted

definitions of an ideal type of EPM comes from Armstrong (2009) that it is a 'systematic process for improving organisational performance by developing the performance of individuals and team' (p. 9). Armstrong points out that an effective PM also entails achieving results by "managing performance with the agreed framework of goals, standards and competence' (p. 9). Armstrong is the view that PM 'incorporates processes such as management by objectives (MBO) and performance appraisal (PA)' (p.9). But the current approach to PM has changed over time and PM is now viewed as a continuous activity which involves planning, implementing, monitoring, evaluating and reviewing performance. Performance information use, even though it forms part of the review process, it has different dimensions that support the PM process (Moynihan et al., 2012a). Often, performance management has been used to mean performance measurement, but measurement is a component of performance management (Armstrong, 2009).

There are several stages of effective performance management such as strategic planning and goal setting which incorporates the mission, vision and core values of the organisation into its formulation. Additionally, it involves monitoring and evaluation, feedback, review and rewards. The last stage of EPM is performance improvement programmes which are meant to correct bad performers and enhance future performance (Lee, 2005). Lee proposes that an effective PM has two elements; 1) appraising (measuring, documenting, rating); 2) performance management (tracking, monitoring, adjusting and regulating). According to Lee (2005), these basic processes require openness to ideas to be able to achieve better performance (2005, p.53). In this respect tracking an organization's PM is an attempt to align goals with the various processes appropriately and to provide feedback (Lee, 2005). Alignment of organisational goals and those of employees is important for effective performance feedback. Employees' involvement or interaction with the supervisor in the process is an equally important component of PM.

Effective performance management is conceptualised by Otley (1999) as having five main questions that organisations must answer. Yet the answers to these questions may be contextual because organisations are subject to rapid and continuous change. The five questions are: what are the objectives that are key to organisational success; what are the strategies and plans for implementation; what are the key

performance indicators or targets; how are measures and performance rewarded and what is the performance information used for (Otley, 1999). Similarly, Ferreira & Otley, (2009) conceive PM to include formal mechanisms, processes, and systems as well as networks that organisations use to achieve results. The authors argue that goals or objectives are part of the processes, yet the mere setting of goals by managers at each level of the organisation does not represent the best goals for achieving organisational success. Contributing to the discussion, Wholey (2002) points out that an effective PM must encompass, goals, strategies, measurement systems, generate performance data, use performance information and much more to involve stakeholders to ensure effective decision making with regards to policy or programme outcomes.

The above definitions suggest that EPM needs to define goals, create quantifiable measurements, and provide support for employees' and teams to continuously improve performance. Also, EPM is a process by which organisation must coordinate activities of the performance process until the final results are achieved. At the same time, the process must monitor and provide feedback as well as review the performance standards to achieve a high and overall strategy for the organisation. Another feature of EPM is reflecting the context of the organisation (Ashdown, 2014). This feature is very important because an organisation's PMS is likely to achieve its objectives if factors in the internal and external environment are effectively coordinated at each stage of the PM process. Another observation made from the conceptualization of EPM is that it has a human capital element (Armstrong, 2009) in which individuals in the organisation are managed as a team to achieve the goals of the organisation.

Likewise, an EPM generally reflects a normative view as a good thing for an organisation but the performance doctrine tends to think otherwise. EPM "covers a large range of activities and often vary between organisations" (Ashdown, 2014, p. 2). This implies that a certain unique characteristic of organisational attributes and behavioural aspects of the human capital of the organisation as well as the environmental drivers must be considered. The implication is that for a PM to achieve its objectives, individuals and teams in the organisation must be managed and directed towards the goal of improving organisational performance. Similarly, Wholey (2002)

advocates goal-orientation and the effective use of resources and of information targeted at achieving some goal. Wholey's notion of PM adds performance information used in the PM cycle and goals to be incorporated into the design of the PM policy. The use of resources in the design of a PM system is critical because it demands precision and careful planning to ensure that the mission of the organisation is woven into the performance standards and indicators (Ammons & Roenigk, 2015). For example, the organisation needs to provide technical training for staff who will use the performance metrics directly to be able to interpret the data and use them in a timely manner to enhance individual and organisational performance (Kroll, 2015).

However, the conceptualization of EPM has failed to recognise the intervening variables, for example that the role of PSM that may have a significant effect on the PM process. Similarly, an EPM process is an interrelated process because it demands that goals should be set for individual employees', but the goals must be clear and measurable to be understood and achieved by employees (Verbeeten, 2008). At the same time, development of results-oriented performance targets or standards (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004) allows the employee to be 'aware of how his/her performance would be judged' (Crawshaw et al., 2014, p. 236).

Effective performance management is a process of combining both rational and normative ways to achieve performance-based outcomes or policy objectives. Performance management lacks a universal character and 'what you see is what you get' in the sense that the performance management cycle is based on context (Rhodes et al., 2012). In fact, the context of PM is critical in scholarly research because empirical evidence provides a substantial difference in its successes and failures. For example, studies such as (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Buchelt, 2015; Rhodes et al., 2012) show that whereas in countries with a political crisis that have established an administrative culture, PM seems to work better than in countries with emerging democracies. The implications are that an effective PM is achieved through the PM cycle and other environmental determinants. It is instructive to state that the central thesis of this study is that effective performance management is affected by other factors outside the organisation's rational formulation of PM goals, and that in public service motivation (PSM), stakeholder participation and political support are key determinants of an EPM.

Meanwhile, providing feedback through the data generated from the PM process would help in evaluating employees to assess whether individual employees' goals have been met or not. The performance appraisals and evaluation also allow senior managers to review performance and allocate rewards and sanctions for satisfactory or unsatisfactory performance. The EPM process has an external dimension in which participation and support of the external environment are critical success factors for significant outcomes on organisational goals (Newcomer & Caudle, 2011; Yang, & Hsieh, 2007). The internal environment support of PM reforms in public organisations is generally said to be low because senior public managers' and middle-managers of public institutions are all interested parties since it is their performance that is being tested (Moynihan & Lavertu, 2012). Therefore, gaining the commitment of public servants is important to the goals of the PM policy. Also, the internal environment participation or stakeholder involvement in the PM process requires that employees at all levels of the organisation take an active part in the design and the actual implementation process to ensure that they own the product of the PM policy and at the same time be accountable for its outcomes. External stakeholders may be legislators, public interest groups in the external environment of the organisation who are actively involved in the design and implementation of the PM reforms (Moynihan & Lavertu, 2012).

Similarly, the support political leaders or legislators in the process is equally important as their inputs are important to the implementation process because resource allocation is needed to accomplish performance objectives of the organisation. Obtaining the support of the political leadership in the process has been found to have an impact on EPM outcomes (Yang & Hsieh, 2007). Political support means granting authority and autonomy to implementing agencies and to pull resources for agencies to attainment performance objectives. Additionally, PM efforts may be less if they fail to stimulate and develop the capacity of employees' in the organisation to understand and use the metrics that will be generated from the PM system to improve decision-making and future performance (Kroll, 2015; Yang & Hsieh, 2007). In other words, for a PM system to achieve its purpose, there must be support and commitment from senior managers of the organisation.

Another way to understand EPM is to see it as a process of strategic planning and setting of performance goals, performance monitoring and evaluation, performance feedback, review and rewards as well as a tool for performance improvement (Helm et al., 2007). Using a system analysis perspective, Helm et al attempted to evaluate the effectiveness of the PMS by integrating employees' goals and objectives to institutional strategic goals and linking performance to compensation at the employee level in which rewards served to distinguish high performers from low performers. The authors used a survey of 350 employees at two different phases, and the results show that employees observed that their institutions PM objectives were effective. The results showed a generally favourable response to effective PM that links the goals and performance to pay. The regression analysis indicated that communication of goal alignment, the linkage between pay and performance and input opportunities had a significant effect on PMS. The findings indicate a 74 % variance from the two phases of the study sample. However, the study also found that an intranet site and training was less significant on the overall PMS effectiveness. The authors concluded that goal alignment and performance-pay linkages are important determinants of an effective PM programme.

From the discussions, it is evident that PM involves activities directed at the organisation, at individual behaviour as well as at the environment of the organisation in a continuous process towards achieving organisational performance and effectiveness. Again, the definitions presuppose that aligning individual goals to that of the organisation will lead to the achievement of the strategic goals of the organisation. The discussions indicate that an effective PM is a system that involves inputs from the environment, organisational outputs and individual employee behaviour that work harmoniously to lead to the attainment of performance management goals. The system thinking described here is that an EPM involves inputs from the system emanating from organisational outputs, inputs from the environment and that individual behaviour grounded in PSM will lead to successful PM results. Similarly, the literature on PM presupposes that an effective PM comprises strategic planning and goal setting, performance monitoring and evaluation, performance feedback, review and rewards.

Finally, an EPM includes performance improvement programmes to correct bad performance and enhance future performance. Besides, the PM also requires inputs from the environment through the mechanism of political support and stakeholder participation in the design and implementation of the PM policy. In addition, an EPM includes individual-level behaviour founded in PSM which comprises of rational, norm-based and affective motives of employees' which mediates the relationship between the organisational supply -side and the environmental demand- side of the PM process.

From the above discussion, EPM involves strategic planning and goal setting, setting of quality performance standards and targets to achieve the overall organisational strategy. Also, evidence shows that an EPM has a significant relationship with stakeholder participation and political support (Bourdeaux, 2008; Bourne et al., 2002; Conaty, 2012; McAdam, Hazlett, & Casey, 2005; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Simmons, 2008; Weeks, 2005; Yang & Hsieh, 2007). From the above discussions, figure 2.2 depicts the effective PM process.

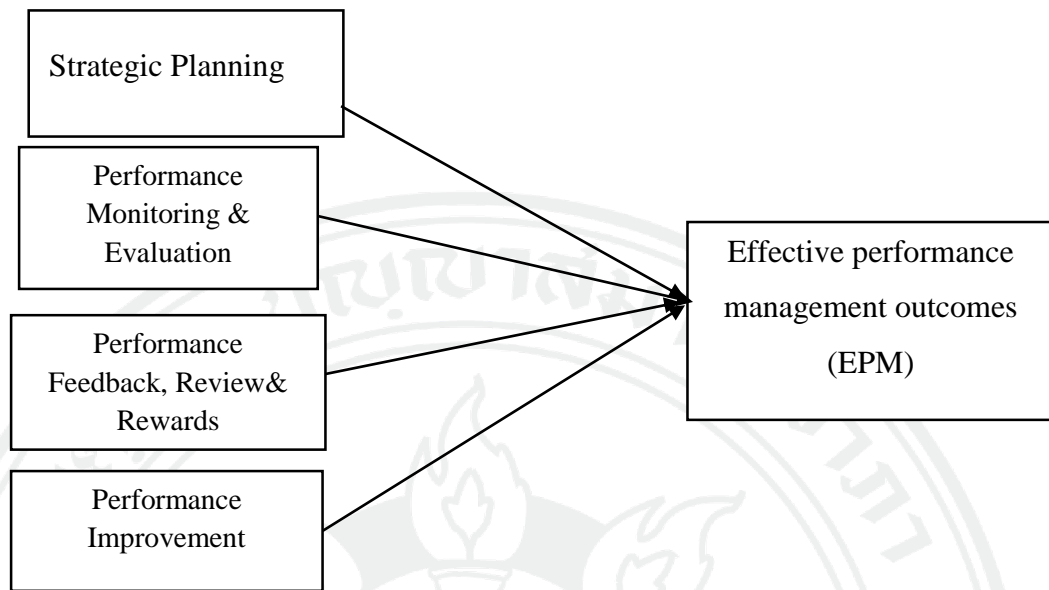


Figure 2.3 A Model of Effective Performance Management System: (Lee, 2005; Moynihan et al, 2012a; Otley, 1999; Yang & Hsieh, 2007)

2.6 Dimensions of Effective performance management (EPM)

There are four dimensions of EPM that have been selected for further discussions because they are the important pinnacles of the PM systems. The dimension includes Strategic planning/ goal setting, performance standards/indicators, performance appraisals and performance feedback. The review shows that an effective PM entails several components, strategic planning and goal setting, setting of performance, providing clear communication of feedback on performance, appraising performance and establishing criteria to reward good performance and provide the training needs for unsatisfactory performance to enhance future performance (Lee, 2005). However, these four dimensions are elaborated for analytical purposes.

2.6.1 Strategic Planning

The strategic planning stage of the PM process is where the organisation develops the mission, vision, values and the criteria for measuring its achievement. At the strategic planning level, goal setting becomes the focus activity of most public organisations where the alignment of goals and relevant information of the core business or the mandate of the organisation is reflected in the performance criteria. Ammons and Roenigk (2015) assert that strategic planning is a feature of an effective PM because the data generated through performance data will support government's decision making and policy direction. The authors contend that the use of a strategic planning process is geared towards tracking the progress of the key objectives of the PM policy to improve quality service delivery and efficiency in public institutions. An important aspect of the performance-based governance is the strategic planning.

According to Deming, (1986), the PM cycle is a planning, acting and monitoring process. The planning stage is where management and employees must agree on the objectives, competency requirements, identify behaviours the organisation must adopt. Performance agreements for achieving objectives and enhancing performance must be stated in clear guidelines to employees. In addition, the organisation must take steps to act or implement the plan to ensure that the organisation achieves its targets and objectives by considering the demands of the external environment of the organisation (Armstrong & Baron, 2007; Otley, 1999). After implementation, monitoring and reviewing the process must be included in the strategic plan because the PM cycle is a continuous process of managing performance in an all year manner rather than a one-time or annual ritual of performance appraisals (Armstrong & Baron, 2007).

Christensen, Laegreid, Roness & Rovik, (2007) report that goal achievement is a way to structure the activities of an organisation's to go through specialized coordinated procedures or guidelines for employees. Goals are directed towards influencing decision-making behaviour and social interaction in organisations. Goals may be instrumental and normative because they may depict both rational and value-based perspectives of the public-sector ethos. At the same time, goals may be at the operational level representing the instrumental and standardized approaches meant to achieve the missions and core strategy of an organisation. Meanwhile, goals may also be simple and one-dimensional, heterogeneous, multiple or complex (Christensen et

al., 2007). Subsequently, Crawshaw et al (2014) point out that goal setting allows employees to understand and have a clear expectation of their performance. Goals need to be set in clear and unambiguous terms and at the same time be well documented for employees and other actors to keep track of the progress of those goals (Verbeeten, 2008). Setting conscious and well-defined goals ensures that goals are efficient and effective for the attainment of such goals. Besides, when goals are precise they provide a measurement criterion in the PM process through the creation of performance targets and standards. Because goals allow employees to plan their tasks, priorities and to improve their performance, conscious goals tell exactly what is expected of them.

In a survey of 66 local government institutions in 25 States in the US, the results showed that the majority (72.7%) of the study sample responded that they included strategic planning into their performance management systems while 14 cities focussed more on performance measurements (Ammons & Roenigk, 2015). The findings also showed that in 78.8 % of the cities local government had a strategic plan. Meanwhile, 21.2% of the local governments had no strategic plans under their PM system. The authors found out that clear goals and objectives are a 'sine qua non' in the PM process because some local government authorities view the strategic planning process as part of the PM system (Ammons & Roenigk, 2015).

Contributing to the importance of organisational goals in the performance management process, Latham et al. (2008), argue that goal setting is an important part of managing performance and that clearly stated goals have the tendency to lead to employee goal commitment and attainment. In addition, goals that are vaguely stated are less likely to be achieved, while conscious goals that are difficult and ambiguous, motivate employees to work towards those goals. For the goal theorists, goals are the best regulators of human behaviour (Latham & Locke, 1979) and when they are set in clear terms, they challenge employees to strive for their attainment. In a similar view, Shantz & Latham (2009) found that goals that are implanted at the subconscious level of employees tend to increase employee performance more than conscious goals.

Although goals are supposed to be set and be accomplished by employees', they must be specific, measurable, attainable, reasonable and time-bound (Crawshaw et al., 2014), yet the process is not a straightforward one. Latham et al (2008) note that

legislators intentionally set performance goals vaguely without clear direction. This is perhaps an intentional act meant to share the consequences of legislation or policy failures with public managers. Available evidence shows that PM outcomes fail in most cases because performance goals are usually set vague without a clear direction of what individual employees are expected to do. Clearly, any performance management goals that are vague, irrelevant and unrealistic may fail to yield or produce the desired outcomes on organisational goals (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008).

2.6.2 Performance Monitoring & Evaluations

Performance appraisal is the formal evaluation of employees, conducted to determine the degree to which they are meeting specified objectives (Crawshaw et al., 2014). The purpose of any performance management system is to provide feedback on performance so that high-performing employees may be rewarded or promoted. Performance appraisal tends to be an administrative process that assumes the role of summative evaluation at the end of the performance period rather than a continuous management performance practice. The process of conducting performance appraisals can affect or drive the PM system. On the one hand, the evaluation process provides information on training and developmental needs of individual employees for performance enhancement which can inform strategic choices of the organisation. On the other hand, if the process is not handled well it may lead to a ‘witch hunting’ process where supervisors and employees are in constant battle over unfair treatment resulting from the appraisal process (Bawole et al., 2013)

Performance appraisal (PA) involves evaluating performance through rating among the appraisers and appraisees. It is a process that demands appraisers to describe performance outcomes rather than being judgmental or seeing them as tools for punishing employees. It means that both the appraiser and the person appraised should clearly understand the evaluation process. On the one hand, employees should ‘fill out a self-evaluation questionnaire or provide documentation to support their actions and behaviour’ before meeting the supervisor, to evaluate their own achievement even before the formal rating process is done (Crawshaw et al., 2014, p. 238). On the other hand, ‘supervisors should be aware of how they are expected to document information related to the appraisee’s performance and how to evaluate performance against established standards’ (p.238).

An effective performance management depends on the extent to which performance is evaluated. Appraising performance is critical for gaining insight into whether the PM policy is achieving its objectives or not. The relevant criteria for evaluating PMS requires the appraisal system to be clearly defined and open to ensure that individual employees understand their rating devoid of any unpleasant feeling between them and their supervisors (Armstrong, 2009). Performance appraisals consider the measurement system and targets that have been designed for the PM system. Performance appraisal (PA) is another way of monitoring the progress of employee performance. Also, the PA system under PM considers the developmental plans agreed upon and performance improvement plans to ensure an adequate assessment of the extent to which managers and employees have met the agreed goals (Armstrong, 2009).

Also, Lawler, (1967) argue that evaluating PMS involves two perspectives, 1) the effectiveness of the system as judged by management and, 2) the effectiveness of the system as judged by employees. The authors contend that performance appraisals or evaluation are only effective if the intended purpose is to support organisational goals by using the skills of employees and to motivate them to perform better in the long run. However, effective mechanisms for performance improvement are when employees know what is expected of them, how well they are doing and how they can improve their performance to meet their individual goals and the organisational goals (Armstrong, 2009; Lawler, 1967).

2.6.3 Performance Reviews

Performance review is a process where employees get to know how they have been able to achieve their targets or goals. Performance feedback is an effective tool for any PM system to ensure that performance measures are met. The feedback process is a complicated one because it demands that supervisors communicate negative and positive feedback to subordinates in a tactical way that is devoid of any unpleasant outcomes (Biron et al., 2011; Crawshaw et al., 2014). But the question is how do managers communicate bad performance results without being judgmental?

The above question means that performance feedback must ensure that performance expectations are communicated in clear language to employees.

Feedback means that information on performance is transparent and in an open environment to ensure that the key actors trust the PM assessment process (Biron et al., 2011). Biron et al found that timely communication of performance information is an effective measure of PM outcomes. In a sample of 153 HR professionals and 95 non-HR professionals in a case study of 16 multinationals organisations in 19 countries, feedback on employees' performance was carried in the form of supervisor feedback during the annual evaluation process. Another feedback on performance technique used by these organisations was through formal programmes for socialization and communicative tools such as the intranet, bulletin boards, departmental meetings, internal newsletters, leaflets and excellence awards of staff. A performance feedback process is an important tool that develops and improves professional and technical competencies of employees (Biron et al., 2011).

According to Crawshaw et al. (2014), feedback provides regular interaction between supervisors and employees to ensure timely and direct performance improvement programmes that might help employees correct performance deficiencies and enhance future performance. Providing feedback on a consistent basis with emphasis on helping to improve employee performance rather than using it as a form of punishment is a more practical and feasible way to increase the effectiveness of PM results (Crawshaw et al., 2014).

In addition, senior managers; or supervisors must provide performance feedback and communicate the results of performance information to employees based on fairness and equity to ensure that subordinates are accountable for their own performance in the performance management cycle. Ownership of the PMS is key to implementing a successful PM policy. Organisations that create a clear, open and transparent performance feedback system devoid of undue discrimination is likely to be accepted by all employees and stakeholders. A way to create an effective feedback system is instituting human resources policies 'mandate feedback-giving for managers to provide documentation of their feedback meetings and follow-ups' to make sure that information is received by employees in a timely manner (Crawshaw et al., 2014, p.237).

2.6.4 Performance Improvement

A developmental approach to PA is an important mechanism for improving future performance rather than a focus on measuring past performance (Crawshaw et al., 2014; Lee, 2005). Lee points out that organisations may not be able to alter past performance but organisations must use their PA system to direct attention and efforts toward improving future performance. The purpose of any PM system is to correct poor performance, reinforce good performance and therefore, the goal of PA should be directed at the future and not the past (Lee, 2005).

However, many public-sector PAs pay more attention to the past and rating of past performance is an annual performance review ritual (Lee, 2005, p. 57). Performance appraisals have universally been assessed as a subjective measurement of employee performance that is based on factors outside the performance system (Bawole, Hossain, Domfeh, Bukari, & Sanyare, 2013; Brumback, 1988; Furnham, 2004). Many of the problems with PA is associated with lack of training for appraisers who tend to have no technical understanding of the PM system (Biron et al., 2011).

The findings reveal six major themes that have had a significant impact on Performance Appraisal Systems. The evidence supports that the mechanical aspects of the PAS are too technical, and the information is too detailed and not user-friendly. Again, there is the tendency for poor performing managers who lack the moral courage and the fear of subordinates invoking spiritual curses or being very hostile to effectively appraise (Bawole et al., 2013). Because of the lack of objectivity in PAS, it has given way to social and religious factors which in some cases may affect the quality, and the use of PAS information for organisational outcomes.

Additionally, factors such as victimisation and intimidation of subordinates do have an impact on managers' use of the PA system as a source of additional positional power. The PA system and organizational objectives are correlated, as the evidence appears to suggest (Behn, 2003; Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Moynihan, 2005) yet some studies observe no correlation between what the organization's objectives are and the standards required of those appraised (Bawole et al., 2013; Lee, 2005; Ohemeng, 2011). The conclusions drawn from the literature indicate that there is low objectivity in some contexts', PAS due to the outdated nature of the forms, inadequate training for supervisors and the absence of guidelines and standard criteria (Brion et

al, 2011). Nevertheless, the purposes of PAS, such as the instruments for training employees, promotions and sources of feedback information for the organisation as well as the employees for an improved performance in the future are important (Lee, 2005; Otley, 1999, see Figure 2.4 below).

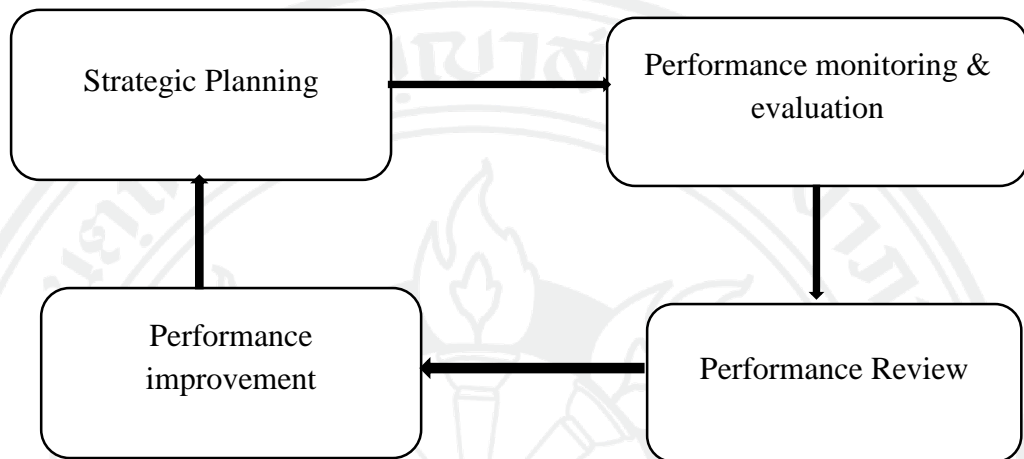


Figure 2.4 Dimensions of Effective Performance Management

2.7 Explanatory Variables and the Independent Variables

This section is aimed at discussing the variables or factors that are presumed to support EPM in the public sector and they are considered as the explanatory variables of the study. The organisational and the environmental determinants are perceived to have a significant relationship with the dependent variable thus, EPM. From the literature review, the organisational determinants may include clear and measurable goals (CMGS), ‘development of result-oriented performance measures’ (DROPMS) and the use of performance information (USOPI). While the environmental determinants are stakeholder participation (STAKHOP) and political support (POLSP). In addition, the discussion involves the PSM construct.

2.7.1 Organisational Determinants

Organisational determinants refer to organisational inputs, outputs and processes involved in the design, implementation and communication of the PM objectives. They are the important component of an effective PM and when they are

adequately followed, it may lead to effective outcomes on performance management policy objectives, and the reverse is also true. Three main variables are selected to be considered important and that may support the outcomes of the PM process as is further discussed.

2.7.1.1 Clear and Measurable Goals (CMGS)

In organisational behaviour literature, employee behaviour is considered purposeful and goal-directed. Locke, (1978) argues that 'goal setting is recognised, explicitly or implicitly, by virtually every major theory of work motivation' (p.594) and that goals refer to 'what the individual is consciously trying to do' (Latham & Yukl, 1975, p. 824; Locke, 1968, p. 159). The definition suggests that goals are what an employee is trying to achieve, 'the object or aim of an action is like the concepts of purpose and intent' (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham, 1981, p. 126).

Goal setting is a motivational tool, and evidence reveals that goal setting support performance about 90 % of the time (Latham et al., 1981), but goal setting is effective when employees are committed to the goal, feedback is incorporated, and employees monitor their progress on the goals. Locke and Latham point out that goal setting and the presence of goals are likely to motivate employees to achieve high performance. But, difficult goals challenge individual employees to put an extra effort toward the attainment of those goals. Similarly, Latham & Blakes, (1975) observe that 'setting of a goal that is both specific and challenging leads to an increase in performance because it makes the task clear to the individual what he is supposed to do' (p.124).

According to Shantz, A. and Latham (2011) in two separate studies aimed to test the hypothesis that a prime goal in the subconscious leads to a higher employee performance than only conscious goals, the results show that prime goals remain active in the subconscious and exert a passive effect on an individual's behaviour, even though the individual is unaware that the goal exists (Shantz & Latham, 2011). In the first study, drawing on a sample of 20 in an experimental design, the study randomly assigned 10 contracts to call employees to the treatment group and 10 to the control group who were asked to raise funds for a public university, in Canada. The median age of the employees is reported as 20.95 with a standard deviation of 2.12 and 40% of the sample were men. The employees were not aware that they were

being studied and unaware of the prime goals. One group of employees had a picture of a woman winning a race competition and the control group had no picture on their packs, but each group were made to work for four hours. The findings show that none of the experimental group indicated that the photograph had influenced their performance. However, using a Chi-square test, the first model showed that there was no significant difference between the experimental condition and the control condition whether the information pack included in the task influenced their performance or not.

However, after transforming the dependent variable to its logarithm, an independent sample two-tailed t-test showed a substantial difference in the two groups. The treated group which was primed had a mean of 2.55 and a standard deviation of .33 and the control group had a mean of 2.10 and a standard deviation of .55. Also, at the t value of (18), the t calculated was 2.23 and the p-value was less than 0.5., $d=.99$. Additionally, the second study revealed the same results with a sample of 44 contract employees. The limitation of this study is that the sample is targeted at job performance of all employees which may not be applicable to other forms of jobs. Also, these were contract workers and their performance might perhaps have been influenced because of the nature of contract job which is based on high performance to be considered for another contract. The question is, what if the study is carried out in a job secure environment, would the results still be the same?

Adding to the importance of goals in employees' performance, Grant, (2008) points out that goal clarity is an important determinant of employees' performance, however, goal orientation is associated with an employee's intrinsic and prosocial motivation. In a two-separate study with 70 firefighters and 140 fundraising workers, the results showed that firefighters who had high intrinsic motivation, their performance was higher than those with less intrinsic motivation given the same knowledge and understanding of the goals of the organisation. In the second sample, the findings showed that 70% of callers who made more calls had higher levels of intrinsic motivation moderated by their prosocial behaviour (Jung, 2014a; Kroll, 2015; Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Moynihan, 2005; Tantardini & Kroll, 2015). This finding implies that goals, although important for an organisation's performance are mediated by individual employees' intrinsic and prosocial motivation. The implications are that the presence of prosocial behaviour of

employees may be explanatory variables for the difference in the sample performance, apart from the goals.

Using the organisational learning theory, Moynihan (2005) studied policy effectiveness and managing for results in state agencies and found that organisations fail to incorporate culture, policy choices and effectiveness in the process. In two case studies, the results indicate that goal-based learning is absent in the two cases studied. The author argued that the two organisations had adopted a single-loop learning approach that failed to incorporate culture and the context of the performance management environment. The lack of a double learning approach, especially towards adding learning forums to managing organisational results, may affect performance results.

In another study to test the relationship between goal clarity, performance management, and information use, Moynihan et al. (2012a), found that goal clarity is related to public managers' use of performance information. The results show that clarity of PM goals is significantly related to performance information use. However, the authors observe that organisational goals that are supported by a norm-based culture and innovation attract employees' efforts to overall organisational goals (Moynihan et al., 2012a). Goal-setting implies that goals motivate public managers' sense of achievement of the mission and vision of the organisation. Goals remind public managers of the social contract of the state, and therefore, public employees must strike a balance between their present performance and the expected performance of the organisation. However, not all goals are clear and specific and can be achieved. This is because the mere stating of a goal that is quantifiable and measurable, precise, objective and reasonable, made not be understood by employees and stakeholders outside the organisation. Besides, understanding goals means that they are consistent with the mission of the organisation (Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Yang & Hsieh, 2007). The goal theory states that conscious goals are the regulators of human action and that individuals are more likely to exert an effort towards pursuing goals that are specific but clear and measurable (Shantz & Latham, 2011).

On the effectiveness of goals on PM, Latham et al (2008), find that goal attainment is achieved by the context of PM system. The authors contend that an effective performance management system includes strategic goals that are

challenging and measurable. The authors note that situational factors moderate the goals-performance relationship, and the level of government where goals are formulated impacts on goals and performance. The paper also observe that legislators intentionally set vague goals instead of specific goals because the goals are competing, and they may be affected by their political ideologies. At the same time, the nature and the characteristics of public managers, legislators and stakeholders are heterogeneous rather than that managers in the private sector organisations tend to impact on goals in the public sector. Goals that tend to be vague are set because specific goals may be secondary and unattainable.

Therefore, goal setting involves precision, measurability, the objectivity of the goals, reasonability and how simple employees' and external stakeholders understand the goals, as well as how the individuals' goals relate to the organization's mission. For the context of this study, clear and measurable goals refer to how employees can understand what is expected of them and use that information to achieve their individual tasks. Clear and measurable goals also mean that they are consistent with the mission and vision of the organisation and support stakeholders' participation. To the extent that employees and stakeholders outside the organisation can identify and make sense of such goals, they are deemed clear and specific. At the same time, goals must be measurable, achievable and reasonable and be time-bound (Behn, 2003).

2.7.1.2 Development of Results-Oriented Performance Measures (DROPMS)

Results-oriented performance measures refer to the concise and the precise that the performance targets or key performance indicators state and which can be measured, thus what and how goals are supposed to be measure to ensure that the stated goals and the mission of the organisation hang together and are quantifiable as well as qualitative measurable of overall employee performance in the PM process. Measuring performance in the public sector has greater stakes, yet evidence on its effectiveness in the public sector is mixed (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Melkers & Willoughby, 2005; Yang & Hsieh, 2007). At the same time, the measurement systems are not based on objectivity and seem to be disproportional to the organisational goals as well as the mission (Kelly, 2002). According to (Moynihan, 2005) in a study of US public institutions, he found that the US state legislators use performance measures to

assess the performance of public institutions as a tool for holding these institutions accountable. Performance measurement is essential in the government reform agenda globally and is influenced by legislators and citizens for higher accountability, responsiveness, and quality service delivery by public organisations.

There are various forms of performance measurement systems found in the public sector, traditional workload measures, accountability measures, service quality improvement measures (Yang & Hsieh, 2007). Many public institutions have engaged in measuring performance through simple workload measures or output measures and simple measures are recorded as how many of a service are produced, the number of 'applications processed', letters written, meters read, arrest made etc. These measures are the most basic and simple and easy to count and report on (Ammons, 2002). But such measures are too shallow in dealing with complex situations and managerial decision made in terms of how efficient or effective, and what quality did the workload achieve?

Performance measurement has two aims, it supports accountable measures that relate to performance reporting, and it is oriented towards performance improvement (Ammons, 2002). However, a performance measurement system that is directed towards performance reporting or accountability is less likely to be effective. This is because measures that are directed at appealing to elected officials, citizens and the media, are likely to produce little feedback for future performance and managerial decision-making (Behn, 2003, p. 308). A performance measurement system that is based on accountability purposes or performance reporting is likely to generate data that can be manipulated by public managers to achieve those mechanisms without having a meaningful implication for decision-making and future performance. Because managing for results has become very popular in the public sector, however, performance data that are generated may not be useful for correcting and enhancing future performance. Nevertheless, performance measurement systems are widespread governmental reform initiatives which seek to make government agencies track and measure strategic goals, targets, and achievements of national programmes (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). But its effectiveness depends on how organisations accurately design measures that capture both outputs and outcomes as well as efficiency and effectiveness measures.

Central to this need for the efficient and effective use of public resources, is the issue of accountability, because, stakeholders expect that public managers' to be accountable for their actions and inactions in the use of public resources. When public managers set their targets, they must monitor and assess the results of the performance targets. At the same time, being accountable means that public managers are responsible for their actions and the consequences of such actions. Additionally, performance measurements in the public sector are a measure of accountability because public managers purposely engage in performance measurement to satisfy minimum criteria or benchmarks for accountability. The accountability measures the 'raw counts of government activity to impressive numbers to demonstrate that departments and employees are working' (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008, p. 307). Also, performance measurement is meant for service quality improvement. A measurement system that centres on service quality can help senior managers and employees to adopt strategies for quality service delivery because they are able to analyse the cost-effectiveness of services rendered.

Another component of performance measures is efficiency and effectiveness in which the utilization of limited resources is supposed to bring higher returns (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008). Ammons and Rivenbark note that there are higher-order measures which measure accurately the relationship between 'production outputs and the resources to produce the outputs while effectiveness measures the outcomes of the resource usage' (p.308). Similarly, performance measurement systems also involve efficiency, effectiveness and economy of use of state resources and ensure that the goals and organisational strategies are met, organisations must be more meticulous in expanding the public purse. In discussing results-oriented performance measures, the 3Es must be highlighted: Efficiency, Effectiveness, and Economy, in the use of the public resources (Curtright, Stolp-Smith, & Edell, 2000). Despite, the superior quality of efficiency measures, it is difficult to translate how a measure relates outputs to resources with precision, but the process of establishing efficiency measures demand 'accurate measurement of outputs and inputs' (Ammon & Rivenbark, 2008, p. 309).

Behn (2003) observes that 'Everyone is measuring performance' (p.586) to indicate the widespread nature of performance measures in both public and private

domains, yet the effect of performance measures in the public sector is remarkably different from the private sector. The differences exist because the private sector has always measured their performance as part of their management practices, unlike the public sector (Behn, 2003). Besides, the goals of the private sector are obviously clear and specific thus, profit maximisation and can be measured as well. In fact, whereas the private sector uses their performance measurement information for managerial decision making, the practice of actual usage of measures for improvement of quality service delivery and decision-making in the public sector is virtually absent or minimal (Hatry, 2002). He underscores that improving the performance of public agencies and government programmes depends on how public managers measure their achievement. Behn poses questions such as ‘how can public managers know if they are doing a good job? How can public agencies know if they are doing a good job? How can legislators and citizens know whether their agencies and managers are doing a good job?’ (p.319).

According to Behn, the answer to these questions is simple and straightforward; for public managers to accomplish their task, they must measure outcomes or impacts and not inputs or outputs (Behn, 1995). A performance measurement system includes three kinds of measures. First, input measure includes the number of units involved in a programme or service, the number of staff working, and the amount of money spent in delivering that programme or service. Second, output measure refers to the number of people or clients who participate in a programme, how many times. The third is whether the goals have an impact on the programme or the programme has made the conditions of those involve improved. Although it seems easy to prescribe measures, outputs or outcomes, it is not obvious to provide clear-cut objectives that a programme is expected to achieve, and how much the programme will contribute to the objective. It is difficult to tell what output and outcome measures are. The implication is that a performance measurement system is a big question for PM because the process of managing for results require organisations to develop very specific indicators or KPIs that operationalise the meaning of the mission of the organisation (Behn, 1995). A performance measurement system may be viewed as the operationalisation of organisational goals

at the strategic level down to the individual levels which clearly specify ways with timelines for achieving the set targets.

A performance measurement may be a better tool for decision-making and efficient use of public resources but there are many challenges that public organisations may run into in their effort to measure performance. In most cases, performance measurement systems are poorly designed, and this is particularly so because many of the measurement systems are mainly produced for performance reporting that is built on an accountability framework, thereby neglecting 'higher-order measures but rather have 'raw count of workload or outputs' (Ammons, 2002, p.346). Besides, McBride (2008) points out that measuring performance in public institutions could be difficult, but at the same time, public organisations performance measurements can be directed at creating a framework of the elements that are integral to their core mandate. He proposes that for public institutions performance measures to be evaluated, the measures must be based on transparency, citizen/customer satisfaction, meritocracy, organisational climate, efficiency, information technology, strategic management issues, leadership, accountability, integrity and these must be published on scorecards, league tables for stakeholders to assess the performance of public institutions.

Scholars of the PM in the public sector both agree that performance measurement is a very challenging task for most organizations when it comes to what to measure, how to measure, who to measure and why to measure (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Ammons, 2002; Behn, 1995; Behn, 2003; De Lancer Julnes, 2006; Grizzle, 2002). Yet performance measures are an innovation in the public sector but a challenging task for most organisations despite its ability to achieve organisational goals (Ittner & Larcker, 1998). Earlier performance measurement systems appeared to have been characterised by problems of evaluation and bias on the part of supervisors and subordinates (Armstrong, 2009; Ittner & Larcker, 1998). The problems imposed by the old performance rating systems led to the introduction of what is perceived as a more strategic measurement system better under the guise of 'Performance Appraisals' (Armstrong, 2009). Performance Appraisals are also problematic in terms of measurement of quantitative and qualitative areas of individual employee performance (Aguinis, 2013; Armstrong, 2009).

Also, Grizzle (2002) observes that performance measurement has been on the offer in the public sector for long over six decades or more. However, the unintended consequences associated with performance measures are still present because public managers are not using performance measurement information for decision making (Kroll & Vogel, 2013). Grizzle notes that efficiency measurement must lead to greater efficiency, and outcomes measures must lead to better outcomes, but this has eluded public organisations many times. In many public organisations, public managers are nonreactive or indifferent towards the measurement system. For example, efficiency or outcomes measures may be subjected to manipulations by public administrators through the division of tasks to other lower-level employees with the aim of reducing cost. However, by decentralising programmes, it may lead to inefficiency and undesirable outcomes on the project (Grizzle, 2002). Therefore, designing a performance measurement system that mitigates the unintended consequences is central to achieving the desired outcomes on performance management system.

Even though the development of the measurement criteria may not be fraudulent, the evaluation process and the use of the performance information is mostly shrouded in secrecy and vindictiveness on the part of senior managers and the personnel or the HR department (Armstrong & Baron, 1998; Bawole et al., 2013). The goal of such performance measurement is to punish underperforming employees and reward over-performers (Armstrong, 2009). The old performance measurement system might not be unrealistic on face value, but the system failed to create room for better performance because employees appear to be in competition with each other rather than engaging in teamwork to achieve the overall goals. In the long-term organisational objectives are hardly achieved under such systems.

Equally, developing and synthesising information emanating from the performance measurement system has increased the performance paradox (Van Dooren, 2011). Van Dooren argues that data from budget reports, audit reports, monitoring activities, administrative correspondence, legal documents, protocols, personal communication and including performance information by decision-makers are likely to lead to information overload and the analysis of these piles of information will result in 'paralysis by analysis' because public managers may not be able to synthesise the information to help in decision-making. Van Dooren, Bouckaert

& & Halligan, (2010) describe that the paradoxes of performance management are the attempts to count the uncountable (p.176). The authors argue that the prescription that is given by management consultants for public organisation to institute key performance indicators (KPIs), the Balanced Score Card (Kaplan and Norton, 1996), the focus on divisions and agencies are infused so that their activities to be captured as KPIs are problematic (Van Dooren et. al., 2010).

From the discussions, performance measurement is an important exercise that are embedded in the PM cycle, but the ability of the measures to be accurate and precise to achieve results is an important determinant of how well measurement indicators measure what they are supposed to measure and whether they are linked to the goals and mission of the organisation. Also, performance measurement systems involve workload measures and accountability measures on one hand, and service quality improvement which is directed towards efficiency and effectiveness of outputs and outcomes of a goal on the other (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008). McBride (2008) also points out that public institutions' performance measurement should contain basic elements such as transparency, efficiency, effectiveness, integrity and accountability to ensure that public organisations are judged based on these measures by key stakeholders. Therefore, this study conceptualises results-oriented performance measures as measures that involve accountability measures, efficiency measures, service quality improvement measures and transparency measures as well as the effectiveness of the output-outcome relationship.

2.7.1.3 The Use of Performance Information (USOPI)

Performance information use is an important component of EPM which is concerned with using data generated from the performance management cycle for their intended purpose. Performance information use also refers to the metrics or the feedback obtained from the performance targets or indicators implementation processes which are meant to correct bad performance, enhance future performance, to steer, control and make decisions on the outcomes of the PM process (Lee, 2005; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Van Dooren, Bouckaert & Halligan, 2015). Research shows that although performance data is generated from the PM process, the use of the data is less known in the public sector compared with the private sector (Moynihan et al., 2012a; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). Moynihan and Pandey (2010)

define performance information used as an organisational behaviour that employees have discretion on whether to use it or not and the degree to which they engage in it are 'influenced by the social context and formal systems in which they work' (p. 852).

Scholarly literature indicates that the area of the PM system which is quite understudied is performance information use (Kroll & Moynihan, 2015; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Pandey, 2016). At the same time, evidence reveals that performance information use has been firmly established in the private sector compared to the public sector (Courty, Heinrich, & Marschke, 2005), however, recent developments suggest an improvement in the use of performance data in public organisations. Moynihan, et al. (2012a) find that performance information use in the public sector is used purposefully for decision-making and that political uses of performance information are also observed where managers use the information to advocate for programmes resources in their organisations (Moynihan et al., 2012a)

Evidently, performance information uses as noted by Moynihan and Pandey, are an organisational behaviour that can be affected by the discretion of public managers and the factors that affect it is both contextual and systemic. For example, individual-level factors such as PSM or prosocial behaviour of public managers are positively related to performance information use (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a, 2012b; Wright et al., 2012). Whereas these studies tested the direct effect of PSM on performance information use, the findings suggest that other factors moderate the effect of PSM on performance information use (Kroll, 2016). For instance, Kroll and Vogel found an indirect relationship between PSM and information use.

Performance management (PM) literature suggests that performance information use probably does not influence decision making in the public sector by politicians and public managers (Van Dooren et al., 2015), yet, a PM system is incomplete without the use of performance data (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2012b; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Pandey, 2016; Tantardini & Kroll, 2015). It is undoubtedly true that performance information use is the 'hallmark' of EPM and that the use of information ensures that public organisations are accountable to service seekers and improve organisational performance (Pandey, 2016). Pandey also observes that performance information is expected to serve

accountability purposes in public organisations and to uncover better ways of improving performance. Similarly, accountability frameworks also allow public organisations to produce results on government policies. Kroll and Kroll & Proeller (2013) note that there are several factors that influence an organisation's performance information use, such as organisational, environmental and individual determinants are key success factors for organisational performance. To the extent that these factors drive PM objectives, they might well spell doom for organisations that do not harmonise them appropriately, especially public sector organisations.

Furthermore, the use of performance information indicates that there are several uses of the data generated from the PMS. The types of uses identified by authors but not exhaustively include, steering and controlling, to learning, and accounting (Van Dooren, et al., 2015). Purposeful use (Hatry, 2007), political use (Moynihan, 2008), passive use (Radin, 2006) and perverse use (Heinrich, 2007) are all forms of use of performance information. These types are not exhaustive, but they capture the numerous uses of performance information. It is also important to note that allocation of resources, citizen/customer satisfaction, reporting and monitoring (Van Dooren et al., 2015) depicts the use of performance information. At the heart of an EPM system, is its ability to use information gathered to improve programme performance, however, the way that this can be achieved is through goal-oriented learning that emphasises efficiency improvements, targeting of resources, well-informed strategic decisions and indicators that reward or sanctions employees' through performance contracts.

Moynihan et al. (2012a) find that any perceived social impact has a direct relationship with purposeful and political uses at a statistically significant level of 0.001, implying a unit increase in perceived social impact has an associated increase of 0.42 in both purposeful and political uses of performance information (2012a, p. 474). In addition, goal clarity is also associated with both purposeful and political uses. Because PM goals that are clear may influence how information generated is used for decision-making in an organisation, the findings have implications for reforms on PM because there are different types of use of performance information that may have an impact on overall outcomes on PM policies. The explicit understanding of performance information use for PM reformers is the purposeful

uses, but at the same time data generated from performance may be used for advocacy, both perversely and passively by public managers (Moynihan et al., 2012a). In this study, the use of performance information's purposeful and political uses as put forward by Moynihan et al. (2012a) has been exploited.

2.7.2 Environmental Determinants

The structural contingency theory argues that an organisational structure is a fit between the design parameters and the situational factors. The situational or contingent factors include size, age, technology and the environment. For the research questions of the study, the present focus of the study is to look at only the environmental contingency factor and its related variables that have been studied in the performance management literature and there is inconclusive evidence for this. Environmental determinants are both internally and externally driven factors that may have an impact on the PM system design and implementation outcomes (Kroll, 2015; Otley, 1999; Pollitt, 2013; Yang & Hsieh, 2007; Yang & Torneo, 2016). Environmental determinants, though, are not technical factors, but they support the internal environment of the organisation to achieve the goals of a PM policy (Yang & Hsieh, 2007).

Otley (1999) points out that the context of performance management is characterised by a constant change because the environment in which organisations operate is dynamic and it demands managers to adapt by finding new answers to the PMS questions. Adding to this view, Bouckaert and Halligan (2008) in their study of 5 countries observe that the PMS of the 5 countries they studied were different sharply. In Aguinis et al. (2012) it is argued that there is nothing like performance management universals, but the culture, origin and other contingent factors affect PM outcome and effectiveness.

Bouckaert and Halligan (2008) observe that a country experiencing political crisis is more likely to have an effective PMS and this evidence is supported by a study of seven countries by Rhodes et al. (2012), that PMS is more effective in politically unstable countries as well as establish that an administrative culture rather than countries with young democratic governance is the determiner. The success of a PM is based on contextual factors or contingency variables that regulate the interplay between the internal environment of the organisation and its external environment.

Bouckaert and Halligan (2008) argue that performance management systems are unique because each country's model has clearly different contents and emphasise the role of context in the PM processes and their level of effectiveness. Whereas in some countries that have established an administrative culture tend to do better on performance management, other countries with emerging democracies PMS are far less effective. Using six countries models of PM with regards to measurement, incorporation and use of performance information with three systems namely, performance administration, management of performances and performance management/ Governance, the authors develop three model realities for managing performance which is regarded as an ideal type, the country model and the degree of implementation of their PMS.

There are two important environmental variables that are considered as contingent factors in an EPM system: stakeholder participation and political support. These two variables of interest consist of the contingency approach to managing performance in a public organisation, but more previously found conflicting and inconclusive evidence on these two variables has been identified and hence, it is the more reason why earlier studies have called for different settings testing them to support in theory building (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Conaty, 2012; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Rhodes et al., 2012; Yang & Hsieh, 2007).

2.7.2.1 Political Support (POLSP)

Political support refers to the level of authority, the autonomy of an agency granted to it by the political leadership or elected officials. It also involves the degree to which support is given to an organisation by elected officials in terms of allocation of resources for programme implementation and PM policies without undue interference. According to Lavertu and Moynihan (2013), Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004);, Yang and Hsieh (2007), political support or commitment is another environmental factor for EPM in the public sector because it could motivate administrators and managers since the perceived support of politicians will lead to more allocation of resources and funds to support PM activities.

Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) found that, although PM has gained external support from service users, citizens and other stakeholders, political support for performance measurement has been unsatisfactory. The authors argue that

governments have often paid little for the implementation of PM reforms and this has led to undesirable outcomes on public sector reform programmes. Political support for public sector reform in some countries like Norway, New Zealand, Finland, and France have proven to be successful on NPM reforms because political support means the exercise of power and mobilisation of resources to enhance the implementation of PM policies are provided. The role of politicians also influences the vision, values, strategies and goals of the reform agenda, and political commitment will lead to clear definitions of these missions and values through effective allocation of resources at the macro level. Pollitt and Bouckaert further point out that when public managers see the commitment of political leadership in the PM process, they are more likely to support the operational level by setting clear targets and objectives based on which their performance will be assessed.

While there is little evidence on how political leaders adopt this role in the PM process, research has shown that political support is likely to increase the achievement of the mission, goals and lead to adequate allocation of resources to support PM systems. In some instances, political support is at the rhetoric level rather than practice. Politicians are quick to offer and proclaim what needs to be done in the face of reforms, but their level of commitment to the implementation processes is less effective (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). In most cases, politicians do want to share the responsibility of policy failures with public managers by intentionally setting vague goals instead of clear and specific policy objectives (Latham et al., 2008).

Drawing on data from Phase II of the National Administrative Studies Project (NASP-II), Moynihan and Pandey (2005) focussed on 85 primary human service agencies in 24 US states and surveyed 274 senior managers, with a 53% response rate, to test the moderating effect of political support and developmental culture on mission effectiveness. The results show that political support from elected officials has a positive effect on human resource red tape and information system red tape. The implication is that political support moderated the effects of the two forms of red tape on mission effectiveness. The findings support that, under high political support, mission effectiveness tends to increase and under low political support, mission effectiveness tends to decline.

Subsequently, in the discussion, the explanatory power of political support on EPM, Yang and Hsieh (2007) find that there is a significant relationship between external political support and effective performance management outcomes. The results of the study show that respondents rate political support favourably higher than stakeholder participation. The univariate analysis used by the authors shows that external political support has an average score of 12.47 and a standard deviation of 3.20 on a three-item scale. The index that was used to measure political support were agency autonomy, authority and elected official support of policies which had a Cronbach Alpha of 0.73 indicating an acceptable reliability level of the items. The authors conclude that political support has both a direct and an indirect relationship with performance measurement effectiveness. External political support is important because the cost of developing and implementing a PMS is related to tangible resources and technical resources as well (Yang & Hsieh 2007) and therefore, gaining political support is more likely to get public managers more committed to the PM objectives (Conaty 2012; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Yang & Hsieh 2007).

Despite the strong evidence from these findings, there are others who believe that political support tends to interfere with public agencies performance in some instances. In Public Administration literature, the argument has been that there should be a separation between the politics-administration dichotomies. According to Thompson and Ricucci (1998), any political system that has multiple political actors is likely to lead to uncertain behaviour and reasonable risk-taking and lack of flexibility on the part of public managers (Moynihan, 2005). The critics of political support hold that the relative presence of political approval has an unintended consequence of organisational performance. Yet others, such as Rainey and Steinbauer (1999), Rainey and advance that public organisations that can mobilise the support of elected officials correlate with the quality of the mission and goals of the organisation.

From the review, political support refers to the level of authority, the autonomy of an agency and the support of elected officials for an agency's policies. Additionally, the political support includes the leverage given to local and sub-national organisations by elected officials, the legislature and other identifiable political actors like council members and local legislators. The model of political

support given by Yang and Hsieh (2007) is revised to include timely allocation of resources for implementing performance management policies for this study. Figure 2.5 depicts a political support framework.

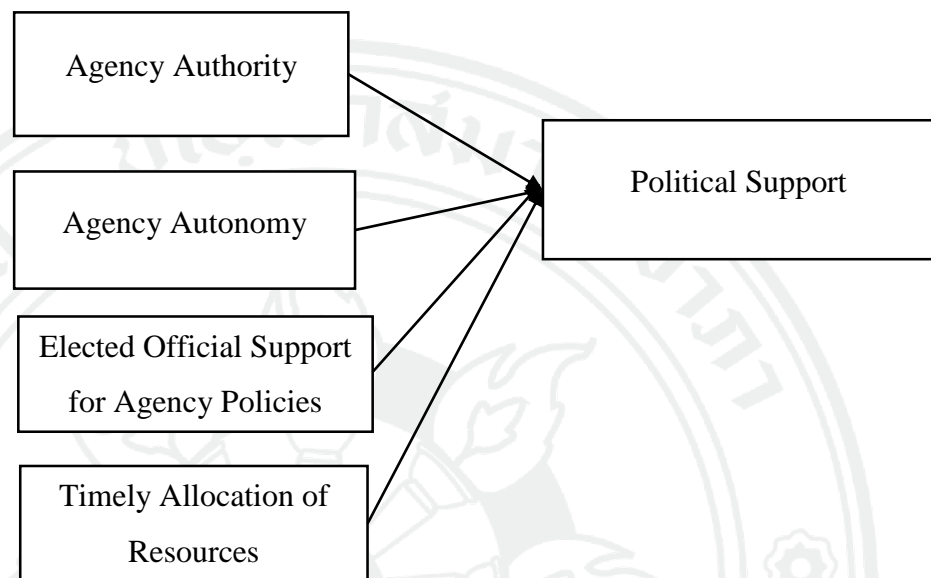


Figure 2.5 Indicators of Political Support: Adapted from (Yang & Hsieh, 2007)

2.7.2.2 Stakeholder Participation (STAKHOP)

Stakeholder participation refers to the degree of involvement of key actors in the performance management process. Key actors are elected officials, political executives, administrative, professional and operational staff, and citizens/customers. Stakeholder participation is a key environmental variable that is critical for managing PM reforms in the public sector. Although other studies have found a weak relationship between the variables, others tend to produce inconclusive results (Moynihan et al., 2012a, Yang & Hsieh, 2007).

Environmental determinants are important because an effective PM needs the support of stakeholders and the support of political leadership (Yang & Hsieh, 2007). The environment is important because the context of the performance is subject to the

effects of the organisational environment. Yang and Hsieh (2007) find that stakeholder involvement affects the formulation, adoption and performance measurement outcomes. Stakeholder participation and political support are reported to have influenced the effectiveness of performance measurement systems while at the same time, the findings indicate that performance measurement effectiveness is positively related to external stakeholder participation in the formulation and adoption stage of the PM policy in Taipei, the Taiwan capital, involving 684 respondents, who were high-level public managers, with a 61% response rate; 59 % of the respondents were female and the mean number of years of the government employees was 11.5 years. The findings from the bivariate analysis show that stakeholder participation had a mean value of 14.72 and a standard deviation of 4.22 was lower than the other variables.

However, the structural model used to test the fit of the theoretical model revealed that all the variables including stakeholder participation had a significant influence on effective performance management outcomes. The study also showed that agencies that involved political actors or legislators in the PM process had a more effective outcome on PM than those who did not involve any kind of stakeholders. Performance management operates in an uncertain environment, therefore, collaborative networks, as well as the participation of every actor in the process is important but organisations should clearly define who their key stakeholders are to include genuine participation only (Yang & Hsieh, 2007). This evidence is plausible, but it is inconclusive because other studies found less support for the variable in other contexts (Moynihan et al., 2012a). Hence, it means that the context of the PM reform may increase or weaken the effect size of the variable in other settings.

Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) observe that performance measurement and management have been more extensive now than for the past 30 years. The argument in the PM literature presupposes that PM as an accountability tool, a decision-making tool and a control mechanism in the internal environment of the organisation, is more theoretical than practical. Regardless of its inability to serve as an accountability tool on the part of public managers, PM has gained external influence where legislative bodies and the public have an interest in its implementation. The authors contend that performance measures are used to inform legislatures, taxpayers, service users and

several stakeholders on the use of public resources and service delivery. The introduction of citizen charters at hospitals and other agencies in the US, France, the UK and in NPM countries have accorded importance to external stakeholders as key actors in the performance-based doctrines in the public sector.

Accordingly, Bouckaert and Halligan (2008), point out that stakeholder participation is an important driver of effective PM. The authors provide a complex set of relationships that support effective management of performance in public organisations. Multiple stakeholder relationships must be coordinated well to achieve high performance, but the fear is that an unclear coordination of this multiple stakeholder situations may, in fact, have either a positive or a negative impact on PM goals.

Using Bouckaert and Halligan's (2008) framework, Conaty (2012) found that multi-stakeholder participation in the PM process tends to have an impact on its effectiveness. The multi-stakeholder framework was used to design a case study of the non-profit hybrid organisation utilising semi-structured interviews with four key informants and a critical review of policy documents. The results indicate that five organisational attributes, inter-stakeholder relationships, tension over objectives, culture, institutional clashes, power distribution and interdependent stress were challenges that had an impact on PM. The study observed that the organisation had a profile of stakeholder relationships which it provided a substantial service to and maintained a good relationship with through its multi-stakeholders' network in the provision of its services. It was also noted that the mission statement of the organisation was towards improving quality services to service seekers.

In contrast to the above findings, Moynihan and Pandey (2010) find that stakeholder participation is less significant on performance management outcomes. The purpose of the study was to find out whether citizens' participation has a relationship with PM and performance information use. The authors tested the influence of citizens' impact on performance information use, using 1538 respondents surveyed in 545 different locations and the results showed a 10% significance rate. The findings suggest inconclusive evidence on whether citizen participation does have an impact on PM policies or not. However, elected officials' involvement in the PM process has been found to be effective on PM objectives (Yang & Hsieh, 2007).

Stakeholders' participation in this study refers to elected officials and appointed executives or politicians, employees of the organisation and citizens/customers involved in the PM process. It is important to observe that the relationship between and among these five groups of actors is a complex one and by using a framework adapted from Bouckaert and Halligan (2008), the study operationalised stakeholder participation to include all these groups in an effective PM system. For any PM policy, environmental determinants are important drivers of an effective PM. Figure 2.6 depict the multiple stakeholder relationships in the PM process.

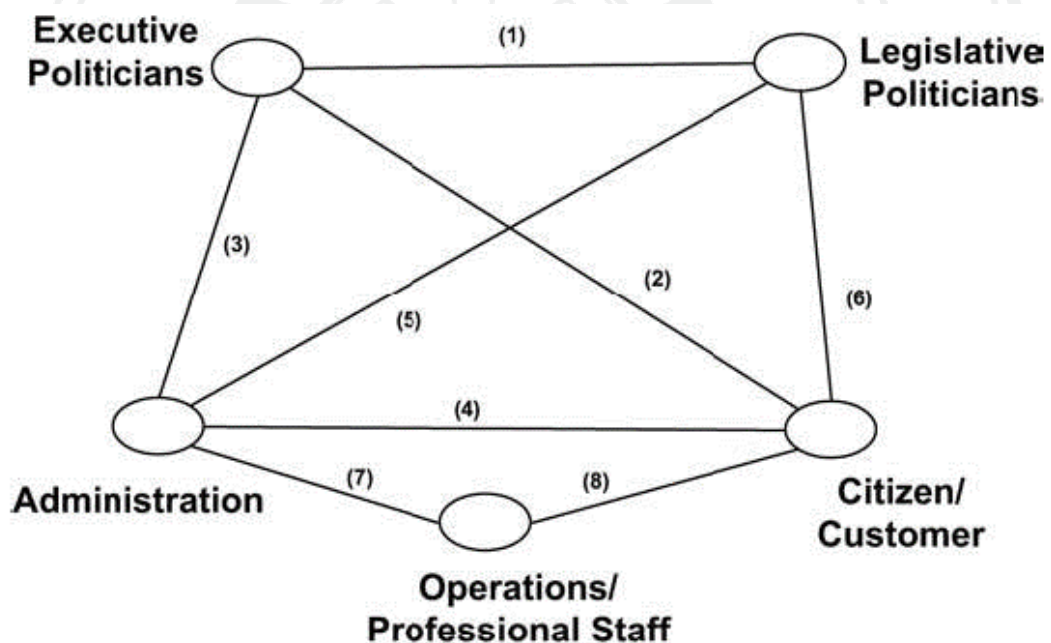


Figure 2.6 Stakeholder Participation Relationship: Adapted from Bouckaert & Halligan (2008)

2.7.3 Public Service Motivation (PSM)

PSM is anchored on six main psychological motives (Perry, 1996; Vandenabeele, 2007) of public service employees 1) the desire to take part in public policy making by employees 2) commitment to the public interest that is the perceived public value of work which seeks to benefit others; 3) civic duty, relates to the non-elected nature of public holders; 4) social justice, demands that employees become equity sensitive in decision making especially towards minorities outside the organisation; 5) compassion which clearly require public service post holders to be responsive to the needs of the groups who do not will political influence and 6) self-sacrifice demands that employees substitute personal gain or material reward for intangible rewards in the form of selfless service to the nation (Perry, 1996).

The proponents of this theory argue that when employees perceived the social impact of their work and the value of public work as well as the tendency for their action to benefit others, they are more likely to use performance information for purposeful and political advocacies (Grant, 2012; Moynihan et al., 2012a). In addition, the PSM theory maintains that when employees have lower 'public service motivation', they are more likely to become obstinate users of performance information. The concept of PSM holds that when employees see the significance of their work, they are likely to put in extra- role behaviour as gifts to benefit the organisation (Moynihan et al., 2012a). Additionally, PSM anchors the value of public work that makes employees t 'overcome passivity and less likely to engage in the perverse use of performance data' (Moynihan et al., 2012a, p. 478). Research on PSM is a new area in performance management literature, however, its foundation is more grounded in public administration literature than on the value of public service (Perry, 1996). Recent research reveals that PSM correlates with performance information use which is part of the performance management process (Kroll, 2015; Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). The findings of Moynihan et al. (2012a), (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010) and Kroll & Vogel (2013) indicate that PSM has a direct impact on purposeful and political uses of performance management information.

Previous research in organisational behaviour tends to suggest that PSM sees prosocial behaviour rather than monetary rewards as related to 'persistence', 'high performance' and 'productivity' of employees (Grant, 2008, p. 710). Because there is

the tendency for employees go beyond duty call to persist in performing their work effectively and productively the main answer to this extra role is prosocial motivation, because employees are committed to a cause (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003) or see public work as a moral duty (Shamir, 1991). Performance management scholars have discovered the significant role of PSM which is the desire to benefit other people through their work. The social impact of prosocial motivation on employees and managers is that performance information requires an extra-role behaviour for usage because it is an organisational behaviour that managers have discretion over (Moynihan et al., 2012a). Hence, this kind of behaviour is more likely to be 'performed by managers with a high motivation to go the extra mile to serve the public' (Kroll & Vogel, 2013, p. 977). The use of performance information is not an explicit requirement in the public sector for decision-making, for managers do have at their discretion either to use information emanating from performance management or not, but the presence of this motivation will motivate public managers to use information for decision-making (Kroll, 2015; Moynihan et al., 2012a).

Moynihan and Pandey (2010) find strong evidence that PSM is an individual driver of managers' use of performance data for decision-making in an organisation. The study used some multi-method survey of 1538 senior managers in the US local government system. In all, the response rate was 46.4% from 545 local governments. The authors found that PSM is positively correlated with performance information use, indicating that an increase in the 30- point PSM scale resulted in a 0.4 increase in the six-point performance information use scale. The findings support that PSM is significantly related to behaviours that contribute to high individual and organisational performance. In addition, they found that PSM is related to the altruistic behaviour of public managers' use of performance information and altruistic behaviour in public managers were more significant than self-interest. But also, PSM correlates with the rank or position of managers. The results indicate that public managers with high ranks or positions had higher levels of PSM than lower rank managers. The effect is that PSM correlates with rank or the position public managers occupy whether high or low if not controlled for.

In another study, Moynihan et al. (2012a) found that perceived social impact of employees' work to the public is related to their use of performance information,

especially with purposeful and political uses. The implication is that if public managers have high PSM levels, they tend to use performance information for decision-making that points towards better performance and support for government programmes. Their findings show a 0.001 significant relationship with performance information use where a unit increase on a perceived social impact of work corresponds with a unit increase of 0.42 on purposeful and political uses. In contrast to purposeful and political uses of performance information, if employees with higher levels of PSM are affected by their environment, ‘they perceive low social impact’ of their work and may not use performance information for decision making (Moynihan et al., 2012b, p. 470). Other studies such as (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012b) have found evidence that PSM is related to performance information use. However, the area that is unknown is whether PSM has an impact on EPM.

It is true that employees’ perception of the social impact of their work may lead to their extra role behaviour to use performance information for decision-making (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010), but when reforms are poorly introduced (Radin, 2006), with less commitment from ‘elected officials, stakeholders and agency leaders demonstrate little real interest in implementing performance management tools’ (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010, p. 470). Outcome- centred performance information may be used for passive and perverse by public managers. When PM policies are paid lip service by political leadership and agency management, such policies may lead to low commitment level on the side of employees to use performance management data and they may be likely to manipulate performance information in different ways to meet external demands (Courty, Heinrich, & Marschke, 2005; Moynihan et al., 2012a). The pressure that is followed by the measurement systems may lead employees to maximise their performance and may act as a countervailing force against EPM and the goals of PM policy (Moynihan et al., 2012a).

2.8 The Context of National Culture and Effective Performance Management

There have been different aspects of performance management and its contextual perspectives. Studies such as (Hofstede, 1980; Laurent, n.d.; Schneider,

1988) have found the relationship between national culture and management by objectives (MBO), the impact of managerial style and performance appraisal in countries such as the US, Indonesia, Thailand and Malaysia (Vance, Mcclaine, Boje & Stage, 1992), and of more recent the impact of national culture on performance management in Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, Great Britain, Japan, Korea, the US, Malaysia, the Philippines, India and China (Bernthal, 1996; Lindholm, Tahvanainen & Bjorkman, 1999; McEvoy & Cascio, 1990; Mendonca & Kanungo, 1997; Snape, Thompson, Ka-Ching, Yan & Redman, 1998). The findings of these studies indicate that diverse cultural elements do have an impact on PM effectiveness in different national and cultural settings.

Lu & Bjorkman (1997) report that human resource management strategies differ in terms of multinational corporations (MNCs) in Chinese -Western joint ventures. The study reveals that there is no compatibility between western standardisation practices of performance appraisal methods and local practices in the Chinese joint ventures MNCs. Using data obtained from personal interviews of 65 China-Western manufacturing joint ventures general managers, the results show that the joint ventures performance appraisal were both linked to Western MNCs which had a mean difference of 3.1610 compared with the home country which had 3.0847. Also, the results show that the PA practices had local content practices of the Chinese culture with a mean of 5.0773. The findings are both significant at $\alpha = 0.8292$ and 0.8010 levels which indicate that there is no compatibility between Western standardisation and locations of HRM strategies.

Bouckaert and Halligan (2008) observe that a country experiencing political crisis is more likely to have an effective PMS, and this evidence is supported by a study of seven countries by (Rhodes et al., 2012) that PMS is more effective in politically unstable countries as well as in established administrative cultures rather than in countries with young democratic governance. The success of a PM is based on contextual factors or contingency variables that regulate the interplay between the internal environment of the organisation and its external environment. Bouckaert and Halligan maintain that performance management is unique because each country's model has clearly different content and emphasise the role of context in the PM processes and their level of effectiveness. Whereas some countries, which have well-

established administrative culture tend to do better on performance management, other countries with emerging democracies PM are far less effective. Drawing on six countries' data on PM with regards to measurement, incorporation and use of performance information with three systems, namely; performance administration, management of performances and performance management/ Governance, the authors developed three model realities for managing performance which are regarded as ideal types of, country model and the degree of implementation of their PMS (see figure 2.7 below).

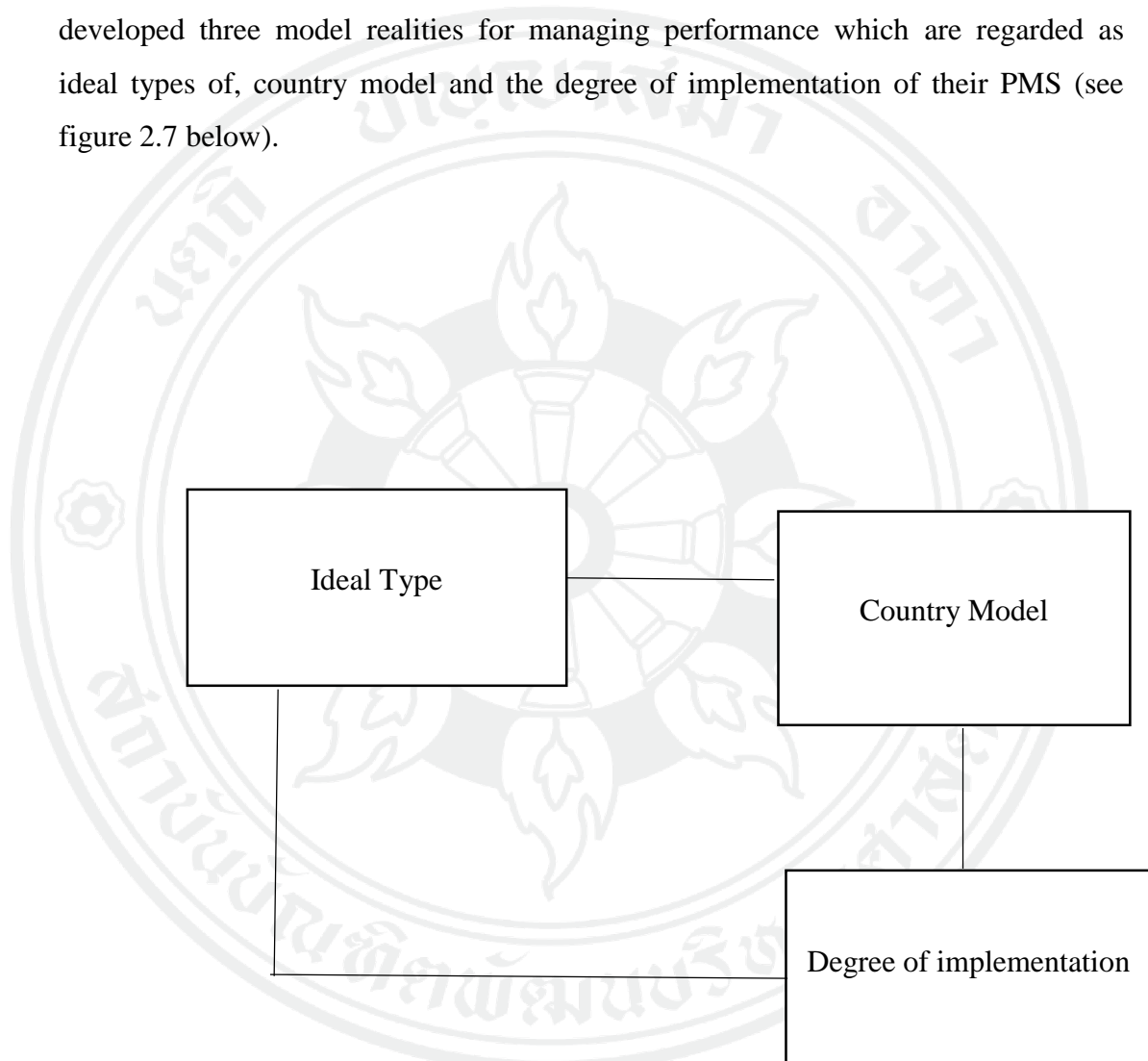


Figure 2.7 Three Models of 'Realities' for Analysing Managing Performance, Bouckaert & Halligan (2008)

2.9 The Context of PM Reforms and Local Governance in Ghana

Since independence, Ghana has made efforts to decentralised governance to the local level to ensure good governance and ethics and to decentralise development initiatives in their country strides to reduce poverty and demystify governance. There have been several reforms undertaken between 1957 and 1988 when the final decentralisation policy was enacted, and which made provisions for the 1992 Constitution. The decentralisation policy is an economic development strategy or market-orientation strategy to make the public sector provide service with responsiveness and improve the quality of service given to the citizenry in general. However, the results of previous reforms failed, mainly because the focus was towards economic recovery rather than reforming the human resources of the country and also the weak implementation framework which failed to involve public sector organisational actors. Table 2.1 shows the number of decentralisation and local government reforms from 1957 to 2009.

Performance management in Ghana is relatively new and the driving force behind its introduction into public sector management is no different from other settings because organisations as open systems are subject to change as they consistently depend on their environment for feedback and devise mechanisms to adapt to the changes (Perrow, 1986; Robbins, 1990). One of the serious developments in the past four decades in public management and public administration is PM reforms which governments the world over have implemented to make public organisations more efficient and effective in the management of public resources. However, empirical results show that PM initiatives have had less impact on quality service delivery (Fryer, K., Antony & Ogden, 2009).

Ghana has had several reforms that sought to make the public sector more efficient and effective and the experience of Ghana shows that much of the reforms were tailored towards privatisation and decentralisation approaches than any other type (Simpson & Buabeng, 2013). However, in nearing the end of the Structural Adjustment era, Ghana experimented with the new public management (NPM) reforms by attempting to make the public sector more business-like, improve efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and accountability with the aim of consolidation and improving management and performance-based results of public

organisations. To measure public organisations on national goals and programme specific performance, there are several PM policies which were adopted in the past two decades to enhance public policy implementation outcomes.

The major attempt to implement PM initiatives in the country was the Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme (CSPIP) in the 1990s; but this reform initiative failed to deliver on its objectives and it has been reported that the performance of the civil service and public service delivery became much worse than before (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003). After this PM initiative, there have been many attempts by the Office of the Head Civil Service (OHCS), the Ministry of Public Sector Reforms (MPSR), the Public Service Commission (PSC) and more recently, the Local Government Service (LGS) in collaboration with other public organisations to legitimise and institutionalised a PM system in public institutions in the country in 1997, 2007 and 2012. Since 1997, it appears that there has not been any commitment from key actors to identify the factors that can support a performance culture in the Ghanaian public service because the reasons for the unsuccessful implementation outcomes on the PM system has been reported to lack support from political actors, low commitment from senior public servants, and non-involvement of staff in the design and implementation stages of the PM reforms (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003; Annan-Prah & Ohemeng, 2015; Bawole et al., 2013; Dodoo, 1997; Ohemeng, 2011).

Meanwhile, the Ministry of Public Sector Reform in 2007, developed a performance-based culture and results-driven PMS policy which was supposed to be approved by cabinet in 2008 but failed to materialise. However, reports indicate that the policy lacked political will by the government of the day and because it was into an electioneering year in 2008, the government abandoned it to hit the campaign ground because PMS policies do not bring votes and may not win political power (Ohemeng, 2011). Unfortunately, PMS that is backed by laws are no better effected than the ones without. Legitimising PMS is likely to make public managers become indifferent toward such reforms and may only conform to guidelines imposed by external pressures rather than building a performance culture (Brignall & Modell, 2000; Modell, 2004).

In a contrary view, senior managers' in the civil service attributes the failure of PM reforms to a lack of legislation to enforce PMS at various sub-national and local government levels. To a very large extent, the senior public managers strongly believe that having a law to back a performance management system will force implementing agencies to adhere and change their behaviours to develop a performance culture and to improve service delivery. The understanding is that public managers will be held accountable for the unsatisfactory performance of programmes under their jurisdictions (Public Services Commission, 2012).

Nevertheless, institutionalising a PMS may not bring the needed change in service delivery and in a performance management culture in public organisations (Ohemeng, 2011). However, a PM system that is based on public service motivation of public managers' is likely to be more effective in achieving performance management goals rather than an institutionalised PM policy (Wright et al., 2012). This is because performance activities involve organisational behaviour that public managers must use their discretion to determine whether to perform them or not. For instance, the use of performance data for decision-making may demand more extra role behaviour of public managers to motivate them to go beyond the policy guidelines and use data generated from the process to benefit the external environment of the organisation (Moynihan, et al., 2012a).

One significant factor that has led to poor outcomes on PM reforms in Ghana is the inability of the traditional civil service leadership management style to adapt to the environment of public organisations which demand innovation, motivation and new perspectives in managing employees' performance. Leadership is an important driver of effective PM, however, the type of leadership style that is reinforced is paramount in motivating employees to serve the public interest. In other words, achieving PM reform outcomes demand higher public service motivation from employees to see the social impact of public work than their self-interest (Perry, 1996). Public service motivation (PSM) holds that people who find themselves working in public organisations are attracted to policy making, to serving the public interest, self-sacrifice and compassion as the most important rewards for public service (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008).

The experience of Ghana shows that much of the reforms were more tailored towards privatisation and decentralisation approaches than any other type (Simpson & Buabeng, 2013). Ghana has experimented with the six approaches of the new public management (NPM) reforms by attempting to make the public sector more business-like, to improve efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and accountability with the aim of consolidation and improving management and performance-based results of public organisations. Prior to the 1980s, public sector performance became a huge concern for successive governments especially the abysmal performance of the civil service (CS) in Ghana (Ayee, 2001). In search of an antidote to the many challenges confronting the Weberian bureaucracy, the birth of new public management (NPM) ideas gained ascendancy in many developed countries and Ghana experimented with these but with sharp differences in their implementation (Hood & Peters, 2004; Manning, 2002; Simpson & Buabeng, 2013).

Because of the failed attempts to implement and institutionalised a PMS, the Public Services Commission (PSC) in 2012 develop and implemented a new PMS policy and tasked all public -sector institutions to institutionalise the policy in the running of public organisations (Public Services Commission, 2012). The PSC in the notes to the policy document contends that previous attempts to implement PMS started from 1974 with the introduction of Annual Confidential Reporting System (ACRS). This system allowed the appraisals to be read and comment on in the performance reports (Public Services Commission, 2012). Similarly, the Performance Evaluation System (PES) was implemented in 1992 after the failure of the CSRP in 1987, however, this system was an improvement over previous PMSs because it allowed for an interaction between managers and their staff, but it was only applicable to the Deputy Director (DD) position and its equivalence grades and below (Public Services Commission, 2012, p. 1). Also, the new policy has identified that certain elements are an integral part of PMS. The elements such as ‘translations of national perspectives or development plans into work agendas’ and performance targets from the work plans by institutions both at the institutional and individual employees’ performance levels (Public Services Commission, 2012, p. 3). The goal of the new PM policy is to instil a performance management ‘mindset’ in public service.

As part of measures to ensure effective PMS, the PM policy provides a conceptual definition of the Ghanaian public service PM to include, accountability, which ensures that public sector employees at all levels are held accountable for national development goals outcomes and the value for money and public resources usage. Transparency has been included to ensure that accountability measures such as performance targets at the institutional and individual levels must form the basis for assessing public managers (Public Services Commission, 2012). The PM system must be equitable at each level of the grades in the organisations with no discriminative practices. Similarly, the PM policy involves ownership of the PM process and outcomes by employees' and senior management as well as stakeholders. The ownership component clearly specifies personal development plans, incentives and sanctions to be used to support the PM system (Public Services Commission, 2012). At the institutional level, performance targets and indicators are to involve key stakeholders and the targets should be agreed upon by both the public institutions and their respective stakeholders especially regarding the mechanisms for assessing performance outcomes of government policies.

Evidence from the experience of reforms in Ghana shows mixed results (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003; Domfeh, 2004; Ohemeng, 2010). Whereas some studies have reported little improvement over the previous state of performance (Mmieh et al., 2011; Ohemeng, 2011), others tend to report a completely dysfunctional state of the reforms (Ayee, 2001; Bawole et al., 2013; Ohemeng & Anebo, 2012). In most of the studies, the common trend is that PMS reforms are at the rhetoric level rather than in practice and with public managers resisting new changes (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003). Bawole et al. (2013) find that six major themes are significantly related to the public service Performance Appraisal Systems in Ghana. The study lists the following as some of the problems associated with PAS: mechanistic outlook of the PAS is too technical and the information is too detailed and not user-friendly; poor performing managers lack the moral courage and the fear of subordinates invoking spiritual curses to effectively appraise them; there is lack of objectivity in PAS which has given way to social and religious factors that affect the quality and use of PAS information for organizational outcomes (Bawole et al., 2013).

Additionally, factors such as victimisation and intimidation of subordinates, the use of the PA system as a source of additional positional power are factors that impede the effective PM. The tenets of the PA system are at variance with CS organisational objective since information on job analysis and job descriptions and specifications were conspicuously missing (Bawole et al., 2013). The findings reveal that there is no correlation between what the organisation's objectives are and the standards required of appraisees. The authors conclude that there is no objectivity of the current PAS due to its outdated nature of the forms, inadequate training for supervisors and the absence of guidelines and standard criteria for measuring performance (Bawole et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the study found that PAS are instruments for training employees and they serve as the basis for promotions in the civil service; this is consistent with the literature on PM. Table 2.3 shows a summary of the literature on PM in the Ghanaian experience.

In a recent study by Aforo and Antwi (2012) indicate that universities libraries have a performance appraisal system which involves the setting of goals, feedback, participation and reward for performance. The study evaluated the performance appraisal system in the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science & Technology (KNUST) and Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA) libraries in Ghana and provided ways of improving the library systems of those universities. Self-administered questionnaires were randomly given to 46 library staff of the two universities. The results showed that 23 of respondents admitted that they had fair knowledge that the two libraries had a performance appraisal system in place, representing 50% of the sample. In addition, 16 of the respondents observed that they had access to the objectives and procedures of the performance appraisal system representing 34.8%.

Also, thirty-one respondents stated that they were given their job descriptions and 25 out of the 31 respondents admitted that their jobs were supervised daily by their bosses. In terms of performance assessment, thirty-four of the respondents were evaluated in that academic year and 31 of the respondents had formal arrangements with their supervisors on their performance feedback. The study reports that four respondents admitted that they had at one time resisted the results of their appraisal results. Most of the study respondents observed the motivations for performance

appraisals were towards promotion, study leave with pay or recommendation for further studies by their supervisors. Interestingly, nineteen respondents observed that the current PAS was trustworthy while the remaining respondents thought otherwise because the system was more characterised by inefficiencies in the process of assessing employee performance.

2.9.1 Managing Performance in Local Government Service (LGS)

The Administrative Decentralisation Act provided the legal framework for the establishment of the Local Government Service (LGS) whose core function is to provide technical and human resource support to the decentralisation action plan of the country. Among other things, the Service is responsible for the managing and controlling of staff under the local government administrative system. The decentralisation brought huge task for managing performance, human resources, career development and management of regional Coordinating Councils (RCCs), Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) under the umbrella of Local Government Service (LGS) to ensure effective performance of development programmes at the local level.

To ensure improvement in quality service delivery, efficient and the effective use of local resources by Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) there have been several changes to management and performance management capacity building programmes with the aim of imparting a performance-driven culture among employees of the Local Government Service (LGS), since the introduction of the new PM policy introduced by the PSC in 2012. In addition, the performance management reforms in the LGS has been based on the consistent calls from citizens and key stakeholders of the poor performance of local government institutions in terms of service delivery at the local level, and the desire for changes in effectiveness and efficient use of resources by the government and donor agencies.

To achieve these, the LGS developed their own PM framework that has two components, performance contracting and appraisal systems. The PM framework is a top-down approach to offer strategic focus on MMDAs where chief directors and coordinating directors agree on their key performance areas (KPA) and key performance indicators (KPIs) before the performance cycle annually. These KPA and KPIs are based on the priority areas of the districts and on human resource

management issues. In addition, financial reporting, environment, sanitation and cross-cutting issues are central to the development of the KPAs (Abane & Phinaitrup, 2017).

Another key area of the new PM policy is the six service delivery standards (SDS) developed by the LGS to monitor and measure employee performance. The six are participation, professionalism, client focus, transparency, efficiency and the effective use of resources and accountability (Local Government Service, 2015). The aim of these SDS, according to the LGS, is to 'secure effective administration and management of local government' (Local Government Service, 2015, p.2), as stipulated in the Local Government Service Act 936, 2016 and Act 656 2009. The SDS also captures the mission statement of the Service, 'to support Local Government to deliver value for money services through the mobilisation and utilisation of qualified human capacity and material resources to promote local and national development' (Local Government Service, 2015, p.2).

Further, the performance management reforms in the LGS are based on the consistent calls from citizens and stakeholders for local government institutions to provide quality service delivery at the local level and the desire for changes in the effective and efficient use of resources by past and present governments as well as donor agencies. More especially, the need to develop missions, shifts in values, and performance standards (Local Government Service, 2015). Given the huge responsibility entrusted to the local government system, PM is an integral strategy to achieve the decentralisation action plan of the country and at the same time, address the concerns of non-performance of local government employees'. There have been series of capacity building training sensitization by the LGS to equip staff for the new performance culture creed that is envisaged through the SDS and the signing of Performance Agreement (PA) by directors of MMDAs to ensure that the targets set in the SDS are fully implemented and achieved on quarterly basis (Local Government Service, 2015).

From the above discussion, there is a huge volume of literature on PM in general, whereas others have provided answers to support its effectiveness, and the challenges that beseech their implementation in the public sector, others have explained its failure to achieve effective service delivery in the public domain.

Despite this depth of information, it appears that there is little evidence on how organisational determinants such as clear and measurable goals (Latham et al., 2008; Shantz and Latham, 2009, 2011; Kroll, 2015; Moynihan, 2005; Moynihan et al., 2012b); development of results-oriented performance measures (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Ammons, 2013; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Modell, 2004) and the use of performance information (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Pandey, 2016) have any influence on EPM.

Additionally, the review has shown that although there are several studies on the environmental determinants, the evidence is far less conclusive on their effect on EPM. Besides, the review has revealed that though individual-level factors like PSM are important drivers of performance information use, few studies have tested its influence on EPM (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a, 2012b; Perry, 1996; Wright et al., 2012).

2.10 Challenges of Performance Management in the Public Sector

Performance measurement is a challenging task for most organisations, specifically what to measure, how to measure, who to measure and why to measure (Van Dooren, 2011). Performance management is an innovation, yet a challenging experience because the ability to achieve organisational goals and effectiveness is difficult to fathom (Ittner & Larcker, 1998). Earlier, performance measurement systems appeared to be characterised by problems of evaluation with bias on the part of supervisors and subordinates (Ittner & Larcker, 1998; Armstrong, 2009). Because of the problems imposed by the old performance rating systems, a more strategic measurement system, performance appraisals (PA) replaced the old rating system and management by objectives system (MBO) (Armstrong, 2009).

Nevertheless, performance appraisals are also problematic in terms of measurement of quantitative and qualitative areas of employee performance (Aguinis, 2013; Armstrong, 2009). Even though the development of the measurement scale may not be fraudulent, the evaluation process and the use of the performance information are usually shrouded in secrecy and vindictiveness by senior managers and other personnel in the department (Armstrong & Baron, 1998; Bawole et al., 2013; Ittner & Larcker, 1998). The goal of such performance measurement has often been to punish underperforming employees and reward over-performers (Armstrong, 2009). The old

performance measurement system is not less useful, but the system fails to create room for better performance, and emphasises only retrospective or past performance of employees, and because such systems encourage unhealthy competition rather than cultivating teamwork to achieve organisational goals, their objectives are less effective in the long-run.

Drawing on frameworks of 'Kwon & Zmud, (1987) and Shields & Young (1989)', Cavalluzzo and Ittner (2004, p.245) studied factors that influence 'the implementation, use and perceived benefits of results-based performance measurement systems in the US government' and identified impediments that are a potential threat to successful implementation of performance measurement innovation. The authors find that organisational influence and implementation factors such as limited data combined with metric difficulties were impediments to performance measurement implementation. Their findings were consistent with 'Kwon and Zmud (1987) and Shields and Young (1989)' that technical and organisational variables are the determinants of performance measurement information use.

Cavalluzzo and Ittner (2004) maintain that technical and organizational variables determine successful implementation of performance measurement and find that all the seven variables related to organizational influence and technical and management systems in public sector organizations were statistically significant. These factors include 'the ability for existing information systems to' (p. 246) offer vital data, the ability for organisations 'to define and develop appropriate measures' (p. 247), management commitment, training, and support from the legislative body. The authors developed a model for using measurement system development, implementation factors and outcomes as a framework to test the seven hypotheses with empirical data. The results indicate a 30% significant level at an adjusted R^2 of all the variables studied.

The findings point to perceived benefits to be positively correlated 'with performance measure development, accountability and use' (p.247). The study supports the evidence that organisations 'that demonstrate a strong commitment to results are more likely to allow greater decision-making authority and provide more training to' (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004, p. 248) public managers (Kroll, 2015a; Yang,

Kaifeng & Hsieh, 2007). However, commitment and attitudes of senior management and employees have a significant effect on PM which many studies have reported (Abane & Phinaitrup, 2017; Fryer, Antony, & Ogden, 2009; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004).

2.11 Theoretical Basis of Performance Management

In the traditional public administration and management discipline, there are several models or theories that can explain why performance management has become a relevant concept in the management literature (Van Dooren et al., 2011). There are several theories in public administration, in organisational theory and in management theory that are used to explain the antecedents and correlates of public sector management. Performance management is part of public administration and over the years' public administration scholars have attempted to develop paradigms to explain the implementation of public policies and administrative culture in the public sector.

There are dominant theories such as the expectancy theory, the goal-setting theory, the self-efficacy theory and others that are used to study performance management, in most cases with little attention on other theories like the structural contingency theory and the public service motivation theory (PSM). Notwithstanding the inadequacies, theories such as the goal-setting theory (Latham & Locke, 1979), the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), the Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982), the equity theory (Adams, 1963), the two-factor motivation theory (Herzberg, 1959), and the reinforcement theory (Hull, 1951) have been very useful in explaining PM (Armstrong, 2009). A summary of the dominant theories in PM and their core elements are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Summary of theories Underpinning Performance Management

Theory	Reference and Year	Core Assumptions
Expectancy	Vroom (1964)	Emphasises the need for organisations to relate rewards to performance and to ensure that rewards are deserving Involves establishing specific

Theory	Reference and Year	Core Assumptions
Goal Setting	Latham and Locke (1979)	measurable, attainable, realistic and time-targeted objectives Self-motivation will be linked to the self-belief of individuals that they will be able to accomplish tasks and achieve goals
Self-efficacy	Bandura (1982)	Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation drives and give positive satisfaction in the workplace
Two-factor Theory of Motivation	Herzberg (1959)	

2.12 Review of Related Theories

Despite the earlier proponents of the dominant theories used in explaining PM reforms, recent developments indicate that theories in organisational theory, organisational behaviour, and social psychology appear to have been applied to study core concepts of public administration. Performance management, as a field of study, has several theories that have been used in empirical studies, and each of these theories have one way or the other being found to fit in explaining the PM outcomes. Yet, there are certain theories that have found wide usage because of the context within which these theories are used. For example, one of the most popular quoted models is the new public management (NPM), which many authors within public administration and management frequently cite as a group of management ideas rather than a theory. Much of the problem in Public Administration is that many of the models such as new public administration (NPA) and NPM have remained at the paradigm level rather than developing into major theories. However, it suffices to say that NPM is not a theory on its own, but belong under broad theories such as the agency theory, the public choice theory and the rational choice theory. Also, theories such as the goal-setting theory in Social Psychology and the contingency approach have been said to be useful in explaining PM (Armstrong, 2009).

Equally, there are several theories that have been found to be suitable approaches in studying PM but have received less attention in the PM literature because they are relatively new, and their application is not widespread. One of such

theories is the public service motivation theory (PSMT) developed by Rainey in 1982 and made more relevant by Perry and Wise in 1990 (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a, 2012b; Wright et al., 2012). These studies suggest that PSMT has proven to be effective in public managers' performance information use and as a result, the theory is important in resolving the PM paradox.

In addition, the goal-setting theory assumes that setting goals at the organisational level as well as at the individual level will lead to the attainment of an organisational strategy (Latham et al., 2008). Therefore, it is relevant in explaining individual employees' performance and how they respond to PM reforms in general. The agency theory, even though it is applicable to PM, its approach is an agent-principal relationship which is at the organisational level. As a result, it may not be able to explain the individual level behaviour that is related to PM, more especially, since the focus of the study is on the individual level analysis of the behaviour of public employees' and their understanding of their organisation's PM system. Consequently, theories that explain the individual level of analysis will be used.

To enable the study to develop the subsequent hypotheses and the conceptual framework, the theories that form the foundation for this study are the goal-setting theory (GST), the structural contingency theory (SCT) and the public service motivation theory (PSMT). The use of these three theories is important because a complex phenomenon like PM is better understood by its multidisciplinary nature and multidimensional construct demands than an approach that integrates several theories to help discover how different variables interact to ensure effective outcomes on PM.

There are several reasons for choosing to position this study on the NPM and the three theories discussed above. First, the aim of drawing on GST is that PM involves setting targets and aligning individual employees' goals with the organisational goals to ensure increased productivity and achievement of the strategic plan of the organisation (Armstrong & Baron, 1998; Helm et al., 2007; Latham et al., 2008). For an effective PM culture, organisations must set clear and measurable goals, development of results-oriented performance measures and indicators to measure individual employee performance. Therefore, goals are important both at the organisational level and the individual level.

Besides, employees are more likely to be challenged by goals and work towards those goals provided the goals are clearly defined and measurable. Goals are important in terms of what kinds of measurement systems are feasible and which process to adopt in arriving at such goals. Also, goals are blueprints for organisational planning, monitoring and evaluation of PM and performance outcomes. GST gives a clear understanding of what an effective PM entails, by defining individual goals as well as the goals of the organisation (Lee, 2005). At the same time, GST defines the criteria for measuring individual performance outcomes with key performance indicators (KPIs) (Curtright et al., 2000; Weeks, 2005).

Second, the study appeals to the structural contingency theory holds that for organisations to design a structure that fit they must take situational or environmental determinants into consideration. The SCT agrees that organisational performance and effectiveness is contingent on the size, the age, the environment, and the technology that the organisation manages to its benefit (Mintzberg, 1980). Structural configurations see the environment as an important determiner of fit in terms stable versus unstable, organic or mechanistic. External factors such as political power, stakeholder involvement are environmental determinants within the SCT that influence organisational performance and effectiveness (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). Therefore, SCT will explore and study how these two variables impact on the PM process at the individual level of analysis.

And third, the study draws on PSMT because other studies in performance management have find that PSM relates to performance information use, an individual and organisational performance which is believed to be part of organisational PM objectives (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). Available evidence suggests that employees' who are motivated to accomplish a task are associated with higher levels of PSM than those with lower levels of PSM (Houston, 2000; Perry, 1996). As a result, the theory has an explanatory power on how some employees' response to the PM reforms and performance appear in different ways. Besides, the literature on PM shows that PSM is an active facilitator of organisational performance and individual performance (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). Hence, the use of the three theories is important in discussing individual behaviour towards PM outcomes.

2.12.1 The Goal-Setting Theory

The goal-setting theory was developed by Locke and his friends and has been widely used in organisational behaviour literature and applied to other fields such as public management, public policy and public administration. Goals are 'immediate regulators of the behaviour of much human action' (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham, 1981, p. 126) and it refers to 'what the individual is consciously trying to do' (Latham & Yukl, 1975, p. 824; Locke, 1968, p. 159). Similarly, a review of the definition suggests that goals are what an employee is trying to achieve, 'the object or aim of an action and it is a concept of purpose and intent' (Locke et al., 1981, p. 126). Later versions of the GST have applied the principles to other subject areas, other than organisation behaviour and especially in performance management literature, where organisations are required to plan and execute performance-based results through setting missions, visions and key performance indicators (KPIs) in both public and private sectors (Grant, 2012; Moynihan et al., 2012a)

The goal theory observes that explicit and challenging goals that are clear and distinct in terms of the purpose or target of an action which seeks to 'attain a particular standard are associated with higher levels of performance' (Locke & Latham, 2002; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). The notion is that if goals are clearly defined and employees are assigned their respective roles as well as creation of targets at the individual level, employees are likely to do things consciously to achieve the stated goals of the organisation (Latham, Sulsky & MacDonald, 2007; Latham et al., 2008). Goals are criteria for determining the alignment of employees' goals with those of the organisation, since goals that do not consider the individual level may fail to specify clearly what employees are required for goal attainment. Therefore, for employees to achieve set goals, the goals must be clear and measurable/quantifiable since these are important indicators that inform whether the goals of an organisation in a PMS can be attained or not. This is because vague and non-measurable goals may fail to specify what individuals are expected to do (Latham et al., 2008; Nurkholis et al., 2014)

In addition, the goal theory observes that when employees are given clear instruction as to what their efforts should channel into, they tend to achieve the goals that have been set at the individual and organisational levels (Shantz, A. and Latham,

2011). Goals must be translated into specific task-measures or targets that can be quantifiable in a specific and precise way. Therefore, to ensure that goals are attained, organisations must clearly develop performance measurement criteria for employees'. It means that goals support and shape the measurement criteria in the sense that they provide the baseline that an individual performance can be assessed with (Ammons, 2013; Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Ammons & Roenigk, 2015; Zoe & David, 2007). The GST theory sees goals as part of a process that demarcates boundaries and zones of acceptance on the part of employees to achieve organisational effectiveness and performance-based results on public policies or government programmes (Ammons & Roenigk, 2015).

The process of setting clear measurement systems implies that users of the metrics will understand and interpret the performance data accurately for decision-making purposes and therefore, goals allow for measurement systems that are user-friendly for both human resource managers and employees as well (Biron et al., 2011; Brignall & Modell, 2000; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004).

Also, the GS involves strategic planning which means that obtaining feedback from the goal setting process enables supervisors and management to make decisions to ensure the effective performance of organisations. Strategic planning involves trying to obtain information from the goal-setting process to design performance improvement programmes and use the performance information as feedback to rate and reward performance as well. Feedback on goals is important because it builds employees' capacity to understand, especially with performance data and the use of that information, to enhance future performance (Lee, 2005). Essential to well-defined performance metrics is that if public managers perceived that a PMS measurement system is difficult, it is likely to affect the use of the performance data generated from the PM process. Because PM data adds to the pile of information that public managers' must analyse and report on in their day-to-day activities, it may result into non-use of the data (Van Dooren et al., 2015). Therefore, the GST advocates for the setting of clear and measurable goals, the development of results-oriented performance measures and the use of performance information for decision making in the organisation (Locke et al., 1981; Moynihan, 2005; Nurkholis et al., 2014; Rainey, 1983; Shantz, A. and Latham, 2011; Verbeeten, 2008).

Even though, the GST is plausible in explaining the behaviour of employees' and their organisations on how to structure their work and set priorities for overall achievement of the mandate of the organisation, the goal-setting theory fails to account for goals that are not measurable but are qualitative in nature and may not be amenable to measurement or rating criteria. Similarly, the GST argues that complex and difficult goals will challenge employees to put extra effort or ability towards goal attainment, but it is also possible that simple goals may be more achievable than complex goals. This view may be misleading, because studies have shown that employees' may be motivated to achieve goals that are outside the organisation itself which is meant to benefit the larger society (Perry, 1996).

Also, Locke and his friends overemphasise the primacy of goals over external rewards as much as internal motivation (Pfeffer, 1982). Locke believes that goals are not amenable to other factors that may equally have a great impact on goal attainment. For Locke, the organisation should set specific goals and employees will be driven by these goals to work extra hard to achieve individual and organisational goals. This argument is presented as a given without considering the multifaceted nature of organisational culture and its environment which are characterised by uncertainty, internal and external inertia forces. For goals to be achieved by employees in an organisation, the principle of equifinality remains paramount because all potential factors are necessary for goal attainment.

More so, the issue of goal acceptance and commitment is not properly addressed by the goal variables nor is the question of how organisations will obtain goal acceptance, especially goals that do not involve key stakeholders from the internal and external environment. Pfeffer (1982) points out that unitary goals tend to lead to non-achievement while participative goals have high attainment levels among employees. Clearly, it has come to light that not all goals are achievable as the goal theory seems to portray but rather goals that are participative in nature are high candidates for goal acceptance and attainment. Therefore, the assumptions of the goal theory that difficult and challenging goals are reasons for individual employees' effort may not be the only factor for accomplishing organisational goals. In addition, goals in the public sector are difficult to measure and because of the obsession towards

goals setting, many public organisations tend to measure outputs instead of outcomes which take longer to be measured (Van Dooren et al., 2015).

Another problem with the goal theory is that it fails to consider the organisational context because the context and the environment of the organisation have an impact on goal setting. For example, empirical studies have found that the correlation between stated goals and employees performance of two organisations were different, while one organisation had 0.46, the other had 0.16 (Dachler & Mobley, 1973). The differences may be explained by different reward systems or contingency factors such as the environment or motivational levels of employees as possible explanations for the marked differences. Pfeffer argues that to understand the differences in the findings of the goal-setting theory, it will mean a test of the theory in different settings and context in which both unitary stated goals and participative goals are observed and measured. This is the more reason why testing environmental variables, such as stakeholder participation and political support are important to observe the impact of goal-setting in an organisation PM framework.

Nevertheless, the GST is one of the very few theories that have challenged public organisations to set targets and missions to ensure that their efforts are channelled towards achieving their mandate. Also, it is an important theory because public managers' may be held accountable for the use of public resources if they fail to achieve their set targets. Citizens and external stakeholders can monitor and track the performance of public organisations based on their key performance areas that have been explicitly stated in their work plans to improve public service delivery.

2.12.2 Structural Contingency Theory (SCT)

The structural contingency theory (SCT) is a dominant theory in organisation theory and research which emphasises a fit between structure and design parameters that leads to organisational effectiveness and performance (Mintzberg, 1980). The core SCT assumptions are that there is no one 'best way' to organise and that any other way of organising is not equally effective (Pfeffer, 1982). The SCT holds that the design of an organisation depends on various contextual or situational factors such as age and size, technology, environment and power that are clear indicators on why some organisations performance better than others. As noted earlier, the main view of the SCT is that 'there is no one best way to organised and any way of organising are

equally not effective' (Galbraith, 1973, p. 2). The SCT posits that organisational effectiveness and performance are a fit between the structure and the contingency variables such as age, size, technology and the environment and that in the absence of fit, there could be a mismatch between the structure and the contingent variables (Galbraith, 1973; Hatch & Cunliffe, 2012).

Pfeffer argues that the SCT is a clear rejection of the 'one best' way approach to public management and calls for context-dependency. The SCT is based on the congruence hypothesis and the consonance hypothesis which holds that 'those organisations that have structures that more closely match the requirement of the context are more effective than those that do not' (Pfeffer, 1982, p. 148). The theory has an implicit assumption that organisational managers have effectiveness or 'efficiency-seeking' beliefs that act to produce congruence between organisational design and the situational variables that affect the design. It also holds that there is a general managerial adaptation to environmental inertia forces, but the specific structural dimensions that are adapted and their elements affect the strategic choices of the organisation.

In the organisational literature, three main SCT variables have mostly been studied: size, technology and the environment. For instance, Pfeffer argues that the Weberian structural variables focussed on the size of the administrative component, the degree of centralization and formalisation and the level of differentiation or on the extent of task specialization and vertical elaboration or decentralisation (1982, p.148).

The most widely researched variable of SCT is size. Size is one of the popular characteristics of organisations and the effect of size on organisational effectiveness and performance is not new (A. Taylor & Taylor, 2014). Size as a structural variable owes its credit to Weber (1947) in which bureaucracy is likely to emerge more in large organisations compared with smaller ones. Others such as Pugh, Hickson and Hinings (1969) find that size is the most powerful predictor of specialization, use of procedures and the reliance on paperwork. Blau (1970) argues that size generates structural differentiation within organisations but that 'the differentiation increases at decreasing rate as size increases' (Pfeffer, 1982, p. 149).

The environmental variable has mixed findings of its effect on performance management systems suggesting inconclusive evidence on the variable. Similarly,

there has been disagreement over the measurement of the unit and level of analysis of the environmental factor and their effect on organisational structure (Pfeffer, 1982). The contention is that 'different environmental conditions and different types of relationship with outside parties' (p.155) may require different types of organisational structure level of performance. In most cases research on the environment as a contingent factor has often focussed on uncertainty, change and complexity leaving several equally important environmental variables that could have more explanatory powers in explaining effective performance outcomes.

The assumptions of the SCT is that both internal and external factors influence organisational performance (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2012) and that organisations who perform better have a superior structure that fits their environment. According to the open systems, the environment impacts organisations in two ways: specific and general environment (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2012). The specific environment composes a group of suppliers, distributors, government bodies and other entities in the network of interorganizational relationships. While the general environment has four components which draw on the influences of the location of organisations. Hatch and Cunliffe (2012) note that the general environment comprises the following:

- 1) cultural values which might redefine the views on ethics and affects organisational members behaviour.
- 2) economic conditions, they may involve economic downturn, unemployment and other geographical factors which may affect organisations ability to grow. Economic influences may also affect organisations role in the economy
- 3) legal/political structures which help to allocate power, resources and enforce laws in the society. The legal and political structures play a chief role in determining the long-term stability and security of the organisation's future growth potential.

Earlier research by Burns and Stalk in 1961 observe that different environmental conditions result in different organisational structures appropriately and they find that a mechanistic or bureaucratic organisational structure is more appropriate for more stable and certain environments while an organic structure, with less formalised and centralised structure is more successful in a changing environment. The presence of uncertainty as an important environmental characteristic has been overexploited in the literature whereas less focus on other conditions such as stakeholder participation or

involvement, political support appear to be lagging the literature on PM (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004).

However, the problem of measuring environmental variables has been an issue as relevant decade ago as it is evident today. As a result, there have been mixed findings on the effect of environmental conditions (Yang & Hsieh, 2007). In addition, the problem is how to adequately capture the dimensions of the environment. The question of whether objective characteristics of the environment or those characteristics perceived by organisational decision makers act as constraints on PM research in the public sector. But it is true that decision makers' perceptions do influence organisational performance outcomes and it is perhaps worth studying.

2.12.3 The Public Service Motivation Theory (PSMT)

The public service motivation theory has been made popular by the work of Perry and Wise (1990) when they explained how individual employees differ in task performance and their motivational drive to achieve organisational goals and effectiveness in the public sector. The 'Public service motivation' theory refers to an 'individual predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions' (Perry, 1996, p. 5). The PSMT which Perry developed in 1996 has six dimensions, 'attraction to public policy making, commitment to public interest, civic duty, social justice, self-sacrifice and compassion which are measured on Likert-type items to create the PSM scale' (p.5).

There are three main motives of PSM, 'rational, 'norm-based' and 'affective motives'. According to Perry (1996), these motives are further divided into six subgroups representing the three main antecedents. The six related constructs, 'attraction to policy making', 'commitment to public interest', 'social justice', 'civic duty', 'compassion and self-sacrifice' combine to measure the three motives of PSM. However, only five of these motives are of concern to the present study namely, 'attraction to policymaking', 'commitment to public interest', 'civic duty', 'compassion', and 'self-sacrifice'.

The rational motive explains why individuals may be motivated to join the public service. There are three constructs constituting the rational motive indicator. The first rational motive involves public servants' desire to take part in the formulation of

public policies because policymaking is confined in public institutions that are only available in government organisations. This motive is linked to the attraction to public policy-making processes in public organisations because the excitement and drama that are characterised by policy formulation may reinforce a person's image of self-importance. The second motive is the 'commitment to the public interest'. Perry (1996) refers to Down's (1967) who argues that public interest is the desire to serve the public and it is an altruistic behaviour even when this desire is inherently an individual's opinion. Downs' argument has attracted criticism on the basis that his definition of public interest is inadequate but many of the critics do agree that public interest remains a critical determiner of public service motivation (PSM) (Houston, 2000; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008).

PSM is also a normative concept because it also spells out what ought to be done by the public employees' and how societal members who have been entrusted with the position of a trustee should act. The norm-based motives involve civic duty and social justice, but civic duty is of importance to the study. Social justice refers to the activities meant to enhance the well-being of groups who do not have access to economic resources and lack political influence to affect decision making in public institutions. Following Frederickson's work in 1971, Perry (1996) provides three obligations of public administrators that ensure equity and that depict the political nature of their role: 'to provide efficient services; economic use of resources and ensuring social equity in their delivery of service' (p. 7). Clearly, this role of public managers extends beyond rational economic interest but also to the benefits of service to the larger society.

Another norm-based motive is a civic duty as perceived by public organisation employees. According to Perry (1996), PSM also involves public managers' view that public service is a civic duty and it reflects the nature of public servants as being nonelected trustees of the state's sovereign power (Perry, 1996, p. 7). Therefore, as state trustees, they owe it as a duty to the state to perform their obligations which intend to allow them to enjoy that privileged trustee position and state resources.

One central focus of the PSM theory is affective motives and there are two main indicators of affective motives, compassion and self-sacrifice. Perry (1996) observes that civil servants are supposed to be compassionate, that is the love for one's people

within political boundaries and be patriotic because of the leverage the civil servants enjoy because they are granted a privileged position through the basic rights of the permanence of their positions. The last of the dimensions of affective motive is 'self-sacrifice' that is the willingness to substitute service to others for tangible personal rewards', a point re-echoed by John F. Kennedy's statement that 'ask not what your country would do for you; ask what you can do for your country'. This implies that public managers' must have the willingness to sacrifice any form of financial benefits for the 'intangible rewards they received from serving the public' (Perry, 1996, p. 7). This affective motive is the highest PSM construct and public managers with higher levels are said to have high PSM.

The strength of the theory is its ability to clearly emphasise the reasons why individual employees choose to enter public service (PS) and therefore it suffices to say that when public managers' have higher levels of PSM, they are in a better position to see public service as an important call to serve the larger society. Also, PM as an activity is not only directed at organisational goals to achieve performance-based results but rather the system is towards the efficient and effective use of public resources for the greater good. The PM process is to benefit the entire society by doing more with fewer resources in the long-run. Consequently, a higher level of PSM on the part of public servants is advantageous to the state and will improve the conditions of the less privileged individuals in the society. Therefore, employees with high levels of PSM, are much aware that their involvement in setting PM goals, targets, measurements and achievement of the organisational strategy is meant to 'serve the public interest', as a civic duty and at the same time, give equity to minority interest (Kroll & Vogel, 2013).

In addition, public managers' who have higher public service motivation exhibit extra role behaviour that is beyond self-interest and which is to help others outside the organisation by participating in decision making through PM policies. They exhibit some form of self-sacrifice towards the generality of the well-being of society by putting extra role behaviour in their task performance (Kroll & Vogel, 2013).

Despite, the PSMT ability to explain motivation that lies outside monetary or external rewards, it is difficult to conceive whether the motivation is an intrinsic type or not. Grant (2008b) argues that PSM is not a form of intrinsic motivation but rather

it is moderated by intrinsic motivation. Also, external and monetary rewards are associated with the high performance of public employees (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). It means that for an organisation to achieve its goals, it must combine both intrinsic and external rewards systems to achieve organisational performance. The challenge with PSM is: how does one PSM determine performance and how can we understand how this motivation works to produce high performance? Besides, the assumption that PSM is a form of intrinsic motivation cannot be a form of intrinsic motivation because it is more related to personal motives of public servants, which are not directly observable to determine if such motives are their reasons for serving in public organisations, and this makes the theory application more problematic.

For PSM to be effective in achieving performance, it should be triggered by intrinsic motivation, socialization of the individual and the organisational culture (Moynihan et al., 2012a) rather than just motives that are grounded in public institutions. Regardless of the shortcomings of PSM, the evidence available suggests that the concept has a significant presence in public organisations because some employees with higher levels of PSM tend to perform better than others given the same working environment and incentives in an organisation (Moynihan and Pandey, 2010).

From the review of the PSMT, there are three main motives that are central to understanding 'public service motivation', 'rational, norm-based and affective motives' which explain why people are attracted to work in the public sector rather than in the private sector. Also, there are six dimensions of the PSM construct namely, 'attraction to policymaking', 'commitment to the public interest', 'social justice', 'civic duty', 'compassion' and 'self-sacrifice'. Also, self-sacrifice constitutes the highest form of PSM, and respondents who score high on it are described to have higher levels of PSM. Even though the PSM construct involves six dimensions, the study will only focus on five of the dimensions, 'attraction to policymaking', 'commitment to the public interest', 'civic duty', 'compassion', and 'self-sacrifice'. This is because social and civic duty almost appears to be measuring the same thing. Therefore, previous studies after Perry (1996) collapsed the social justice scale (Vandenabeele, 2007).

In the above discussion, three main theories form the foundation for this study. A parsimonious view of the three theories is adopted to explain effective performance management. The variables are not exhaustive in explaining EPM; however, they are suitable for the context of the study. At the same time, they can provide strong explanatory power to support the success of performance management reforms in the public sector especially in the context of Ghana. In all, there are six variables taken from the goal-setting theory (GST), the structural contingency theory (SCT) and the public service motivation theory (PSMT). Table 2.3 and Table 2.4 are the variable specifications and their associated theories as well as their sources.

Table 2.3 Relationship Between the Three Theories & EPM

Theory	Assumptions	Variable(s)/dimension(s)	Relationship to PM	Level of Analysis	Source
Goal-Setting	Goals are regulators of human behaviour and action Goal direct attention to priorities and efforts Goal should be specific but challenging to attract the greatest effort from employees	Goal Clarity Performance measures	Organisations must set goals and targets to measure employee performance	Organisational & individual	Locke et al (1981) Latham et al., 2008
Public Service Motivation	Individuals are predispositioned "to	Rational Motives Norm-based	The aim of PM is to provide service to citizens with	Individual	Perry, (1996) and Perry &

Theory	Assumptions	Variable(s)/dimension(s)	Relationship to PM	Level of Analysis	Source
	motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions	Motives Affective Motives	least among of cost and therefore PSM allows employees to get attracted to in public institutions through policymaking, the “commitment to serving the public interest”, they are compassionate over the needs of minorities and others outside the organisation		Hondeghe m, (2008)
Structural Contingency Theory	“There is no one way to organize” Any other way of organising is equally “not effective”. Organisational performance is influenced	Size, age, Technology, Situational factors Environmental Determinants	Internal and external stakeholders input on PM design & implementation may increase its effectiveness Situational/contextual variables such as leadership, political actors and management commitment may influence EPM	Organisation & Individual	Burns & Stalker, 1967; Mintzberg, 1980; Oliver, 1991

Theory	Assumptions	Variable (s)/dimension (s)	Relationship to PM	Level of Analysis	Source
	by internal and external environmental determinants				

Source: Authors Construction

Table 2.4 Summary of Selected Variables and their Sources

Theory	Variable (s)	Source (s)	Type of variable (Vb)
Goal-setting	Organisational determinants:	Latham et al., (2008)	Independent
	Clear & Measurable Goals	Nurkholis et al. (2014)	
		Rainey (1983) and Verbeeten, (2008)	
		Cavalluzzo & Ittner	Independent
	“Development of results-oriented performance measures”	(2004); Yang & Hsieh (2007)	
		Moynihan et al., (2012a)	Independent
	Use of performance information		
Structural contingency	Environment	Oliver, 1991	Independent
	Determinants:	Gianakis & Wang	
	Stakeholder Participation	(2000) and Yang & Hsieh (2007)	
	Political Support		
Public Service Motivation Theory		Perry (1996)	Independent
	PSM:		
	“Rational		

Theory	Variable (s)	Source (s)	Type of variable (Vb)
	Norm-based Affective Motives”		

2.13 Relationship between the Dependent and the Independent Variables

This section attempts to explain how the independent variables are related to the dependent variable. This section is important because it will aid in the development of the conceptual framework to guide the study. This section also highlights hypotheses resulting from the review of the literature, these are presented as well.

2.13.1 The Relationship between Effective PM and Organisational Determinants

Organisational determinants refer to organisational inputs, outputs and processes involved in the design, implementation and communication of the PM objectives. Organisational determinants may also refer to the activities that help to enhance the design and development of the performance management system. These factors ensure that the organisational goals are achieved. Organisational determinants are three, clear and measurable goals, ‘development of result-oriented performance measures’ and the use of performance information.

From the review of the literature, it emerged that three main variables from the organisational perspective have significant effect on EPM: clear and measurable goals, ‘development of results-oriented performance measures’ and the use of performance information (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Nurkholis et al, 2014; Rainey, 1983; Verbeeten, 2008). It must be emphasised that the methodology of the study is a parsimonious approach to a discussion of variables that relate to EPM because it is not possible under the given circumstances to adopt a comprehensive review of the literature on PM and the possible factors or variables that account for EPM in the public sector. Therefore, the goal of the study is to offer a few variables that adequately predict EPM in public organisations. These are predictor variables drawn from the goal-setting theory and selected literature which have studied their linkage with EPM. It is instructive to say that these variables come in handy to answer the research questions of the study.

First, the goal-setting theory argued that organisational goals are most predictable if both individual and organisational goals are specific, clear and measurable. Hence, for PM goals to be achieved they must be clear and measurable because precision and specificity of goals remove the ambiguity of goals. Research shows that when employees are given clear and specific goals, their performance on tasks can be measured in quantitative terms (Jung, 2014b; Shantz, A. and Latham, 2011). The goal setting theory presupposes that by having goals in organisations, it can impact on employees' motivation and performance (Jung, 2014; Lee, 2005; Latham et al., 2008; Locke et al., 1981). Recent empirical evidence shows that the content and goal specificity and reasonableness of goals increase employee morale and performance (Jung 2012, 2014; Locke & Latham 2002; Nurkholis et al., 2014; Taylor 2013; Wright 2007).

Clear and measurable goals are important for achieving organisation effectiveness and performance and at the same time, employees are able and willing to exert more effort on goals that are challenging because difficult goals produce higher goal attainment (Latham et al., 2008; Locke et al., 1981). However, goal commitment may be high when PM targets and indicators are clearly defined and directly linked to employee task performance (Rainey, 1983). The study of the effect of goal setting in different organisations such as local government authorities and central executive agencies (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Ammons & Roenigk, 2015; Moynihan, 2005; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Moynihan et al, 2012a) have extensively established that goal clarity and measurability do have significant impact on the employees' and performance in organisations. Similarly, Wright (2007) found out that employees' job performance and goal specificity had both direct and indirect effect on work motivation in a New York State agency.

Using a regulation model of PM adoption utilisation in local governments, Nurkholis et al., (2014) surveyed 39 Indonesian local governments' organisations and distributed 450 questionnaires to managers, but only 212 responses were received, indicating a 47.1% response rate with 169 items of usable data representing 36.2%. They found that goal-orientation mediated the relationship between PM regulation, PM implementation and PM adoption with the effect size of 0.01 significant level and R^2 of .0458. More so, the effect size of goal-orientation and PM implementation were

positively related at a 1% significant level (0.541). However, the study found that PM regulation and adoption were weakly related indicating government regulations of PM may not necessarily lead to its adoption in the decision-making process of local government organisations, but it is only implemented for external requirements rather for internal business processes (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Ter Bogt, 2008). Similarly, the results indicated that there is a strong relationship between regulation PM and goal-orientation with an explanatory power (R^2) of 45.8, which means that when PM requirements are based on outcome performance reports from local government units, public managers are more likely to focus their energy on outcome-based results of PM.

However, the study findings show that not all organisations and their employees are engaged in the strategic planning process as part of decision-making, but when PM is tied to government regulation, adoption and implementation are effective for generating external organisational requirements. This study is consistent with the literature. Ohemeng (2011) argues that when PM is a product of institutionalisation, public organisations are more likely to adopt PM for meeting regulatory requirements other than for decision making.

To test whether PM practices affect performance in public sector organisations, using a survey of 93 public organisations in the Netherlands, Verbeeten (2008) found that clear and measurable goals were positively associated with qualitative measures such as the quality of service, accuracy of measures, innovation and employee morale. At the same time, the results showed that clear and measurable goals were correlated with the quantities of goods produced representing the quantitative measures. The structural equation model test revealed that clear and measurable goals were positively associated with quantitative measures, whereas with low estimation for qualitative measures. The R^2 for quality measures was .32 while quantity measures were .31. Also, some government sectors' clear and measurable goals were more significant.

Verbeeten (2008) underscores that performance is high in organisations that have more clear PM goals than employees of organisations with less or no clear PM goals. For PM to be adopted and implemented, goal-orientation is critical in achieving high performance among public employees, but whether these goals are clear and

understood by individual employees' or not, the organisation must engage in strategic planning and action planning to ensure that the mission of the organisation is roped into the goals.

Similarly there are a number of studies that link goal clarity to a key organisational variable that support EPM (de Waal & Coevert, 2007; Ferreira & Otley, 2009; Hawke, 2012; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Moynihan & Lavertu, 2012; Park & Cho, 2014; Silva & Ferreira, 2010). The evidence suggests that a PM system with specific goals on task performance and with difficult goals, employees' goal attainment is high (Shantz & Latham, 2009). However, goals that are not clear and easy, employee goal commitment is low. The notion is that goals determine employee performance (Latham et al., 2008) and employees' do perform when they are provided with unambiguous goals and less difficult goals on task performance. Other studies have provided evidence that goal clarity is mediated by person variables such as PSM and transformational leadership where employees with higher levels of PSM tend to perform better than those with lower levels of PSM (Grant, 2008, 2012; Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a).

Despite the several items of evidence of goal clarity and its effects on employee motivation and organisational performance, there are instances where public goals are not straightforward when compared to private organisations, suggesting a situation of goal ambiguity (Davis & Stazky, 2014; Jung, 2014; Taylor, 2013). To test goal ambiguity in public management, Jung (2014), used a sample 188 federal programmes between 2004 and 2008. The study find that clear target and timeline settings were key factors in the design and planning stage of the programme goals. Also, the results of the study indicate that target ambiguity was important in the planning, management and results more so than timeline ambiguity which is significant for programme design. This implies that target setting is more important and fundamental than placing timelines (Davis & Shazky, 2014; Jung, 2014, Taylor, 2013).

Goal-ambiguity is an important aspect of organisations performance management systems because ambiguous goals have the tendency to impede the performance of employees and their organisations, especially in government organisations (Jung, 2014). Therefore, any performance management system that does not consider the

presence of goal ambiguity may not be able to achieve its intended objectives (Latham et al., 2008). To a large extent, goals are effective when organisations play with people in mind because goal attainment is affected by the trust and confidence that each individual employee puts into the process of the goal setting process as well as the involvement of citizens who serve as majority stakeholders of public organisations (Dombrowski, Schmidtchen, & Ebentreich, 2013; Taylor, 2013). Taylor's study of the Australian public service revealed that goal setting is significantly related to the citizen behaviour (CB) of Australian federal government employees. The study find that goal clarity influenced CB indirectly through psychological empowerment and that difficult goals raised CB directly and that there is a partial mediation effect of psychological empowerment.

Another important stage in the performance cycle is the development of results-oriented performance measures which are extracted from the organisation's vision, mission, strategy and values (Ammons, 2002; Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008). Fletcher and Williams (1997) observe that the development of the organisation's mission and objectives contribute to formulating, clarifying employee responsibilities, accountabilities to improve performance and enhance future development of employees (Lee, 2005; Taylor & Taylor, 2014).

The development of results-based performance measures requires the organisation to incorporate quantitative measures into qualitative measures. Quantity measures are centred on how many units of goods produced in a period while quality measures how an employee is committed to goal attainment, the development of results-oriented performance measures is said to be an effective drive of goals and EPM (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004). For organisations to achieve performance management goals, they must design performance measures that are both quantitative and qualitative in nature (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008).

Ammons and Rivenbark's study find that a performance measurement that incorporates efficiency and outcome measures are more relevant to driving PM objectives than outputs measures (2008). Effective performance management from the organisational perspective maintains that results-oriented performance measures are important drivers of PM outcomes in the public sector because if employees are provided with how performance will be measured and how parameters or indicators

are defined, they will focus their attention on their individual performance areas and ensure those indicators are achieved. Other studies have shown that when the measurement system clearly includes measures such as quality of service delivery, efficiency, effectiveness, accountability, transparency and output measures, it leads to effective outcomes on the PM policy and performance (Beard, 2009; Boland & Fowler, 2000; Kloot & Martin, 2000; Modell, 2004).

However, the difficulty with developing performance measures is whether all performance goals or measures can be quantified in numeric terms. How do organisations ensure that their performance measures do not only include quantitative measures of employee performance, like outputs but also outcomes as well efficiency and service quality improvement measures? Van Dooren et al. (2015) point out that performance measures in public organisations are more output-oriented than outcome-oriented. The effect of emphasising more measurable things in the performance process leads to little effort in designing performance measures that take the outcome or the results of public policies into consideration.

Using a survey research design and drawing their sample size from the 'United States General Accounting Office (GAO)' data collected from '1300 middle- and upper-level civilian managers in 24 largest executive branch agencies' to test seven hypotheses, the study sampled 796 managers with usable responses and out of this sample, a final sample sizes for the research had a 'range from 380 to 528 because of missing data' this was observed by the authors. The study draws on the work of Kwon and Zmud (1987) and Shields and Young (1989) on technical and organisational determinants that determine successful implementation of performance measurement and management systems in public sector organisations. The results of the data through a regression analysis indicated a 30% significance level at an adjusted R^2 of all the variables studied. The study found a correlation between the variables and reports that "more than 75% of the associations were significant at 5% confidence level. Additionally, the authors find that 'performance measure development, accountability and uses are positively related to each other, negatively related to data and metric problems and positively related to the extent of management commitment, decision-making authority and training. Similarly, the findings indicate that benefits of GPRA activities were "related to the development

performance measurements, accountability and use. This evidence supports those organisations that demonstrate a strong commitment to results is more likely to allow greater decision-making authority by providing more training to organisational members.

However, this study may not be adequate in providing answers to why some organisational performance measures do better than others. Perhaps, the cultural dimensions of nations and organisations might tend to have different effects on performance measurement and management in public sector organisations. Likewise, the framework may as well be incapable of explaining why some performance measures are successfully implemented by some agencies while others have been unsuccessful. The technical factors used in the model, may perhaps not relate to all types of government or public organisations. Finally, the sample seems to be inadequate, especially from the target population of government agencies in the USA. The study only relied on data from 24 executive agencies to draw a sample of about 380 to 528 which is inadequate for quantitative analysis. Besides, there were missing data which meant that the hypotheses were not tested across the same sample size.

Another component of organisational determinants is that of performance information use. The evidence on performance information use suggests that if performance data are used purposely for decision making, it support EPM (Moynihan et al., 2012a; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010). Performance information used in public organisations is considered as a paradox to the performance doctrine because information generated from the process of managing performance in most cases never get used for improving performance (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Van Dooren et al., 2015). Clearly, performance information use is understudied and evidence on the variables is inconclusive in the sense that to the extent that for some PM systems in public organisations to use such information for the promotion of employees through annual performance appraisal reports, however, what kind of use the information from the performance management process is used for may not be a clear one.

Moynihan and Pandey (2010) found that performance information use is positively related to individual-level variables such as PSM and that since performance information use is a form of organisational behaviour, employees have the discretion to use it or not. Also, employees with higher levels of PSM are more

likely to use performance information for decision-making in the organisation. In another study, Moynihan et al (2012a, 2012b) found that performance information is positively related to PSM and indirectly related to transformational leadership. These two studies appear to suggest that information used in the public sector is not part of the PM cycle because most PM policies fail to state explicitly how, what and when performance data should be used and for improving what performance. Because performance information use is an implied component of the PM process, most organisations in public institutions tend to treat it as less important but the use of performance information may as well be a tool for improving performance in the short to long-term in managing individual and organisational performance.

Other studies observe that data generated from PM sometimes are not used for decision making (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Hawke, 2012) because of metric difficulties. At the same time, similar studies have also link performance data use to employees' levels of PSM (Moynihan et al., 2012a). The implication is that performance data use will be used by public managers if the metric system is not too difficult. Meanwhile, when public managers use performance data it will lead to better outcomes for PM objectives (Kroll, 2015; Kroll & Vogel, 2013).

In a more recent study, Speklé & Verbeeten (2014) studied 101 public sector organisations and find that contractibility 'moderates the relationship between incentive-oriented use of performance measurement system and performance' (p. 140). The study also finds that the exploratory use of a performance measurement system enhanced performance which is depended on the level of contractibility as well as the use of the performance measurement system by managers. Further, the study finds that there is a positive and significant effect between operational use of performance measurement, with performance accounting for 28% of the variance in the model ($p=0.03$), while incentive use of a performance measurement system has no significant effect on performance. However, the study found that exploratory uses of performance measurement have a direct impact on performance ($p<0.01$). The implication is that, depending on the way performance management or measurement is used, it may have a significant effect on performance (Moynihan et al., 2012a).

From, the organisational determinants, it means that for a PM to be effective, public employees in an organisation are required to identify the goals as well as to

understand the features of the PM process. An effective PM is based on how managers understand the various processes, such as strategic planning, performance standards, performance measures and the feedback processes. By understanding the various processes of the PM cycle, organisations must set clear and measurable goals, develop result-oriented performance measures as well as use performance information for decision-making in the organisation with aim of improving future performance. Therefore, it implies that the organisational –supply side must clearly define the objectives of the PM system for individual employees to be committed to the PM process and managerial support is important as well. From the review of the empirical review, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1. Clear and measurable organisational goals have a positive impact on EPM.

H2. The development of results-oriented performance measures has a positive effect on EPM.

H3. The use of performance information has a direct impact on with EPM.

2.13.2 The Relationship between Effective PM and Environmental Determinants

There is inconclusive support for environmental determinants in achieving EPM (Moynihan et al., 2012a). But the strong evidence of the environment having an impact on organisational performance has long been established in organisational theory Mintzberg (1980) and Oliver (1991) argues that the context of performance management is characterised by a constant change because the environment in which organisations operate is dynamic and it demands managers to adapt by finding new answers to the PM questions. Therefore, whether there is low support for stakeholder involvement and political support or not, the environmental variables are undeniably a strong inertia that can either impact on the PM process either positively or negatively.

Bouckaert and Halligan (2008) in their study of 6 countries observe that the PMS of these countries' models vary in the ideal type, country model and degree of implementation. Bouckaert and Halligan observe that a country experiencing political

crisis is more likely to have an effective PM system. This finding is consistent with another study of seven countries (Rhodes et al., 2012) that PMS is more effective in politically unstable countries as well as establish administrative culture rather than countries with young democratic governance. This evidence is indeed worth analysing because the context of PM may differ in terms of its effectiveness because contextual variables in many respects do have an impact on PM outcomes. For instance, the commitment of senior management and politicians to the PM objectives may have a huge impact on its outcomes. This implies that in countries where managerial support and political support is high, it is likely to lead to better results than countries that do have such support. Also, an established administrative system may as well have PM institutionalised into the system of administration and this clearly makes it easier for those systems to be effective. A lot of contingency factors may have important implications for an effective PM because national culture plays a distinguishing feature in some PM systems (Aguinis et al., 2012).

Political support or commitment (Moynihan & Pandey, 2005; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Yang & Hsieh 2007) correlates with effective PM systems because of the uncertainty and the ability of political leadership to motivate administrators and managers to support the system. Yang and Hsieh (2007) found political support leads to autonomy, authority and support for agency's policies by elected officials. When organisations have political support, they have decision making authority to carry out important performance decisions which seek to support organisational performance without undue interference from politicians. Also, political support is needed because it allows senior public managers the freedom to act and be responsible for their decision making in the PM process. Additionally, to have an EPM, elected politicians must support the agencies PM policies and other programmes that are being implemented to improve performance in the organisation. However, Yang and Hsieh's study failed to link political support with resource allocation for implementing PM policies, because the perceived support of politicians will lead to more allocation of resources and funds to support PM activities. External political support is important because of the cost of developing and implementing a PMS is

related to tangible resources and technical competencies (Yang & Hsieh 2007) and hence, political support may as well lead to resource allocation.

Stakeholder participation is also another environmental factor that has been reported to have an effect on EPM (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Conaty 2012; Moynihan & Pandey 2010; Yang & Hsieh 2007). These studies found that EPM is related to the level of involvement and participation of internal and external stakeholders in the design and implementation process of PM policies. Whereas, Yang and Hsieh's and Conaty's studies found evidence that stakeholder participation is positively related to EPM, especially elected officials, Moynihan et al. (2012a) found no significant relationship between stakeholder participation and performance management. Regardless of the inconclusive evidence of stakeholder participation, it is an undeniable fact that PM operates in an uncertain environment that pulls from both external and internal environments and may affect its outcomes. Hence, collaborative networks and participation of every actor in the process are important and can be utilised by organisations to improve performance.

Nevertheless, Van Dooren (2011) caution that too many actors can undermine the entire process and so care must be taken in defining who forms part of an organisations stakeholders. To help in defining an organisation's stakeholders, Bouckaert and Halligan (2008) provide multiple- stakeholder frameworks which are adopted in this study to set the parameters for who the stakeholders are in the PM process. They include executive politicians, legislative politicians, administration, operations/professional staff and citizen/customer. It demands that stakeholders and public managers accept the PM process and that political support is likely to lead to more commitment, resource allocation and support from managers as well as elected officials to ensure better performance outcomes on policy implementation. As a result, the following hypotheses are framed from the environmental determinants:

H4. Stakeholder participation has a positive and significant relationship with EPM.

H5. Political support has a positive relationship with EPM.

2.13.3 The Relationship between PSM and Effective PM

Public service motivation refers to motivation grounded in public institutions based on the assumption that when employees feel their work has social impact on society, they are more likely to put up extra role behaviour to benefit others (Moynihan et al., 2012a)

Research on public service motivation is not new, studies such as (Gabris & Simo, 1995; Houston, 2000; Kim, 2005; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Perry, 1996; Steijn, 2008) found that public sector employees with higher levels of public service motivation find that meaningful work as an accomplishment and the desire to serve the public cause (Houston, 2000). A study by Moynihan and Pandey (2010) reports that PSM correlates with performance information among public managers in US local government institutions. At the same time, the authors find that employees with higher levels of PSM have a better sense of the PM goals than those with a low level of PSM.

There is a significant support of PSM's impact on performance information use. Using eight organisations across public and non-profit organisations with 183 items of usable data and drawing on social impact in terms of positive employee-client relationships, Moynihan et al. (2012a) find that 'the perceived social impact of employees' work' shapes their use of performance data. The finding also shows that a perceived social impact has significant impacts on both purposeful and political uses of performance management data. The research also finds support for the purposeful use of performance information to 'improve effectiveness' of the organisation while 'political uses' is reported to relate to 'advocacy for programmes' (Moynihan et al., 2012a).

Although the perceived social impact has higher significance levels of purposeful information use and political uses, the relationship between prosocial values and the kinds of uses of performance information may have a contingent effective. This implies that other factors might account for the changes (Moynihan et al., 2012a). Additionally, the type of performance regime operating in an organisation may be at variance with values of employees (Moynihan et al., 2012a). Even though

Moynihan et al.'s research provides an insight into the role of perceived social impact and information use, it fails to show how an indirect complex relationship exists between perceived social impacts and other variables such as transformational leadership and purposeful performance information use in the PM process. In fact, the research acknowledges the limitation of testing a promising variable on performance information use and suggests that further research is carried out in other settings to observe its impacts on purposeful and political uses. It is important to recognise the role of environmental and organisational determinants may as well support performance information use in the PM cycle.

Evidence on PSM suggests that the positive effects of public service motivation largely depend on the notion that employees feel their work offers adequate opportunities to satisfy their motive to serve others (Bright, 2007; Steijn, 2008; Vandenabeele, 2008). In a similar view, Wright (2007) indicates that this feature of PSM is related to expectancy and goal theories that see the motivation of employees as subject to satisfying their expectations and goals. The implication is that when employees have higher public service motivation, they are more likely to stimulate 'action when they can see how work actually benefits others' (Moynihan et al., 2012a, p. 468).

The relationship between PSM and performance information use has been found by organisational scholars to be the litmus test for persistence, high performance and productivity (Grant, 2008a). When employees go beyond duty call to 'persist in performing their work effectively and productively' the main answer to this extra-role is prosocial motivation (Grant, 2008a, p. 48, 2012b), in which employees are dedicated to a cause (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003) or as a moral duty (Shamir, 1991), suggesting PSM has a strong correlation with PM process. Performance management and organisational scholars have discovered the significant role of PSM which is the desire to benefit other people as having a direct impact on purposeful performance information use in the PM cycle (Kroll, 2015). However, these studies have tended to treat PSM as a mediating variable, yet the presence of PSM as an individual level variable may have a direct influence on EPM. The following hypothesis is proposed:

H6. PSM has a positive and significant relationship with effective performance management

2.13.4 Context-Dependency and the Effect of National Culture on EPM

Aguinis et al. (2012) argue that in China's Socialist State in 1949 PMSs were mostly designed on the principles of attendance and skills. Since the turn of the century, China has increasingly designed its PMSs to include pay-for-performance systems, yet embedded in the success of a PMS is the respect for age and seniority as well as social harmony. In the same vein, Turkey's PMS has unique cultural contexts which are based on the democracy and secularity, yet it is characterised by a one-party state. In Turkey, 80% of organisations are using PMS, but the tenets of the PM systems are built on personal relationships which are deeply embedded in the Turkish culture.

Also, in South Korea, even though work relationship is based on the rational bureaucratic model which is established based on hierarchical relationships, the importance of the concept is found in group or team performance rather individual performance. However, during the Asian financial crisis in 1997, the bureaucratic model changed the management practices of most organisations and many of the South Korean organisations adopted what is termed 'Younbongie' (meaning: merit-based systems, see Aguinis et al., 2012, p. 386). It is, therefore, prudent for organisations practising PM to design their systems to consider both merit-based values and traditional cultural values at the same time (Bae, Chen & Lawler, 1998).

Using the framework of Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Quinn Mills and Walton, (1985) , Bae et al.(1998) examined four HRM policies domains, (recruitment, selection, training and development), work systems (control, teamwork, job specificity), rewards systems (wages and performance assessment) and employee influence (employee participation and ownership). They further developed the framework into two broad areas, namely: 'buy-bureaucratic' which refers to the control of HRM systems and make organic' HRM systems characterised by commitment practices or high-performance work systems most determined by internal cultural norms of firms. With this framework, they studied indigenous and

multinational corporation subsidiary firms in both Korea and Taiwan to find out whether the country of origin does have an impact on the operations of firms, high-performance work systems or not and whether the difference is informed by buy-in or make - an organic type of control systems (see Table 2.5 for details).

By comparing the two different countries which have almost the same culture, the findings reveal significant differences in subsidiaries operating in Korea and Taiwan. Whereas Japanese MNC subsidiary companies were modelled under a buy-bureaucratic HRM strategies systems, American subsidiaries were more organic in their HRM strategies after controlling for size and industry. The study also found that Korea and Taiwan had the same economic development but had unique cultural differences which reflected in their organisational structure and institutional characteristics. The proposed hypothesis for this variable would be tested through in-depth interviews:

H7. National culture has a relationship with effective performance management.

From the above analysis of the various correlations between the independent and dependent variables, figure 2.8 and Table 2.5 below represent the conceptual framework and the hypotheses that will guide the study.

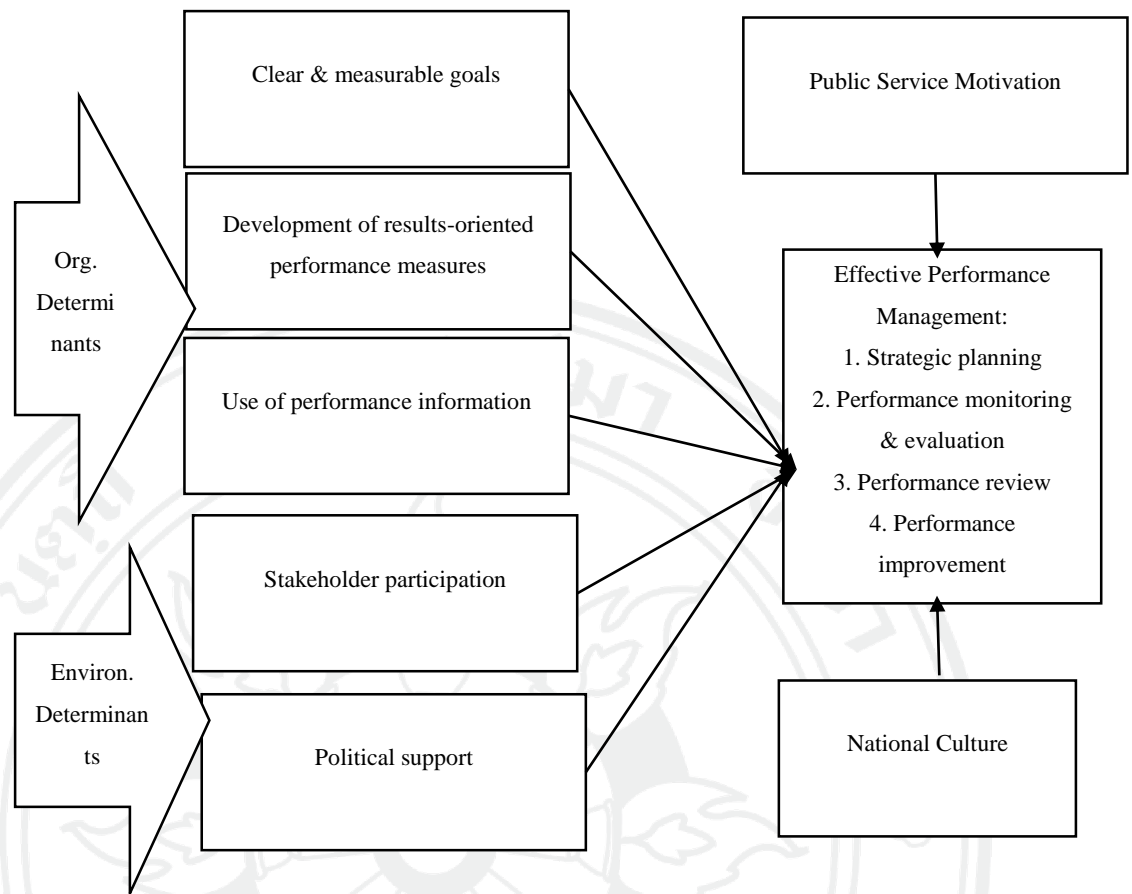


Figure 2.8 Effective Performance Management Framework

Table 2.5 Summary of Hypotheses of the Study

Serial No.	Hypotheses	Direction Sign	Path	Methodology/Hypotheses Testing Technique
H1.	Clear and measurable organisational goals have positive and significant effect on EPM	+	Direct	Multivariate statistical testing
H2.	The development of results-oriented performance measures has a positive and significant effect on EPM	+	Direct (+)	Multivariate statistical testing
H3.	The use of performance information has a positive effect on EPM	+	Direct (+)	Multivariate statistical testing
H4.	Stakeholder participation has a positive relationship with EPM	+	Direct but moderate	Multivariate statistical testing
H5.	Political support has a positive relationship with EPM	+	Direct but weak	Multivariate statistical testing
H6.	PSM has direct effect on EPM	+		Qualitative interviews
H7.	National culture has an impact on effective performance management	+	Direct=moderate High	

2.14 Chapter Summary

The chapter discussed the trends in the literature on PM and what is lacking. The review showed that, at the global space, PM outcomes have been mixed with different country level success factors as well as in different levels of governance.

Nevertheless, the literature indicates that effective PM is affected by contingent or environmental determinants, and therefore, it would be difficult to have similar designs of all PM policies. Also, there appears to be little evidence on key drivers of PM such as performance information use, stakeholder participation as well as the role of public service motivation on PM, outcomes. Additionally, the review reveals that the Ghanaian experience is less known, with only a few studies attempting to find the success factors of drivers of PM yet, the Ghanaian experience shows that PM reforms have had less impact on public service delivery for the last twenty years since the second wave reforms under the NPM were introduced into the country. In addition, this chapter attempted to contextualise the study, by reviewing the nature and state of performance management systems under the Ghanaian Decentralisation Policy and more specifically, the Local Government Service with collaborations from the PSC to introduce performance management reform into the Service. In sum, the chapter is a broader overview of the literature on current trends on PM from the global and developing countries' perspectives as well as from the Ghanaian experience. The next chapter is the review of related theories that positions the context of the study.

In addition, Chapter Two discussed the three related theories: GST, SCT and PSMT, their assumptions and how they provide possible explanations to the individual level of analysis of the variables under investigation. Also, the chapter provided a discussion on the dependent variable, its dimensions and the independent variables which form the explanatory factors of the study. To develop the hypothesis of the study, the relationships between goal clear and measurable goals, development of result-oriented performance measures', performance information use and EPM, as well as stakeholder participation and political support, was established. Consequently, the discussions on the relationships between the variables centred on public service motivations, the five independent variables and the dependent variable. The final part of the chapter was the development of a conceptual framework which serves as a guide for the study. The next chapter deals with the development of the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter discussed the theories that are relevant to the present focus of the study where their individual assumptions and factors were detailed and elaborated on extensively. The present chapter is a discussion of how the empirical data were collected and handled. Specifically, the features of a research methodology are discussed, which include: the philosophical assumptions of the study, the research paradigms, the research methods used, the research design, the sampling strategy, the data analysis techniques used for both the ‘qualitative and the quantitative’ data sets. The chapter introduces the discussions of the control variables and the practical execution of the study.

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), research methodology is a scientific inquiry approach that states how ‘research questions must be asked and answered’ (p.21). It includes worldviews, a general preference for design, sampling, data collection and analytical strategies that enable the researcher to make inferences. Therefore, this chapter presents the philosophical assumptions, paradigms, research design/methods, and the research strategy that shaped and answered the research questions. In addition, the chapter discusses the sampling strategy and the various components, the methods of data collection and procedures adopted during the fieldwork. Also, the chapter provides an explanation of the instrumentation, validity, and reliability of the measurements used to collect the data for the variables under investigation. The final part of the chapter outlined the specification, cleaning and preparation of the data for further analysis.

3.2 Philosophical Assumptions/Paradigms

Philosophical assumptions are particularly related to the nature of reality, theoretical justification of knowledge and the logic of inquiry or the methodology of the various disciplines (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). It is also about methods or

techniques of arriving at reality, and more especially, the issue of values or axiology. In the past four decades or more, the debate over philosophical issues has largely remained unsolved. There are four main issues that philosophers have often disagreed on: ontology, epistemology, methodology, and axiology. These issues have divided the front of philosophers, the scientific research community and more specifically, the two leading paradigms in social sciences, thus, positivism and interpretivism.

Crotty, (1998, p.2) reports that there are four elements and questions in social science research that must be of importance to the researcher. The four questions are 1) What methods to use? 2) What methodology governs the choice and use of methods? 3) What theoretical perspective lies in the methodology? And 4) what epistemology informs the theoretical perspective? These four elements of social research help to ensure that the research report is credible to the scientific community and makes the findings more appealing to the reader.

There are four elements of social research which provide justification why a researcher's choice of method is appropriate. Research methods are the techniques or procedures used to collect and analyse data with the purpose of answering the research questions or the hypotheses of the study. The methodology is the strategy, plan of action, process or design that researchers choose and use and methods that link their choice to the desired outcomes. Theoretical perspectives are the philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the process as well as its logic and criteria (Crotty, 1998). Epistemology is the theory of knowledge which is found in the theoretical perspectives, thereby explaining the methodology of social research (p. 3). Epistemology may be understood as what we know, and try to explain, why we come to know some information about reality. For the purposes of this study, the most central paradigm that will be discussed is positivism because the views of this paradigm are the foundation of the study. As a result, the study will focus on pragmatism while drawing on other paradigms to explain why pragmatism is preferred.

3.2.1 Pragmatism

Pragmatism calls for pluralism of paradigms, thus it is a rejection of the single either/or debate in the paradigm wars (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013; Teddlie &

Tashakkori, 2009). Pragmatism also deals with the use of multiple frameworks in the same study where pragmatists ascribe to axiological assumptions while accounting for both the objectivity and subjectivity of the epistemic traditions. Tashakkori and Teddlie underscore that there is affinity in the use of pragmatism in social and behavioural research and that the use of pragmatism is an important answer to methodological eclecticism which is much needed in the study of social reality. The understanding is that the issue of the compatible thesis has long been solved in which social scientists are freely allowed to combine and integrate both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study. The reason is that pragmatism allows researchers to find solutions and evaluate programmes that would bring intended benefits to target groups in the policy and nursing fields.

Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) differentiate two kinds of pragmatism: classical which refers to the 'right, the left, and of the centre' and dialectical pragmatism which is a way to integrate classical pragmatism into modernise methodological thought. However, Biesta (2010, p. 97) argues that pragmatism cannot be understood as a philosophical stance as it is a philosophical tool that can be used to address problems. Biesta maintains that pragmatism may provide our understanding that no single methodological approach has an intrinsic value better than the others in the search for knowledge (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013, p. 147).

Greene (2007) see pragmatism as an alternative paradigm because of the other two paradigms, positivism and interpretivism because it allows researchers to actively mix methods and integrates their research findings. This is because the use of pragmatism allows for both subjective and objective generation of knowledge which can be obtained through deduction and induction methods to help in problem-solving in action-driven research for the benefit of societal progress (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013).

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) list the five paradigms and adds pragmatism as the sixth paradigm in social science. Similarly, Riccucci (2010) provides about five different types of paradigms, positivism, logical positivism, empiricism, interpretivism, and postmodernism as some paradigms that exist in public administration. Clearly, these paradigms are divided based on ontology, epistemology

and methodological standpoints, whereas positivism and logical positivism adhere strictly to the application of natural science procedures to arrive at the truth and reality, empiricism combines both laws and experience to gain knowledge. Interpretivism believes that culture and individual actions are reconstructions of social phenomena by researchers, groups and individuals (Ruccuci, 2010; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). Also, pragmatism underscores that a social phenomenon is only understood by combining several dimensions through the ontological and epistemological lenses to view reality, and this study is grounded in pragmatism.

There are three main assumptions of pragmatism, first, actions cannot be separated from the situations and contexts in which they occur because actions occur in the world and the world is full of experiences that happen to specific groups or people within a specific time and circumstances (Morgan, 2014). For the pragmatist, there can be no objective or absolute truth to any action because the ‘consequences of an act depend on the situation in which it occurs’ (Morgan, 2014, p.26). Therefore, pragmatism insists on warranted beliefs rather than on a universal criterion or truth.

Secondly, ‘actions are related to costs in ways that are subject to change’ (Morgan, 2014, p.26). The nature of actions involves anticipated consequences that can change as situations change (Morgan, 2014). Pragmatists hold that it is not possible to experience exactly an identical situation twofold, because ‘beliefs about how to act in a situation are inherently provisional and you can only act using your warranted beliefs about the likely consequences of that action’ (p. 26).

Third, actions are contingent on individuals’ worldviews that are socially shared (Morgan, 2014). Pragmatism associates beliefs as unified wholes rather than isolated, and the experiences of people are got from their worldview that shapes actions. Morgan points out that no two different individuals have the same experiences, no two worldviews are the same because it is possible to find a wide range of shared experiences. The focus of pragmatism is about the nature of experiences rather the nature of reality, pragmatism’s emphasis is on ‘outcomes of action rather than questions about the nature of truth and sees individual beliefs as part of shared belief’ (Morgan, 2014, pp. 27–28).

This study positions itself on pragmatism based on the multiple realities stance, the nature and theory of knowledge and the procedures to obtain that

knowledge. Pragmatism holds that knowledge is derived from ‘taking action and learning from the outcomes’ (Morgan, 2014, p. 7) and that these principles apply to ‘human experience and research which involves a self-conscious and systematic effort by the researcher to link actions to their consequences’ (Morgan, 2014, p. 7). For pragmatism, an inquiry is an ‘attempt to produce new knowledge by taking actions and experiencing their results’ (p.28) and at the same time inquiry occurs when you confront situations that fall outside your existing knowledge (Morgan, 2014). The result of the inquiry is ‘warranted belief’ about actions and their likely consequences, and it is important to note, however, that human experience occurs within historical and cultural contexts: thus, your current ‘warranted beliefs’ can evolve as you encounter new situations (Morgan, 2014, p. 28).

Pragmatism insists on linking your purpose and procedures to combine research methods. When using mixed methods, the researcher needs to constantly ask ‘what difference would it make to do your research one way rather than another’ (Morgan, 2014, p. 28) and the way to answer the question is ‘tracing the likely consequences of different lines of action and ultimately deciding on a way of acting that is likely to resolve the original uncertainty in the situation’ (p.28). Pragmatism’s philosophical assumptions hold that ‘there is no way that any human action can ever be separated from past experiences and the beliefs that have arisen from those experiences’ (Morgan, 2014, p. 26). It assumes that people’s worldviews are shaped by their actions, beliefs, experiences and the likely consequences that determine the future occurrence of similar events. Therefore, pragmatism refers to the meaning of actions and beliefs and their associated consequences.

It is imperative to note that combining both epistemic traditions and assumptions to study a social phenomenon is insightful, which ensures an understanding of the complex relationship that exists between the predictors and criterion variables for a holistic study of performance management in the public sector. Also, understanding the scope of performance management is through pragmatism, because the very idea of managing performance in the public sector is contested (Lee, 2005; Radin, 2006), the content of performance management differs in context and to a very large extent, the organisational and environmental determinants as well as the behavioural aspect of performance (Kroll, 2015). As a

result, many leading scholars have called for research on the subject with a pragmatic and contextual approach (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Conaty, 2012; Kroll, 2015; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Pollitt, 2013). It implies that for a subject such as performance management, which lacks a universal application, falls within pragmatism in which the environment determines its effectiveness.

Another reason for placing this research within a pragmatic paradigm is because the dimensions of performance management systems are dynamic and understood by environmental and organisational determinants as well as the role of PSM on EPM (Kroll, 2015). Social phenomenon is dynamic and organisations operate within 'consciously coordinated boundaries' (Robbins, 1990, p. 6) that change every other day.

In the choice of research methods, pragmatics observes that the use of quantitative or qualitative approaches are both useful, and the use of a research methodology is informed by the research questions that a researcher wants to address (Riccuci, 2010). Pragmatism does not hold brief for the shortcomings of the two methodologies, but argues that using the two methods addresses the weaknesses of the other (Creswell, 2007). In choosing to situate the study within pragmatism, the study utilises both deductive and inductive logic as a way of synthesising the knowledge-based in performance management literature to unearth the fundamentals of the subject and the possible hypotheses that evolved during the review of previous studies. It is important to state that the research method is a major quantitative core model with an additional input support from a qualitative design which purpose is to investigate the context-specific determinants of EPM in the experience of Ghana. Therefore, the conceptual model that is presented in Chapter Three sought to use the hypotheses generated from the theoretical review to test the effect of the independent variables (IVs) on the dependent variable (DV).

In the light of the above-mentioned reasons and informed by the complexity that research on performance management is confronted with, an attempt to diagnose a complex concept requires a tactical strategy in which both quantitative and qualitative approaches are used to mitigate the effects of the limitations of the two methods and at the same time provide additional input from qualitative data to make substantial contributions to the research questions and the purpose of the study. For

emphasis, a pragmatic worldview result in two outcomes, 1) objective measurement and (2) subjective measurements of the variables. Nevertheless, the reliability and validity of the data are sound because the independent variables measurement have been tested and their Cronbach's alpha is averagely between 0.86 to 0.98, which is highly reliable. The qualitative data is important because this part of the study sought to answer the contextual factors that drive and impact on EPM in the Ghanaian context. Understanding the factors that drive performance management and challenges that hinder successful implementation of PM policies in Ghana contributed greatly in recommending strategies to shape public human resource policies in general.

3.3 Mixed Method Research Design

According to Creswell (2015) there is no agreement over what constitutes mixed methodology, but it can be viewed from a philosophical stance in which epistemology and other assumptions take the focus (p.1). It can also be a methodology or a research process coming from a broad philosophy and extending to interpretation and dissemination. Mixed methods research (MMR) involves the collection of data, analysis and interpretation of research findings using both qualitative and quantitative methods.

In viewing MMR as a method of research, Creswell (2015) defines it as an approach to 'social, behavioral and health sciences that the investigator gathers use both closed-ended and open-ended questions and integrate the two data sets to understand the research problem' (p.2). According to Creswell, the use of MMR should be used when the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data are meant to answer the research question, be used as a rigorous qualitative and quantitative methods and/or as a combination or integration of the two approaches or sometimes as a frame to illustrate a philosophical paradigm or theory.

One of the underlying assumptions of this approach is that when a researcher combines statistical trends with stories and personal experiences, the collective strength provides a better understanding of the research questions than single trends. However, it is important to observe that MMR is not a mere gathering of both quantitative and qualitative data, because the point of integration is likely to be missed

with these kinds of research findings. In this regard, there must be substantial reasons for combining the two methods of data collection.

There are four reasons for using MMR for the primary field data. First, the reason for using MMR is based on the philosophical assumptions of the study. The study assumes that the worldview of people is relative because people experience the same phenomenon differently. The worldview and social patterns that people construct differ because the same or similar social patterns are given different interpretations by different individuals, based on their past experiences and their background or history. Therefore, two people will experience the same thing, but the effect of that experience may shape their lives in unique ways. I underscore that because personal idiosyncrasies of local government sector employees are perhaps unique, their interpretation of performance management in their District Assemblies will also be different. Given that peoples' worldviews are likely to be different and for which they can bring these to bear on their work, it may be necessary to acknowledge this difference and seek further clarification to this social reconstruction of the work system which is guided by employees' personal experiences and worldviews.

Second, the use of the MMR is because of the research questions and the objectives of the study. The purpose of the study was to answer the research questions which used both methods to test the relationship between organisational, and environmental determinants' impact on EPM as well as the effect of PSM on EPM for which quantitative techniques are more prudent than any other technique.

Third, the literature maintains that the context of PM is not universal, but has boundaries (Aguinis et al., 2012; Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Rhodes et al, 2012; Pollitt, 2013; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004). In this light, the study used a nested approach or concurrent research to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. The use of a nested approach is meant to analyse the datasets separately and merge the results of the two data sets during the discussion stage. One reason for using this approach is to triangulate the data sources, especially the contextual variable which has been described, to have an impact with regards to the effectiveness of PMS in a national context. For instance, Aguinis et al (2012) argue that national culture does influence PM outcomes. Similarly, Perry and Hondelghem (2008) maintain that national culture does have an impact on the levels of employees' PSM levels,

indicating that there are some cultures that support the development of people's pro-social levels more than others. Also, others tend to argue that a collectivist culture tends to have a more enduring effect on employees' PSM or pro-social values than individualistic cultures (Moynihan et al., 2012a; Kroll & Vogel, 2013). The essence of using the MMR will be to use the two data sets as complementary to gain better understanding of the research questions. Yauch and Steudel (2003), use MMR to triangulate for cross-validation and provide a comprehensive understanding of the effect of an organisational culture that aided or hindered a firm's ability to successfully implement manufacturing cells (p.467 cited in Hesse-Biber, 2010, p. 4).

Fourth, the literature on PM is mostly by qualitative or quantitative methods, and many studies have recommended the use of MMR to offer an opportunity to triangulate and provide a detailed comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon. Also, there is also little evidence of MMR in the study of PM in the context of Ghana. For example, studies on PM in the Ghanaian public sector are mostly qualitative with few studies using quantitative techniques (Bawole et al., 2013; Simpson & Buabeng, 2013, Ohenmeng, 2011; 2012). Therefore, an MMR design offers an opportunity to contribute to the literature on PM in the context of Ghana.

3.3.1 Limitations of the Use of Mixed Method Research Design

Despite the benefits of an MMR strategy, a few limitations may result from using it. First, the incompatible thesis is anchored on the argument that it is inappropriate to mix the two major methods. Using qualitative and quantitative research designs in the same study because of the differences in the epistemic traditions based on objectivism and subjectivism may pose challenges in the execution of the study (Howes, 2015). Nonetheless, this argument has been challenged in the philosophy of the social science literature on the methodological adequacy of single methods. Recent trends call for methodological eclecticism which champions the use of both methods to provide detail understanding of a complex social phenomenon as well as its appropriateness to the research questions being investigated.

Second, an MMR study is likely to subordinate one method over the other. For instance, because this study is a major quantitative design with additional input from qualitative data (QUAN + qual), it may undermine the qualitative methods employed in the study. Sometimes, qualitative data are usually transformed to numerical values

through data transformation techniques in MMR studies to integrate the findings, vital information from qualitative interviews, especially the use of certain phrases and words may lose their significance and value. This is the case because there are certain words which meanings may be lost once the data is quantified. In addition, certain views or opinions may diminish once their value is taken away and they are reduced to numerical values. However, an attempt was made to design a productive means of integrating the findings by analysing the data separately but integrating the two data at the discussion stage of the research so that vital qualitative information would not be undermined.

Third, MMR is more expensive to execute than a single design study. The completion of an MMR study demands more logistical needs to be accomplished due to the costs embedded in reaching out to respondents and informants in follow up interviews and completion of questionnaires. It is even more burdensome in terms of the timelines of the study, especially at the doctoral level, since relatively short time is available for the completion of a PhD dissertation. Because of the longer time needed to complete a study using MMR, it is a major setback to doctoral candidates.

Lastly, an MMR study requires the ability of the researcher to be competent in both QUAN and QUAL research techniques to complete the research as an alternative to the two strands. Nevertheless, the experience gained in research methodology classes were used in this situation. Also, the dissertation committee has provided input to shape the methods and techniques used in analyzing both QUAN and QUAL data. A summary of the mixed method and the various techniques and methods used in collecting the data are presented in Figure 3. 1 below.

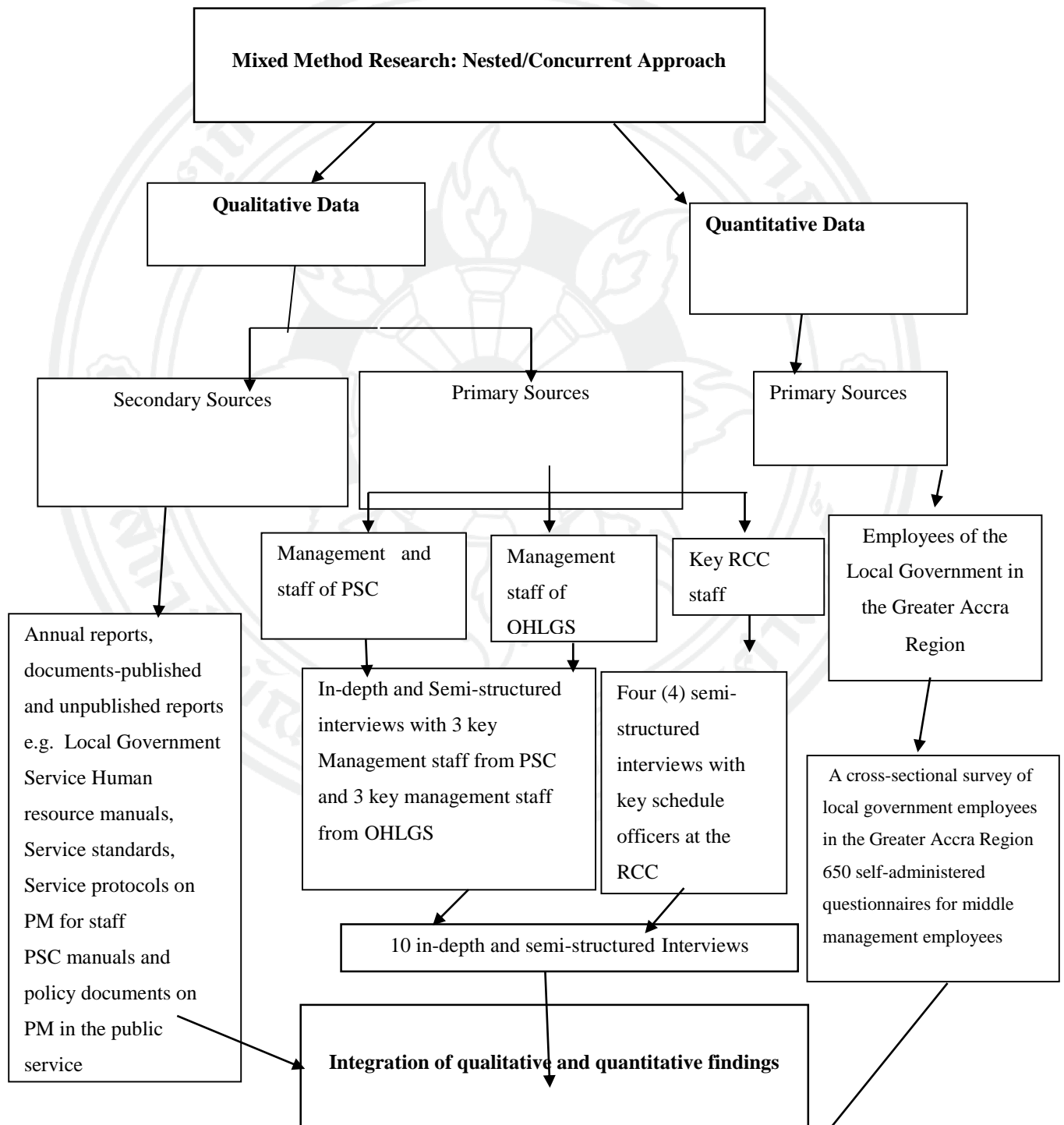


Figure 3.1 Methodological Triangulation of Mixed Methods Design

3.4 Research Methods

The study used a quantitative core design with additional input from qualitative design, in brief, the study is modelled after what Morgan (2014, p. 67) terms 'QUANT + qual', meaning, the major design of the study is a quantitative which can be studied alone without the support of a qualitative input, which implies a parallel relationship between the two methods. At the same time, the qualitative input can be a supplementary to the quantitative data or can still suffice on its own. The study adopted a major quantitative research method because this type of approach is widely used in empirical investigations in behavioural sciences. Also, the quantitative method allowed for the testing hypotheses and the confirmation of theories that exist in a discipline on how certain phenomena occur in the real world. Quantitative data collection is less expensive and large data can be collected in a short period of time, thereby shortening the analysis of the data.

There are three main types of research methods or approaches for conducting a social inquiry in the social sciences: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative methods use numeric values, closed-ended questions, while a qualitative research design focusses on words and open-ended questions. The quantitative design is grounded in positivism which uses deductive reasoning to observe a social phenomenon. The use of quantitative designs allows the researcher to test a set of hypotheses derived from theories or from the literature review. The quantitative design is grounded in logical deduction, in the sense that it emphasises an objective measure of the variables and the process of obtaining the results or changes that will be observed on the dependent variable, while that of the qualitative methods uses inductive procedures to obtain knowledge which is subjective in nature. With the mixed method, it enables researchers to use both qualitative and quantitative tools to understand the social phenomenon. In this respect, the study used both qualitative and quantitative techniques to gain a detailed understanding of performance management.

3.4.1 Justification for Research Methods Strategy

There are many reasons that have informed the choice of a mixed method parallel research or in other words, a core quantitative method with additional input from the qualitative method (QUANT+qual). First, research, as a field of inquiry,

links the researcher's beliefs and actions to decide on which kind of approach is suitable to answer the research questions and the purpose (Morgan, 2014). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argue that in conducting research, a contingency approach to research design which accepts the qualitative, quantitative and mixed research are unique in different situations and that it is the task of the researcher to examine the contingencies and decide on which approach or which combination of approaches will be used in the study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2014). Similarly, John Dewey proposes that inquiry begins with selecting a problem, reflecting on the choice of the research problem, the potential design, the choice of research methods and the subsequent conduct of the study as these are the essentials in any research project (Morgan, 2014). Pragmatism assumptions on inquiry outline the essentials of any research design as a link between the purpose, the research question and the specific procedures or research methods that are pivotal points between the research purpose and procedures that will support the research to arrive at the conclusions (Morgan, 2014).

Second, it is important to note that whereas both positivism and interpretivism paradigms maintain that research can solely be conceived in either realism or constructivism and that these are incompatible, pragmatism holds that what counts in social research is finding a mid-range between these sharp assumptions (Morgan, 2014). With regards to ontological assumptions, the approach taken by pragmatists is that though reality exists separate 'from human experience, it can only be encountered through human experience' (p.39). The knowledge of the world exists because of the social construction shaped by individual experiences, and some are more likely to be shared by people. On issues related to the epistemological stance of pragmatism, it holds that all knowledge of the world is based on experience (Morgan, 2014). This is different from positivism which holds a universal criterion about truth. For the pragmatist, all the world is real and socially constructed as well as the central place that social knowledge plays in research because individuals are born into the world that has been experienced and interpreted by successive generations. Therefore, the perceptions of the world are socially experienced by individuals and socially shared by others (Morgan, 2014).

Third, in deciding the kind of methodology to use, pragmatism assumptions are directed towards the questions about ‘why you want to do research one way rather than another or produce one form of knowledge rather than questions about the nature of research methods’ (p.39). Additionally, methodology answers questions on procedures and different purposes where qualitative research concentrates on a set of research goals that are logically inductive, subjective and contextual (Morgan, 2014), while quantitative research goals are related to logical deductions and objective testing of hypotheses and generalisations. Also, qualitative studies lean towards building theories evolving from data, and the interpretation of the data is influenced by the researcher’s experience, and it allows for collecting detailed data on specific settings, while quantitative studies allow the researcher to use observations deductively to test theories, and the interpretation of the results does not rely on the subjective experience of the researcher. Therefore, the researcher can collect data that can be inferred from the target population and other settings.

Consequently, the choice of research methodology for the study utilised both inductive and deductive logic in the collection and analysis of the empirical data. This is justified by the purpose and the research problem. The purpose of the study was to examine the context-specific factors and their impacts on effective performance management in the Ghanaian experience and to observe the contextual difference if any on performance management (PM). This is because the literature revealed that the context of PMS is not universal, indicating that, PM systems do not share similar outcomes, although they may have similar characteristics in their design, yet the intended outcomes are usually not the same (Boland & Fowler, 2000; Christensen et al., 2006; Kroll, 2015; Pollitt, 2013).

Fourth, the use of parallel research is informed by the research problem which clearly places this study to be one of the first to study PM at the micro level or the local level in Ghana. Therefore, it is an added advantage to explore the research questions from the perspective of the implementing agencies who oversee the human resource issues of local level institutions in the country. Similarly, the history of PMS in Ghana shows that the past three decades, the country has undertaken administrative and performance reforms in the public service to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery towards higher productivity. However, the desired

outcomes are unsatisfactory and the more reason why the new PM policy was implemented in 2012 (Public Services Commission, 2012.). Therefore, the mixed method provided an opportunity to describe and explain the relationships between the variables under study.

Fifth, by using a core quantitative plus an additional input from qualitative design, the procedures which were used to collect the data and the analysis are important criteria for the choice of a combined method. By integrating quantitative and qualitative methods, the study triangulated the data sources which allowed for collecting data from multiple respondents. Performance management is a complex system and using only one strand of design may not provide adequate answers to the research questions under investigation and, so it is assumed that by combining several sources of information, it would help clarify the complexity associated with PMS.

Sixth, the use of a mixed method is called for because some of the variables being investigated, such as the use of performance information and public service motivation (PSM) in this study are new to the Ghanaian context and they are important for the exploratory component of the study because the literature on the two variables suggest that the context of the research (Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a) may influence their outcomes on the dependent variable.

Lastly, the choice of a mixed method is related to the relevance of the method to theory and the literature on PM. Evidence from the PM literature suggests that there are several studies on performance measurement and management (PMM) systems that either use case studies (Ammons, 2013; Kroll & Proeller, 2013; Moynihan, 2005) (Ammons, 2013; Kroll & Proeller, 2013; Moynihan, 2005), or qualitative studies (Adler, 2011; Annan-prah & Ohemeng, 2015; Behery, Jabeen, & Parakandi, 2014; Karuhanga, 2010; Liang & Howard, 2007; Shahmehar, Safari, Jamshidi, & Yaghoobi, 2014; Silva & Ferreira, 2010; Stringer, 2007) or quantitative studies (Askim et al., 2015; Boland & Fowler, 2000; Bourdeaux, 2008; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; de Waal, Goedegebuure, & Geradts, 2011; Helm et al., 2007; Mmieh et al., 2011). However, few studies combine or integrate mixed methods to study PM variables (Taylor & Taylor, 2014).

Therefore, this study assumed that by combining both qualitative and quantitative methods it would contribute to the literature on PM because the use of the

two methods complements each other's strengths and weaknesses. By integrating qualitative and quantitative techniques, it allowed for triangulation of several sources of data and made use of different data collection tools which helped to answer the research questions. Nevertheless, the two designs have different purposes and research questions.

3.5 Research Hypotheses for Quantitative Design

The study is a primary research designed to explain the correlation or causal relationship between organisational determinants: clear & measurable goals, development of result-oriented performance measures, and use of performance information; and environmental determinants: stakeholder participation, and political support, and public service motivation constructs and their impact on effective performance management through four main dimensions: strategic planning, performance monitoring and evaluation, performance reviews, and performance improvement programmes. From the literature, the study developed a conceptual framework that explains the determinants of effective performance management among local government employees at the individual level. To explain that the expected causal relationship between the predictors and the effective performance management is not due to chance as sampling errors or common source or response bias of the sample population of the four (4) components of the dependent variable (effective performance management -EPM), a preliminary test of the effects of the predictors were executed. The development of the conceptual framework resulted in five (5) models to test the main hypotheses framed and their sub-hypotheses as follow as:

3.5.1 Model 1

The first model predicted a direct relationship between the dependent variable (EPM1SP) and the six antecedent variables, thus organisational, environmental determinants and the PSM variable. Where, EPM1= -strategic planning; CMGS= clear & measurable goals; DROPMS = development of results-oriented performance measures; USOPI= use of performance information; STAKHOP= stakeholder

participation; POLSP= political support; PSM= public service motivation; e= error term.

$$EPM1SP = a + b1CMGS + b2DROMPS + b3USOPI + b4STAKHOP + b5POLSP + b6PSM + \varepsilon :$$

3.5.2 Model 2

This model predicted a positive and significant relationship between the EPM2PME and six independent variables:

$$EPM2PME = a + b1CMGS + b2DROMPS + b3USOPI + b4STAKHOP + b5POLSP + b6PSM + \varepsilon$$

3.5.3 Model 3

The model was hypothesized to have a positive relationship EPM3PERRW (performance review) which is a weak one between the dependent variable and explanatory variables. The prediction is as follows:

$$EPM3PERREW = a + b1CMGS + b2DROMPS + b3USOPI + b4STAKHOP + b5POLSP + b6PSM + \varepsilon$$

3.5.4 Model 4

In this model, the prediction was made that the six predictor variables would have a positive and significant effect on performance improvement:

$$EPM4PIMPROV = a + b1CMGS + b2DROMPS + b3USOPI + b4STAKHOP + b5POLSP + b6PSM + \varepsilon$$

3.5.5 Model 5

The first model predicted a direct relationship between the dependent variable (EPM) and three organisational, environmental determinants and the PSM variable. Where, EPM (EPM1SP-strategic planning + performance monitoring & evaluation+ performance review + performance improvement) = effective performance management; CMGS= clear & measurable goals; DROMPS = development of results-oriented performance measures; USOPI= use of performance information;

STAKHOP= stakeholder participation; POLSP= political support; PSM= public service motivation; e= error term:

$$EPM(EPM1SP + EPM2PME + EPM3PERREW + EPM4PIMPROV) = a + b1CMGS + b2DROMPS + b3USOPI + b4STAKHOP + b5POLSP + b6PSM + \varepsilon$$

3.6 Survey Strategy

A survey is a numeric description of trends, attitudes, opinions of a 'population by studying a sample of that population' (Creswell, 2009, p. 145). The researcher uses the sample results of the population to make generalisations. The survey method is beneficial because it allows the researcher to collect original data that can be used to describe the sample population that may be too large to study entirely (Babbie, 2011). This is usually possible because the use of probability sampling aids the researcher to select respondents based on the characteristics that reflect the larger population. To a very large extent, the use of standardised questionnaires can provide the same data from respondents each time the instrument is administered to the sample population. Again, the use of a survey method is an important tool for measuring attitudes and views in the population. The study employed a cross-sectional survey and the data was collected at one point in time. Also, the form of data collection was self-administered questionnaires. The use of self-administered questionnaires was adopted because it is less expensive, and a large data can be collected within a short period of time.

Nevertheless, there are several reasons why a survey was chosen. First, the study aimed to generalise the findings of the sample population to make inferences about the characteristics, attitudes or behaviour of the population towards performance management and its effectiveness in transforming public service delivery in a transparent, effective and efficient manner.

Secondly, the rationale for using a survey is to examine the relationship between the organisational and the environmental determinants and their impact on EPM. At the same time, the study sought to test the direct effect of PSM on EPM in

the local government sector. A survey method enables the study to test the hypotheses and how the hypothesized model fits the data. This is consistent with other studies that used the survey method to examine the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Latham et al., 2008; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Yang & Hsieh, 2007).

Third, the purpose of a survey study is to test the theory of PSM that mediates the relationship between organisational and environmental determinants and their impact on EPM. Even though PSM is not new in the performance of organisations, the application of the theory in the PM literature is a recent one, and there are few studies that have attempted to establish a link between PSM and an effective PM (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Kroll & Vogel, 2013).

To achieve the goals of the survey design, the study used both interviews and questionnaires for the data collection. The development of the questionnaires considered the construction and wording of the questions because valid and reliable questions are key determinants to obtain valid and accurate responses from the respondents (See Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Summary of Measures and Their Sources

Measures	Source	Number of	Items
Effective Performance Management	Dewettinck & van Dijk (2013) Nurkholis et al. (2014) and Yang & Hsieh (2007)	24	
Organisational Determinants			
	Rainey (1983) & Verbeeten (2008)	3	
Clear & measurable goals		6	
Development of result-oriented performance measures	Cavalluzzo & Ittner (2004) Yang & Hsieh (2007)		
Use of performance information	Moynihan et al., (2012a)	5	

Measures	Source	Number of Items
Environmental Determinants		
Stakeholder participation	Yang & Hsieh (2007)	6
Political support	Gianakis & Wang, 2000 and Yang & Hsieh (2007)	5
Public Service Motivation	Perry (1996)	27
Background Information		10
Total Items		86

3.7 Sampling Strategy

The sampling strategy adopted for the quantitative data in this study is a representative sampling method which involves probability sampling techniques while the qualitative data employed a non-probability method which purposively selected respondents to include in the sample. Representativeness of the study is a first criterion for obtaining reliable information on the researcher questions under investigations. Also, using an appropriate sampling strategy is key to obtaining an adequate measurement of the variables. The implication is that the representativeness eliminates the bias inherent in social science research. In this section, the unit of analysis, the research setting, target population, sampling techniques/procedures and the sample size are discussed.

3.7.1 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis refers to what or whom to be studied (Babbie, 2011, p.104). The unit to be studied is central in the conduct of the research process because it tends to shape and refine the topic being investigated that forms the units of observations of the study. Because the unit of analysis is the central focus of the researcher for which explanation and description are sought, an accurate description of the unit is important to help the researcher in the data collection process. In addition, the unit of analysis defines the type of statistical technique to be used

because, whether it is at the individual or organisational level may have influence over the choice of summary statistics to be used. According to Babbie (2011) and Monette, Sullivan and Dejong (2011) the unit of analysis could be individuals, organisations, households, or groups from which a study wishes to draw a sample. Therefore, the unit of analysis of this study is the individual for the survey part, while the organisational unit represents the case study design. The unit of analysis consists of local government sector employees found in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana and key officers from three institutions namely: the Public Services Commission (PSC), the Office of the Head of the Local Government Service (OHLGS) and the Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council (GARCC), all situated in the capital of Ghana, Accra.

The focus of the study is to test effective performance management (EPM) through organisational and environmental determinants and how public service motivation impacts on EPM at the individual level. The interest in the individual as a unit of analysis is because PM or appraisal systems are developed to monitor and evaluate individual performance and the individual employees' understanding of the PM process may affect the overall goals and performance of the organisation. Hence, the study seeks to investigate the individual level on how organisational and environmental determinants and PSM impact on EPM in the local government sector. These employees are considered as senior middle-level managers' and are Deputy Directors (DD), Assistant Director I (ADI), Assistant Director IIA (ADIIA) and Assistant Director IIB (ADIIB), Chief Executive Officer (CEO), Principal Executive Officer (PEO), Senior Executive Officer (SEO), and their analogues grades.

3.7.2 The Research Setting

The research was conducted in Ghana, and it is the first Sub-Saharan African country to have obtained independence from the British colonial administration on the 6th of March 1957. The country's governance system is a constitutional democracy with four Republics after post-independent Ghana. The first Republic was in 1960 led by the First President Dr Kwame Nkrumah and the governance system was a presidential system with three main arms of government, the executive, legislature and the judiciary. The Nkrumah's administration inherited the British public administrative system without much change to the civil service at independence. The

implication is that the old Civil Service (CS) had less qualified staff and whose duties were clerical and secretarial in nature and who offered the colonial administration support services. It became clear that the colonial CS had no managerial skills which could support decision-making to enhance high performance in the public service. Recruitment into the civil service was a patronage system with less qualified personnel bloating the service after the first coup d'état. Unlike other public service systems which have successfully imbibed the ethos of performance culture into their civil services such as Singapore and Malaysia, Ghana has consistently failed to establish a high-performance culture in the public service. It is still imbued with red-tapism, inefficiency, patronage and unethical practices-all being synonymous with the civil service.

There have been several attempts to reform the administrative system in place, but it appears the colonial legacy has persisted up to date with look-warm attitudes of civil servants on the use of public resources. Among the first wave of reforms that were geared towards a performance-oriented culture in the country included the Civil Service Reform Programme (CSRP), the Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme (CSPIP) and later the Annual Confidential Reporting System (CRS), Performance Evaluation System (PES), Performance Appraisal System (PAS) to mention but few. One significant feature of these reforms and later performance policies is that they did not remained significant in achieving their objectives.

3.7.3 Target Population

A population is a group of people about whom the researcher wants to draw conclusions on (Babbie, 2011, p. 121). Defining the population of the study is important because it is virtually impossible to study a whole population under small-scale surveys, such as the one undertaken in this study. A population consisting of the total set of units about which information is desired (Wright, 1979, p.15). Therefore, an adequate description of the population characteristics would help the researcher to draw a sample that represents the entire population so that aggregate explanations and generalisations can be obtained. The target population comprises local government employees who are senior middle-level managers in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana and who are frontline managers in their assemblies.

The population of interest is the local government sector employees under the Local Government Service Act 656, 2003 which established the Local Government Service (LGS) as one of the fifteen public services in the country. The Service is to provide technical, policy, training, recruitment and management of the human resources at the local level to consolidate the decentralisation policy and champion the local development agenda in the country under the Decentralisation Action Plan. There are 216 Metropolitans, Municipals and District Assemblies (MMDAs), 10 Regional Coordinating Councils (RCCs) and the Office of the Head of Local Government Service (OHLGS) all of which constitute the LGS. Even though there are ten Regional Coordinating Councils (RCCs), the study was conducted in the National Capital which is in the Greater Accra Region, with 11 Metropolitans and Municipal Assemblies (MMAs) and with a total of 2849 middle-level management. The study is a cross-sectional survey of local government sector employees' who are found within this region. The MMDAs, the RCC is responsible for the implementing the LGS performance management policy with quarterly reports to the Office of the Head of Local Government Service (OHLGS) who have the oversight responsibility and monitoring of their activities from time to time in the region.

The 1849 middle-level managers are drawn from the 16 MMDAs, the RCC in the Greater Accra Region. These LGS institutions have similar characteristics with regards to the PM system in place and therefore, their PM policies exhibit the same structure suggesting homogeneity. This is because the process of the design and implementation of the PM policy cuts across all the local government organisations in Ghana under the Local Government Service Act 656, 2003.

3.7.4 The Local Government Service (LGS)

The Local Government Service is the newest of the public services of Ghana. It was established by Local Government Service Act 656, 2003, with the objective of ensuring an effective administration and management of local government authorities in Ghana. The Local Government Service's mandate is to secure 'an effective administrative decentralisation in the country' (Local Government Service, 2011, p. 2).

In line with the provisions of the 1992 Constitution, the Local Government Service (LGS) was established by Act 656 to provide technical support to District

Assemblies (Local Government Service, 2015). The legislature instrument (LI 1961) of the Service was passed by parliament to give effect to the Local Government Service Act, 2003, which provided the blueprint for administrative decentralisation and the transfer of human resources from central agencies to the district level. The Local Government Service provides strategic direction for the local government administration and management under the decentralisation policy in Ghana. The Service collaborates with inter-sectoral, national and subnational institutions to implement the decentralisation reforms. The Service trains and develops the staff of local government institutions to ensure the delivery of value for money services (Local Government Service, 2015).

The composition of the Local Government Service comprises non-elective public officers and figure 4.3 depicts the relationship between the various structures as follows:

- i. 'Regional Co-ordinating Councils (RCCs)'
- ii. 'Metropolitan, Municipal District Assemblies (MMDAs)'
- iii. 'Sub-Metropolitan District Councils and UTZA Councils, and'
- iv. Office of the Head of the Local Government Service (OHLGS) **¹

3.7.5 The Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs)

The Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) have equal powers devolve to them under the Local Government Act 936 of 2004. Also, the President may create additional districts when there is an increase in the population size. Under the current administrative setup, there are 216 MMDAs. The Greater Accra Region has 16 MMDAs, 9 of them are municipal assemblies, two (2) metropolitans and five (5) district assemblies. The study targeted the 11 MMAs located in the centre of Accra because the remaining five (5) districts are rural assemblies to access to these areas are difficult. Therefore, the study subjectively administered the survey instruments to the 11 urban districts since these are districts with human and material resource endowments.

¹ ** The Secretariat is the same as the Office of the Head of Local Government Service (OHLGS), by the Local government system in Ghana, it is a parallel institution established to provide technical and human resource development to the LGS. Therefore, is not part of the structure presented in the figure 4.2

3.7.6 Justification for Selecting Greater Accra Region

The Greater Accra Region houses the capital of Ghana and most of the first local government structures evolved steadily from the cities due to the rapid explosion of the urban areas after independence. The Greater Accra Region have 16 MMDAs, a coordinating council and several sub-metropolitan assemblies. As one of the first metropolitan assemblies to be established under the Ghana Local Government Administrative System, it has vast experience in terms of managing a large workforce from both central agencies, subnational governments and local authorities. There are three main reasons why the Accra Region was selected for this study.

First, as the capital of Ghana, new management reforms are usually piloted in this region because it is the seat of government and with advanced technology which allows it to be able to train personnel on new management reforms comparatively to the other regions of Ghana. For example, very important institutions which are responsible for training public service workers are mainly located in Accra, the capital of Ghana. Institutions such as Ghana Institute of Public Administration (GIMPA), Institute of Local Government (ILGs) and the University of Ghana Business School (UGBS) who are major actors in the training and development of the country's human resources are in this region. In addition, due to the proliferation of training institutions for human resource management, most training centres are in the capital with few attempts to diversify these training opportunities to less endowed regions in the country. As a result, a large chunk of qualified personnel prefers to work in this region

Second, the recent management contracts between MMDAs and the Local Government Service (LGS), have released the results of performance agreement under the LGS Performance Management Framework in all the 10 RCCs and the 216 MMDAs, and the Greater Accra Region emerged as one of the regions with excellent performance on the key performance indicators during the 2015 year under review (Local Government Service, 2015). Thirteen (13) out of the sixteen (16) MMDAs, in the region obtained excellent scores with three (3) MDAs, obtaining a score of 'very good' giving the region a fourth place out of the ten (10) administrative regions (Abane & Phinaitrup, 2017a; Local Government Service, 2015, p. 9). In this regard, one would expect that because it is a model performance management in Ghana, by

studying this region, it would offer useful insights and insight into best practices for other regions, central, and subnational public organisations to model their PM systems by learning from their experience.

Third, the region is well resourced in terms of human resources and material resources compared with other regions and which may give an edge over regions. Therefore, the aim was to explore these resources that are at the disposal of the region, and observe how they impact on the PM framework of the region. Also, the presence of quality resources may make a difference in the achievement of KPAs local authorities. Abane and Phinaitrup (2017a) find that resource constraints of MMDAs have an impact on their KPAs. Additionally, the region, has best standards and/of well-developed management systems that could answer the research questions of the study.

3.7.7 Sampling Technique

The sampling method employed for selecting respondents was probability sampling method. Probability sampling refers to a type of sampling technique where every element in the population has a known, nonzero probability of selection and it allows for an unbiased method of selecting cases to be included in the study (Wright, 1979, p.17). On the one hand, probability sampling is based on a mathematical theory that employs methods of random selection where the researcher uses stratifying and clustering to increase the accuracy and reduce the cost of studying an entire population. On the other hand, non-probability sampling refers to the selection of a sample based on known characteristics. One advantage of using probability sampling is that it reduces distortion and allows the researcher to make reliable estimates of sampling error variation (Henn, Weinstein & Foard, 2009, p. 154). This is because quantitative methodology relies on a representative sampling procedure to arrive at generalisations of the findings to the sample population. The use of the probability sampling method allowed the study to use randomised selection, in which all Local Government Service middle-managers in the Greater Accra had an equal chance of being selected for the survey.

3.7.8 Sampling Frame

A sample frame is a list of the target population where each unit or element in the list has an equal chance of being included in the sample. The sample frame in the study consist of 1,849 local government sector employees in the Greater Accra Region who are below the grade of director, starting from Level 21 (Deputy Director and analogues grades), Level 19 (Assistant Director I and analogues grades) etc to Level 15 (Senior Executive position and the analogues grades) in the region consisted the sampling frame.

3.7.9 Sampling Procedure

The sampling technique that was employed for selecting respondents is simple random sampling technique, where all the cases in the sample frame had an equal chance of being included in the study. A simple random sampling (SRS) is a type of sampling method in which the elements in a sample frame are numbered and drawn into the sample 'if they match the random numbers which have been selected' (Baker, 1994, p. 151) they are included in the study. Also, when a researcher uses simple random sampling method, the aim is to create conditions in which 'all members of the population are assigned a number and then random numbers are chosen and selected until the sample list is created' (Henn et al., 2009, p. 154). As a result, a table of random numbers indicating all the possible cases in the target population was developed to ensure that each element in the frame had an equal chance of being included in the sample size. The sampling procedure is important because a biased sample could affect the validity and reliability of the data collected.

3.7.10 Sample Size

The sample size 'is the number of respondents to be included in a study' (Henn e al., 2009, p.154). The study sample is calculated at a 5% margin of error or a confidence interval of 0.05 and 95% confidence level. Therefore, from the sample frame which contains 1849 middle managers, 400 of them had an equal chance of being randomly selected to respond to the questionnaires using the table of random numbers. The sample size is the important part of the data collection because the data validity and reliability depend on the sample selected and whether they represent the target population. Hence, the sample size of any quantitative research requires a representative sample of the population.

Monette et al. (2011) point out that the sample size should be large enough because the summary statistics to be used require a large sample size to make a significant test of the model fit. Also, drawing a large sample is the basis for the multiple regression analytic technique. Additionally, large sample sizes of not less than 100 or more cases enabled the study to use summary statistics to estimate the parameters. Also, to obtain a good response rate, 650 questionnaires were administered to cater for non-response from respondents because a low response rate may affect the use of the statistical tools and models employed. Therefore, the 650-sample size ensured that a reasonably useable data-set was obtained to fit the quantitative analytic techniques that were used. Similarly, drawing a good enough sample prevents common source bias and at the same time, minimise the problem of missing data as well.

3.8 Data Collection Instrument for Quantitative Approach

The instrument for the data collection of the study is questionnaires. The survey component of the study used questionnaires for collecting the primary data with a set of close-ended questions. There are several decisions that inform the choice of questionnaires for the survey research. In choosing to develop the survey, the researcher needs to have in mind the type of information that is required to answer the research questions and the objectives of the study. Similarly, the instruments to be used should also reflect the respondents, the content, style and the wording of the questions. Also, the construction of the questionnaires means paying attention to the order, format and the length of the questions. The best structure of questions is the one that is very short, devoid of double-barrelled questions, affective and non-judgmental type of questions. A good questionnaire design is characterised by clear instructions and how the questionnaires would be administered to respondents. It may include and on-the-side administration of the questionnaires by the researcher, mailed questionnaires, telephone questionnaires or self-administrated questionnaires by the respondents themselves (Baker, 1994).

For the purpose and context of this study, both survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews will be used to cross-validate each other. The study employed a self-administered method to collect the primary data from the respondents and a face-to-face interview for the case study. The questionnaires were distributed to respondents

in Ghana, but before the final conduct of the study, consent forms and cover letters were mailed to the respective organisations whose employees had been selected for the study to seek their approval. The three institutions for the case study were given notice before the commencement of the interviews which were ran concurrently with the questionnaire administration.

3.8.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires involve a single item to assess each construct and it is usually brief in length with a rating scale and multiple items to assess each construct. Questionnaires and scales are key to data collection in the field because they form the basic units of the variables under investigation. Questionnaires may be composed of both close and open-ended questions that are used to collect empirical data during the conduct of a survey. It is important to state that the major sources of the questionnaires that were used are based on previously developed questions and measurements of the variables under study. However, a few modifications have been added and revised to suit the context of the study. For instance, the questionnaires for the EPM is developed from Yang and Hsieh's (2007) study, the three organisational determinants are adapted from studies such as (Ammons & Rivenbark, 2008; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Rainey, 1983; Verbeeten, 2008), and the two environmental determinants are obtained from Yang and Hsieh (2007). The PSM variable is adapted from Perry (1996) with the omission of the social justice construct to form the PSM construct for this study. Because the questionnaires are adopted from various sources, the study piloted the questionnaires to establish their content and face validity of the individual constructs. Meanwhile, at the data analysis stage, each of the items and their scales were put through an Exploratory Factor Analysis to ensure the suitability of the measurements and their scores through Cronbach alpha values that range from 0.7 to 1 before the analysis proceeded.

The questionnaires were made up of five (5) sections with 76 questions excluding respondents' demographics. Section A sought to obtain information on what effective performance management entails and section B centred on the three organisational determinants (clear and measurable goals-CMGS, development of results-oriented performance measures-DROPMS and the use of performance information-USOPI). The last three sections focussed on the environmental

determinants (stakeholder participation-STAKHOP and political support-POLSP), public service motivation (PSM) and employee background information representing sections C, D and E respectively.

The questionnaires were self-administered by the respondents themselves, but the contact details of each respondent were obtained to ensure that follow-ups on the survey could be made if necessary. Before respondents were contacted, permission was sought from the Local Government Service and the Regional Coordinating Councils to ensure smooth execution of the survey which was undertaken in a period of two months.

3.8.2 Survey Instrument Format

The format of the questionnaires was in five (5) sections. Section A contains questions on the dependent variable (effective PM), section B contains three subsections on organisational determinants and Section C has two subsections for environmental determinants, while section D is made up of the PSM construct with three subsections. Section E solicited respondents' background information. Table 3.2 shows the summary of the format of the survey instrument.

Table 3.2 Survey Instrument Format

Section	Measure	Sub-measure	Response Pattern/Score
A	Effective	Strategic Planning, Performance	Strongly agree =7
	Performance Management	(Monitoring, feedback, evaluation, rewards & improvements)	Strongly disagree=1
B	Organisational	Clear & measurable goals;	Strongly agree=7
	Determinants	Development of results-oriented performance measures; Use of performance information	Strongly disagree=1
C	Environmental	Stakeholder participation	Strongly agree=7
	Determinants	(citizens/customers, elected officials, senior management & employee; other interorganisational involvement) Political support (authority, autonomy; support for policies;	Strongly disagree=1

Section	Measure	Sub-measure	Response Pattern/Score
D	Public Service Motivation	resource allocation)	
		Rational motives	Strongly agree=7
		Norn-Based Motives	Strongly
E	Background Information	Affective Motives	disagree=1
		Age, gender, grade, level of education & number of years on job	Multiple choice questions and Yes/No

3.8.3 Pretesting of Data Collection Instrument

Pretesting a survey instrument refers to a pilot administration of the questionnaires or interviews to the sample population prior to the actual execution of the survey. Pretesting the survey instrument is to allow the researcher to test the suitability of the questions and determine how the respondents understand the questions as well as to observe respondents interest and feedback on the questionnaires. The study pretested 30 questionnaires to the sample population before the final conduct of the study. The period for the pretesting of the survey instrument started in April 2017 in order to observe the initial responses and make corrections for the final distribution of the questionnaires.

There are several reasons for choosing to pre-test the survey instrument before the final administration of the questionnaires. First, the scales and constructs used in this study are borrowed from previous studies that were carried out in different settings. Because contextual factors are important in defining a country model performance management, pilot testing of the various adapted scales would give the opportunity to select those that suit the context of the study. Second, pretesting of the instrument allows the study to rephrase and order the items to suit the context of the study. This is because the meaning of a concept may be affected by the context. The wording and ordering of the questions are paramount in collecting accurate data.

3.9 Measurement

The measurement in this study involves one dependent variable and six independent variables. Effective performance management (EPM) as the dependent variable (DV) of the study. The remaining variables are organisational determinants that comprise three (3) variables and environmental determinants with two (2) variables. The measurements have been adopted from previous studies and have been modified for the context of the study. The adoption of the scales has been justified in the sense that these measures have been tested and their reliability is very high. Hence, adopting such scales improves the internal and content validity of the data that were collected. Also, using established reliable scales in previous studies help to ensure that such scales applied in a different setting may improve the reliability of the measures. The study's independent variables (IVs) are clear and measurable goals (CMGS), development of results-oriented performance measures (DROPMS) and the use of performance information (USOPI). The rests are stakeholder participation (STAKHOP) and political support (POLSP). The public service motivation (PSM) which is measured with five (5) indicators, 'attraction to policymaking', and 'commitment to the public interest'; 'civic duty'; 'compassion', and 'self-sacrifice', forming the three motives (rational, norm-based and affective respectively).

The measurements were measured on a 7-Likert-item scale. Even though the Likert scale is considered as an ordinal level of measurement, however, it was treated as an interval-level scale in this study which is not unique because previous studies used the same procedures in Likert-items (Baker, Hardyk & Petrinovich, 1966; Labovitz, cited in Knapp, 1990; J. L. Perry, 1996), especially when they involved analysing the data obtained empirically from the Likert-scale. However, the intervals between one level to the next do not depict that one item is higher or equal, but based on an arbitrary zero. The assumption of the study is that the use of a Likert-type item that ranges from 1 to 7 provides valid and reliable responses from respondents since there are varied options which are available to measure the attitudes, opinions and behaviour of respondents for a given question. The Likert-item type involved options in which respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement on a question. The items included, 'Strongly agree, Agree, Agree Slightly, Disagree Slightly, neither agree nor disagree, Disagree and Strongly disagree'. The

interpretation of the scale was scored as 'Disagree strongly = 1, neither disagree nor agree = 2 and strongly agree = 7, 1 is the lowest score and 7 is the highest score. However, reverse items were scored as follows: 7 = strongly disagree, 2 = neither agree nor disagree and 1 = strongly agree. In all, there were 86 items including demographic data that were used to measure the dependent and the independent variables.

3.10 Operationalisation and Specifications of Variables of the Study

This section is an attempt to define the variables to be used in the study. This is important because clarifying the variables will provide a clear understanding and the directions of the study. These variables were drawn from three main theories, the goal-setting theory, the structural contingency theory and the public service motivation theory. The study had one (1) dependent variable (DV), effective performance management (EPM) and six independent variables. The first set of independent variables constitute the organisational determinants and the second set is environmental determinants. The organisational determinants are clear and measurable goals (CMGS-X1), development of result-oriented performance measures (DROPMS- X2) and the use of performance information (USOPI-X3), while the environmental determinants are stakeholder participation (STAKHOP-X4) and political support (POLSP-X5) as well as the public service motivation (PSM-X6) variable and its five indicators (ATTRACTION, COMMITMENT, CIVIC DUTY, COMPASSION & SS).

3.10.1 Dependent Variable (DV) - Effective Performance Management (EPM)

The dependent variable was conceptualised to include four (4) main dimensions, strategic planning, performance monitoring and evaluation, performance feedback, review and rewards and performance improvement programmes. In all, 24 measures using a 7-Likert-type items adapted from Dewettinck and van Dijk (2013), Nurkholis et al. (2014) and Yang and Hsieh's (2007) studies and additional measures were included to suit the context of the study. The scale was then revised after the pretesting, and a new scale was developed to suit the study. In all, 24 items measured the EPM construct.

3.10.2 Independent variables

There are six independent variables, clear & measurable goals (CMGS, DROPMS, and USOPI) measures were adapted from Nurkholis et al. (2014); Rainey (1983), Verbeeten (2008); Cavalluzzo and Ittner (2004) and Yang and Hsieh (2007) and from Moynihan et al. (2012a) respectively. Also, stakeholder participation (STAKEHOP) and political support (POLSP) measurement scales were improved from Yang and Hsieh (2007) and Gianakis and Wang (2000) respectively. The PSM was measured in this study using Perry's (1996) construct which is made up of five indicators, attraction to policymaking (ATTRACTION); commitment to the public interest (COMMITMENT); civic duty (CIVDUTY), compassion (COMPASS), and self-sacrifice (SS). Twenty-seven items measured the PSM construct. The scales were measured using 7 Likert-items.

3.11 Reliability and Validity of Measurement

Validity answers the question of whether a set of items designed to measure a construct truly measures what it says it wants to measure and how they research findings reflect the construct (Golafshani, 2003). Validity measurement is achieved by using questions raised during the literature review for respondents to answer. However, there are already established scales that they have used in previous studies which can be modified to suit the setting of the new research. However, if the questions asked are entirely new, they need to be evaluated by an expert to ensure that the construct being measured is valid. For this study, the construct validity was established during the literature review of the different concepts being investigated. Most of the measures were adapted from previous studies and they were pretested to ensure that they were reliable and valid. Thirty (30) questionnaires were pretested in the sample population in the Greater Accra Region among Local Government Service employees and a reliability test showed that the instruments were in tune with the underlying constructs with minor modifications of individual sub-scales. The survey data were used to perform validity and reliability tests to ensure accuracy and consistency in the measurement instruments. The reliability results suggest very robust findings for each of the variable items. Table 3. 3 shows the variables and their Cronbach Alpha.

Table 3.3 Summary Results of Reliability Test

Variable	Cronbach Alpha (α)	No. of Items	N
Strategic Planning (EPM1)	0.90	9	425
Performance Monitoring & Evaluation (EPM2)	0.82	4	437
Performance Review	0.83	3	438
Performance Improvement (EPM4)	0.93	8	429
Total Effective Performance Management (TEPM)	0.94	24	407
Clear & Measurable Goals	0.81	3	440
Development of Results-oriented Performance Measures	0.89	6	429
Use of Performance Information	0.92	5	438
Stakeholder Participation	0.86	6	439
Political Support	0.71	5	440
Attraction to Policy Making	0.68	5	427
Commitment to Public Interest	0.89	4	440
Civic Duty	0.85	5	440
Compassion	0.89	8	428
Self-Sacrifice	0.88	5	435
Total public service motivation (PSM)	0.94	27	411

Table 3.3 displays the various Cronbach alpha levels of the individual scales. For the dependent variable sub-scale, the highest was 0.93, followed by strategic planning ($\alpha=0.90$), performance review ($\alpha=0.83$) and performance monitoring & evaluation ($\alpha=0.82$). Additionally, the total scale for total effective performance management is $\alpha=0.94$. The independent (organisational determinants) variables obtained robust alpha levels. The use of performance information scored $\alpha=0.92$, development of results-oriented performance measures, $\alpha=0.89$ and clear & measurable, $\alpha=0.81$. With the environmental variables, stakeholder participation had a $\alpha=0.86$, while political support scored $\alpha=0.71$. For the PSM subscales, attraction to policymaking had a $\alpha=0.68$, commitment to public policy, $\alpha=0.89$, civic duty ($\alpha=0.85$), compassion ($\alpha=0.89$) and self-sacrifice ($\alpha=0.88$). The total PSM construct had an alpha value of 0.94. It should be noted that the only variable with $\alpha<.7$ is 'attraction to policy-making' which is usually the recommended reliability value of

items in the social sciences (Pallant, 2011). However, the subscale was used for the analysis because similar studies have found that the PSM construct reliability is affected by the context of the research (Andersen, Heinesen & Pedersen, 2014; Gould-Williams, Mostafa, & Bottomley, 2015; Perry & Hondeghem, 2008).

3.12 Data Analysis Strategy for Quantitative Data

The SPSS version 20 statistics software was used to analyse the empirical data from the questionnaires that were administered. The study used a multiple regression to test for the relationship between the dependent variable effective performance management and the explanatory variables, organisational determinants, environmental determinants and public service motivation. Multiple regression is used when the purpose of the research is to test the relationship between a continuous criterion variable and a set of continuous predictor variables (Pallant, 2011; Yin, 2014). Multiple regression could predict the outcome variable effective performance management. Therefore, the study employed multiple regression to test the research hypotheses.

The data analysis strategy combined several techniques to prepare the data to find if the data were suitable for the analytic tool to be employed. The first activity was a focus on screening data to identify missing data and use descriptive statistics to analyse the data. The data screening included checking for violations of the assumptions of multiple regression techniques. Also, the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) which is a statistical technique was used to reduce the measurement scales for further analysis. EFA helped to remove items that had low inter-item correlations. The aim of the EFA was to identify which factors measure the constructs accurately. Another preliminary analysis that was used to check the measurement scales was the Cronbach Alpha to determine the reliability of the individual scales for further analysis.

The data analytic tools employed for this study were a series of multiple regressions. The procedure for analysis of the variables started with a model estimation which involves ordinary least squares (OLS) through standard regression and stepwise multiple regression methods to determine if the six (6) independent variables are correlated with the dependent variable (effective performance management).

The model of the study predicted that EPM is a function of organisational determinants: clear and measurable goals-CMGS; development of results-oriented performance measures -DROPMS and the use of performance information-USOPI; environmental determinants: stakeholder participation- STAKHOP and political support-POLSP; and individual-level determinants: public service motivation (PSM).

3.13 Control Variables

Control variables refer to those variables that might influence the impact of the independent variables on the dependent variable if they are not controlled for. In any social research, there is the likelihood that certain characteristics of the respondents may be peculiar to the unit of analysis or from the external environment. The study involves a study of layers and hierarchies of local government sector employees with different grades, years of experience and educational qualifications that may affect their responses and their knowledge of the questions under investigations (Ammon & Rivenbark, 2008; Taylor & Taylor, 2014; Moynihan et al., 2012a). Additionally, studies such as (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010) have find a significant relationship of employee position in an organisation and their level of awareness of the measurement system and use of performance information. The implication is that whether the respondent is a senior officer or lower-level officer, it may have an impact on their involvement in their organisation's performance management system.

Similarly, studies on PSM show that sex and rank of an employee also influenced his/her level of PSM. Perry and Hondghem (2008) observe that the PSM is also affected by whether the respondent is a female or male, where males tend to score higher on the PSM scale than females. At the same time, senior managers tend to score high on the PSM scale than lower-level officers. Therefore, it is important to control for these variables that may have extraneous effects which may affect the internal validity of the findings or bloat the significance or effect size if not controlled.

As a result, age, size of the MMDA, gender, grade of officer, the level of education and the number of years on the job are control variables. In all, the study controlled six (6) variables which may have helped to prevent any spurious effect.

3.14 Case Study Method

According to the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2009), a case study refers to ‘an intensive analysis of an individual unit stressing developmental factors in relation to the environment’. In this definition, case studies are individual units within an entity for which a detailed description is sought for to offer a clearer understanding of the case. In a case study design, it is important to decide which unit you want to study to obtain detailed information on the phenomenon under investigation (Fyybjerg, 2013, cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2013, p. 169) because it is important to set boundaries for the cases you are interested in. Using case studies demand the decision to use both qualitative and quantitative analytical tools to enable the conduct of the study.

In contrast, Penguin’s *Dictionary of Sociology* (Abercrombie, Hill & Turner, 1984, p. 34) argues that a case study is a ‘detailed examination of a single example of a class of phenomena which may not provide reliable information about the broader class but can be useful in the preliminary stages of an investigation’. The issue with this kind of definition is that it focusses much on the generalizability of case study researcher to the wider sample population because most case studies only pertain to the particularity of the cases being examined and may not appeal to the wider scope. Nevertheless, it is possible for a case study to unearth very critical findings that are unique to other settings.

A case study ensures a practical, intensive study of the research questions in more detailed or in-depth ways. It is an attempt to bring to bear rigour and richness of several sources of data that provide depth for the problem being investigated to differentiate it from cross-sectional surveys. Case studies are used when the researcher attempts to use several sources of data or information to answer a given set of research questions that are unique to the unit of analysis (Yin, 2014). Based on this, two to three reasons explain why this study employed a case study. First, the use of a case study was meant to collect information from a group of informants who are deemed to have key answers to the design and implementation of the Ghanaian model of performance management. The literature on PM suggests that different context and settings are likely to impact on the content and effectiveness of PM (Aguinis et al., 2012; Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Conaty, 2012; Kroll, 2015; Rhodes et al., 2012).

In this light, the use of a case study design contributed to the context-dependency literature on the effectiveness of PM systems.

Second, the study employed a case study design because the purpose of a mixed method research is to make use of triangulation in which multiple designs can be combined to provide a detail description of the phenomenon under investigation. The concept of triangulation offers an opportunity for the researcher to utilise several data sources to explain the complex phenomenon being studied. Performance management is a complex phenomenon because there is no single approach to its subject matter and to what factors determine its effectiveness in the public sector. Therefore, using multiple strategies added the rigour and richness of the data to the analysis process. Most importantly, the survey part of the research, which is a cross-sectional design, has its limitations that are usually associated with collecting data at one time.

Third, the study used a case study approach because it offers flexibility and provides details to the phenomenon under study. Once a case study research was chosen, the techniques used were in-depth interviews and semi-structured interviews to ensure the issues that pertain to the Ghanaian context were probed further to add knowledge to the literature on PM. The interviews lasted between 30 to 60 minutes and gave an opportunity for the researcher to dig deeper into the context-dependence proposition. In addition, other forms of data sources such as reports, manuals, Service protocols and legislative frameworks from the case study institutions were added to enrich the findings and validate the interviews. The major instrument for data collection for the qualitative data was in-depth and semi-structured interviews with the help of an interview guide. In all, nine (9) participants were interviewed with one (1) informant used to crosscheck for a theme that was mentioned by most of the informants. Three institutions were selected as cases, PSC, OHLGS and GARCC.

3.15 Sample Size for the Case Study

For the qualitative data, the sample size for the in-depth and semi-structured interviews consisted of ten (10) informants drawn from the Public Services Commission (PSC), from the Office of the Head of the Local Government Service (OHLGS) and from the Great Accra Regional Coordinating Council (GARCC). The ten (10) informants comprised three (3) from the PSC, 3 from the OHLGS and 4 from

the GARCC. The reason for selecting these informants is that these three key institutions are responsible for the human resource management and development of the MMDAs under the decentralisation framework. In addition, they were purposively selected because they constitute the major key players in the performance management policy in the public service and LGS. Therefore, they were presumed to have valuable information on the study research questions that could further validate the quantitative survey.

3.15.1 The Public Services Commission (PSC)

The Public Services Commission of Ghana is a constitutionally mandated body and draws its powers from the 1992 Republican Constitution of Ghana. The PSC is made up a chairman, vice Chair and three other members who are full-time members of the Commission. The chairman of the commission employment conditions is the same as the Article 71 officeholders whose salaries and conditions of appointment are stipulated by the constitution and which is commensurate with judges of the High and Lower courts of Ghana (The Republic of Ghana, 1992).

The Public Services Commission (PSC) is to provide consultative, regulatory and supervisory services on issues pertaining to human resource management and development in the country. The Commission supervises recruitments, appointments and promotions in the public services. The functions of the Commission, as specified in the Public Services Commission Act, 1994 (Act 482), including but not limited to:

- a) 'Advise Government on the criteria for appointment to public offices as well as persons to hold or act in Public Services';
- b) 'Undertake planning of manpower requirements of the Public Services, using data from the educational institutions and other sources';
- c) 'Review the organisational structure and manpower requirements of agencies and bodies in the Public Services and advise Government on such manpower rationalisation as may be necessary for maximum utilisation of human resources in the Public Services';
- d) 'Oversee the human resources development activities of the Public Services organisations to ensure career planning and career development in the Public Services';

e) ‘Conduct, in collaboration with training institutions, personnel research into human resources management in the Public Services to improve personnel practices and their utilisation in the Public Services’ (Public Services Commission, 2014, p. 1).

3.15.2 The Office of Head of the Local Government Service (OHLGS)

The Office of the Head of Local Government Service is to provide technical support to the Local Government Service Council. It also has oversight responsibilities for the 10 Regional Coordinating Councils and monitors the performance of the 216 district assemblies in the whole country. The various structures of the LGS are to ensure administrative decentralization at the local level by timely release of human resources to mobilise and utilise resources for national development. The functions of the OHLGS include, but are not limited to the following:

- ‘They provide technical assistance to MMDAs and RCCs to enable them to effectively perform their functions’
- ‘They conduct organisational and job analysis for RCCs and MMDAs’
- ‘They conduct management audits for RCCs and MMDAs to improve the overall management of the Service’
- ‘Also, they design and co-ordinate management systems and processes for RCCs and MMDAs, and’
- In addition, ‘they assist the RCCs and MMDAs in the performance of their functions under Act 936’

The OHLGS also known as the ‘Secretariat or Headquarters’ has six (6) directorates and sub-units as showed in Figure 3.2 below.

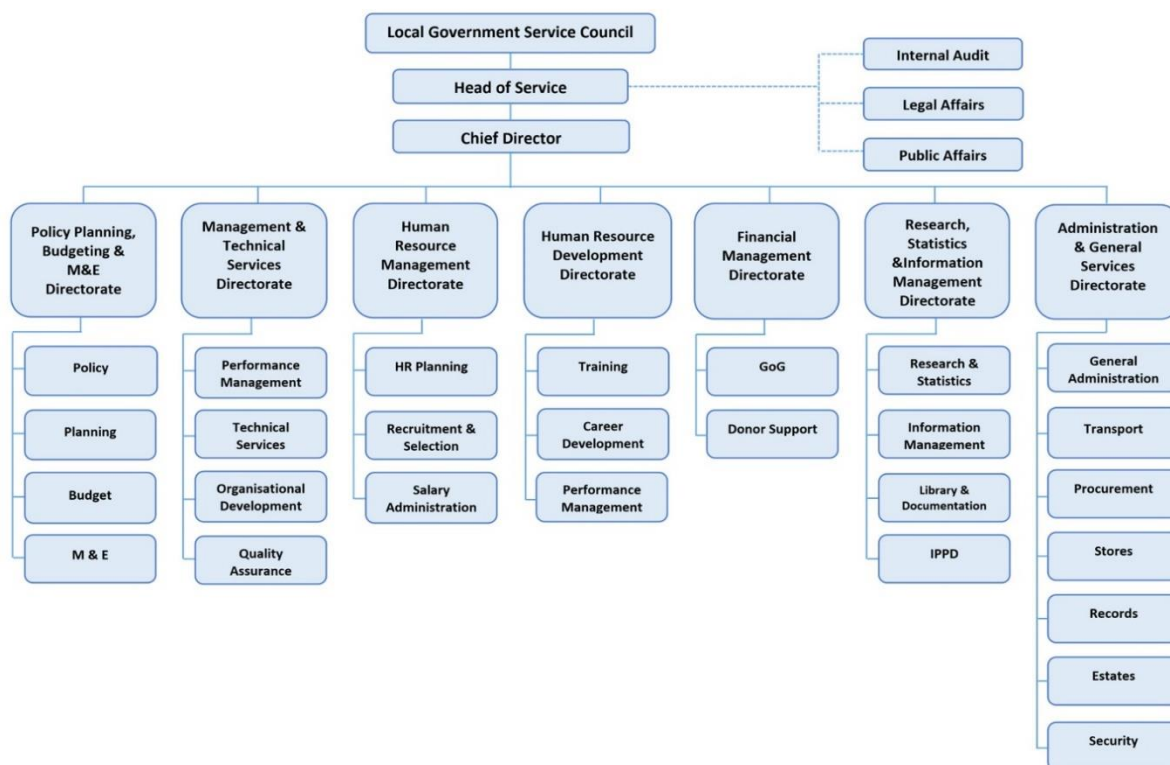


Figure 3.2 Office of the Head of the Local Government Service (OHLGS) Organogram

3.15.3 The Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council (GARCC)

The Greater Accra is the capital of Ghana and houses the Regional Council which is one of the ten regional coordinating councils under the local government administration of the country. It is made up of the coordinating council and other administrative units. The Councils are responsible for coordinating and monitoring the human resources at the various MMDAs in their Regions, even though they do not wield the real devolution of power, as in the case of the districts. They coordinate and have oversight of responsibilities of the human resources of the district assemblies. At the regional decentralisation, the Regional Ministers are the chief executive officers appointed by the President to preside over the regional coordinating councils and see to the day-to-day administration of the Region. While the chief directors are directly responsible for the management of the human resources of the MMDAs in the region.

The Regional Ministers of each region represent the central government, although they part of the structure of the decentralisation system. It appears that the centralization system is still visible in the decentralised governance in Ghana. The Regional Coordinating Councils (RCCs) are responsible for supervising the performance of employees, coordinating and directing the activities of the subnational and local government bodies in the regions. It is instructive to note that the real management of human resources is still centralized at the centre with OHLGS performing every detail of human resource management, especially in the deployment of officers to MMDAs in the country without due consultation with the RCCs.

In addition to the day-to-day administration of the region, the GARCC performs functions delegated by the central government especial issues of security. Also, the Regional Coordinating Director (DCD) is the chief human resource manager of the Local Government Service (LGS) at the regional level who is supported by the Human Resource Management & Development Directorate (HRMDD) and other key officers responsible for managing the workforce of the region at the various MMDAs. These key officers are supported by heads of decentralised departments at the regional level.

3.16 In-depth Interviews

The study used in-depth interviews which involved unstructured interactions with the selected set of informants who were purposively selected from the three major institutions, namely, the Public Services Commission (PSC), the Office of the Head Local Government Service (OHLGS) and the Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council (GARCC) all located in the capital of Ghana. The three major institutions were selected based on the knowledge that they constitute as policy formulators and implementers of human resource policies at the national, sectoral, regional and local levels in the country.

These groups of informants were purposely selected for the study because they have rich information regarding how the PM policy was designed and implemented towards an institutionalised-performance culture in the Ghanaian Local Government Sector. Interview sessions lasted between 30 to 60 minutes in each case. Interviews from the field were recorded on a digital voice tape recorder and later transcribed

according to meaningful themes, categories, patterns and relationships. Therefore, an interview guide with the key research questions was developed and the questions were clearly linked to objective one (1) of the study.

In addition, choosing to use in-depth interviews requires that the researcher should be well vested in the subject under investigation, prepare beforehand the nature of the questions to be asked to avoid judgmental questions as well as questions that demand a simple yes or no answer. The ability of the researcher to listen and probe further on informant's answers provided rich and copious descriptions of the research questions. Hence, a considerable time was given to these questions developed for the objective one (1) of the study based on the determinants of effective performance management in the context of Ghana.

Another important step in the in-depth interviews was the cross-validation of the interviews using the Delphi Technique where follow-up interviews were conducted with the same interviewees within a four-week period after the first interviews had taken place. The purpose of using this technique was to ensure that the validity and reliability of the information provided by participants were consistent and accurate. This is important because self-reported data that is usually associated with first-hand informants may not adequately reflect the reality on the ground. Additionally, any information that was given by informants was cross-checked by documents and reports of the two major institutions, the Public Services Commission (PSC) and the Office of the Head of Local Government Service (OHLGS) as well as documentary evidence from the Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council (RCC).

In-depth interviews refer to a face-face interview of key informants who have first-hand information on the subject under investigation. In-depth interviews provide an opportunity for emerging topics or issues which require further analysis during the conservation (Morgan, 2014). The in-depth interviews were designed to reflect both the research questions and additional insights that were raised by participants, which added copious descriptions to the phenomenon under investigation. Also, in-depth interviews offered an opportunity for the researcher to develop tentative conclusions from earlier studies to refine, challenge and extend previous studies during the interview process.

Another advantage of using an in-depth method of interviewing was to obtain data through induction where the interviewer looked for details and observed both verbal and non-verbal communication from participants. The subjective nature of the in-depth interviews allowed the researcher to observe beyond the words that were being provided by participants, however, noting their actions that could influence the responses. During in-depth interviews, the participants are telling the researcher their worldviews, beliefs and interpretation and the meanings they attach to the research topic and these invariably offered the researcher the possibility to appreciate different beliefs and interpretations of the social world (Morgan, 2014.p. 54).

Also, an in-depth interview gives the researcher the ability to ask questions that are exceptionally wide in scope and that may be relevant and provide the linkages to other factors related to PM in the context of Ghana. Because the participants provide detailed historical background that connects to the research questions through their personal experience, the research findings benefitted tremendously from this attribute. This is because each informant's personal experiences and beliefs are 'treated as occurring within a specific context that consists of their whole life as well as the larger cultural and social forces that shaped their life' (Morgan, 2014, p. 54).

Morgan (2014) argues that the strength of an in-depth or open-ended interviewing is that it is for the purposes of 'inductive-subjective-contextual reasons associated with qualitative research' (p. 54). This is because the qualitative input which supports the major quantitative research and the findings of the in-depth interviews have provided support to the quantitative analysis to cross-validate the questionnaires. The in-depth interviews help the researcher to understand the results of the quantitative analysis. Therefore, the in-depth interviews are intended to understand the quantitative findings as well as provide thick descriptions of PM in the context of Ghana on effective performance management (EPM).

3.16.1 Semi-structured interviews

In addition to in-depth interviews, the study used semi-structured interviews to cross-validate the earlier contact with participants through the Delphi technique. The purpose of using the semi-structured interviews with in-depth interviews was to validate the interview responses during the first contact with participants. The semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to probe further on issues raised in the first

round of the interviews to ensure that the responses were consistent and to expand the discussions of the major themes that emerged during the transcription of the interviews to make them clearer. Semi-structured interviews were used to interview the ten (10) participants who were selected for the case study in the three institutions. The significance of the Delphi method is to crosscheck the information given in the previous interviews to see whether they are consistent with the responses or answers they provided the last time. The Delphi method has been used to valid qualitative interviews in human resource management literature (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2010).

3.16.2 The Interview Guide Format

The interview guide was made up of two sections. Section A contained biographic data of the informants namely, age & gender; the name of the organisation; the grade of the officer; the number of years of service; the role played in the design & implementation of the PM policy; and the highest level of education. Section B sought to answer the context-specific determinants of effective performance management in Ghana. Table 3.4 shows the summary of the format of the interview guide.

Table 3.4 Interview Guide Format for Qualitative Interviews

Section	Measure	Sub-measure	Pattern
A	Background Information	Age, gender, Name of organisation grade of officer, Role of played in the design & implementation process of the PM policy Number of years of service Highest level of education	Open-ended questions
B	Context-specific determinants of effective Performance	Exploration of the factors is central to this context-dependence debate, but the literature would be used	

Section	Measure	Sub-measure	Pattern
	Management in the Ghanaian Experience	during analysis stage	

3.17 Data Analysis Strategy for Qualitative Interviews

The data management for the qualitative interviews was analysed using qualitative techniques. More specifically, the interview data from the field were recorded on audio tape and individual interviews were sorted and transcribed onto 4A. The following steps guided the data analysis procedure and how the field interviews were managed:

First, each interview was played several times before the final write-up to ensure that the data addressed the research questions posed. The interview scripts were then read several times before grouping the responses into the specific objectives of the study. To make the scripts readable, each response was captured in a table with their associated questions representing each key informant script.

Second, the research employed thematic analysis as a qualitative data analysis tool. The technique involved organising the data for further theme descriptions that emerged from the results of the study for discussions. These transcripts were then categorised and put into meaningful phrases to allow a sober reflection of the information collected. This process is highly inductive because the sub-themes also emerged in the process. The analysis of the primary data was based on the first research question of the study. The categorisation was done according to the themes on the interview guide.

Finally, the analysis involved a detailed description of the results in a form of a narrative analysis. The analysis also made use of documents and reports from the three case institutions to support the depth and richness of the study. In addition, the Delphi Technique was used to cross-check the validity of self-reported information during the first run of interviews to validate and check for consistencies in the information. Another useful method for the qualitative data analysis was the use of

quotations from participants that added more information and understanding to the findings.

3.18 Ethical Consideration

The study would address ethical principles in the conduct of the research especially, during the qualitative data collection period and the final report writing to satisfy research ethics in social research. Ethics in social research is fundamental to the scientific quest for knowledge and therefore, upholding the integrity of respondents for the purposes of gathering information is central to any credible data in the social world. It is also expected that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the National Institute of Development Administration gave approval for this study, since the study possesses no harm to subjects or participants. However, the study intends to consider the following ethical issues which can be controlled for during the execution of the study:

3.18.1 Informed Consent

The study sought for participants informed consent after the purpose of the study has been explained to the participants. It must be noted that after participants' consent was sought they were briefed on the procedures to be used for the interview and the survey questionnaires. They were also informed that they could choose to withdraw from the interview at their will or if they felt the information sought might affect their psychological and well-being.

3.18.2 Confidentiality and Privacy

The study observed and protected confidentiality for the information participants provided by not asking for their names on the survey questionnaires and their names were removed in the final report. The individual responses from the in-depth interviews were organised into sections of dominant views for the final analysis of the data. The discussions and the analysis of the data, names and positions were taken out to protect participants' privacy in the final write-up of the report. This was done to protect the privacy of participants from third parties who might get access to the information without the permission of participants.

3.18.3 Language

Language is another ethical challenge where the researcher had to be careful during the conduct of the interviews. Words do have meanings and when care is not

taken, the researcher may misinterpret informants' use of certain words and expressions in the English language without regard for the context in which they are used in a sentence. Therefore, efforts were made to seek clarity and verification from interviewees in their use of words and expressions. The importance of language in qualitative interviews is central to the reliability and validity of the data that are obtained in the process.

The issue of language guided the transcribing and typing of the scripts to avoid ambiguity and any out-of-context use of words, but rather sought to understand the sentences in totality to avoid misquoting participants. The difficulty lies in the usage of the words in the English language that could mean differently in a sentence. To avoid bias, in the final analysis, a careful listening and interpretation of the interviews were employed. This helped to minimise the probability of misreporting participants' views.

3.19 Practical Execution of the Study

Undertaking a thesis dissertation at the doctoral level requires adequate planning and support from key stakeholders in this study. From the perspective of the research community, there are two groups or sets of stakeholders, namely, the dissertation committee, the advisor and the candidate and then the second group which is broken into two kinds of stakeholders, the gatekeepers of the target population or the organisational leaders where the study is situated and the respondents making up the unit of analysis. To the extent that these groups are stakeholders, they have variously contributed to the completion of this study, which is the most substantial and beneficial part of this dissertation.

First, the study benefited enormously from the input of the Dissertation Advisor whose valuable contributions helped to shape the content and the conduct of the research. Therefore, the insights and advice of the Advisor ensured a successful execution of the study from the conceptualisation of the proposal to the final defence of the completed work. Another area which benefitted the study is the input from the dissertation committee members on the analytic tools that were used for the analysis, thus the multiple regression techniques. This was necessary to ensure that the analysis process adequately responded to the assumptions of the techniques appropriately.

In addition, the study would have been meaningless without the strong support and counsel of the advisor to the research. In this light, the study largely obtained the support and contributions of the advisor who has extensive experience and knowledge in performance management to define the study from the mounting of the idea through to the proposal and the final PhD dissertation.

One key observation in doing this research was the ability of the researcher to effectively enter the research setting and gain the support of the gatekeepers of the research organisations. As a result, the leadership of the Public Services Commission and the Local Government Service (LGS) provided easy access to the metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies (MMDAs) in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. At the local level, various Coordination Directors of the MMDAs cooperated by supporting the data collection through the Human Resource Units of their assemblies. The respondents consented to the study and were particularly cooperative in completing questionnaires. The purpose of the study was conveyed to them regarding the anonymity and confidentiality of the information that was sought.

In addition to the key stakeholders in this study, the time and resources for the prompt execution of the data collection were fundamentally absent because of lack of funding for the project. Although the university offered a thesis grants of THB40000 and THB15000 to cover part of the cost of the research, the funding is not enough to adequately meet the budget of the study. The fund that the university provides, covers the editing, proofreading, printing of questionnaires and formatting of the final thesis. Other costs pertaining to the field work that includes the purchase of an air ticket and access to the study areas which were scattered around the capital of Ghana was funded by personal contributions by family and friends. Since the study was not taking place in Thailand, the study demanded a round trip to Ghana for the data collection phase, and back to Thailand for the analysis. To the extent that time is of the essence and time management ethics were necessary to complete the study on schedule. Despite: the budgetary constraints, efforts were put in place to ensure a successful execution of the study in record time.

Furthermore, the study's credibility and the acceptance of the results are based on the academic literature that formed part of the conceptual basis towards contributing knowledge to theory and recommendations for future research, practice and policy.

Therefore, major empirical research, conceptual reviews and other journal articles which were relevant and related to performance management were reviewed to add rigour and analytical discussions to enrich the empirical data obtained from the field.

Finally, the support of colleagues during the dissertation seminar was of enormous help in reshaping and revising the study's concepts. The best judgements of the suitability of techniques and conceptual issues which needed reformulation came from my colleagues whose contributions had a fundamental effect on the study.

3.20 Chapter Summary

The chapter outlined the process and procedures which were used to operationalise and execute the study in the field. The setting and the target organisations for which the sample was drawn were discussed and reasons were provided for the choice of the Greater Accra Region, since the recent results on performance management and appraisal indicated that the region has performed satisfactorily on their performance management cycles with all the 16 MMDAs doing quite well (Abane & Phinnaitrup, 2017a). More specifically, the chapter focussed on explaining the philosophical assumptions of the study which are based on pragmatic paradigms because the nature of the research questions required an integrated approach. In addition, the research design, methods and sampling strategies were clearly discussed to offer a practical execution of the data collection. Also, the measurement of the various concepts and constructs of the study were specified and operationalised because the fundamental decision that a researcher can make and hope to observe in the field is conceptualisation and operationalisation of the phenomenon under investigation. The rest of the chapter discussed the instrumentation, survey format, data analysis procedures and ethical considerations. The next chapter outlines the qualitative data management and analysis.

CHAPTER 4

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter discussed the research methodology used to execute this study during the data collection phase. This chapter presents the qualitative interviews and the themes that emerged during the conduct of the study. The chapter includes a description of the interviews and how the data was manipulated. In addition, the discussion of the thematic areas is presented. The chapter concludes with a summary.

4.2 Data Management and Manipulation

The interviews were conducted from two visits and contact with participants in May 2017 and July 2017 with a four-week break between the first and second interviews with the same participants. The interviews lasted for 30-60 minutes and were recorded on a digital Olympus tape recorder, while summary notes were taken to help in the identification of themes in the in-depth interviews. The qualitative data are an additional input to support the quantitative findings, however, the qualitative design of the study can still stand on its own. The technique employed for the cross-validation of the interviews is known as the Delphi Technique which is used to conduct interviews with subjects by allowing a time lapse to ensure that the second interview responses are consistent with the previous ones. Once the researcher was convinced that the answers were not different from the previous answers, the second interviews were compared for differences and similarities for further data manipulation.

Ten (10) interviews were conducted in the process because the qualitative interviews were geared towards answering research objective one (1) of the study ‘To examine determinants of effective performance management (EPM) in the context of Ghana’. To answer this objective, the study, asked the following questions:

- i. What are the nature and the content of performance management reforms in Ghana?
- ii. What are the determinants of effective performance management from the perspective of key actors in the Ghanaian public service?
- iii. What is the role of national culture on performance management reforms within the context of Ghana?
- iv. What are the challenges in implementing performance management reforms at the national and local levels of governance in the country?

The interviews were transcribed concurrently and typed out. The interviews were supported by document analysis of the annual reports, manuals, handbooks on human resource management from both Public Services Commission (PSC) and Local Government Service (LGS). In addition, the legal framework on performance management and local governance were reviewed to augment the analysis. One significant part of this study was to integrate the results of both the qualitative and the quantitative to understand the concept of performance management better. To do this, a content analysis of the interviews was done to look for key themes on the nature and content of Ghana's performance management policy, national culture, determinants of effective performance management, challenges affecting implementation of the performance management policy were coded and organised around five themes to support the analysis section. In addition, the component of the Ghanaian national culture, namely: collectivism and masculinity; and two organisational subcultures, religiosity, and dishonest practices, were reported by the participants in the first round of the interviews. However, these themes were used to be further clarified during the second stage of the interviews to support the analysis. The results of the interviews are presented in this chapter.

4.3 Coding of Participants

To help with the analysis process, codes were given to the participants to represent their identity because their personal details, such as their positions, were intentionally omitted to protect their privacy and to serve confidentiality purposes in social research ethics. Table 4.1, shows the coding of participants and their identifying information.

Table 4.1 Coding of Participant

Participant Identification code	Type of MDA	Division	Years in organisation	Highest level of Education	Gender	Age
KINFORMANT01	National	Administration	7	Masters	Male	60
KINFORMANT02	Sub-national	Human Resource	5	MBA	Male	55
KINFORMANT03	National	Management Services	2 ½	Masters	Female	49
KINFORMANT04	Sub-national	Management & Technical Services	10	Masters	Male	59
KINFORMANT05	Local level	Human resource	4	1 st Degree	Female	35
KINFORMANT06	Local Level	Budget	8	1 st Degree	Female	35
KINFORMANT07	Local Level	Coordinating/Administration	31	Post-graduate Diploma	Male	59
KINFORMANT08	Sub-local level	Engineering	26	Masters	Male	59
KINFORMANT09	Sub-national	Coordinating/Administration	27	Masters	Male	58
KINFORMANT10	National	Administration	4	MPhil	Male	60

Source: Field Data file, 2017

4.4 Demographic Information of Participants

The unit of analysis for the research objective was at the organisational and the interviews were ten (10). First, three participants were from the national level organisation who are responsible for implementing human resource policy of the country in all government institutions in the ministries, departments, agencies and local government institutions. Also, three (3) participants were selected from sub-

national level responsible for the implementation of human resource related issues at the local level. To triangulate the data sources, three (3) regional level informants and one (1) local level participants were interviewed (see Table 4.1 above).

Second, the division or units in which the participants come from, as well as, the results indicate that almost all the important parts of an organisational structure were fairly represented; four were administration and coordinating units, which are the central administrative structure of most organisations in Ghana. In addition, human resource and management and the technical services division are key implementers of performance management and human resource related policies in the three institutions. Therefore, their level of awareness of the technical details of performance management framework of the country was fundamental to the research.

Third, the data revealed that the average number of years in participants' organisations was 10.05 years and the minimum highest level of education was 1st degree. Further, the results revealed that age and education are related to the top leadership of the organisation: eight (8) participants obtained their master degree with an average age of 57.4 years while the remaining two participants had 1st degree represented an average of 35 years.

Fourth, out of the ten (10), three (3) participants were females and seven (7) were males. The distribution of the sample was skewed because the target population and the unit of analysis at the organisational are predisposed towards male dominance in the formal sector in Ghana. The issue of male dominance is not new in the context of Ghana because of the cultural and environmental determinants that place female children at a disadvantage during the school-going age: in the formative years. In addition, the limited number of females as heads of departments or organisations is a serious challenge in all facets of national life. For example, there are few women in management positions in most public institutions and in political representation at all levels in the country. Therefore, this finding is not unique because this phenomenon has become part of the national culture, even though there are efforts to correct the gap between males and females in management positions in the country by past and present governments.

Fifth, in terms of the age distribution of the participants, 46.9 years represents the average age of participants in the sample, while 60 is age of retirement, 35 years

represents the younger participants. Among the males, the average age of senior management at the top organisational level is 58.6 years while 39.7 years represent the average age of females who are at top management level in the three organisations included in the study. It appears that the females are relatively young and few at the top, while males are dominant at the managerial levels, but are older than their female counterparts (See Table 4.2 and 4.3 below).

Table 4.2 Age Distribution

Age	Males	Percentage %	Females	Percentage%
60	2	20%	0	0%
Age 55-59	5	50%	0	0
Age 54-49	0	0	1	10%
Age 48-35	0	0	2	20%
Totals	7	70%	3	30%

Table 4.3 Participants Education and Experience

Education	No. of males	No. of females	Number of years in organisation	No. males	No. females	Totals
1st Degree	0	2	1-5	2	2	4
Post-graduate Diploma	1	0	6-10	2	1	3
Master Degree	6	1	25-35	3	0	3
Totals	7	3				

4.5 Presentation of Interview Thematic Areas

This section of the report is devoted to the presentation of the 10 interviews that were conducted during the data collection period which lasted two months comprising two rounds of interviews with the same participants through Delphi Technique to cross-validate the responses and to detect inconsistencies. The results of

the interviews are summary in themes as captured by participants to the questions which were posed during the in-depth interviews sessions. This is particularly important to help the analysis process while the details of the transcripts are provided in the appendix section of the final report. The major themes were coded and a subjective decision of three (3) counts of a theme were used to form the basis for an emerged major thematic area that must be included in the discussion of the findings.

However, two themes pertaining to stakeholder involvement and political commitment were mentioned during the first round of interviews, yet, during the validation interviews, they were less dominant in the responses except for two participants who were consistent. Besides, the results fall under the five sub-questions of the qualitative design. Overall, the five sub-questions include the nature and content of the policy reforms in Ghana, determinants of effective performance management in Ghana, similarities and differences of the PM policy, national culture, and challenges facing the implementation of the reforms in the country. The major themes are presented in order of importance as the data suggest. Thematic areas are further analysed and discussed concurrently with the subquestions of the objective one (1) of the study (See Table 4.4 below).

Table 4.4 Major Thematic Areas of Qualitative Interviews

No.	Theme	Terms of Reference (TOR)	Total Counts
1	Performance Contracts and Performance Appraisal System	Nature of PM Model	8 of 10
2	Equity	Content of PM Model	7 of 10
3	Transparency	Content of PM Model	6 of 10
4	Budgetary allocation	Determinants of EPM	6 of 10
5	Ownership & accountability	Content of PM Model	5 of 10
6	Clear job description and analysis	Determinants of EPM	5 of 10
7	Strategic planning	Determinants of EPM	5 of 10
8	Top Management Leadership	Determinants of EPM	4 of 10
9	Context-specific KPAs	Content of PM Model	3 of 10
10	Stakeholder involvement	Content of PM Model	2 of 10
11	Political commitment	Stakeholder Analysis framework	2 of 10

Source: Interview transcripts, PSC (2012) and LGS(2016a)

4.6 Data Analysis and Discussion of Findings

The objective of the parallel mixed method design was to answer a research question that emerged from the literature review process ‘does context affect performance management effectiveness?’ According to Bouckaert and Halligan (2008), Conaty (2012), Nurkholis et al. (2014) and Rhodes et al. (2012), the context of performance management and its effectiveness differ from country to country and from one organisational setting to another (Aguinis et al., 2012). In addition to the contextual variables, other studies have found that national and organisational cultures affect the outcomes of performance reforms (Cruz, 2011; Lindholm, 1999; Shih, Chiang, & Kim, 2005; Tsang, 2007). Based on these findings, this study sought to ascertain whether the context of Ghanaian is different from other settings and how these factors affect PM reforms in the country. The results of the interviews are presented below.

4.6.1 Nature of the Ghanaian Performance Management Policy (PMP)

The new performance management policy (PMP) of Ghana was developed in 2012 to be implemented over a five-year period from its inception. To be able to fully implement the policy, the Public Services Commission(PSC) piloted twenty-one (21) organisations in the Public Service (PS). During the field interviews, participants noted that the policy has been fully implemented in most government organisations including the Local Government Service (LGS). The results of the interviews revealed four trends, 1) performance contracting (PC); 2) performance appraisals (PAS); 3) institutional-based KPAs and KPIs developed by state-owned enterprises (SOEs), ministries, departments and authorities in the 15 Services, as contained in the 1992 Republican Constitution of Ghana; and a continuous dialogue and review of employee performance.

4.6.2 Performance Contracting and Agreements

The first trend showed that the country’s PMP is anchored on PC’s at top organisational management in which organisational leaders sign an annual performance agreement (PA) with the different divisions at the management level. The findings indicate that the first component is termed ‘schedule one’ which is designed for Chief Directors (CDs) and Chief Executives (CEOs) of ministries,

departments and agencies (MDAs) at the national and sub-national levels institutions. The PC cycle at the two levels continues with the signing of agreements between CDs, CEOs and their divisional directors.

At the regional and local level of governance, Regional Ministers (RMs) sign with their Regional Coordinating Directors (RCDs) by agreeing on the key performance areas (KPA) and performance indicators (KPIs). Additionally, District Coordinating Directors (DCDs) of metropolitans, municipalities and districts assemblies (MMDAs) at the local level which constitute the smallest unit of governance sign agreements with District Chief Executives (DCEs). The PA is an agreement on the KPAs and KPIs that have been accepted by all directors at the organisational level. The next step in the performance contracting process is the translation of the KPIs linking it with individual employees' performance indicators.

On the part of the LGS, the first PCs were signed in 2015 between RCDs & RMs, DCDs, DCDs & DCEs on one hand, and the CD and the Head of Service (HoS) and between the CD and other directors from 7 directorates at the Office of the Head of Local Government Service (OHLGS) on the other.

One significant observation of the process of the performance contracting is that it follows two hierarchical levels. First, the agreement is between the chief administrator of the organisation in the case of CDs, RCDs, DCDs and their political heads who are appointed by the president such as the RMs, CEOs and DCEs. And the second hierarchy is the agreement between CDs and their directors. Clearly, this is a top-down approach PM framework where the policy is viewed as a top-leadership tool for providing strategic focus and direction for public organisations to deliver on government goals. Interviewees 'KEYINFORMANT03' and 'KEYINFORMANT04' expressed this view in strong terms as:

KEYINFORMANT03:

'by signing performance agreements, we need management to lead the performance process because it's a top-down approach which management use to achieve their objectives'

KEYINFORMANT04:

'We have two types of performance management, the performance contracts and the performance appraisal system. With the performance contracts, the

regional ministers sign the contract with district chief executives and coordinating directors sign with the regional coordinating directors....., I believe our model is a top-down approach where the KPAs are agreed at the top to provide directions to appraise heads of department who in turn appraise middle management staff'

4.6.3 Performance Appraisal System (PAS)

The second component of the PMP and is termed PAS designed for all the different categories of staff in government institutions, both at the national, sub-national, and at the regional and local levels. Even though performance appraisal is not new in Ghana, because past administrative reforms have been based on performance evaluation (PE) and appraisals, however, the results revealed that past PA systems lacked objectivity, no clear targets for employees and scoring were mostly arbitrary. Participant KEYINFORMANT09 anchored the subjectivity nature of previous PAS in the following:

'the new performance management policy was developed to improve service delivery in the public sector. However, it doesn't mean we have not been managing performance in the past. We have had performance appraisals, but the system lacked clear planning and target setting and it was very subjective way and mostly it did little to add to productivity, it lowered morale because of the subjective in the rating and scoring. In the earlier appraisal systems, employees had high scores with no clear targets or job descriptions which will lead to the development of the key indicators. In the past, the system had no room for performance reviews, no results of the evaluation process, the rewards and sanctions were missing too'

Performance appraisals have long existed in the public sector through previous reforms such as the annual confidential reporting system (ACRS), performance evaluation system (PES). However, the difference between the new PAS and the past appraisals is that there is clear target setting which involves an agreement of the KPIs between supervisors and subordinates at the beginning of the year. Also, the new feature of the PAS is that, instead of it being an annual ritual, it epitomizes a

continuous basis throughout the year with mid-year reviews and evaluations at the end of the performance cycle annually.

4.6.4 Institutionalise-induced Key Performance Areas and Indicators

Among other things, the results indicate that the PAS is concentrated around the KPAs and KPIs of the individual organisations. The case study organisation of the KPAs comprises six (6) KPAs which include 1) Government policy / important focus area, 2) Performance reporting, 3) Financial management, 4) Human Resource Management issues, 5) customer service, and 6) Cross-cutting issues. There is a seventh KPA added to these six which is in infrastructure management. Based on these KPAs, the MMDAs develop their KPIs which are context-specific and depending on the priority areas of the sectors of the district's local economic development (LED) framework. In addition to setting KPIs at the local levels, MMDAs, are mandated to include Service Delivery Standards (SDS) of the LGS, which constitute part of the competency components of the KPIs. They are six in all, participation, transparency, accountability, effectiveness and efficiency, professionalism and client-focus. One fundamental feature of the competency-based KPIs is that it is rated only unlike the KPIs obtained from the KPIs which are rated and scored at the same time. However, some organisations at the national level, tend to rate and score their competency-based KPIs.

It is interesting to observe that not all KPIs are stored in the PAS of the LGS because, in the view of the key organisational actors, it is difficult to score indicators they consider as subjective and biased if they are measured towards employees' overall performance. Participant KEYINFORMANT04 captures this view in the following:

“we at the LGS, we do not score the competency KPIs because we believe they are highly subjective and very difficult to measure. For example, how do you assess someone's professionalism? You may measure it, but it will be difficult, since being professional in your work may depend on the situation you are confronted with. Therefore, we decided that we will rate them, but they will not count towards the overall performance evaluation”

4.6.5 Content of the Performance Management Model of Ghana

In line with objective one (1) of the study and its associated questions which aimed to find out the content of the performance management policy in the Ghanaian experience, out of the questions posed to participants, the results revealed that six (6) themes are contained in the PM policy. They include equity, transparency, ownership, accountability, context-specificity of organisational needs and priority areas, and performance evaluation and improvement plans.

However, results of these five elements are presented and discussed in this section because the sixth element has been discussed in section 5.6.3 under institutionalised-induced performance areas and indicators.

4.6.5.1 Equity

The principle of equity in the performance management process is contained in the Public Service PM policy. The participants explained that the PM process should have the same grading and scoring for both the horizontal and vertical staffing systems in public institutions. It means that the rating and scoring of KPAs and KPIs should follow a clear line of reporting system where lower-level employees are ranked the same and vice versa. By equity, the following deliverables are expected to be achieved:

- i. The PM process should not be discriminatory towards gender, ethnicity, geographical location and disability.
- ii. There should be horizontal equity among grades and classes of employees in the public service, where the same criteria are used to assess performance.
- iii. In addition, the presence of vertical equity is where the assessment of the outcomes complements the hierarchy in each grade.
- iv. Above all, the same criteria should be used to assess every individual employee in the public service

4.6.5.2 Ownership

Employees, supervisors and stakeholders at all levels of government must own the PM process by ensuring that they set clear targets, evaluation criteria, rewards, and sanction methods and personal development plans must be agreed on before the assessment period. The results indicate that wider stakeholder consultation on performance targets, assessment criteria during the strategic planning process of

organisations should lead to all parties owning the PM process in individual organisations.

Additionally, the results suggest that ownership of the assessment process should be anchored on institutional work plans and agreements on the key performance targets. The work plan should relate to the job description and organisational vision, mission and activities and core-mandate of the organisation. An ownership framework is a top-down approach where organisational top management agree on KPAs and KPIs and it is further brought down to bottom.

4.6.5.3 Accountability

From the interviews, it is evident the period where public officers were not asked to account for the use of their inputs has elapsed because of Ghana's decentralisation policy to devolve power to the local level to ensure citizen participation in the democratic process which the country has chosen over other forms of governance. In tune with the constant demand for improving services by the citizenry, the PM seeks to address the accountability framework into the assessment of public institutions performance. By accountability, the PM policy demands that every employee of the government institution must be accountable in a continuous process, where supervisors and subordinates ensure value for money services and reduce public sector waste in the use of resources. The participants explained that public managers must be held to account on the use of inputs in their task performance. KEYINFORMANT9 captures this assertion as follow as:

'we need to let public employees account for the inputs or resources given to them by the state so that we can have value for money and ensure efficient and effective use of public resources....., in the past, the public servant was not accountable because they believed that the resources are collective pool ones but this notion has changed because of the increasing demand by public for quality services'

4.6.5.4 Transparency

The results showed that to ensure that public managers are accountable, the process must be transparent. The PSC (2012) provides the following as guidelines as confirm by participants to ensure transparency in the PM process as:

- i. The setting of performance targets should be based on a three (3) trajectory: a link between individual and organisational KPIs, adequate consultation between the assessor and the person being assessed, and demarcation criteria for assessment
- ii. The presence of a feedback mechanism in which open discussion of results are communicated timely and at the same time, the feedback process should cater for dissent and redress during higher reviews.
- iii. The appraisal forms and manuals should be user-friendly at all levels of the organisation.
- iv. Stakeholders and service beneficiaries should be part in the setting of the goals and the outcomes of the performance evaluation process.

4.6.5.5 Performance Evaluation and Improvement Plans

The results showed that the type of PM reforms under the new policy is procedural or a continuous monitoring and evaluation of the all-year-round performance. Out of the ten (10) interviewed, seven (7) reported that the current policy makes it mandatory for organisations and institutions to set up performance evaluation plans to assess the progress of KPAs and KPIs through mid-year review and an end of year evaluation of individual performance. Although, PES has been part of the administrative system, the component of rewards and sanctions were rarely carried out after performance evaluation sessions. However, with the institutionalisation of PM at all levels of governance, rewards and sanctions have become part of the decision-making process. KEYINFORMANT01 expressed the rewards and sanctions component in the following terms:

'performance management should be procedural or a process in which a mid-year review for all organisational members is assessed and interventions are provided for the achievement of the targets, and in addition, we should assess each individual performance on the KPIs, so we can determine where targets were exceeded or achieved, we give rewards and we should be able to apply sanctions too for employees whose three years' performance is below expectations... For such officers, we could use reduction in rank, non-promotion, termination of contract or dismissal should be the last resort'.

In addition to the above, the PE system is made compulsory because the gap between employee performance on KPIs require interventions to enhance future performance. This is because the employees may encounter challenges which may require the assistance of the organisation to improve their performance. The PM policy makes it necessary for organisations to correct work outputs to enhance productivity to ensure fairness, and the end of year assessment in which rewards and sanctions are provided for high-performing staff and punishment given to unsatisfactory performance are ways of institutionalising performance evaluation at the three levels of governance in the country. For instance, punishment could range from demotion, non-promotion if an employee if last three years' performance is unsatisfactory. The ultimate sanction is dismissal or termination of appointment, if there is consistency in poor performance.

Related to performance evaluation is performance improvement plans, where organisations are reported to include these in their annual evaluation plans to ensure that employees' personal development plans are factored into the PM process. The needs areas of employees are noted during the assessment process, especially the weak components of the skills needed to perform a task. Table 4.5 shows the core elements of the Ghanaian performance management model.

Table 4.5 Elements of the Ghanaian Performance Management Model

No.	Elements	Indicators
1	Equity	Horizontal and vertical equity
2	Transparency	1.User-friendly of PM manuals and forms 2.feedback 3.Dissent and Redress process
3	Ownership	1.Involvement 2. target setting 3. agreed criteria for assessment
4	Accountability	1.Accounting for inputs 2.value for money services 3.efficient and effective use of resources
5	Performance Evaluation & Improvement Plans	Feedback sessions Review process Personal development plans
6	KPAs /KPIs	Institutionally-induced KPAs and KPIs

Source: Interview transcripts 2017

4.6.6 Determinants of Effective Performance Management in the Ghanaian Context

‘Managing performance is an integral system of an organization, therefore a performance management is one of the important ways to achieve improve service delivery and increase productivity in the public service’ KEYINFORMANT01.

As the opening quote from the above interviewee suggest, managing performance is a difficult task, PM can be a tool, to support organisations achieve their performance targets. Despite being a management tool, for organisations to ensure its effectiveness, there are key principles and elements that drive it. As part of the objective of this study, the question of whether PM is affected by contextual factors was posed to participants to find out what constitutes EPM in the Ghanaian context. The results of the interviews revealed four major patterns in the content of the transcripts, and they are presented in Table 4.6.

From the results, participants explained that EPM is a process of communicating clear and regular task performance, effective work planning, employee development and resource allocation to influence productivity in an organisation. According to the Ghanaian experience, the central tenets of the policy are to make public servants understand their roles and how their work contributes to achieving the goals of government and their organisation. The policy goal is to use PM to achieve a results-oriented performance in the public service. In addition, the participants explained that the introduction of the PM policy is to streamline and check the system to obtain information which could be used to help managers make decisions, especially at the managerial level. The reviews expressed by five (5) participants on the determinants of an EPM are presented in the following:

‘I think that EPM is measured by five trajectories: strategic/business plan, driven by top management i.e. leadership direction from the top is needed to embed the principles of performance management to employees, clear job description for each staff because it links the functions of the organisation to the individual tasks, adequate budgetary resources and effective supervision and monitoring system, thus for me this is it’. KEYINFORMANT01

'I believe the key to performance management is fairness, objective assessment of employees, resources to implement the deliverables is central...., It is also important to note that no performance policy would be achieved without top leadership commitment and employees having the interest and enthusiasm to change their attitudes....., One of the problems of the previous appraisal system was the difficult nature of the forms, and so making the forms user-friendly to evaluate performance is critical, Then again, we need to ensure that the target setting is within the timeframe, planning and having staff in mind, reasonableness of the targets due to resource constraints, Finally, the role of supervisors or appraisers can't be divorced, because having the right skills to appraise employees or subordinates, especially the line managers, is important' KEYINFORMANT2

'For me clarity from the top is what you should achieve, and it is important for top management to be clear on what they want to be set as their goals and provide the direction through strategic planning. Teamwork is central, because all units must work towards a common goal...., In this regard we will expect organizations with different units to have targets or KPIs that link them to the overall goal of the bigger organization.... Then also, management must lead the performance process because it's a top-down approach where management use to achieve their objectives....' KEYINFORMANT03

'...we need to have a performance review throughout the process, for example, mid-year reviews and annual reviews can help employees to know if they are achieving their KPIs or not...Also an EPM needs feedback to be communicated to subordinates, heads of units should assess their subordinates during the performance evaluation period..., performance improvement programmes and training of employees are important, but we usually concentrate only on generic training but demand-driven training is not being used to improve performance, yet it's the heart of performance enhancement'. KEYINfoRMANT05

'I think capacity building and setting clear performance targets and results-oriented indicators can lead to the desired outcome on performance goals'.

KEYINFORMANT06

The above responses from the interviews epitomize the determinants of an effective performance management in the context of Ghana, as indicated by participants. However, these themes are not unique to the Ghanaian experience, because previous studies have found that strategic planning, clear targets, leadership commitment and feedback are critical to the success of any performance management policy (D. P. Moynihan, 2013; Sa, 2013). The implications are that EPM is directly related to organisational management approach to planning, setting smart targets through the strategic management process to translate the mission and vision of the organisation into goals. At the same time, resource and budgetary allocation, clear job descriptions and top management leadership commitment are fundamental to an effective PM system. Table 4.6 shows the determinants of EPM in the context of Ghana.

Although the analysis of the interviews scripts revealed several themes, it is impossible to provide a comprehensive discussion of them here because the focus of the study is to discuss those themes that were dominant and have less focus in the literature on PM. It is instructive to observe that the study adopts a parsimonious approach, where few of the themes are discussed, but at the same time they capture what other sub-themes have discussed in the data. Four (4) major themes are discussed as they emerged during the field interviews (see Table 4.6 below).

Table 4.6 Determinants of Effective Performance management in the Context of Ghana

No.	Determinants of EPM	Indicators
1	Strategic Planning	1.Clear target setting 2.assessment / measurement methods 3. stakeholder involvement
2	Budgetary & Resource Allocation	1.timely release of funds for implementing programmes 2. capacity building for staff 3. performance-based budgeting

3	Clear Job Descriptions	1. Job analysis and evaluation 2. redefining jobs through HR planning process 3. narrow and broad jobs
4	Top Management commitment	1. Top-down approach to people management 2. Leadership commitment 3. change management 4. supervision and coordination

4.7 National Culture and Its Effect on Performance Management Reforms in Ghana

First, the results revealed that although performance management reforms are towards improving local government employees, national culture and organisational subcultures attributes tend to affect the reform agenda- performance culture. Out of the 10 participants interviewed, 8 of them indicated that national cultural factors do impact on PM reforms negatively, because they have the tendency to limit the feedback process, and monitoring and evaluation stages of the performance cycle.

Second, most of the participants (7 out of 10) indicated that some organisational subcultures were more significant in affecting performance results than the Ghanaian national culture, these were reported to include: collectivist behaviour of employees and male dominance, or the masculinity of the Ghanaian society which favoured men in a position of authority rather than females. However, subcultures in organisations were more prevalent in the context of Ghana than did the national culture. National culture and organisational subcultures of the Ghanaian experience with PM are further elaborated below.

4.7.1 National Culture

The results revealed two implications for National cultural and its performance on management reforms. Eight out of the 10 participants explained that national culture may or may not have serious implications on the outcomes of the PM policy, however, its presence in the workplace may impede decision-making, innovation, creativity and a general breakdown of discipline in public organisations. KEYINFORMAT02 explain the implication of national culture in the following:

'I think, by and large, there is the tendency for public managers to transfer our cultural norms to the workplace, especially issues that relate to family ties or relatives. I can tell you most of the time, the decision regarding performance may not be entirely an objective one, because, if you are the supervisor to a family member in the same workplace or you hail from the same village, how can you apply sanctions when the time comes? Or maybe you attend the same church, it is difficult to be objective in your judgement without being considered a bad person. Yet, I can say that these practices affect decision-making when the information provided by supervisors is not adequate'.

Clearly, the above statement suggests the very nature of being Ghanaian, which carry several other issues along in either the workplace or the home. This is so because of the extended family system that still connects individuals to their family of orientation, which may include aunts, uncles, nieces, grandparents, brothers, sisters etc. It is not uncommon to have family members work in the same organisation. This attribute may limit judgement, especially where sanctions like dismissal or demotions are a concern. Nevertheless, the possible effect of this behaviour of public managers is likely to affect performance in the long term.

1. Collectivism

The results of the national culture on effective PM indicates that the collectivist nature of the Ghanaian culture is present in the workplace. Out of the 10 participants interviewed, six (6) of them reported that family relationships and the extended family system can be seen in the PM process where employees with family members in the same organisation are more likely to alter the results of non-performing family members to protect the family as a unit. It was revealed that the strong ties with family and other familiar relationships affect the rating system during evaluation which impacts on the objectivity of the scores obtained from the process. KEYINFORMANT01 expressed the magnitude of the collectivist attributes of the Ghanaian culture in the following terms:

'....the Ghanaian culture is a collectivist one because you know that we have the extended family system where sisters, brothers, aunts, uncles, cousins, nieces, nephews and others from your clan or even your entire village or town

rely on you for virtually everything... sometimes you even have subordinates who may hail from the same town or village and they expect you to cover for them though they are underperforming, in that case if you do otherwise, you may have the whole village against you and start avoiding you, because they think they do not appreciate their blood ties.... It is a difficult situation, but we are trying to sensitize employees for them to view the performance rating as serious and do well on their KPIs'.

Another finding of the interviews shows that while family ties make it impossible for the performance rating and scoring system, the tendency for supervisors and line managers to feel that they have an obligation to take care of their work colleagues to maintain a good relationship is evident in the Ghanaian context. Five participants were of the view that the phenomenon is rife in the public sector, because, in most of the cases, supervisors are afraid that their objectivity of the rating system may be misinterpreted to be 'wicked' or 'evil' or be personally vindictive towards their subordinates. This finding is expressed in strong terms by KEYINFORMANT10 in the following quote:

'You see; our culture affects our rating system because sometimes supervisors are afraid to be called bad people or evil or wicked because they want to maintain goodwill at the workplace simply because they have come to be familiar with subordinates They may not want to be hard on them because they see them as family'.

From the interviews, it is evident that though national culture has implications for the performance rating and scoring of KPAs and KPIs, the attribute of collectivism is dominant in the discussion performance management in the public service in Ghana.

2. Male Dominance/ Masculinity

The results revealed that male dominance or masculinity is an attribute of the Ghanaian culture that could affect the performance management objectives of the country. Out of the ten (10) participants interviewed, seven (7) observed that the Ghanaian society is a male dominated one with male supervisors likely to be more accepted by their subordinates. In this regard, they tend to put more effort in their task

performance in a bid to achieve their unit's KPAs and individual KPIs because the notion is that male supervisors are more concerned with of their subordinates than their female counterparts who are seen as non-democratic and strict in the sense that they appear to be directive leaders rather participatory to allow their subordinates to provide input into the performance of their task towards achieving the stated goals of the organisation. However, two (2) of the interviewees noted that female bosses tend to be 'directive' due to the dominance of males in the Ghanaian society who view females as less capable intellectually than males. Therefore, female supervisors tend to portrait their dominance as 'directive leaders' because they are afraid of being misinterpreted as less intelligent in their responsibilities as supervisors. KEYINFORMANT09 explain this further below:

'I believe that males are seen as superior to females in our part of the world, if you will agree with me..., but the problem is that some males think they know better than their female bosses and would want to rather be instructive or argue with their supervisors during the setting of individual KPIs..., so the female supervisor would not allow this to happen because they think that they are equally capable and merit their role....., The defence mechanism is that instead of finding a middle-path to deal with it, they become self-centred or what I will term 'directive' when they are reviewing their subordinates especially male ones, to send home their authority in that they will'.

The above reaffirms that the Ghanaian culture is a masculine one and whether the boss is a female or male, it affects how subordinates relate to him/her and this affects the task being performed. The implication is that the female boss-employee relationship can either be one of strength where performance rating and scoring is carried out objectively by female supervisors, however, it can also affect the feedback process if there is strife between male subordinates and their female bosses. This is because male subordinates begin to put up resistance to the evaluation process because they feel that society gives them more of a superior accolade than it gives females. However, the behaviour of male subordinates against their female supervisors has the tendency to affect the performance management cycle, because of the feeling of dominance from male subordinates and the lack of dialogue and

participation between female supervisors and their teams during the performance feedback process.

4.7.2 Organisational Subculture

The results of the interviews revealed that apart from national culture attributes discussed above, organisational subcultures are quite prevalent in the public sector organisations in Ghana as well. According to one (1) participant interviewed (KEYINFORMANT01), organisational subculture refers

‘..to the practices that are in contrast with the organisational norms lay down by the terms of reference of employee conduct at the workplace, they are in contravention to what they the organisation wants its members to do, but we have all kinds of things going, employees can come ask for permission to attend the Jericho hour or prayer meetings or even to attend special prayers at church or prayer camp.., in fact if you say no, don’t be surprised that the pastor will hear it and brand you that you are the anti-Christ who was predicted in the Bible’.

There are several themes that emerged from the organisational subculture attributes, however, two of them were more significant and related to the objectives of the research. They are religiosity and dishonest practices. They are briefly discussed below.

1) Religiosity

The results of the interviews showed that most employees’ take off time to attend prayer meetings during working hours. The hours used to attend the church service is not deducted from employee annual leave because supervisors are often afraid to be seen as wicked or Atheist. Seven (7) out of the ten (10) informants explained that prayer meetings and other church activities which are done during working hours tend to affect employees’ output. They noted that employees ask for permission to be excused from duty to attend prayer meetings or religious ceremonies during working hours.

Also, performance rating and scoring system are perceived to have a human face where sanctions are withheld because of the religious nature of the Ghanaian

workplace, thereby only rewards are deemed human. The process of communicating poor performance of employees' KPIs is abhorred because the supervisor may be misinterpreted as ungodly who only carries bad messages. In the end, feedback on performance is mostly absent in the performance evaluation system. KEYINFORMANT04 observed this trend as follows:

'In the public service, we have a lot of unnecessary requests from lower-level employees or what we call 'street-level bureaucrats', they often time want to give them high or reasonable marks or rate them better, even if they know that their KPIs achievements were not of expectation... Sometimes they want to be Godly or what they call 'fear of God' and temper justice with mercy..., in a week you can have an employee asking for permission to attend special church functions without recourse to their KPIs that they are expected to achieve. Yet we cannot do anything because we have a social contract with them as well to meet their social needs as an organisation'.

The results of the filed interviews suggest that religious practices are found in the workplace which affects employees' task performance and the achievement levels of their KPIs. Additionally, religiosity has the tendency to impede judgement because supervisors who decide to score subordinates objectively may be 'bad' who lack 'the fear of God' in them.

2) Dishonest Practices/Cheating

The results of the research question indicate that dishonesty or cheating of public employees is pervasive, as reported by the interviewees. Three (3) of the respondents were of the view that the scoring and rating are usually fraudulent because almost all employees are scored as 'satisfactory', meanwhile in real terms, some employees' performance is unsatisfactory. The interviewees were passionate on the issue of dishonesty with reference to the rating system, because to them it affects decision-making and it does not give a true picture of employees' performance, so that intervention programmes could be targeted. Performance improvement programmes are affected because only generic training is given to employees, who in real situations need more skills or need-based training. One participant noted the following:

“Another cultural trend which I would describe as subcultures of organizations are dishonest practices by many employees of public organizations. They provide performance information to their subordinates which is not adequate. Either they overestimate it or under-report the performance due to other factors, that could be personal. Lower level officers, especially ‘street-level’ bureaucrats, have poor work ethics which are demonstrated when there is a serious task to be performed. Then they give excuses to attend funerals and naming ceremonies. Our culture does not engender fairness or honesty to the system because we live collectively and must show empathy and tolerance or even cover up for our subordinates and colleagues. Nonetheless, I think once you employ someone you employ a ‘whole man’, they bring both positive and negative attitudes to the workplace’.
(KEYINFORMANT10)

Another finding related to dishonest practices is a preference for ‘schoolmates’ or ‘tribemates’. According to two (2) participants, former school or classmates are sometimes given scores or rating that may not represent the real situation on the ground. They observed that supervisors sometimes are dishonest in scoring employees and this is visible when employees are in teams on a particular task. Usually, some employees are likely to prefer former schoolmates in a group and the result is high social loafing in which only a few employees perform the task. However, feedback on the teamwork and output of each group member is underreported. The attachment to schoolmates was said to influence the rating and scoring process because employees see that they attend the same old school and tribes’ meetings, they form bonds that seeks to protect the ‘core group’ members at the expense of the objectivity of the system. However, this phenomenon is not always the case because, in some instances, the rater may not be biased in the rating compared to the ‘out-group’ outside the schoolmates’ or ‘tribemates’ fraternity.

Similarly, a social character described by Samuel Woode as ‘Martha’ in his book discusses: this social characteristic that exists in some public organisations. Martha is a social character who could be male or female in a public organisation, however, the important attribute of Martha is the behaviour he/she exhibits at the

workplace (Woode, 1999). The attributes of this character are that Martha comes to work in the morning and shows up in the 'big boss' office to greet. However, Martha disappears for the rest of the day from the office and earlier than expected.

Nonetheless, Martha is very helpful when the 'big boss' has a social event organized at his/her house, especially in times of mourning. On this occasion, Martha is the first to report early to start the days' work at the event's ground. Martha is good at what she does because during social events such as funerals, marriage and naming ceremonies and will insist that others contribute to the organisation of the event. The effect on performance is that Martha never gets any task completed in the workplace except in social events.

The interesting part of Martha's character is that s/he is considered as a utility staff whose contributions are related to organisational task performance but in the social contract between employees and supervisors: s/he becomes an organisational liability, but indispensable. Although Martha's behaviour affects organisational goals, Martha still maintains a satisfactory performance rating based on subjective criteria. While other employees may be disposed of by the 'big boss', Martha whose task performance is unsatisfactory, becomes indispensable. Nevertheless, the character of Martha will always support organisational reforms but hardly gets to understand why the line manager scores s/he performance as unsatisfactory if the need arises. Martha is likely to harbour a personal grudge against the assessor and may or may not see her own low performance on their KPIs. One respondent observed the phenomenon below:

'There are some people who show their faces in the office but do not do any meaningful work. They intentionally come early so their bosses will see them, because immediately the boss arrives they will to help them carry his/her things. However, the next time you are looking for them, they have gone to buy food or to the clinic for review claiming they would be back. Funny enough they never get back to the office until the next day'. (KEYINFORMANT03).

4.8 Challenges of Implementing Performance in Ghana.

The results reveal several challenges that affect performance management initiatives in Ghana. However, these findings are not unique to Ghana alone, but most performance regimes in the developing world also face similar challenges. Most of

the respondents explained that lack of interest from top management, inadequate budgetary allocation, lack of inter-sectoral collaborations, quality of the human resources, inability to set to results-oriented performance targets, organisational subculture, and postings of staff at random have serious implications for the outcomes of performance contracts, and the attainment of organisational KPAs. KEYINFORMANT07 and KEYINFROMANT08 observe the issue the challenges in the following quotes respectively:

'I will say that the signing of the performance contracts is done without enough consultation and collaboration of key actors. Also, resources and budgetary constraints are serious because if you fail to get them, your KPAs will suffer. There are no resources to do quarterly monitoring and however, before this monitoring, there is also conflicting activities during the period by the LGS, where officers are taken outside their stations for programmes without prompt notice. Posting of officers without adequate notice also impedes the performance management cycle, since the PCs are signed by officers leaving and new directors are not able to have enough information of the outstanding KPAs. Inter-sectoral collaborations are weak. KPAs are developed from the statutory duties of the assemblies and I think we must strengthen the targets or indicators because they are too vague or broad in their present form. We are looking at input or outputs measures, but where is the outcome measures?'

'.... I think the major challenge would be the way staff are being used as a mechanism to further corruption by DCEs. They request for posting of officers who resist their corrupt behaviour. I think the way postings are carried out in the LGS will affect officers' output on their KPAs, especially senior management of the 216 MMDAs. The effect is that the results of the PM goals will be a short changed. Other decentralized departments have not fully migrated into the decentralization process at the assembly level and this affects effective collaboration between the central administration and other decentralized departments'.

Consequently, implementing performance regimes in a developing country is not an easy task and therefore, this finding is expected, because others have found that quality of staff, resources and clear target settings could affect the objectives of performance management goals (Ohemeng, 2009).

4.9 Discussion

The data analysis presents implications for further discussions. The major themes that will be discussed briefly in this section and will include the nature and content of the Ghanaian performance management model, determinants of effective performance management (EPM), national culture effects, and implementation challenges of performance management (PM) at the local level in Ghana.

First, the nature of the PM reforms revealed certain trends which are worth explaining. It is imperative to note that the literature emphasises top organisational leadership's commitment to ensure that PM reforms do achieve their intended goals of providing quality service delivery at both central and local government levels (Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Kroll, 2015; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004; Rhodes et al., 2012; Yang & Hsieh, 2007). Therefore, PM as a top-down model is not unique to different contexts because it provides direction, strategy and coordinating of the organisation which can be achieved by top management support.

Also, the results reveal that the principles of target setting in the performance management process are based on two components, KPAs and KPIs. Critical to these two is the agreement on what should constitute the performance areas of the organisation which must be linked and aligned with all units to ensure that the various parts of the organisation are working towards the attainment of the overall goal (Kalgin, 2014; Koike, 2013a; Smith, 1990; Woelert, 2015).

Likewise, the new appraisal sought to address the weaknesses of the old appraisal system by including equity, fairness, transparency, accountability and ownership of the KPIs by employees at middle and lower management levels. Ownership of the performance management process is believed to be one of the fundamental sources of its effectiveness, because employees can identify with it and own it, thereby being accountable for its outcomes (Derick & Kanter, 1986; Van Dooren, 2011).

Another trend from the results of the interviews indicates that performance evaluation and continuous dialogue of organisational members is mandatory because the end of the performance cycle is characterized by rewards and sanctions of the performance evaluations annually. The case study organisation released their performance evaluations of the KPAs and KPIs for MMDAs in 2016 (Local Government Service, 2016). The results of the evaluation showed that almost all MMDAs achieved their targets with three MMDAs failing to achieve satisfactory performance on their KPAs (Local Government Service, 2016).

The inference of this finding above is that ‘not everything that counts, gets measured’ because although organisational leadership agreed that competency-based KPIs should be included, they could not agree on how these KPIs should be scored towards the performance measurement process. This finding is similar to other studies (Andersen, Heinesen, & Pedersen, 2016; Askim, Christensen, & Lægreid, 2015; De Lancer Julnes, 2006; Kaifeng & Holzer, 2006).

Measuring performance in public sector organisations are affected by the imprecise nature of goals because goal vagueness and ambiguity are more likely to be present in the public sector compared with the private sector where the goal is profit maximization (Jacobsen & Andersen, 2014; Jung, 2014b; Latham et al., 2008). Similarly, the measurement of KPIs tends to measure only outputs rather than outcomes which are the deliverables of performance reforms. Yang & Torneo (2016) and Kim, Yoon and Kang (2016), find that Korea Health Service and other government institutions’ KPIs are towards measuring outputs and technical competencies rather than service quality which are the outcomes of the goals of public organisations (R. D. Behn, 2003).

Second, the content of the Ghanaian PM model is quite revealing, because it contains four key elements that may support PM effectiveness. For the purposes of the research, four principles of the Ghanaian PM policy are fundamental to answer the context-dependency proposition because performance evaluations and performance improvements plans have been discussed in the literature to form a fundamental bedrock of performance management practice in different contexts (Amirkhanyan, Kim, & Lambright, 2014; Jamo, 2014). It should be noted that ownership and accountability is not unique to the Ghanaian experience because studies such as

(Askim et al., 2015; Jantz et al., 2015; Ohemeng, 2009; Pop, 2013; Sam & Macris, 2014; Van Dooren, 2011), indicate: that it is important to discuss the findings on these because of the experience of past performance reforms in the country (Ohemeng, 2011; Public Services Commission, 2012).

The element of equity in the PM process is important because of the antecedents in public service relating to performance appraisal reforms which have been characterized by discrimination, patronage, dishonesty and personal vindictiveness during the scoring process (Bawole et al., 2013). To a large extent, due to the subjective nature of past appraisals systems, the present policy seeks to address the pitfalls and make it objective.

Ownership of the PM policy by both supervisors and subordinates agreeing on the KPIs and the assessment tools at the beginning of the performance cycle is reported to important because previous reforms failed to achieve the desired outcomes due to lack of ownership of the process by employees in both the Civil Service and Local Government Service (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003; Annan-Prah & Ohemeng, 2015; Dodoo, 1997). Therefore, the new appraisal system demands that employees own the process from the target set to evaluation because it is important for each party to agree on the assessment criteria of the KPIs.

Similarly, to ensure transparency, there must be an effective interaction between assessors and those to be assessed to tell them what the outcomes entail, the measuring tools to be used in the assessment process. To be effective, handbooks and manuals for employees have been developed to assist employees to understand the system. It is an institutional imperative to make these forms accessible to all employees in the organisation. For a discussion of transparency and its effect on the outcomes of performance, appraisals see (Bawole et al., 2013; DeNisi & Smith, 2014; Kuvaas, 2006; Rowland & Hall, 2012).

The key underlying assumption of this policy is the institutionalisation of rewards and sanctions in the PM cycle which have the tendency to ensure compliance from organisations. This is in tune with others (Brignall & Modell, 2000; Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Kloot & Martin, 2000; Ohemeng, 2011), who argue that adoption of PM reforms in public sector organisations is perhaps influenced more by compliance

or regulatory requirement rather than by implementing them in their internal business process (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Nurkholis et al., 2014).

Third, determinants of effective PM in the context of Ghana have implication for further analysis. From the selected responses to the question of the determinants of EPM, 4 interrelated themes which contribute to the overall outcomes of performance reforms in the context of Ghana are evident. The first trend observed in the responses is that strategic planning is an important component of an effective system in the context of Ghana. However, it appears this is not only unique to the Ghanaian experience, because other studies have find similar evidence that supports this trend (Curtright et al., 2000; LeRoux & Wright, 2010; Sa, 2013). The core principles of PM start with a strategic management process like a mission, a vision statement, core values and the formulation of a strategy which is used to design goals and objectives at both the organisational and individual levels. Although strategic planning is supposed to be at the strategic apex or top management level activity, at the local level of governance, planning starts with stakeholder consultation forums through the Budgeting and Planning Units of local authorities.

In addition, the strategic planning phase involves the contribution of the peoples' representatives during the medium-term development plans by the sub-committee system of local governance in Ghana. Therefore, planning is decentralised to involve almost all members of an Assembly directly during the community-interphase proceeding or indirectly through their council representatives. The development of plans for most organisations, especially at the local level, is through the contributions of the citizens first before, they are further moved to the national development unit.

What was central to the results of the interviews and other documentary evidence is that goal setting is an important activity, because without the goals, set targets may not be set? Also, goals allow for effective task performance of employees on their KPIs. However, it was revealed that most organisational goals are not able to align individual and organisational task to be linked to the different units to achieve effective performance management. The implication is that goal attainment is impeded, because if the goals are not well-coordinated and defined, they are likely to

exist in sharp contrast within the different divisions of the organisation, thereby, leading to goal ambiguity (Jung, 2014b).

Another important area of strategic planning is the development of results-oriented performance to reflect the key performance areas (KPA) and goals of local authorities at the local level of governance in the country. Goal vagueness is not new; previous studies (Capaldo, Costantino, Pellegrino, & Rippa, 2017; Latham et al., 2008) have observed that many government institutions are unable to develop performance measures that capture both quality, quantity, efficiency, outputs and outcomes measures adequately (Liang & Howard, 2007; Ohemeng, 2011). It is significant to note that goal ambiguity is prevalent in the public sector because it is difficult to conceive goals, since goals are not straightforward, like profit maximisation in the private sector. This is in line with the finding that clarity of goals is a key determinant of performance reforms in the public sector (Caillier, 2014; Jung, 2012; Moynihan et al., 2012b).

A critical observation from the results is that budgetary allocation and resource deployment are central to the success of PM reforms in Ghana. This finding seems to be a major downside of most governments in the developing world because they run their budgets on deficits which often affect programme implementation at all levels of governance. It is interesting to note that eight (8) out of the ten (10) interviewed indicated that funding of MMDAs performance areas has seen a shortfall and they observed that the release of funds has been erratic and inadequate to meet their programme needs. Most MMDAs rely on the District Assembly Common Fund (DACF) and the District Development Facility (DDF) to implement their KPAs, which is usually inadequate to meet most targets in a district because there are several projects that feed on these two sources of funding for MMDAs.

In addition to budgetary allocation, human resources deployment was reported to be an important determinant of an effective performance regime. They explained that the quality of the human resources posted to MMDAs is critical to the objectives of the PM policy, because the PM process demands employees with some level of knowledge and skills to be able to understand the performance data or metrics they will be generated from the process (Engle, Festing, & Dowling, 2015; Forslund, 2012; Koufteros, Verghese, & Lucianetti, 2014; Moynihan et al., 2012a).

Further, the resource allocation revealed that for organisations, especially at the local level, to train and develop their staff, adequate budgetary allocation is necessary to augment the skills and build the capacity of employees to fully take part in the PM process. Training and capacity building in public organisations in Ghana has always been an important issue, because most public organisations lack the qualified and skilled staff that are needed to achieve government programme objectives and development at the local level (Bawole et al., 2013; Domfeh, 2004; Ohemeng & Anebo, 2012; Ohemeng, 2010). However, similar findings have been reported elsewhere, that low capacity of government employees has resulted in low achievement of performance reforms in the public sector (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Cheng & Sturtevant, 2012; Kroll & Moynihan, 2015; Rachman-Moore, 2006).

Despite the important feature of resources for implementing both the developmental targets and the KPAs in public organisations in the context of Ghana, it appears that this determinant of EPM has received less attention in the literature (Abane & Phinaitrup, 2017a; Halachmi, 2011; Heinrich, 2007). The fundamental issue with governments in the developing world is that a lot of developmental needs are competing for the same resources, hence, the ability to use alternative resources for management reforms such as PM, is limited because the private sector is not well-developed in these areas especially not in Sub-Saharan Africa. Nevertheless, governments alone may not be able to provide resources for these reforms, and the donor community has been at for-forth front of this performance agenda in Ghana with the Australian Government, the European Union (EU), Danish Development Corporation supporting the government of Ghana (GoG) to achieve this landmark reform in the public service and the local level.

Every PM policy starts with the definition of job descriptions, which are not only generic or need-based jobs that take care of the exigencies of the time. The results of the interviews indicated that for any PM policy, according to the participants, in the Ghanaian situation, the major focus of the public services at both the national, subnational and local entities need to develop clear job descriptions and make them as clear possible as before individual key performance indicators (KPIs) can be set during the performance cycle. Interestingly, job descriptions have been treated as an implicit assumption in the performance management framework,

indicating that before performance targets are set, organisations are aware of their mandate in delivering goods and services to the public.

Notwithstanding well-defined job descriptions and analyses are the technical components of the human resource management process, that when not well conceived during the strategic planning stage, may have serious implications for performance goals. One significant observation from the field interviews was that many organisations in the public sector did not adequately prepare for the performance doctrine because it was difficult to clearly identify what job descriptions are in some context. For instance, performance indicators are supposed to capture the day-to-day task performance and make projections for future job changes due to environmental uncertainties. Ensuring that organisations have a clear job analysis before any PM policy is conceived is perhaps a key attribute of EPM. Yet, most developing countries' human resource management (HRM) practices are still traditional, suggesting that the HRM is still at the administrative stage without any transformations to being part of the strategy formulation process in public organisations (Engle, et al., 2015).

Fundamentally, the key characteristics of the human resource managers in the public sector are that they lack the skills and technical acumen to provide strategic information that can be included in the goal-setting phase of the PM process to add value to the business of the organisation (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). It is, therefore, imperative for organisations to engage and train their human managers to understand that the quality of the human resource is central to achieving an effective outcome on PM policies.

Leadership continues to impact positively on performance and organisational effectiveness globally (Bass & Avolio, 2013; Ukko, Tenhunen, & Rantanen, 2007). Despite this wide assertion by both empirical and common sense that in most cases performance management policies are conceived without strong commitment of the top leadership of public organisations. Indeed, the results indicate that the model of the Ghanaian PM policy is a top-down approach, which is used to provide strategic direction to achieve government programmes in the public sector. The results of the field interviews reflect the significant implications in the PM literature, because previous studies report low commitment levels of senior public managers and a

generally poor attitude of employees towards performance reforms in government organisations (Kerpershoek, Groenleer, & de Bruijn, 2014; Kruis & Widener, 2014; Nielsen, 2014).

A significant trend revealed that the outcome of the PM policy in the Ghanaian experience is contingent on the commitment of top management leadership behaviour towards the PM process. The participants explain that the commitment of top management is important because as it sets the tone for the acceptance and a general attitude of employees towards the goals of the organisation. Besides, PM is a management control system used to get work done, and therefore it is necessary for top leaders of organisations to fully commit themselves to the reform objectives by both actively interacting with employees, providing support to raise the morale and to motivate lower-level employees to achieve their KPIs within the specified period of time. This is important because management cannot achieve the overall strategy of the organisation without the collective effort of other employees on the ladder below.

More so, managerial commitment is said to influence performance outcomes because the role of leadership is to motivate and engage employees to understand the goals of the organisation to work towards goal attainment. Even though motivation in terms of rewards is limited in the public sector due poor financial benefits, and the fact that external rewards are not always sufficient in the motivation trajectory, exploring the intrinsic motivation or developing employees': public service motivation (PSM) levels may go a long way to ensure an effective PM system in public organisations (Kroll & Vogel, 2013) .

Closely linked to the issue of motivation is the ability of top management to use performance information in decision-making (Liang & Nan, 2014). It should be noted that the ability of top leadership to use performance information during the monitoring, review and to apply rewards and sanctions could help shape employee behaviour in the public sector. This is because the PM process was reported to include communication of feedback of individual performance during the mid-year review and subsequently, an annual review of the entire organisation's performance in staff durbars to ensure that management used the feedback on KPIs to improve upon them and adjust goals to reflect the current needs of their organisation. Primarily, the PM model gives an opportunity for feedback to solve an eventual 'management problem'

which is imperative to the use of performance information generated from the system. During such meetings, consensus building is achieved, and critical problems are solved to achieve organizational KPAs.

The last important observation of managerial commitment in the EPM framework is that intersectoral collaborations with various actors in the task environment that call for the real commitment of leadership to shape the dialogue and to ensure that they pull resources from their external environment to support the implementation process. Without this support to the focal organisation by different social actors, resources to build the capacity of employees may not be forthcoming in the wake of budget deficits being experienced in the fiscal environment. For example, the Public Services Commission (PSC) secured the support of the Australian Government in the draft PM policy that was meant to provide technical competencies to staffs of the commission and the public sector human resource managers before the policy was implemented in a five-year duration with an initial pilot of 20 public organisations.

Although managerial support was reported to be a key driver of EPM, four (4) participants observed that there is a low level of commitment of management towards the PM reforms in some organisations. Similarly, others noted that: the lack of managerial commitment was affected by poor attitudes of subordinates towards the PM process. The implication is that both management and employee behaviour may impact negatively on the performance goals in the long-run.

Fourth, the interviews revealed that national culture and organisational subculture do have implications for performance management reforms in the context of Ghana. It is important to observe that national culture is not new in the literature, however, organisational subcultures and their effects on PM is relatively new in the literature. For instance, the issue of the female supervisor-employee relationship during the feedback and communication of performance results may affect the long-term sustainability of PM in the country. This finding is unique because this study is one of the first to link two organisational subculture attributes, religiosity and dishonest practices to PM outcomes. The findings have implications in the literature that will be discussed in the next sections by linking the discussions to the literature. This is important because there is unique evidence that has been found from the filed

interviews. Yet, these two findings have implications for the objectives of the PM policy in the country, because over the years, previous governments have made attempts to institutionalise performance regimes in the public service, however, these good but not adequately thought-through policies have often failed to achieve the aspired performance because of the culture among public sector organisations (Adei & Boachie-Danquah, 2003; Domfeh, 2004; Ohemeng, 2011) .

The findings on the national culture imply that to understand the context of the effectiveness of performance management reforms in the Ghanaian situation, one must mirror in cultural factors and employee behaviours that may affect the performance reforms negatively. However, the effect culture on performance has been studied extensively (Allard, 2010; Cruz, 2011; Christopher Hood & Peters, 2004; Meyer & Hamerschmid, 2010; Rowley, Hossain, & Barry, 2010), however, the test of national culture on PM is relatively few (Lindholm, 2000; Shih et al., 2005; Tsang, 2007), nevertheless, the findings have the potential to affect the productivity of the Ghanaian public sector.

Additionally, the issue of subcultures which have the tendency to impede the results of the PM policy cannot be emphasised enough, because they indirectly lower morale of other employees in the process, which would eventually lead to lower productivity in the public sector. The dishonest tendencies practiced by supervisors seeks to undermine the objectivity of the system and defeat the purpose of the reforms. The implication is that the drive towards attitudinal change among employees maybe takes longer than expected to achieve in value for money practices in public organisations. The subcultures may further strengthen the patronage system which already exists in the recruitment of personnel into the public service. Another trend that is being witnessed in public institutions as the findings that indicate spiritual connotations given to the performance rating process. Employees have resulted in using spiritual and other explanations for their low performance and their low scores rather than focussing on objective means to improve their performance on their KPIs.

Finally, there are several challenges that may affect the outcomes of PM policies in Ghana. It is instructive to note that similar studies have found that challenges of PM in different context could affect performance sustainability and the

efficient use of performance information for decision-making (Abane & Phinaitrup, 2017a; Conaty, 2012; Karuhanga, 2010; Kim, Yoon and Kang, 2016; Lee-Emery, 2015; Mmieh, Mordi, Singh, & Asiedu-Appiah, 2011; O'Boyle & Hassan, 2013). The implication is that target setting, strategic planning and feedback of performance results could be affected by lack of adequate resources to train officers or line managers to understand the performance metrics to be able to objectively assess employee performance (Kroll & Moynihan, 2015). It should be noted that PM may serve its purpose if top management is committed to the reform initiatives and if they would lead the process because it has been revealed that the Ghanaian model is the top-down approach used to provide direction and strategic focus to achieve organisational goals and government policies at both the national, subnational and local levels.

4.10 Summary of Qualitative Data Findings

The research question for the qualitative component of the study was to find out the nature, content, determinants and the effect of national culture on effective PM in the context of Ghana. More specifically the study sought to address the following questions: (1. What are the nature and the content of performance management reforms in Ghana? (2. What are the determinants of effective performance management from the perspective of key actors in the Ghanaian public service? (3. What are the differences and similarities of the content of Ghana's PM model to different contexts? (4. What is the role of national culture on performance management reforms within the context of Ghana? (5. What are the challenges in implementing performance management reforms at the national and local level of governance in the country?

The above analyses and discussions have demonstrated that although PM is a universal concept, it may not have the outcomes in different countries or settings. The findings revealed that although the Ghanaian experience with PM reforms have potentials to institute performance culture in public organisations, national culture and organisational subcultures may affect its sustainability in the long-run. The following findings were central to the discussion:

- 1) The Ghanaian PM is made up of two models: Performance contracting and performance appraisals

- 2) The elements of the PM policy are anchored on four principles: equity, transparency, accountability and ownership of the assessment process
- 3) The determinants of effective performance management (EPM) are measured by four main attributes, strategic planning, budgetary and resource allocation, clear job descriptions, and top management leadership commitment
- 4) Two national cultural attributes, collectivism and male dominance or masculinity tend to affect performance rating and feedback
- 5) Two organisational subcultures, religiosity and dishonest practices have negative consequences for the sustainability of the PM reforms.
- 6) The social character 'Martha' has the tendency to lower morale in public organisations and promote patronage in the system.
- 7) There are several challenges that affect the implementation process.

4.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the interviews that were designed to answer research objective one (1) of the study. First, the interviews were coded and transcript onto format 4A sheets to help in the analysis. Second, age, sex, grade, the highest level of education and the number of years in the organisation were presented as the main demographic information that was of interest to the study. Part of the discussions sought to present the findings by categorizing the interviews into major themes for further analysis. In addition, the nature, content/elements of the Ghanaian PM policy were outlined. Third, the chapter discussed the determinants of effective PM in the context of Ghana and how these drivers sit within the literature on PM. Fourth, the effect of national culture and organisational subcultures were discussed as well. The chapter provided the key highlights of the findings that are of interest to the discussions of PM in the context of Ghana and elsewhere. The next chapter outlined the descriptive results and the Exploratory Factor Analysis results.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF DESCRIPTIVE RESULT AND FACTOR ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

The study distributed 650 questionnaires for the survey component. Out of the 650 questionnaires administered, 441 were returned, representing a 67.85% response rate. Of the 441 questionnaires received, it was observed that there were missing data for two categorical variables, assembly (6 missing values) and division (26), while the missing data for continuous variables were found to be distributed across the four indicators of the dependent variable (effective performance management-EPM) and the other six (6) independent variables. Because of the nature of the missing data pattern which was widely distributed among the independent variables, the decision was to retain all the 441 questionnaires because deleting them would significantly affect the analysis and important information could be left out that may support the discussions of the findings. Therefore, what was ideal was to retain all the 441 questionnaires, however, where possible, if the cases had enough data for some analyses, the Listwise method was preferred. This is consistent with the literature on how to resolve missing data issues (Pallant, 2011).

The chapter outlines the key highlights of the empirical data by presenting the descriptive results with regards to the demographic information among the respondents. Also, the section focusses on the analysis of the continuous variables of the survey. Apart from showing the distribution of the demographic information of respondents, the chapter demonstrates the suitability of the data for further statistical analysis in the process by employing the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) technique. Among other things, the mean and the standard deviations are used to explain how the questionnaires were answered by the respondents to help in the testing of the conceptual framework of the study. In addition, the central tendencies and frequencies indicate how the data were clustered and dispersed under a given categorical variable.

First, the chapter presents the demographic data by using descriptive statistics. Second, the factor analyses of both the outcome and predictor variables which affect effective performance management are performed using the Maximum Likelihood technique. The third section describes the data management process and the fourth section provides the descriptive results for the variables of the study.

5.2 Respond Rate Analysis

As indicated earlier, 650 questionnaires were distributed for the survey component and 441 of them were returned represented by 67.85% and although there were missing data in the 441, they were all used for the analysis. The 67.85% response rate is expected given the nature of the sample population and more so, similar studies in performance management have not obtained a higher response rate than 60% in local government agencies (Breitbarth, Mitchell, & Lawson, 2010; Iii & St-onge, 2017; Moynihan & Pandey, 2004). For example, Breitbarth et al. (2010) obtained a 45% response rate in their study of a New Zealand local government organisation while Moynihan and Pandey (2004) and Iii & St-onge (2017) studies obtained 53% and 20% respectively. The 67.85% response rate is acceptable given that the survey was a cross-sectional one which has limitations, especially studies involving self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaires were checked for accuracy and checked for missing information. It is instructive to note that the 67.85% response rate was due to the support of trained Research Assistants during the data collection.

In all, 357 (80.95%) of the 441 questionnaires were fully completed, while 84 (19.05%) questionnaires had missing data, but were retained because removing them would greatly affect the analysis. Two types of assemblies' employees were studied, metropolitan and municipal assemblies (MMA) in the Greater Accra Region. Whereas 139 (31.5%) employees came from Metropolitan assemblies, 296 (67.1%) were from municipal assemblies. However, 6 (1.4%) employees did not indicate their assembly type.

5.3 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The questionnaires were obtained from local government employees from metropolitan and municipal assemblies in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The demographics that were studied include age group, gender, education, experience,

grade, division, and supervisor. Table 5.1 presents the mean and standard deviations of the sample of the under-listed variables. For the average of the age group, 6.1% of the respondents were from the age group 24 or below, 23.6 % fell under the age of 23-29 years, 43.1% were in the age group of 20-39 years. Additionally, 18.4% were under age of 40-49 years, and 8.8% were between 50-59 years. However, none of the respondents were 60 years or above². Also, 59.6% were males and 40.4% were females. For the education level of respondents, 6.6% had obtained professional certificates, 19.5% had a Diploma, 56.7% held Bachelor's degrees, 16.3% had Master's degree while 0.9% (4) had PhD. Additionally, for the experience variable, 59.0% of the respondents had between 1-5 years of working experience from the first entry, 22.0% had 6-10 years of experience, 6.3% had 11-15 years of experience, 6.3% had 16-20 years and 6.3% had over 20 years of experience from the date of first entry. Further, the grade of respondents, 17.2% were SE& Analogues, 7.3% were PEO& its equivalents, 5.9% were CEO and other grades, 41.3% were ADIIB and other equivalent grades, 15.4% were ADIIA and others, 6.1% were ADI and its analogues, and 6.8% were DD and its equivalents. For the variable division, 27.7% were from Administration, 13.4% were from Planning & Budgeting, 8.2% from HR, 8.6% from Internal Audit, 7.7% from Revenue Unit and 28.6% from a Decentralised Department. Finally, 49.7% were supervisors while 50.3% were not. Table 5.1 shows the various distributions of these variables.

Table 5.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristic		Frequency	Percentage %
Age Groups	24or below	27	6.1
	25-29	104	23.6
	30-39	190	43.1
	40-49	81	18.4
	50-59	39	8.8
	60	0	0
Sex	Male	263	59.6
	Female	178	40.4

² 60 years is the retirement age in Ghana

Characteristic		Frequency	Percentage %
Educational Level	Certificate	29	6.6
	Diploma	86	19.5
	Bachelors	250	56.7
	Masters	72	16.3
	PhD	4	.9
Experience	1-5 years	260	59.0
	6-10 years	97	22.0
	11-15 years	28	6.3
	16-20 years	28	6.3
	Over 20 years	28	6.3
Grade	SEO & Analog	76	17.2
	PEO & Analog	32	7.3
	CEO & Analog	26	5.9
	ADIIB& Analog	182	41.3
	ADIIA& Analog	68	15.4
	ADI& Analog	27	6.1
	DD& Analog	30	6.8
Division	Administration	122	27.7
	Planning & Budgeting	59	13.4
	HR		
	Internal Audit	36	8.2
	Revenue	38	8.6
	Decentralised Dept.	34	7.7
		126	28.6
Supervisor	Yes	219	49.7
	No	222	50.3

From Table 5.1 age group range shows 6.1% were under the age of (24 years or below), 23.6% (25-29 years), 43.1% (30-39 years), 18.4% (40-49 years), and 8.8% (50-59 years). There was no age group for 60 years. The age distribution indicates that most of the respondents were between 30-39 years and 25-29 years. The interpretation of this observation is perhaps because of the Ghanaian population distribution which is relatively young. It should be noted that the working age for entering into the public service in Ghana is closely linked to the education system where an average individual is expected to have completed university or polytechnic education by the age of 22 years and perform a national service for a year before s/he can be employed by public organisations. By this estimation, it is expected that an average person would be 24 years or below to be qualified to enter public service because of the one (1) mandatory National Service year. However, it is instructive to note that it is not a straightforward migration from the national service into regular employment in the country, because it may take an average of 3 to 5 years to obtain employment, which demonstrates the concentration of most of the respondents within the age 20-30s years range.

The gender distribution of the respondents showed that 59.6% were males and 40.4% were females. The implication is that the Ghanaian work environment is predominantly a male one especially in the formal sector while the informal sector there is a higher rate of females than males. However, there are implicit explanations for the predominance of males in the Local Government Service (LGS). Another explanation is that local government jobs are usually found in the hinterlands or the rural areas with hard living conditions which make them unattractive to females. Nonetheless, the trend is changing and there are more females interested in local government jobs with the inclusion of new positions such as in Human Resource, Internal Audit, and Social Development.

The respondents were asked to indicate their highest level of education and the analysis showed that 6.6% have at least a certificate, 19.5% hold a diploma, 56.7% have a bachelor's degree, 16.3% have master's degree and 0.9% have PhD degree. The educational distribution indicates that most employees of the LGS have a first degree which places these groups in the professional class. By the LGS rules of recruitment and appointments, the entry level for the professional class is a first

degree while diploma and certificates are graded lower than the Grade of Assistant Director IIB which is Level 16. The implication is that there is a reasonable level of qualified staff in the Service. However, the what of whether they have the requisite skills remains unanswered and beyond the scope of the study.

With regards to the number of years on the job, 59.0% (1-5), 22.0% (6-10 years), 6.3 % (11-15) and 6.3% 16-20, 6.3 (over 20) years of experience on the job, the experience shows a trend in which there is an over-concentration of new entrants who fall within the 1-10 years on their current position (81.0%). This finding also connects to the age distribution of the sample population where most of the employees are between age group 25-29 and 30-39 years. The number of years on the job appears to have an association with age and grade, because it is more likely that employee who has 1-5 years of experience would fall in the two age groups and will be on the grade of ADIIB.

In Table 5.1, 17.2 percent were Senior Executive Officers (SEO) and analogues grades, 7.3% were Principal Executive Officers (PEO) and equivalent grades, and 5.9 percent were Chief Executive Officers (CEO) and their analogue grades. These grades consist of senior grades of the non-professional class. Additionally, 41.3% of respondents were Assistant District IIB (ADIIB) and their analogue grades, 15.4% consisted of Assistant Director IIA (ADIIA) grades and equivalents, 6.1% represented the Assistant Director I (ADI) and analogue grades, and 6.8 % were Deputy Director (DD) and analogue grades. This category of grades constitutes the professional grades with a minimum qualification of First Degree. A critical observation of the demographics showed that most of the respondents were from the professional class with 73.9% having a bachelor's, a master's or a PhD.

The descriptive results showed that 27.7% were from Administration, 13.4%, from Planning & Budgeting, 8.2%, from Human Resource, 8.6%, from Internal Audit, 7.7% are from Revenue Unit, and 28.6% from the Decentralised Departments. Most of the respondents were from decentralised departments followed by the administration, the planning and budgeting, internal audit, human resource and revenue units. This is expected of the sample population because the decentralised departments have more staffing levels than the other divisions in the LGS because after implementing the Legislative Instrument 1961 (L.I. 1961) under the Ghanaian

decentralisation framework which moved the scheduled two departments as part of the LGS, may explain this result, since these departments have more staff compared to other divisions.

A close look at Table 5.1 shows that 49.7% of the respondents are supervisors while 50.3% are not. The indication is that almost half of the sample are supervisors and therefore with their level of knowledge and skills are able to understand the performance management of their individual assemblies. It should be noted that being a supervisor may have a relationship with the respondent's answers to the dimensions of the dependent and independent variables and which must be controlled for to check for the skewness of the data. In addition, being a supervisor may be outlier cases in the data because of their level of knowledge of the performance management system.

5.4 Data Management and Screening

Data preparation was performed to ensure that most of the assumptions of using multivariate analyses were met. This was part of a preliminary assessment of the normality, outliers and missing data to see if they could significantly affect the use of the multiple regression techniques since it is sensitive to outliers. Therefore, three data screenings were performed, missing data, a test of normality and outliers screening.

5.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Variables of the Study

To reduce the factors that best explain the individual constructs or scales, an exploratory factor analysis was performed for all items making up each variable. The factor analysis was conducted for the dependent variable construct involving the four subcomponents of effective performance management on the one hand and on the other hand, of all the variables consisting the organisational and environmental determinants. In addition, the sub-components of the PSM construct was performed to test for reliability and suitability for further regression analysis. After the factor analysis, the various scales were reduced and scored for total and sub-total scales for descriptive analysis. Only items that had inter-item correlations with .3 and above met the criteria for inclusion in the final analysis. The first presents the dependent variable with four dimensions' factor loading, and the second is the independent variables.

5.5.1 Factor Analysis for Dependent Variable Subscale

After the initial analysis of the suitability of the data for factor analysis, as outlined above, it was sought to test for uni-dimensionality of the three components of the

dependent variable: strategic planning, performance monitoring and evaluation, and performance feedback, review and rewards.

5.5.1.1 Strategic Planning, Performance Monitoring and Evaluation

The Maximum Likelihood technique through the Varimax rotation was conducted on nine (9) items from the survey questionnaires completed by respondents and pertaining to strategic planning, performance monitoring and evaluation showed that the nine (9) items loaded on one (1) factor. The loading was strong on each of the items on this subscale. Table 5.2 below shows the factor loading for the nine (9) items in this indicator. All the nine items were retained.

Table 5.2 Factor Loadings for Strategic Planning Scale

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.000	55.550	55.550	4.567	50.746	50.746	3.069	34.098	34.098
2	1.068	11.872	67.422	.754	8.375	59.121	2.252	25.024	59.121
3	.734	8.156	75.577						
4	.529	5.874	81.451						
5	.418	4.646	86.097						
6	.381	4.232	90.329						
7	.328	3.640	93.969						
8	.286	3.178	97.147						
9	.257	2.853	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The factor analysis showed that the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Sampling Accuracy Measure is .896 which exceeded the recommended 0.6 (Pallant, 2011). Also, the first and second factors provided a variance of 59.12%. Also, a Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant, and this explained the uni-dimensional nature of this sub-measure. Another observation from the factoring indicated that the Eigenvalue for the first factor was 5.0 which indicates that the items are measuring the same concept which is greater than the value of 1, as stated in the literature (Pallant, 2011) and this value explained a variance of 50.55%.

5.5.1.2 Factor Analysis for Performance Monitoring and Evaluation

Five (5) items were rotated through the Maximum Likelihood method using the Varimax rotation technique. The five items loaded onto one factor after an initial suitability test was performed. The first factor explained a total variance of 52.78 percent. After checking the correlation matrix, one item was dropped because of low inter-item correlation below .3. Table 5.3 below shows each item loading on the one factor.

Table 5.3 Factor Loadings for Strategic Planning Scale

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.005	60.099	60.099	2.515	50.291	50.291
2	.603	12.056	72.155			
3	.560	11.195	83.350			
4	.443	8.854	92.204			
5	.390	7.796	100.000			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The results showed that the Meyer Olkin Sampling Accuracy Measure is .846, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant, and this indicates a measure of unidimensional of the construct. The results of the factor loading suggest that the Eigenvalue for factor is (3.005) and above the recommended value of one (1) and this gave a total variance of 60.09.%. The correlation matrix indicates that inter-item correlations loaded above .3 of the four items, using Maximum Likelihood rotation method.

5.5.1.3 Factor Analysis for Performance Review

The factor analysis for this sub-scale was performed for eight (8) items through the Exploratory Factor Analysis using the Maximum Likelihood and the Varimax rotation. The initial assessment showed that factoring was suitable. From the results of the factor analysis, the correlation matrix indicated that most of the correlation coefficients were below .3 for five (5) items and three (3) items were

above .3. Therefore, the decision was made to retain only three items for further analysis. Table 5.4 shows the various loadings of one the of the indicators of the dependent variable.

Table 5.4 Factor Loadings for Performance Review

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation Sums of Squared		
				Loadings			Loadings		
	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative
		Variance	%		Variance	%		Variance	%
1	4.089	51.112	51.112	2.237	27.961	27.961	2.759	34.492	34.492
2	1.058	13.230	64.342	2.222	27.774	55.735	1.699	21.243	55.735
3	.882	11.022	75.364						
4	.629	7.857	83.221						
5	.434	5.431	88.652						
6	.356	4.444	93.096						
7	.301	3.759	96.854						
8	.252	3.146	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The factoring showed that KMO Measure of Sampling Accuracy was greater than .6 (.817), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant and the p-value <.05. The Eigenvalue for the one factor is 4.089 which explained 51.12% of the variance which suggests that the items measured the same concept.

5.5.1.4 Factor Analysis for Performance Improvement

An initial of 13 items were checked for factor analysis suitability, however, after the initial tests, only eight (items) had inter-item correlations above .3 and the

decision was made to retain only items that correlated with other items at .3 and above, as recommended by Pallant (2011) for factor analysis. The eight (8) items in this indicator were then subjected to Maximum Likelihood technique through the Varimax rotation. The following was the result of the factor analysis using the Maximum Likelihood method and the Varimax rotation (see Table 5.5 below).

Table 5.5 Factor Loading for Performance Improvement Scale

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.908	60.830	60.830	7.573	58.253	58.253	6.063	46.640	46.640
2	1.509	11.607	72.436	1.204	9.262	67.515	2.714	20.875	67.515
3	.608	4.674	77.111						
4	.547	4.208	81.319						
5	.449	3.456	84.775						
6	.425	3.269	88.045						
7	.322	2.474	90.519						
8	.284	2.186	92.704						
9	.274	2.104	94.808						
10	.213	1.638	96.446						
11	.183	1.407	97.854						
12	.167	1.284	99.138						
13	.112	.862	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The outcome of the Maximum Likelihood method which was rotated through the Varimax rotation indicated that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .929, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant, $p \leq .05$. In addition, the Goodness-of-fit Test was statistically significant (Chi-Square= 3459.284 $df=53$, $p=.000$). Also, the variance (60.83%) for the first- factor loadings exceeded the recommended 40 percent in social research (Pallant, 2011). Also, the Eigenvalue for the first factor was 7.908, which is greater than 1 and it also indicates that the items all measure the same thing.

5.5.2 Factor Analysis of the Independent Variables

Factor analysis was performed for the six (6) independent variables of the study. An initial assessment was done to ensure that the items constituting each individual variable met the assumptions of factor analysis. However, items that correlations below .3 were dropped for final rotation of factors. The section outlines the organisational variable loadings followed by environmental variables and the PSM construct.

5.5.2.1 Factor Analysis for Clear and Measurable Goals

The eleven (11) items were processed through Exploratory Factor Analysis with Maximum Likelihood method of extraction and the Varimax rotation technique. The factors were loaded on two factors, however, a critical look at the Eigenvalue and total variance as explained showed that most the items loaded high on the first factor, explaining 54.62% and the decision was made to use one-factor loading. Also, only three (3) items of the inter-item correlations were above .3 and they were retained for further analysis. Table 5.6 below shows items loadings on one (1) factor.

Table 5.6 Factor Loadings for Clear & Measurable Goals

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.008	54.615	54.615	5.529	50.266	50.266
2	.954	8.677	63.292			
3	.735	6.685	69.977			
4	.642	5.837	75.813			
5	.517	4.696	80.509			
6	.473	4.296	84.806			
7	.437	3.971	88.777			
8	.369	3.355	92.131			
9	.330	2.998	95.130			
10	.287	2.612	97.742			
11	.248	2.258	100.000			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant with $p < 0.05$, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .928 which is greater than .6 mostly used

in factor analysis. The goodness-of-fit Test was statistically significant as well. The correlation matrix was between .3 and above. The first-factor loading gave an Eigenvalue of 6.0 which explains a cumulative variance of 54.15%. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant with $p < .05$.

5.5.2.2 Factor Analysis for Development of Results-oriented Performance Measures

Sixteen items were used for initial factoring to check for suitability for further factor rotation. However, the initial checks revealed that only six (6) items could be further analysed using the inter-item correlations of which most had below .3. The final analysis used six (6) items for further rotation using the Maximum Likelihood technique with the Varimax rotation which showed strong loadings of the six items (see Table 5.7 below). However, the ten (10) items were removed from this variable because of the weak inter-correlation matrix which was below .3 as recommended by most research studies (Pallant, 2011).

Table 5.7 Factor Analysis for Development of Results-oriented Performance Measures

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.868	49.173	49.173	7.472	46.702	46.702	3.994	24.965	24.965
2	1.585	9.906	59.080	1.170	7.311	54.013	2.923	18.270	43.235
3	1.062	6.636	65.716	.750	4.685	58.699	2.474	15.463	58.699
4	.897	5.607	71.323						
5	.671	4.191	75.514						
6	.658	4.110	79.624						
7	.555	3.468	83.091						
8	.501	3.131	86.223						
9	.405	2.529	88.752						
10	.391	2.444	91.196						
11	.306	1.910	93.106						
12	.277	1.731	94.837						

13	.228	1.426	96.263
14	.217	1.357	97.620
15	.207	1.291	98.911
16	.174	1.089	100.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Adequacy was .913 more than the recommended .6, the one-factor loading provided an Eigenvalue for factor loading was 7.868 and provided a variance of 46.702%. While the second and third factors explained 7.31 and 4.69 with Eigenvalues of 1.56 and 1.06 respectively. Even though this variable loaded on three factors, a close observation indicated that only one (1) factor loaded high than the two (2) factors. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant with $p < 0.05$ ($p = .000$). The correlation matrix was between .3 and above for six (6) items and they were retained for further analysis. The total variance explained is the first-factor loading is 46.70% which is higher than 40% in most.

5.5.2.3 Factor Analysis for Use of Performance Information

Factor analysis for the eleven (11) items was used to perform an initial analysis of the suitability of the item for factoring. However, after the initial analysis, only five (5) items had inter-item correlations above .3 and were retained for further factor analysis. The results of the factor loading through the Maximum Likelihood method and the Varimax rotation are presented in Table 5.8 below.

Table 5.8 Factor Loadings for Use of Performance Information

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.573	59.759	59.759	6.221	56.552	56.552	3.663	33.297	33.297
2	1.318	11.986	71.744	1.007	9.156	65.708	3.565	32.410	65.708
3	.778	7.077	78.821						
4	.471	4.282	83.103						
5	.427	3.886	86.989						
6	.365	3.315	90.305						
7	.256	2.331	92.636						

8	.242	2.199	94.835
9	.223	2.029	96.864
10	.186	1.692	98.556
11	.159	1.444	100.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was greater than .6 (.901), “Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity” was statistically significant, $p < 0.05$, and the Eigenvalue for factor one was 6.573 with 1.318 for the second factor. The variance for the first factor is 59.76% and suggest that the items loaded better on the first factor. The correlation matrix for five items was above .3 and was retained for further analysis. The rest of the six items were dropped because of their low inter-item correlations in the regression analysis.

5.5.2.4 Factor Analysis for Stakeholder Participation

After the initial analysis of the stakeholder participation scale, which had eleven (11) items, five (5) items were dropped while six (6) items were retained for the factor analysis, because the five (5) inter-items’ correlation matrix was lower than the recommended value of .3 and above. The results are shown in Table 5.9 below.

Table 5.9 Factor Loadings for Stakeholder Participation

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation Sums of Squared		
	Loadings			Loadings			Loadings		
	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative
		Variance	%		Variance	%		Variance	%
1	5.123	46.570	46.570	4.471	40.642	40.642	2.625	23.864	23.864
2	1.362	12.385	58.955	1.370	12.453	53.095	2.087	18.972	42.837
3	1.247	11.338	70.293	.727	6.613	59.708	1.856	16.871	59.708
4	.811	7.375	77.668						
5	.546	4.967	82.635						
6	.483	4.387	87.021						
7	.354	3.220	90.242						
8	.325	2.955	93.196						
9	.307	2.794	95.990						
10	.267	2.432	98.422						

11 .174 1.578 100.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was (.858), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant, $p < 0.05$, and the Eigenvalues for the first factor was 5.123, and explained a variance of 40.64%; the second factor explained 12.45% and the third factor explained a variance of 6.61%. From Table 6.11, the items loaded better on the first factor, and therefore, the uni-dimensionality of the items is indicated. The correlation matrix for six (6) items was above .3 and they were retained for the further analysis while five items were dropped due to low inter-item correlations.

5.5.2.5 Factor Analysis for Political Support

The political support scale had seven (7) items, however, after the preliminary analysis, it was observed that only three (3) of the items had correlations above .3, while two (2) had correlations above .2 and the rest of the items had correlations below .2 and the decision was made to drop those items that were below .2 for this variable. Five (5) items were used for the final analysis and retained in the regression model in Table 5.10 below.

Table 5.10 Factor Loadings for Political Support

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.722	38.883	38.883	1.715	24.493	24.493	1.758	25.117	25.117
2	1.402	20.031	58.914	1.613	23.036	47.530	1.569	22.412	47.530
3	.953	13.610	72.524						
4	.691	9.874	82.398						
5	.525	7.497	89.895						
6	.449	6.407	96.302						
7	.259	3.698	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .689 which is greater than .1, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). The Eigenvalue for one-factor loading is 2.722 and explained a variance of 38.88% and the Eigenvalue for factor two was 1.402. However, the inter-item correlations for the five (5) items were above .3 and were used for further analysis. The remaining two items were dropped, due to low inter-item correlations.

5.5.2.6 Factor Analysis for Public Service Motivation (PSM) Construct

Factor analysis was performed on 35 items that measure the PSM construct. However, after an initial assessment of the items made up of five indicators, 'attraction to policymaking', 'commitment to the public interest', civic duty, 'compassion', and 'self-sacrifice': some items were deleted because their inter-item correlation matrix was below .3. The results of the factor analysis were performed for the twenty-seven (27) items making up the PSM construct, and were retained for further analysis because they had inter-item correlations above .3. After the final analysis of the factor loading, the three (3) items from the 'commitment to the public interest': PSM7, PSM16 and PSM23 were dropped because only items that loaded .5 and above met the criteria in this construct. Additionally, two items from the 'civic duty': PSM14 and PSM36 were dropped, while three items, PSM9, PSM12 and PSM19 were deleted from the, 'self-sacrifice' sub-scale. However, 'attraction to policymaking' and 'compassion' subscales were all retained in the final analysis. The various factor loading of the individual items under the PSM construct is presented in Table 5.11 below.

Table 5.11 Factor Loadings for Public Service Motivation Construct

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	13.639	38.969	38.969	12.958	37.022	37.022	9.647	27.562	27.562
2	2.795	7.985	46.954	1.992	5.692	42.714	4.701	13.433	40.994
3	2.218	6.338	53.292	1.675	4.785	47.499	2.264	6.469	47.463
4	1.301	3.717	57.009	1.293	3.695	51.195	1.154	3.296	50.759
5	1.153	3.294	60.303	.765	2.187	53.381	.918	2.622	53.381
6	.976	2.788	63.091						
7	.908	2.594	65.685						

8	.869	2.483	68.168
9	.809	2.311	70.479
10	.758	2.165	72.644
11	.717	2.048	74.691
12	.690	1.972	76.664
13	.637	1.820	78.484
14	.604	1.726	80.210
15	.574	1.641	81.850
16	.512	1.463	83.313
17	.505	1.443	84.756
18	.473	1.351	86.107
19	.460	1.315	87.422
20	.421	1.203	88.625
21	.413	1.180	89.805
22	.391	1.116	90.921
23	.334	.954	91.875
24	.317	.906	92.781
25	.306	.874	93.655
26	.292	.834	94.489
27	.277	.791	95.280
28	.255	.730	96.010
29	.245	.701	96.711
30	.221	.633	97.344
31	.206	.589	97.933
32	.195	.557	98.491
33	.192	.548	99.039
34	.181	.517	99.556
35	.156	.444	100.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The 35 items loaded high on factor one which has Eigenvalue of 13.639 which explains a total variance of 38.97%. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .942 which is greater than .1, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). However, 27 items had inter-item correlations above .3 and were retained for further analysis. Also, the PSM also indicated that the thirty-five (35) items measured different things because the items loaded on five (5) factors suggest the items do not measure the same concept. However, this issue was overlooked because previous studies have noted the weaknesses of the PSM construct factor (Vandenabeele, 2009).

1) Factor Analysis for ‘Attraction to policymaking’

All the five items under this subscale were used for the factor analysis using the Maximum Likelihood method after initial checks for factoring. However, due to the loading of the PSM construct in the sample, inter-item correlations below .3 were included in the factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer Olkin’s Sampling Adequacy Measure was .619 which is suitable for factor analysis, as recommended by previous research. Table 5.12 below provides information on the factor loading of the five items on 1 factor.

Table 5.12 Factor Loadings for Attraction to Policymaking

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared			Rotation Sums of Squared		
				Loadings			Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.234	44.678	44.678	1.792	35.840	35.840	1.397	27.948	27.948
2	1.317	26.336	71.014	.976	19.514	55.354	1.370	27.406	55.354
3	.665	13.299	84.312						
4	.460	9.196	93.508						
5	.325	6.492	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The KMO loaded .614 higher than .6 which is the recommended value for using factor analysis while the Eigenvalue for the factor one loading is 2.234 which explains a variance of 44.68%, while the second factor obtained an Eigenvalue is 1.317 with a variance of 26.34%. In addition, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant with $p < .001$. The Goodness-of-fit Test was highly significant (Chi-Square= 189.235, $df=5$, $p=.000$). All the five (5) items were retained for this variable.

2) Factor Analysis for ‘Commitment to the Public Interest’

Seven items were used to perform the factor analysis for this variable after initial checks for items inter-correlation matrix. Four items were retained because their inter-

item correlations were above .3. The results in Table 5.13 show the factors loading strongly on one factor.

Table 5.13 Factor Loadings for Commitment to the Public Interest

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.586	51.222	51.222	3.200	45.714	45.714	2.579	36.839	36.839
2	1.162	16.594	67.816	.685	9.785	55.499	1.306	18.660	55.499
3	.767	10.958	78.773						
4	.491	7.016	85.789						
5	.398	5.681	91.471						
6	.316	4.517	95.988						
7	.281	4.012	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The results showed a Kaiser-Meyer Olkin's Test of Sampling Accuracy =.854 that are greater than .6 in most studies, and the one-factor loading provided an Eigenvalue of 3.586 which explains a total variance of 51.22%. Further checks showed that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant at $p < .05$ ($p = .000$). Four items with inter-item correlation above .3 were retained for regression analysis.

3) Factor Analysis for 'Civic Duty'

Seven items were used for factor analysis, and initial checks revealed that only five (5) items were suitable for further analysis through the Maximum Likelihood factor analysis after initial checks and two items, PSM14 and PSM36 were dropped because they had very weak inter-item correlations below .3. The factor loadings for the five items loaded on two factors, as shown in Table 5.14 below.

Table 5.14 Factor Loadings for Civic Duty

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %

	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative
		Variance	%		Variance	%		Variance	%
1	3.227	46.099	46.099	2.821	40.304	40.304	1.848	26.400	26.400
2	1.083	15.474	61.573	.238	3.400	43.704	1.211	17.304	43.704
3	.877	12.525	74.098						
4	.653	9.327	83.424						
5	.504	7.203	90.627						
6	.348	4.973	95.600						
7	.308	4.400	100.000						

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The Kaiser-Meyer Olkin's Test is .851 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is highly significant with $p < .001$. The loadings on the one factor were strong and provided an Eigenvalue of 3.227 and a variance of 46.10%. While the second factor loaded an Eigenvalue of 1.083 and which explained a variance of 15.47%. The indication is that the items loaded better on factor one than on the second factor.

4) Factor Analysis for 'Compassion'

The factor loadings for all the eight items of this subscale were used for the final analysis after an initial assessment of the suitability of the item for factor analysis. The factors loaded on one factor and they are presented in the Table 5.15 below.

Table 5.15 Factor Loadings for Compassion

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.674	58.424	58.424	4.247	53.091	53.091
2	.817	10.211	68.635			

3	.595	7.440	76.075
4	.563	7.039	83.114
5	.429	5.367	88.481
6	.374	4.675	93.155
7	.309	3.865	97.021
8	.238	2.979	100.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The factor loadings indicate that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant at $p < .001$ while the Measure of Sampling Accuracy, "Kaiser-Meyer Olkin's (KMO) Normalization Test" is .920 higher than the .6 recommendations (Pallant, 2011). The advantage of using a Maximum Likelihood technique is that it provides fit dices of the items and the results showed that the Good-of-Fit-Test is highly significant with Chi-Square= 54.508, $df=20$ and $p=.000$. Therefore, all the eight (8) factors loaded on one factor. The total variance explained after the factor rotation is 58.42% with an Eigenvalue of 4.674.

5) Factor Analysis for 'Self-sacrifice'

Out of the eight (8) items that were used for an initial assessment of factorability, and the final analysis revealed that only five (5) items met the criteria for inclusion in the final analysis because three items, PSM9, PSM12 and PSM19 had inter-item correlation below .3. A decision was made to retain only five items for the Varimax rotation of items on the fixed factor of one. Table 5.16 below depicts the Maximum Likelihood method of extraction.

Table 5.16 Factor Loadings for Self-sacrifice sub-scale

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.022	62.773	62.773	4.606	57.570	57.570
2	.684	8.546	71.319			
3	.599	7.482	78.800			
4	.545	6.817	85.617			
5	.400	5.000	90.616			
6	.304	3.801	94.417			
7	.231	2.885	97.302			
8	.216	2.698	100.000			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

The Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) Normalization Test for Sampling Accuracy Measure is .906 and greater than .6 acceptance level while Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is highly significant with $p=.000$. Moreover, the fit dices indicate that the Good-of-Fit-Test is highly significant with Chi-Square= 44.450, $df=5$ and $p<.05$. The total variance explained by the one-factor loading is 62.77% with an Eigenvalue of 5.022. Five (5) factors were retained for further analysis because three (3) items had an inter-item correlation matrix below .3 as recommended by Pallant (2011).

5.6 Descriptive Statistics for Measurement Scales of the Study

This section of the analysis focusses on the survey responses provided by respondents during the administration of the questionnaires of the variables of the study: strategic planning, performance monitoring & evaluation, performance review and performance improvement, constituting the dependent variable, effective performance management. Also, the section presents descriptive results for three organisational determinants, clear & measurable goals, development of result-oriented performance measures, and use of performance information. Further, the environmental variables, stakeholder participation and political support results are presented as well. The section also discusses the descriptive results for the public service motivation (PSM) construct sub-components: 'attraction to policymaking', 'commitment to the public interest', 'civic duty', 'compassion', and 'self-sacrifice'. Respondents were given a 7-Likert-item scale to indicate the following: 1) 'strongly disagree', 2) 'disagree', 3) 'slightly disagree', 4) 'neither agree nor disagree', 5) 'slightly agree', 6) 'agree', and 7) 'strongly agree'. From this 7-point scale, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement of each item measuring the individual variable.

The scoring of the scale was allocated as follows: 1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4= neither agree nor disagree, 5=slightly agree, 6= agree, and 7= strongly agree. However, reverse items were changed before the final scoring of the items. In addition, 1 2 & 3 represents the highest form of disagreement while 5, 6 & 7 represent the highest form of agreement. Whereas 4 represents the

middle-roaders, respondents who are not very sure whether the statement is true or not and at the same time, respondents who lack full information on their Assembly's performance management objectives.

5.6.1 Descriptive Results for Dependent Variable Sub-Scales

The results of each of the sub-components of the dependent variable, effective performance management are provided in Table 6.17 below. The usefulness of descriptive statistics is that they provide a snapshot of the data characteristics and give summary information about the dataset and the sample population. Descriptive statistics can be used for testing assumptions using measures of central tendency, mean, mode, median and others. However, the mean and the standard deviation of the dataset are described in this study. The mean measures the sum of the items divided their number to find the average of the dataset, while the standard deviation describes how spread each value in the dataset is away from their mean. For the effective performance management combine scale (EPM1, EPM2, EPM3 & EPM4) provided a mean score of 86.25% and Std. Dev.=13.812 (see Table 5.17). Generally, the responses for the total scale of EPM indicate that an average 86.25% of the sample population approved moderately that their MMDAs have an effective PM system in place.

First, the strategic planning scale (EPM1) provided an overall mean score of 47.21, Std. Dev.= 7.489, minimum score is 10 and maximum is 57. For the strategic planning scale, most respondents responded with 'slightly agree' with 'Statplan8' scoring the least mean= 5.62, Std. Dev.= 1.304 while 'Stratplan7' had an average mean of 6.11 and Std. Dev.= 1.160 (refer to Table 5.17). Clearly, respondents agreed that their Assemblies were producing quarterly reports of their activities. With the strategic planning scale, an average of 47.21 of the respondents agreed moderately that their districts engage in the strategic formulation of goals and KPAs.

Second, the performance monitoring & evaluation scale had a mean score of 17.93%, Std. Dev.= 3.590, the minimum is 4 and maximum are 23. Most of the responses for performance monitoring and evaluation show that only an average of 17.93% of the respondents said their district conducts monitoring and evaluation of their performance on their KPIs. The implication is that most districts rarely take monitoring of their KPAs and KPIs as important to the PM process. This means that

monitoring and evaluation of their KPIs are not linked to the performance cycle or it is not a routine activity that most district assemblies engage in. Even though this component of effective performance management is key to the PM outcomes, it may be underutilized in most MMDAs. For each the four items, most of the responses agreed moderately to use of monitoring tools in assessing their KPIs, where item 1 had a mean score of 5.70, Std. Dev.= 1.321 while item 4 recorded the least mean score of 5.08 and a Std. Dev.= 1.523.

Third, for EPM3, performance review scale, the mean score for the three items was 11.68, Std. Dev.= 3.270. Most of the responses for two items (perrew1 and perrew3) obtained mean scores of 5.08, Std. Dev.= 1.523, minimum=1, maximum=7 and mean =5.39, Std. Dev.= 1.387, minimum=1, maximum=7 respectively (see Table 5.17). This implies that the responses moderately agreed to that their MMDAs had a review system in place which ensures that their KPIs' performance is assessed and rated, while some respondents did neither agree or disagree (perrew2, mean=4.80, Std. Dev.=1.721) that their MMDAs conducts performance review sessions. This means either they did not have full information about the existence of a performance review process or their assemblies do not organise review sessions for tracking individual employee's KPIs.

Fourth, the responses for the EPM4 indicate that the responses moderately agreed that their MMDAs organises performance improvement programmes for their staff after performance evaluation and review process where the total mean score for scale is 37.45, Std. Dev.= 9.675, minimum = 7 and maximum =50 (see Table 5.17). Undoubtedly, only a moderate average (37.4) of the respondents do believe that their MMDAs organise training improvements for them while most of them think that their MMDAs do not organise capacity training for them to improve their performance on their KPIs. While agreeing that there are generic training programmes for staff in the local government institutions, it is instructive to observe that most of these training programmes have little to do with on-training needs or skill training to help employees to achieve their individual goals and the overall goals of their organisations. Table 5.17 shows the summary of the items that make up the four dimensions of EPM scale their means and standard deviations.

Table 5.17 Summary Descriptive Results for Effective Performance Management and Sub-Components

Item		Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
Effective performance management	EPM scale:	EPM1, EPM2, EPM3 & EPM4	86.25	13.812	Agree
	EPM1	Strategic planning	47.21	7.489	Agree
	Stratplan1	My assembly conducts strategic planning	5.84	1.211	Strongly agree
	stratplan2	My assembly prepares its strategic plan incorporating performance indicators	5.83	1.100	Agree
	stratplan3	My assembly annual action plan incorporates performance indicators	5.78	1.290	Agree
	stratplan4	My assembly has an action plan for implementing the Service performance management policy	5.84	1.157	Agree
	stratplan5	My assembly prepares performance-based budgets	5.78	1.279	Agree
	stratplan6	My assembly prepares	5.68	1.358	Agree

Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
	progress reports of performance			
stratplan7	My assembly prepares annual/quarterly performance reports	6.11	1.160	Strongly agree
stratplan8	My assembly performance management results are used for strategic planning and decision-making	5.62	1.304	Agree
stratplan9	My assembly strategic planning incorporates the mission and goals of the assembly into the planning process	5.73	1.266	Agree
Overall EPM1	{X=47.21, Std. Dev.=7.489, Min=10, Max= 57, N= 425}			
EPM2	Performance monitoring & evaluation	17.93	3.590	Slightly agree
permoe1	My Assembly's PM involves formal assessment of individual employee performance	5.51	1.357	Agree

Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
Overall EPM2	permoe2 I can track my progress on my KPIs	5.70	1.321	Agree
	permoe3 My Assembly has a routine monitoring plan	5.37	1.347	Agree
	permoe4 My overall performance is rated and scored by my boss twice a year {X=17.93, Std. Dev.=3.590, Min=4, Max=23, N= 437}	5.42	1.556	Agree
	Performance Review	11.68	3.270	Slightly disagree
EPM3	perrew1 During performance reviews, my supervisor focus on the results I should obtain	5.08	1.523	Slightly agree
	perrew2 During performance reviews, my supervisor focus on my personal development	4.80	1.721	Neither agree nor disagree
	perrew3 During performance reviews, my supervisor focus on what I must do and how I do my job	5.39	1.387	Agree
	{X=11.68, Std. Dev.=3.270, Min=2,			

Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
Overall EPM3	Max=50, N=438}			
EPM4	Performance Improvement	37.45	9.675	Slightly agree
	perimprov1 My assembly has a routine performance improvement programmes for staff	4.64	1.724	Neither agree nor disagree
	perimprov2 PM make me function better	5.24	1.578	Agree
	perimprov3 PM clarify the expectations regarding my functioning	5.36	1.432	Agree
	perimprov4 PM enhance my self-esteem	5.35	1.499	Agree
	perimprov5 PM contributes to my professional development	5.34	1.600	Agree
	perimprov6 PM provides me with more insight into my personal contributions and added value	5.37	1.541	Agree
	perimprov7 PM has a clear effect on how comfortable I feel in my job	5.15	1.481	Agree
	perimprov8 PM has a clear effect on my performance			Agree

Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
		5.27	1.559	
Overall EPM4	{ X=37.45, Std. Dev.=9.675, Min=7, Max=50, N=429 }			

Note: Total EPM: X=86.25, Std. Dev.=13.812, Minimum=28, Maximum=108, N=408

5.6.2 Descriptive Results for Independent Variables Measurement Scales

This section focusses on descriptive statistics of the individual items of the organisational variables, clear & measurable goals (CMGS), development of result-oriented performance measures (DROPMS) and use of performance information (USOPI). In addition, summary statistics for the environmental variables, stakeholder participation (STAKHOP) and political support (POLSP) are presented as well, while the third section focusses on the results of the five subscales of public service motivation (PSM), ‘attraction to policymaking’ (ATTR), ‘commitment to the public interest’ (COMMIT), ‘civic duty’ (CIVDUT), ‘compassion’ (COMP) and ‘self-sacrifice’-(SS). The mean and standard deviations are presented in this section in addition to the major scales summary statistics.

5.6.2.1 Descriptive Results for Organisational and Environmental Determinants of Effective Performance Management

This sub-section presents the descriptive statistics for the five variables which fall under the organisational and environmental determinants. The descriptive statistics focus on average and variations of the data set of the sample population. Table 5.18 summarizes all the items which make up each variable scale. The results of the five variables, CMGS, DROPMS, USOPI, STAKHOP and POLSP are presented below.

First, in Table 6.18, the mean score for clear 7 measurable goals is 14.04%, Std. Dev. is 2.366, minimum =2, maximum =16. The summary statistics for clear & measurable goals indicate that an average of 14.04 percent of the total 440 sample agreed that their MMDAs performance management (PM) goals are clear and they could be quantified while most of them thought that the goals of their PM are not clear to them. This result suggests that goal-ambiguity have the tendency to affect the key performance areas of MMDAs because clarifying goals would lead to goal attainment of individual employees.

Second, with the development of result-oriented performance measures, the mean score for 436 respondents is 27.24%, Std. Dev. is 6.288 which is very close to the mean of the dataset which means that there is no such variation in the dataset on this variable. However, a critical look at the mean suggests that an average of 27.24% of the sample said their MMDAs develop results-oriented or outcome-based performance measures. It should be noted that some of the respondents also indicated that their disagreement or were in the middle those who neither agree nor disagree that their districts performance measures were results-oriented.

Third, the use of performance information provided an average of 22.27%, a Std. Dev. of 4.997 with 4 being the minimum and 29 the maximum and N= 438. An observation of the standard deviation means that the variations are closer their mean in the dataset which is about times. Clearly, the standard deviation helps us to understand the mean because large standard deviation implies that there is wide variation which is away from the mean score. The descriptive results may suggest that the mean score of 22.27% of the sample agreed that their district assemblies are using performance information for decision-making, developing new ways of doing things, and identify problems that affect their KPAs outcomes. Yet, the challenge with this result is that some respondents of the sample population might have disagreed that performance information generated from the PM cycle is used purposefully for decision-making in their respective MMAs.

Fourth, stakeholder participation obtained a mean of 23.66%, Std. Dev. =6.640, minimum=5, maximum= 36 and N=439.

For the stakeholder participation variable, had responses which averaging 'neither agree nor disagree' with each item mean concentrated at their standard

deviations about 4.35 points. This implies that most of the respondents did not think that outside stakeholders or inter-sectoral actors are involved in their PM cycle. Stakeholders like elected politicians, clients, citizens and other agencies in the district outside the District Central Administration are involved in the implementation process of performance goals or evaluating the performance of employees because, PM can be both an ‘inside-out’ technique to achieve districts mandate or an ‘outside-in’ model where intersectoral collaborators provide their input in implementing performance goals of MMAs. Although this results only explains that an average of 23.66% of respondents agreed that their MMAs involve key stakeholder in their PM process, it indicates that there is some level of involvement of stakeholders in the performance of MMDAs. This is important because the local level is to allow the grassroots to have a participatory stake in the management of public institutions and resources in the country

Finally, with political support which sought to find out whether MMAs had autonomy and adequate resources from elected Assembly Members and District Chief Executives at the district level of governance, the results suggest that a sample of N= 440 had a mean score of 17.00%, Std. Dev.= 5.210, minimum=4 and maximum=29. The standard deviation suggests that there are not much deviations of the variation of the sample from the mean of the dataset. The smallness of the standard deviation means that there is no much difference in the mean score of the sample population indicating that it is normally distributed. However, an average of 17.00% of the population, accepted that elected politicians or officials support their MMAs in terms of autonomy in policy requests and enough budgetary allocation for implementing their KPAs. Table 5.18 shows the summary of the individual items constituting each variable.

Table 5.18 Summary Descriptive Results for Organisational and Environmental Variables

Item	Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
CMGS	Clear &		14.04	2.366	Agree

Item	Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
Measurable Goals					
CMGS1		My Assembly has a clear mission statement	6.24	1.121	Strongly agree
CMGS2		“It is easy to explain the goals of this Assembly to outsiders”	5.82	1.274	Agree
CMGS3		My Assembly programmes and activities are focussed on achieving its mission	5.95	1.064	Agree
Total CMGS		{X=14.04, Std. Dev.= 2.366, Min=2, Max= 16, N= 440}			
DROPMS	Development of results-oriented performance measures		27.24	6.288	Agree
		My Assembly’s performance indicators are reliable	5.33	1.455	Agree
DROPMS1		My Assembly’s performance measurement is a	5.30	1.414	Agree
DROPMS2		worthy investment of my energy			

Item	Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
DROPMS3		This Assembly's performance measures are results-driven	5.36	1.365	Agree
DROPMS4		My Assembly's performance measurement can increase productivity	5.70	1.237	Agree
DROPMS5		My Assembly's performance measurement can improve quality of service delivery	5.68	1.276	Agree
DROPMS6		This Assembly's performance measures involve accounting for inputs used in my work	5.64	1.212	Agree
Total DROPMS		{X=27.24, Std. Dev.= 6.288, Min=4, Max= 29, N= 436}			
USOPI	Use of Performance Information	My Assembly uses performance information for	22.27	4.997	Agree
USOPI1		decision-making regularly	5.28	1.359	Agree
		My Assembly uses			

Item	Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
USOPI2		performance information to develop new approaches for doing things	5.28	1.322	Agree
USOPI3		My Assembly uses “performance information to set priorities”	5.26	1.324	Agree
USOPI4		My Assembly uses “performance information to identify problems that need attention”	5.39	1.411	Agree
USOPI5		My Assembly uses performance information to identify training needs assessment for improving performance	5.38	1.450	Agree
Total USOPI		{X=22.27, Std. Dev.= 4.997, Min=4, Max= 29, N= 438}			
STAKHOP	Stakeholder Participation	I am involved in designing this	23.86	6.640	Neither agree nor disagree
stakhop1		Assembly’s KPIs	4.24	1.838	Neither agree nor disagree
		External stakeholders are familiar with the			Neither agree nor disagree

Item	Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
stakhop2		results of this Assembly's PM goals	4.35	1.856	Neither agree nor disagree
stakhop3		External stakeholders trust the PMS of this Assembly My Assembly's PM helps communicate	4.68	1.608	Neither agree nor disagree
stakhop4		more effectively with elected officials and citizens	4.75	1.510	Neither agree nor disagree
stakhop5		I am part of my Assembly's PM process I am part of the performance evaluation process of this	5.05	1.420	Agree
stakhop6		Assembly	4.58	1.801	Neither agree nor disagree
Total STAKHOP		{X=23.66, Std. Dev.= 6.640, Min=5, Max= 36, N= 439}			
POLSP	Political Support	Most elected officials in this district do not trust my Assembly	17.00	5.210	Neither agree nor disagree
POLSP1		Most elected officials are very critical of my	4.13	1.828	Neither agree nor disagree

Item	Variable	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of Agreement
POLSP2		Assembly because it is less effective	3.91	1.796	Disagree
POLSP3		Elected officials support my Assembly with adequate resources to implement training needs of the Assembly	3.88	1.765	Disagree
POLSP4		Elected officials support my Assembly with resources to implement PM programmes	4.21	1.703	Neither agree nor disagree
POLSP5		Policy input from my Assembly is not always supported by elected officials	4.31	1.710	Neither agree nor disagree
Total POLSP		{X=17.00, Std. Dev.= 5.210, Min=4, Max= 29, N= 440}			

5.6.2.2 Descriptive Results for Public Service Motivation (PSM) Construct

This part of the section describes the means and dispersions of the PSM sub-components. The summary statistics revealed that the mean score for the 'attraction to policymaking' is 22.29%, Std. Dev. is 4.034 while the minimum score is 4 and the

maximum is 29. This shows that an average of 22.29% of respondents agree that their preference for public institutions is due to their likeness for the policy-making process. Also, the 'commitment to the public interest' scale produced a mean score of 19.27%, a Std. Dev. = 3.352. It means that there was not much variation in the dataset since the standard deviation indicates a concentration around the mean. The implication is that on the average, 19.27% agreed that they serve the public interest as their reason for joining the public sector. The civic duty scale provided a mean of 24.53%, Std. Dev. = 4.370. Most of the responses indicate a moderate presence of 'civic duty' among employees of the local government and they see public service as a duty to serve the public.

In addition, the 'compassion' scale suggests an average of 41.11%, a standard deviation of 7.249 and minimum is 7, maximum is 50. This means that 41.11% of the sample population agreed that they have compassion for the underprivileged in society and they are willing to support social programmes. It implies the welfare of others is paramount and the feelings of patriotism to serve once a country with honesty is associated with public service.

Finally, the 'self-sacrifice' scale gave a mean score of 24.16%, Std. Dev. = 4.683. The minimum is 4, the maximum is 29. The results of the 'self-sacrifice' scale suggest that 24.16% of the respondents of the data believed that they are willing to make a difference in society rather than pursuit their self-interest which means that their personal achievements meant nothing to them than serving the citizens who are the major stakeholders in public service delivery. This scale measures the highest form of public service motivation scale. Therefore, individuals with higher levels of 'self-sacrifice' are considered to have high PSM levels, especially with regards to PSM1 'making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements'. Table 5.19 depicts the summary statistics of the PSM scale below.

Table 5.19 Summary Statistics for PSM Construct

Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of agreement
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Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of agreement
ATTRACTION	Attraction to policy making (ATTRA)	22.29	4.034	Neither agree nor disagree
PSM11	'Politics is a good word'	4.69	1.501	Neither agree nor disagree
PSM15	'I respect public officers who can turn a good idea into law'	5.84	1.161	Agree
PSM22	'Ethical behaviour of public administrators is as important as competency'	5.86	1.236	Agree
PSM27	'I like the give and take nature of policymaking'	4.99	1.608	Neither agree nor disagree
PSM31	'I care much for politicians'	4.29	1.797	Neither agree nor disagree
Total ATTRA	Note: {X=22.29, Std. Dev.=4.034, Min=4, Max=29, N=427}			
'Commitment to the public interest' (COMMIT)		19.27	3.352	Agree
PSM30	'Meaningful public service is very important to me'	5.98	1.178	Agree
PSM34	'I would prefer seeing public officers do what is best for the whole community even if it affected my interest'	5.92	1.217	Agree
PSM37	'An officer's obligation to the public	5.86	1.172	Agree

Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of agreement
	must always come first before loyalty to superiors'			
PSM39	'I consider public service my civic duty'	6.04	1.115	Strongly agree
Total COMMIT	Note: {X=19.27, Std. Dev.=3.352, Min=5, Max=29}			
'Civic Duty' (CIVDUT)		24.53	4.370	Agree
PSM21	'I am willing to go great lengths to fulfil my obligations to my country'	5.98	1.170	Agree
PSM25	'Public service is one of the highest forms of citizenship'	5.93	1.299	Agree
PSM28	'I believe everyone has a moral commitment to civic affairs no matter how busy they are'	5.85	1.280	Agree
PSM29	'I have an obligation to look after those less well off'	5.64	1.396	Agree
PSM35	'To me, the phrase "duty, honour and country" stirs deeply felt emotions'	5.66	1.430	Agree
Total CIVDUT	Note {X=24.53, Std. Dev.=4.370, Min=5, Max=29 N=440}			
'Compassion' (COMP)		41.11	7.249	Agree
PSM2	'I am often moved by the plight of the	5.94	1.189	Agree

Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of agreement
	underprivileged'			
PSM3	'Most social programs are too vital to do without'	5.66	1.368	Agree
PSM4	'It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress'	5.85	1.294	Agree
PSM8	'To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others'	5.99	1.283	Agree
PSM10	'I usually think about the welfare of people whom I don't know personally'	5.78	1.293	Agree
PSM13	'I am often reminded of daily events about how dependent we are on one another'	5.90	1.236	Agree
PSM24	'I have compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves'	5.20	1.708	Agree
PSM40	'I support public programs wholeheartedly'	5.74	1.237	Agree
	{X=41.11, Std. Dev.=7.249, Min=7, Max= 50, N=428}			
Total COMP				
'Self-Sacrifice' (SS)		24.16	4.683	Agree
	'Making a difference in society means more to me than personal			
PSM1	achievements'	5.84	1.29	Agree
	'I believe in putting duty before self'			
PSM5	'Doing well financially is defined less important to me than doing good'	5.85	1.30	Agree
	'I feel people should give back to society more than they get from it'			
PSM6		5.35	1.57	Agree

Item	Description	Mean	Std. Dev.	Level of agreement
PSM17	'I am one of those rare people who would risk personal loss to help someone else'	5.95	1.22	Agree
	{X=24.16, Std. Dev.=4.683, Min=4, Max=29, N=435}			
PSM26		5.88	1.26	Agree
Total SS				

Note: X= 112.23, Std. Dev.=16.566, Min= 32, Max=137, N=411

5.7 Chapter Summary

The chapter discussed the results of the descriptive summaries by presenting the mean and standard deviations to explain the average and the dispersion of the data. The results of the descriptive statistics demonstrate that the standard deviations are concentrated around their means. Also, the chapter analyses reports of the exploratory factor analysis which helped the study to reduce some items to ensure that the items measured the variables, were investigated. The demographic statistics as well as the data cleaning process were presented. The next chapter contains the discussions and analyses of the regression results.

CHAPTER 6

REGRESSION ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESES TESTING

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the descriptive statistics for the demographic information and factor analysis results. The present chapter outlines the multiple regression results for both sub-components of the dependent and the independent variables of the study. The chapter is made up of ten main sections: introduction, descriptive results, correlation results of the main variables, regression analysis for each of the variables and their sub-components' relationship with the dependent variable. The overall effects of the six variables are presented and subsequently, control variables are introduced to look for any changes in the dependent variable. The last section summarises the chapter.

6.2 Descriptive Results for Main Variables of the Study

The results for the descriptive statistics indicate that most of the respondents selected the responses that agreed with Likert scale items, 'slightly agree', for most of the scale items, making five variables, DROPMS, USOPI, PSM, and EPM, except for CMGS which saw many of the respondents selecting 'agree'. However, for the environmental variables, STAKHOP and POLSP, most respondents chose 'neither agree nor disagree' expressing uncertainty or not sure of the existence of stakeholder involvement or elected politicians in the process of implementing the PM framework of the respective district assemblies (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Descriptive Results for Main Variables of the Study

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Min	Max
CMGS	440	6.1394	1.0205	1	7
DROPMS	437	5.2868	1.5899	1	7
USOPI	438	5.3136	1.1887	1	7
STAKHOP	439	4.6165	1.2925	1	7
POLSP	441	4.1142	1.1837	1	7
PSM	423	5.7502	.83266	2	7

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Min	Max
EPM	408	5.4356	.93974	1.9027	7

For the variable clear and measurable goals (CMGS), the mean score was 6.13, Std. Dev.=1.02 (see Table 6.1), indicating that most of the respondents agreed that their assemblies had goal clarity and that they could measure their KPAs and KPIs. The minimum score for each item under this variable is one (1) and maximum is seven (7). Also, for development of results-oriented performance measures (DROPMS), the mean is 5.29, Std. Dev.=1.58, minimum=1 and maximum=7 suggesting that most respondents slightly agreed that their assemblies had performance measures or KPIs that could be achieved within a reasonable timeframe and at the same time, that the KPIs were results-oriented in a way that could be quantified and scored during the performance rating period.

In addition, use of performance information (USOPI) obtained a mean score of 5.31, Std. Dev.=1.19, minimum=1 and maximum=7 indicating that respondents agreed slightly that their districts use performance information for decision-making in the day-to-day management of the institution. For example, performance information is used for promotion of staff and for budgetary requirements of the district assemblies in a fiscal year. Whereas, the organisational determinants obtained a mean score between 5 and 6, the environmental variables, stakeholder participation (STAKHOP) had a mean score of 4.61, Std. Dev.=1.29 while political support had a mean of 4.11, Std. Dev.=1.18 (minimum=1, maximum=7). This implies that most the respondents did neither agree nor disagree with the statements and it may mean that the respondents were not aware of the involvement of different inter-sectoral actors in the implementation process. For the public motivation service (PSM) the mean score was 5.75, Std. Dev.=.832 and minimum=2 and maximum=7. The mean score for effective performance management is 5.44, Std. Dev.=.939 and minimum= 1.90 and maximum=7.

6.3 Correlation Results

This section is an attempt to explain the relationship between the variables of the study as contained in the conceptual framework. Several regression techniques were conducted to test the relationship between the organisational and environmental independent variables and their effects on the four indicators of effective performance management separately and observe their effects on effective performance management indicators as a single dependent variable. In addition, the study performed a regression analysis for the five indicators of public service motivation (PSM) and their influence on the dependent variable indicators as well. Correlation and initial tests are presented to verify the assumptions of multiple regression techniques.

6.3.1 Correlation Results for Antecedents of Effective Performance Management

The use of multiple regression analysis methods in the study required that the various assumptions underlying multiple regression techniques were met. Also, meeting the conditions of multiple regression was paramount to the study because violations of multicollinearity, linearity, independence of the sample and homoscedasticity will greatly affect the findings if not checked. One of the major setbacks encountered in this study was missing data which was across all the six variables and it was very difficult to delete entirely all the cases that had missing values since that would significantly reduce the effect size and vital information would be lost in the process. One of the decisions taken was to include all the 441 cases but allow SPSS software to use the Listwise method for the regression analysis. To be able to use multiple regression, the Listwise method option provided $N=371$ as the sample size and this is in line with the recommended $N > 50 + 6m$ method (Where the m = number of variables) as suggested by (Tabachink & Fidell, 2014). To be able to use the multiple regression techniques, the variables were measured at the interval level. Before testing the hypothesis of the study, correlation analyses were performed to observe the relationship between the variables.

It should be noted that effective performance management (EPM) is treated as a single dependent variable in the main model, which consists of four (4) indicators (EPM1_ strategic planning, EPM2_performance monitoring & evaluation,

EPM3_performance review and EPM4_performance improvement). While six (6) variables, clear and measurable goals (CMGS), development of result-oriented performance measures (DROPMS), performance information use (USOPI), stakeholder participation (STAKHOP), political support (POLSP) and public service motivation (PSM) measured by five indicators: 'Attraction to policymaking', 'commitment to the public interest', 'civic duty', 'compassion' and 'self-sacrifice that constituted the dependent variables. Similarly, as in the case of EPM, PSM is treated as a single variable in the main model in the regression analysis. However, for convenience, the correlation matrix includes the two variable indicators to observe their individual effects before the final analyses are performed.

It is instructive to note that there are different views on what should constitute an acceptable correlation between two or more continuous variables. Pallant (2011) maintains that a correlation above 0.7 between two variables should be reexamined where one of the variables is removed from the analysis, however, Hair, Rolph, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998) propose a correlation not greater than 0.80. Therefore, the decision regarding which variable to include in the analysis is a subjective one and based on the literature review of those variables was also to be considered before deciding on the cut-off points. For the multicollinearity test in this study, the variables were not affected, because most of the variables had correlation lower than 0.70. Nonetheless, except for 'civic duty' and 'compassion', 0.764, 'civic duty' and 'self-sacrifice', 0.74 'compassion' and 'self-sacrifice' had a correlation of 0.786. It should be noted that the high correlations between these three variables are because they both measure the same construct in this study thus, PSM. Therefore, they are treated as a single variable including the two other indicators: 'attraction to policymaking' and 'commitment to the public interest'. The researcher retained all the three variables in the study because in the literature on PSM these are viewed as a single predictor variable with five components making up the scale. And by Hair et al.'s (1998) rule, these do not constitute a major violation of multicollinearity in this study because they are below the 0.80 baselines.

From the correlation matrix in Table 6.2, the results show significant and positive relationships between all the independent variables and the dependent variable(s) on effective performance management. It is important to note that all the

variables were significant 1% ($p < 0.01$) and two-tailed except for the following pair of variables: 'attraction to policymaking' and EPM3, 'commitment to the public interest' and EPM3, and 'commitment to the public interest' and POLSP were statistically significant at $p < 0.05$, i.e. at a 5% confident level. Except for CMG and POLSP which are not statistically significant (.018), however, the relationship between 'clear & measurable goals' and 'political support' is positive, meaning that a unit change in 'clear & measurable goals' will lead to a .018 increase in political support. It means that though political support had a positive relationship, it was not statistically significant.

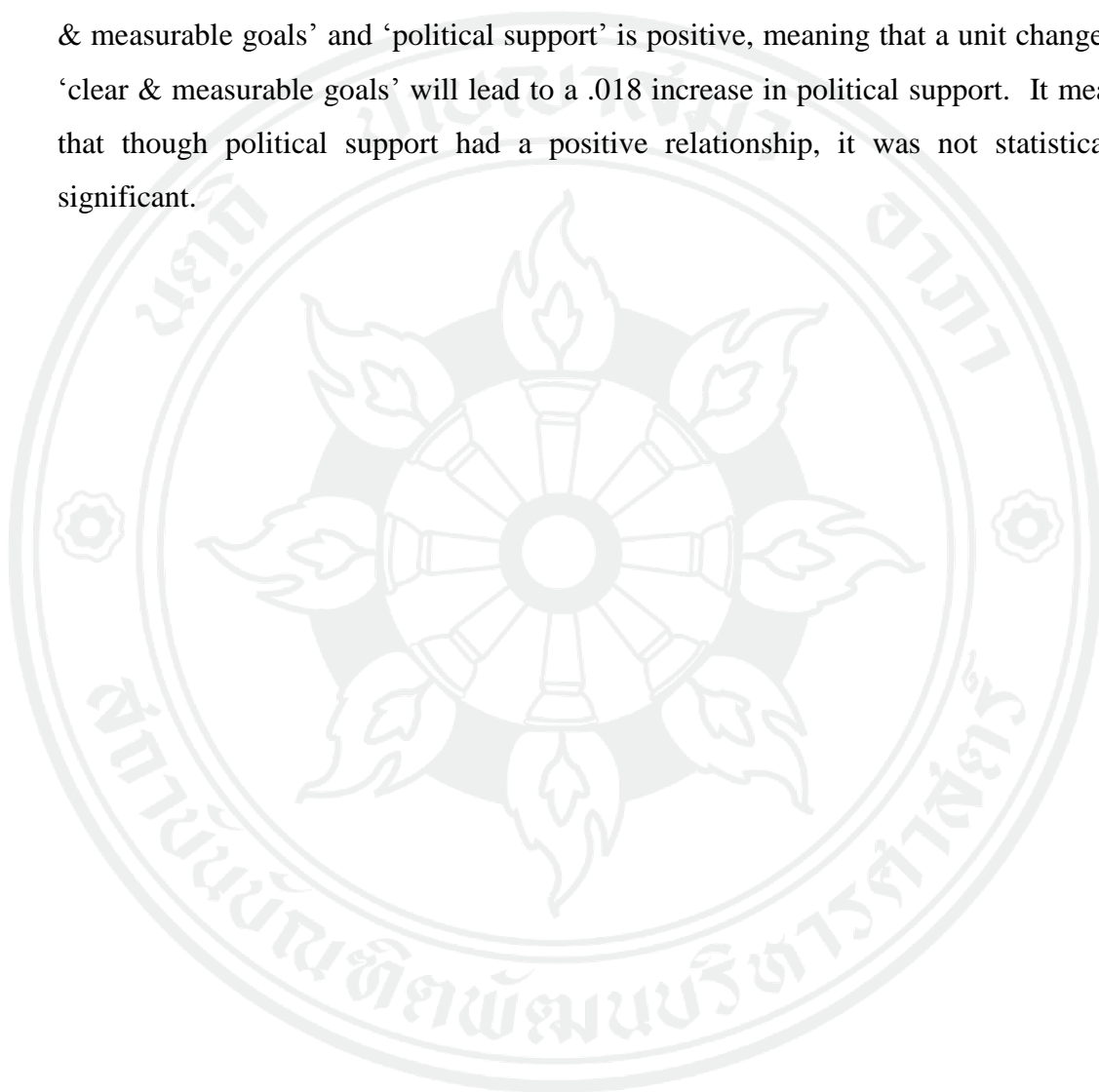


Table 6.2 Correlation Matrix Among the determinants of Effective performance management

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. CMGS	1	.508**	.522**	.339**	.018	.469**	.507**	.283**	.347**	.411**	.486**	.417**	.335**	.362**
2. DROPMS	.508**	1	.577**	.421**	.284**	.531**	.645**	.493**	.495**	.229**	.370**	.411**	.476**	.438**
3. USOPI	.522**	.577**	1	.492**	.237**	.438**	.561**	.456**	.354**	.261**	.321**	.215**	.193**	.269**
4. STAKHOP	.339**	.421**	.492**	1	.345**	.289**	.398**	.372**	.261**	.357**	.229**	.226**	.204**	.203**
5. POLSP	.018	.284**	.237**	.345**	1	.162**	.228**	.274**	.263**	.153**	.117*	.149**	.142**	.127*
6.EPM1	.469**	.531**	.438**	.289**	.162**	1	.696**	.365**	.460**	.338**	.493**	.474**	.412**	.410**
7.EMP2	.507**	.645**	.561**	.398**	.228**	.696**	1	.541**	.508**	.319**	.366**	.396**	.359**	.359**
8.EPM3	.283**	.493**	.456**	.372**	.274**	.365**	.541**	1	.637**	.127*	.113*	.178**	.228**	.170**

9.EPM4	.347**	.495**	.354**	.261**	.263**	.460**	.508**	.637**	1	.134**	.255**	.291**	.305**	.290**
10.Attraction Policy Making	.411**	.229**	.261**	.357**	.153**	.338**	.319**	.127*	.134**	1	.589**	.436**	.369**	.401**
11. Commitment to the public interest	.486**	.370**	.321**	.229**	.117*	.493**	.366**	.113*	.255**	.589**	1	.634**	.540**	.583**
12. Civic Duty	.417**	.411**	.215**	.226**	.149**	.474**	.396**	.178**	.291**	.436**	.634**	1	.764**	.704**
13. Compassion	.335**	.476**	.193**	.204**	.142**	.412**	.359**	.228**	.305**	.369**	.540**	.764**	1	.786**
14. Self- Sacrifice	.362**	.438**	.269**	.203**	.127*	.410**	.359**	.170**	.290**	.401**	.583**	.704**	.786**	1

Note ** = P< 0.01 level (2-tailed), * = P< 0.05 level (2-tailed), Listwise N=371

CMGS= clear & measurable goals: DROPMS= development of results-oriented performance measures: USOPI= use of performance information: STAKHOP= stakeholder participation; POLSP= political support: EPM1= strategic planning: EPM2= performance monitoring & evaluation: EPM3= performance review: EPM4= performance improvement

6.3.2 Correlation Results for the Main Variables of the Study

Before testing the hypotheses of the study, correlation analyses were conducted for the main variables. The results showed that all the variables had a correlation less than .70 as recommended by Pallant (2011) in testing for multicollinearity. The highest correlation was between DROPMS and EPM (.661) while CMGS and POLSP recorded the lowest correlation of .018. Most of the organisational variables (CMGS, DROPMS & USOPI) had correlations above .50 whereas environmental determinants had correlations below .40. (See Table 6.3).

Table 6.3 Correlation Results of the Determinants of Effective Performance Management

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.CMGS	1	.508**	.522**	.339**	.018	.479**	.515**
2.DROPMS	.508**	1	.577**	.421**	.284**	.476**	.661**
3. USOPI	.522**	.577**	1	.492**	.237**	.287**	.554**
4.STAKHOP	.339**	.421**	.492**	1	.345**	.296**	.394**
5. POLSP	.018	.284**	.237**	.345**	1	.171**	.258**
6. PSM	.479**	.476**	.287**	.296**	.171**	1	.501**
7. EPM	.515**	.661**	.554**	.394**	.258**	.501**	1

Note: **= P< 0.01, N= 371

To further test for multicollinearity, using the Tolerance values which range from .523 to .811 which is higher than 0.10 to 1 requirement in social research (Pallant, 2011). Also, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) recommends that variables whose values are higher than 10 should not be excluded, and these were not affected

because most of the variables had VIF values of 1.232 to 1.889. In addition, to multicollinearity test, the Durbin Watson test was used to check for serial correlation, and the value of the model is 1.492 which falls between the 1.50-2.50 cut-off point. The Durbin Watson test indicates that the residuals are not correlated, given that the value is close to 2. Therefore, the decision was made to retain all the variables in the model to further test the hypotheses.

6.4 Regression Analysis

The regression analysis depicts the influence of the independent variables on the effective performance management. The first part of analysis shows the effects of the independent variables on the four main indicators of effective performance management. The second component focusses on the effect of the independent variables on the four indicators as a single dependent variable effective performance management and influence of the five indicators of public service motivation on effective performance management. The third part focusses on the analysis of the major models of the study, that is the effect of the independent variables on effective performance management (involves all the four indicators).

6.4.1 The Relationship between Organisational Determinants and EPM1_ strategic planning as a dependent variable

The analysis explains the effects of the three organisational independent variables on strategic planning (EPM1) with the sub-scale of effective performance management followed by the effect of the PSM sub-scales on strategic planning. Table 6.4 shows that the model is statistically significant, and it explains 34 percent of the variance of the dependent variable (strategic planning), thus $R^2 = 33.9$ percent. Two of the three organisational variables are significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (1%), thus clear & measurable goals and development of result-oriented performance measures while the use of performance information is statistically significant at $p \leq 0.5$ ($p = 0.013$).

Table 6.4 Regression Results for Strategic Planning as a Dependent Variable

variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	21.708	11.406	0.000
CMGS	0.224	4.638	0.000
DROPMS	0.342	6.651	0.000
USOPI	0.128	2.482	0.013
Summary Statistics			
R	0.582		
R²	0.339		
Adjusted R²	0.334		
S.E.	6.16		
F stat	70.324		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EPM1: Standardized Beta Values

Clear and measurable goals contributed the strategic planning most followed by the development of results-oriented performance measures with $\beta=.342$ and $\beta=.224$ respectively. The use of performance information contributed $\beta=.128$ to explain the variance in EPM1. Although the use of performance information is statistically significant, its ability to explain the variation in strategic planning is less, indicating the challenge of using performance information during the strategic formulation stage. Therefore, it means that there is a gap between performance data use and strategic planning among districts at the local level. This is consistent with the literature that most public organisations rarely use performance data in decision-making (Kroll, Alexander and Moynihan, 2015; Moynihan et al., 2012a). To enhance strategic planning, local authorities should place priority on using data generated from the performance management cycle to shape and direct strategic focus at the managerial levels at the local level. As previous studies have noted the use of performance

information is skewed to only procedural use such as advocacy for resources and for staff promotions. Including the use of performance data in the strategic planning to ensure that performance goals are shaped and aligned to the individual goals in the performance cycle.

6.4.2 The Relationship between Organisational Determinants and EPM2_ Performance Monitoring and Evaluation as the Dependent Variable

The results in Table 6.5 indicate the interaction between the organisational variables and the dependent variable, performance monitoring and evaluation. The regression shows that organisational determinants explained 47.6 percent of the variation in the dependent variable ($R^2 = .476$ see Table 6.5 below).

Table 6.5 Organisational Determinants of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-value
Constant	4.473	5.595	0.000
CMGS	0.141	3.347	0.001
DROPMS	0.471	10.538	0.000
USOPI	0.194	4.350	0.000
Summary Statistics			
R	0.690		
R ²	0.476		
Adjusted R ²	0.472		
S.E.	2.63		
F stat	128.156		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EMP2; Standardized beta values

The results suggest that the factor that contributed most to the total variation in the dependent variable is DROPMS ($\beta = .471$) followed by USOPI ($\beta = .194$). Also, CMGS contributed least in explaining the changes in the dependent with $\beta = .141$. The variables were all statistically significant with a positive relationship with the dependent variable where the p-value for the three variables were less than .05 ($p \leq .05$). It should be noted that although all the three variables were statistically significant and positive, clear and measurable goals might have less influence on the performance monitoring and evaluation process among MMDAs. However, it may

also be explained that the two stages in the PM cycle are not linked to each other, because goal-setting is a distinct phase of PM, and monitoring is an outcome process where action plans are developed to assess the product of the performance cycle during decision-making in the organisation. Nonetheless, it is important for district assemblies to ensure that PM goal-setting is linked to the monitoring and evaluation process to avoid situations where the information obtained is not used for decision-making and any internal business process in organisations.

6.4.3 The Relationship between Organizational Determinants and EPM3_Performance Review as a Dependent Variable

The regression results show that the organisation variables, clear & measurable goals (CMGS), development of results-oriented performance measures (DROPMS) and use of performance information (USOPI) explained the variation in the dependent variable performance review had an $R^2 = 27.5$ percent (see Table 6.6).

Table 6.6 Organisational Determinants of Performance Review as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	3.449	4.034	0.000
CMGS	-0.020	-0.405	0.686
DROPMS	0.367	6.997	0.000
USOPI	0.234	4.455	0.000
Summary Statistics			
R	0.524		
R ²	0.275		
Adjusted R ²	0.270		
S.E.	2.80		
F stat	53.708		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EPM3; Standardized beta values

The regression analysis showed that DROPMS contributed the highest to the changes in the dependent variable, $\beta = .367$ followed by USOPI with $\beta = .234$ while

CMGS had $\beta = -.020$ beta. From the results, it is evident that DROPMS and USOPI have a positive and significant relationship with a performance review, in both variables $p \leq 0.05$. Whereas CMGS had a negative relationship with performance review and was statistically insignificant with $p = .686$. It means that having clear and measurable goals may not necessarily lead to a performance review in the MMDAs.

6.4.4 The Relationship between Organizational Determinants and EPM4 as a Dependent Variable.

The results show that the organisational determinants of performance improvement provided an $R^2 = 26.4$ percent of the total variance in the dependent variable, performance improvement (see Table 6.7).

Table 6.7 Organisational Determinants of Performance Improvement as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	10.473	4.093	0.000
CMGS	0.128	2.504	0.013
DROPMS	0.375	6.977	0.000
USOPI	0.091	1.685	0.093
Summary Statistics			
R	0.514		
R ²	0.264		
Adjusted R ²	0.259		
S.E.	8.385		
F stat	49.767		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EPM4; Standardized beta values

The results indicate that of the three variables, DROPMS provided the highest value ($\beta = .375$) to explain the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, performance improvement. While CMGS contributed $\beta = .521$ followed by USOPI ($\beta = .091$). Except for USOPI which had a positive relationship with the dependent variable yet had no statistical significance ($p = .093$), the remaining two variables, DROPMS had a strong and significant relationship with performance improvement, $p \leq .05$ whereas, CMGS was positive and significant at 5%.

6.5 The Relationship between Environmental Determinants and the Four Indicators of Effective Performance Management

This section is devoted to testing the relationship between the two environmental variables and the four dimensions of effective performance management (EPM). The results of the regression analysis are presented below. The major hypotheses of this model are supported, however, only by stakeholder participation that had statistical significance with the four indicators of EPM. While admitting that statistical significance is key in hypothesis testing, it is instructive to note that the positive relationship between two variables suggests that there is some level of effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

6.5.1 The Relationship between Environmental Determinants and EPM1_Strategic Planning as a Dependent Variable

The results in Table 6.8 show the impact of the two environmental variables, stakeholder participation and political support on strategic planning as an indicator of effective performance management. The model explains 7.8% of the variance on the dependent variable (EPM1_strategic planning). A close observation of the results indicates that stakeholder participation has more explanatory power in predicting strategic planning than does political support ($\beta = .261$) and ($\beta = .044$) respectively. The hypothesis for this model was supported with the two variables that had a positive relationship with strategic planning indicating that MMDAs who engaged in strategic planning were more likely to involve other external stakeholders in the process of formulating PM goals.

Table 6.8 Environmental Determinants of Strategic Planning as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	39.149	25.846	0.000
STAKHOP	0.293	5.251	0.000
POLSP	0.064	0.894	0.372
Summary Statistics			
R	0.279		
R ²	0.078		

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Adjusted R ²	0.073		
S.E.	7.22		
F stat	17.69		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EPM1; Standardized beta values

Stakeholder participation was statistically significant at $p < 0.001$, while political support was not statistically significant with $p = .372$ (37.2%), which is greater than the predicted value of $p \leq 0.05$. This result appears to confirm what previous studies (Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Moynihan et al., 2012a) have stated, that political support has no positive relationship with performance information use, whereas Yang and Hsieh (2007) find there is a significant relationship between elected politician support and performance measurement effectiveness. The implication is that, depending on the context, political support tends to have an impact on performance management. To ensure that political support contributes to strategic planning, there is the need for local government authorities to engage more with local elected officials, and to involve them in the PM process. Also, wider stakeholder consultation and open dialogue between local authorities are needed to improve the strategic formulation of policy goals on performance reforms in the public service.

6.5.2 The Relationship between Environmental Determinants and EPM2_Performance Monitoring and Evaluation as a Dependent Variable

The environmental variables provided a 38.3 percent ($R^2 = .383$) explanatory power of the variation in the dependent variable's performance monitoring and evaluation. Table 6.9 below shows the total variation of the dependent variable being explained by the two variables. The prediction of the model was that environmental variables will have a positive relationship with EPM2 and this hypothesis was supported but only what stakeholder participation had a $p \leq 0.001$.

Table 6.9 Environmental Determinants of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	12.65	18.34	0.000

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
STAKHOP	0.363	7.706	0.000
POLSP	0.052	1.099	0.272
Summary Statistics			
R	0.383		
R ²	0.147		
Adjusted R ²	0.143		
S.E.	3.33		
F stat	34.137		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EMP2; Standardized beta values

From the results, stakeholder participation (STAKHOP) contributed the highest in explaining the changes in the dependent with $\beta=.363$, while political support (POLSP) contributed little to the changes in the dependent variable, thus $\beta=.052$. On the one hand, stakeholder participation has a significant and positive relationship ($p \leq 0.001$) with performance monitoring and evaluation, thus a one (1) unit change in stakeholder participation leads to a corresponding increase in the dependent variable. On the other hand, political support had a positive effect on performance monitoring, yet the relationship between the two variables is not statistically significant ($p=.272$).

6.5.3 The Relationship between Environmental Determinants and EPM3-Performance Review as a Dependent Variable

The results of the regression show that the two environmental variables explain a variation of 14.2% as shown in Table 6.10 below. The hypothesis for this relationship was that two variables will have a positive relationship with the performance review and this was supported in this model.

Table 6.10 Environmental Determinants of Performance Review as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	6.470	10.095	0.000

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
STAKHOP	0.307	6.516	0.000
POLSP	0.142	3.018	0.003
Summary Statistics			
R	0.377		
R ²	0.142		
Adjusted R ²	0.138		
S.E.	3.04		
F stat	35.745		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EPM3; Standardized beta values

The results indicate that both STAKHOP and POLSP had a positive and significant relationship with the performance review with $p \leq .05$, while stakeholder participation contributed the highest ($\beta = .307$) in explaining the variance in the dependent variable, POLSP accounted for ($\beta = .142$) in the model.

6.5.4 The Relationship between Environmental Determinants and EPM4_Performance Management as Dependent Variable

The relationship between stakeholder participation and political support showed an $R^2 = 10.0$ percent with stakeholder participation accounting for $\beta = 0.219$ in the regression results. Table 6.11 depicts the results of this effect size. For this model, the prediction was that stakeholder participation and political support would be positively related to performance improvement of MMDAs in the sense that districts that have stakeholder involvement and higher levels of autonomy from elected officials are more likely to carry out performance improvement training programmes for their staff, while assemblies with less involvement of key stakeholders and less autonomy, may not implement the developmental component of PM. The results showed that both hypotheses were supported.

Table 6.11 Environmental Determinants of Performance Improvement as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	24.601	12.798	0.000

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
STAKHOP	0.219	4.465	0.000
POLSP	0.166	3.384	0.001

Summary Statistics

R	0.316
R ²	0.100
Adjusted R ²	0.096
S.E.	9.215
F stat	23.556
P value	<0.001

Note: Dependent Variable: EPM4; Standardized beta values

The multiple regression for the environmental determinants showed that STAKHOP contributed a high ($\beta=.219$) to explain the variation in the dependent variable followed by POLSP with $\beta=.166$. It must be observed that both variables predicted the dependent variable with $p<0.05$. It means that both stakeholder participation and political support aid district assemblies engaging in performance improvement programmes.

6.6 The Effect of PSM Sub-components and Four Dimensions of Effective Performance Management

The part of the analysis highlights the relationship between the PSM construct and four components of the dependent variable. To observe their individual effect on the four dimensions, a regression analysis was performed for each EPM.

6.6.1 The Relationship between PSM Sub-components and EPM1_Strategic Planning as a Dependent Variable

To test for the effect of public service motivation (PSM) on EPM, a standard regression analysis was performed for the sub-scales of PSM on the four indicators of EPM. The results showed that the five sub-measure of PM provided a 28.7 percent variation in the dependent variable, EPM1 (strategic planning). See Table 6.12 below.

Table 6.12 PSM Sub-Component Determinants of Strategic Planning as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	20.395	8.925	0.000
Attraction	0.054	1.019	0.309
Commitment	0.277	4.405	0.000
Civic Duty	0.201	2.736	0.007
Compassion	0.054	0.700	0.484
SS	0.041	0.559	0.576
Summary Statistics			
R	0.535		
R ²	0.287		
Adjusted R ²	0.278		
S.E.	6.410		
F stat	31.354		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EPM1, Standardized beta values

The analysis shows that ‘commitment to the public interest’ contributed the highest with $\beta=.277$ in explaining the variation in strategic planning followed by ‘civic duty’ ($\beta=.201$) while both ‘attractions to policymaking’ and ‘compassion’ contributed the same proportions in explaining the dependent variable, strategic planning. ‘Self-sacrifice’ contributed little, $\beta=.041$ to explain the changes in strategic planning. From the above Table, only ‘commitment to the public interest’ and ‘civic duty’ were statistically significant with $p \leq 0.05$. Whereas, ‘attraction to policymaking’ ($p=.309$), “compassion” ($p=.484$), “self-sacrifice” ($p=.576$), even though these four sub-components of PSM were positive, had no statistical relevance to the dependent variable, strategic planning.

6.6.2 The Relationship between PSM Sub-Components and EPM2_Performance Monitoring & Evaluation as a Dependent Variable

The results show that the PSM sub-components provided 6.13 percent variation in the dependent variable, performance monitoring and evaluation (see Table 6.13 below).

Table 6.13 PSM Sub-Component Determinants of Performance Monitoring & Evaluation

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	8.134	7.257	0.000
Attraction	0.164	2.930	0.004
Commitment	0.037	0.546	0.586
Civic Duty	0.155	1.954	0.051
Compassion	0.069	0.831	0.406
SS	0.085	1.109	0.268
Summary Statistics			
R	0.413		
R ²	0.171		
Adjusted R ²	0.160		
S.E.	3.241		
F stat	16.55		
P value	<0.001		

Note Dependent Variable: EMP2, Beta= standardized beta values

Among the five PSM sub-components, 'attraction to policymaking' contributed most in explaining the total variance in the dependent variable and was the only the variable that was statistically significant at ($p=.004$) less than the alpha value $p<.05$. Also, 'civic duty' accounted for $\beta=.155$ in the total variation, however, it was not statistically significant ($p=.051$). The rest of the variables, 'self-sacrifice' ($\beta=.085$), 'compassion' ($\beta=.069$) and 'commitment to the public interest' ($\beta=.037$) were all statistically significant and had a positive relationship with performance monitoring and evaluation.

6.6.3 The Relationship between PSM Sub-components and EPM3_Performance Review as a Dependent Variable

The results indicate that the five sub-components of PSM provided a 6.5 percent variation in the dependent variable's performance review. Table 6.14 depicts the results of the regression analysis.

Table 6.14 PSM Sub-Component Determinants of Performance Review as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	6.634	5.994	0.000
Attraction	0.105	1.753	0.080
Commitment	-0.077	-1.072	0.284
Civic Duty	0.050	0.588	0.557
Compassion	0.232	2.600	0.010
SS	-0.037	-0.451	0.652
Summary Statistics			
R	0.256		
R ²	0.065		
Adjusted R ²	0.054		
S.E.	3.21		
F stat	4.64		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: EMP3, Beta= standardized beta values

In Table 6.14 above, ‘compassion’ and ‘attraction to policymaking’ contributed most to the total variance in the dependent variable, with ($\beta=.232$) and ($\beta=.105$) respectively. It must be noted that ‘attraction to policymaking’ is significant at a 10 percent confidence level ($p<0.10$), while ‘compassion’ was positive and significant at 1percent ($p<0.05$). The results also showed that ‘commitment to the public interest’ and ‘self-sacrifice’ had a negative ($\beta=-.077$ and $\beta=-.037$ respectively) and a statistically insignificant effect on performance review. The implication is that a unit change in the two variables would lead to a $-.077$ and $-.037$ decrease in the dependent variable. ‘Civic duty’ had a $\beta=.05$ and with a positive relationship, but failed to reach statistical significance.

6.6.4 The Relationship between PSM Sub-Components and EPM4_Performance Improvement as a Dependent Variable

The results from the multiple regression suggest that the five sub-components explained a variance of 11.8 percent in the dependent. The five PSM sub-scales had a

positive relationship with performance improvement but had no statistical significance with the dependent variable (see Table 6.15 below).

Table 6.15 PSM Sub-Component Determinants of Performance Improvement as a Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	17.271	5.45	0.000
Attraction	-0.040	-0.681	0.496
Commitment	0.111	1.57	0.118
Civic Duty	0.098	1.18	0.237
Compassion	0.131	1.51	0.133
SS	0.079	0.979	0.328
Summary Statistics			
R	0.344		
R ²	0.118		
Adjusted R ²	0.107		
S.E.	9.158		
F stat	<0.001		
P value			

Note Dependent Variable: EPM4, Beta= standardized beta values

From the Table above, it was observed that among the five indicators of the PSM construct, ‘compassion’ contributed with $\beta = .131$ to explain the variance in the dependent variable followed by ‘commitment to the public interest’ ($\beta = .111$), ‘civic duty’ ($\beta = .098$), ‘self-sacrifice’ ($\beta = .079$) and “attraction to policymaking” had a negative relationship with the dependent variable with $\beta = -.040$.

6.6.5 The Relationship between Five PSM Sub-components and Effective Performance Management as a Single Dependent Variable.

The results of this model indicate that the five sub-scales provided a total of $R^2 = 25.5$ percent in explaining the variance in the dependent variable’s effective performance management. The Table below describes the various contributions of each of the five components using Standardized coefficient values (Beta) (See Table 6.16 below).

Table 6.16 PSM Sub-Component Effect on Effective Performance Management as a Single Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	39.915	9.269	0.000
Attraction	0.070	1.259	0.209
Commitment	0.186	2.819	0.005
Civic Duty	0.179	2.325	0.021
Compassion	0.118	1.435	0.152
SS	0.050	0.640	0.518
Summary Statistics			
R	0.505		
R ²	0.255		
Adjusted R ²	0.245		
S.E.	12.001		
F stat	25.607		
P value	<0.001		

Note Dependent Variable: Total EPM; Method= Enter; Standardized beta values

In Table 6.16 above, ‘commitment to the public interest’ contributed highest in explaining the total variation of the dependent variable, total effective performance management (TEPM) with $\beta=.186$ followed by ‘civic duty’ ($\beta=.179$), ‘compassion’ ($\beta=.118$), ‘attraction to policymaking’ ($\beta=.070$), and ‘self-sacrifice’ ($\beta=.050$). All the five variables had a positive relationship with EPM, however, only two of the variables were statistically significant, “commitment to the public interest” ($p\leq.005$) and “civic duty” ($p\leq.021$). These results do not deviate from the previous analysis where the four components of EPM were used to test the five variables.

6.6.6 The Relationship between PSM as a Single Predictor variable and the Four Dimensions of Effective Performance Management as Individual Dependent Variables.

To test whether the combined PSM construct had unique effects on the four dimensions individually, a standard regression model was performed and each of the models indicated that PSM as a single variable has a positive relationship with the all four dependent variables. For the first model ($PMS \rightarrow EPM1SP$), the variance

explained is $R^2 = 24.9\%$, the second model, which is mapped with EPM2PME, R^2 is 20.7% , while EPM3PERREW $R^2 = 11.0\%$. For the EPM4PIMPROV, the predictor (PSM) explained 13.7% of the variations ($R^2 = 0.137$). Table 6. 17 below shows the standardized beta coefficients and the T-statistics.

Table 6.17 Summary Results of PSM effect on Four dimensions of Effective Performance Management

Model	Variable	b	T-stat	R	R ²	Adj.R ²	S.E.	F	P-value (<)	Durbin W
1	Constant	20.834	9.467							
	Total	0.499	11.191	0.499	0.249	0.247	6.579	125.24	0.001	1.965
	PSM	10.183	7.569							
2	Constant	0.455	9.974	0.455	0.207	0.205	3.860	99.485	0.001	1.731
	Total									
3	PSM	15.816	5.625							
		0.331	4.782	0.331	0.110	0.107	8.068	46.967	0.001	1.813
4	Constant									
	Total	24.539	5.079							
	PSM	0.37	7.773	0.370	0.137	0.135	13.846	60.427	0.001	1.990
	Constant									
	Total									
	PSM									

Note: Coefficients are standardized beta values, Method: Enter

Model 1: df=394, N=380

Model 2: df=406, N=384

Model 3: df=407, N=382

Model 4: df=398, N=381

In Table 6.17, the results of the bivariate regressions for each model indicate that PSM predicted EPM1SP (strategic planning), EPMPME (performance monitoring & evaluation), and EPMPIMPROV (performance improvement) better than it did on EPM3PERREW (performance review). For the most part, respondents who had higher levels of PSM had an impact on strategic planning where staff who scored high on PSM in their districts were more likely to engage in strategic planning,

monitoring and evaluation of their KPIs. At the same time, employees who had higher levels of PSM in their MMAs also organised performance improvement programmes for them. However, the performance review variance was explained by the predictor (PSM) at 11.0%. In terms of their coefficients, the PSM variable contributed more in explaining EPM1SP ($\beta=0.499$), followed by EPM2PME ($\beta=0.455$), EPM4PIMPROV ($\beta=0.37$) and PEMPERREW ($\beta=0.331$). The PSM is statistically significant in all the four dimensions of effective performance management.

6.7 The effect of the Main Variables of the Study on the Dependent

Variable

This section attempts to analyse the effect of each of the six variables on effective performance management. First, the effect of each antecedent's factors is regressed on the dependent variable before combining their overall effect.

6.7.1 The Relationship between Organizational Determinants and Effective Performance Management (EPM) as a Single Dependent Variable

It is instructive to observe that when the four indicators of EPM were combined to form a single dependent variable, the results showed a total variance of 49.8 percent (see Table 6.18 below).

Table 6.18 Organisational Determinants of Effective Performance Management as a Single Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	32.498	10.519	0.000
CMGS	1.016	4.026	0.000
DROPMS	1.000	9.959	0.000
USOPI	0.544	4.298	0.000
Summary Statistics			
R	0.706		
R ²	0.498		
Adjusted R ²	0.495		
S.E.	9.873		
F stat	130.481		
P value	<0.001		

Note Dependent Variable: Total EPM; Standardized beta values

The results suggest that clear & measurable goals (CMGS) accounted for $\beta=1.016$ in the model, followed by the development of results-oriented performance measures (DROPMS) in explaining the dependent variable's, effective performance management, while the 'use of performance information' (USOPI) provided $\beta=.544$ to predict the changes in the dependent variable. With regards to statistical significance, all the variables were positive with $p \leq 0.05$ confident level. From this result, it can be observed that the four indicators performed better than a single dependent variable measuring the same construct, rather than individual dependent variables. Nevertheless, except for CMGS and the performance review, all the organisational antecedent variables have a positive and significant relationship with each indicator.

6.7.2 The Relationship between Environmental Determinants and EPM as a Single Dependent Variable

The influence of the environmental determinants showed an $R^2 = 16.0\%$, with 'stakeholder participation' contributing more to the total variance of the dependent variable, EPM (see Table 6.19 below).

Table 6.19 Environmental Determinants of Effective Performance Management as a Single Dependent Variable

Variable	B	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	63.583	23.230	0.000
STAKHOP	0.715	7.061	0.000
POLSP	0.327	2.556	0.011
Summary Statistics			
R	0.400		
R ²	0.160		
Adjusted R ²	0.156		
S.E.	12.70		
F stat	38.44		
P value	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: Total EPM; Standardized beta values

Whereas 'stakeholder participation' contributed $\beta=.715$ in predicting the dependent variable, 'political support' accounted for $\beta=.327$ to predict a positive

relationship with EPM yet obtain non-significant impact on the variable ($p=.011$). From the previous regression results for each of the four indicators (EPM1, 2, 3 & 4) of the dependent variable, EPM, the environmental determinants had positive effect on each of the four indicators, except that ‘political support’ had a non-statistical significant relationship with EPM1 (strategic planning) and EPM2 (performance monitoring & evaluation), while ‘stakeholder participation’ had a positive and significant relationship with all the four indicators of EPM.

6.7.3 The Relationship between PSM Construct and EPM as a Single Dependent Variable

To observe the relationship between PSM and EPM, a bivariate regression was performed, and the results show that PSM could only explain 24.7 percent of the total variation in the dependent. Table 6.20 shows the coefficients, the beta value of the two variables.

Table 6.20 The Effect of PSM Construct on Effective Performance Management as a Single Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Constant	40.035	9.525	0.000
PSM	0.497	11.16	0.000

Note: Dependent Variable: Total EPM; Standardized beta values; $R=.497$; $R^2=.247$; Adjusted $R^2=.245$; S.E.= 12.01; $F=124.43$; $P=.000$

In Table 7.20 above, PSM contributed $\beta=.497$ standardized coefficients to explain the changes in the dependent. The relationship between PSM and EPM is positive, indicating a unit increase in PSM will lead to corresponding .497 change in EPM. Besides being positive, PSM has a significant effect on EPM with $p \leq 0.001$ ($p=.000$).

6.8 The Effect of Control Variables and Independent Variables on EPM

This part explains the effect of the overall independent variables on the dependent variable and a regression analysis involving seven control variables: age, sex, experience, grade, education, supervisor, and division. The second part of the

section uses a Stepwise Regression to observe the best predictors of effective performance management prior to testing the hypotheses of the study.

6.8.1 Regression Results for the Overall Effect of the Independent Variables on Effective Performance Management as a Single Variable

The overall effect of the six variables was regressed on the dependent variable. Using standardized coefficient values, the results suggest that the model can explain 53.6 percent of the total variance of the dependent variable, EPM (See Table 6.21 below).

Table 6.21 Regression Results for the Overall Effect of the Independent Variables on Effective Performance Management as a Single Dependent Variable

Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value	Collinearity Statistics		Durbin Watson
				Tolerance	VIF	
Constant	20.31	5.23	0.000			
CMGS	0.128	2.68	0.008	0.561	1.782	
DROPMS	0.362	7.34	0.000	0.523	1.912	
USOPI	0.197	4.01	0.000	0.530	1.889	
STAKHOP	0.021	0.492	0.623	0.673	1.485	
POLSP	0.066	1.68	0.095	0.811	1.232	
PSM	0.193	4.45	0.000	0.677	1.476	
						1.49
Summary						
Statistics						
	0.732					
R	0.536					
R ²	0.529					
Adjusted R ²	9.55					
S.E.	70.17					
F stat	<0.001					
P value						

Note: Dependent Variable: Total EPM, T- Stat= Standardized values

The 'development of result-oriented performance measures' (DROPMS) contributed the most with ($\beta=.362$) followed by USOPI ($\beta=.197$), PSM ($\beta=.193$) and CMGS ($\beta=.123$) in explaining the variations in the dependent variable. While the environmental variables contributed least in explaining the EPM, with STAKHOP ($\beta=.021$) and POLSP ($\beta=.066$). It can be observed that all the variables had a positive relationship that was statistically significant ($p \leq .05$) with the dependent variable. Three variables had the highest effect on effective performance management (DROPMS, USOPI and PSM) with p values less than .05 ($p=.000$), while 'political support' was significant at 10 percent ($p < 0.10$). However, it was noted that only 'stakeholder participation' was not statistically significant, suggesting MMAs were not involving others outside the managerial unit in the performance management implementation especially inter-sectoral collaborators may not be part of the implementation of the KPAs of district assemblies. While 'political support' was statistically significant at 10% ($p=.095$).

The implication is that political actors may be involved in the process because the KPAs of most district assemblies are policy programmes of the government where most elected officials are interested in their implementation due to the ability of those programmes to affect their political fortunes. Nevertheless, at the local governance level, it is more beneficial to involve other intersectoral actors because their input into the performance cycle may help MMAs (to) exceed their targets in the long run. Except for the stakeholder participation variable which is not significant in the overall total effective performance management (EPM1, EPM2, EPM3 & EPM4), there is no significant deviation from the previous individual results.

6.8.2 The Overall Effect of the Independent Variables and Control Variables on EPM as the Dependent Variable.

The regression results show that without controlling for any variable of interest, the six variables of the study, CMGS, DROPMS, USOPI, STAKHOP, POLSP and PSM explained a variance of 54.1% of the variation in EPM in the first model. However, after the control variables were introduced, both independent and dependent variables provided an explained 55.5% in the changes observed in EPM

implying a 1.9-point change in the previous model, $R^2 = 53.6\%$ (see Table 6.22 below).

Table 6.22 The Effect of Independent and Control Variables on Effective Performance Management as a Single Dependent Variable

Model	Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
1	Constant	19.982	4.979	0.000
	PSM	0.189	4.239	0.000
	CMGS	0.123	4.492	0.013
	DROPMS	0.348	6.987	0.000
	USOPI	0.223	4.375	0.000
	STAKHOP	0.033	0.743	0.458
2	POLSP	0.059	1.453	0.147
	Constant	19.830	3.928	0.000
	PSM	0.183	4.029	0.000
	CMGS	0.104	2.026	0.044
	DROPMS	0.348	6.981	0.000
	USOPI	0.210	4.004	0.000
	STAKHOP	0.041	0.912	0.363
	POLSP	0.062	1.518	0.130
	age group	0.037	0.741	0.459
	sex	0.080	2.090	0.037
	education	-0.007	-0.167	0.867
	experience	0.016	0.320	0.749
	Grade	-0.076	-1.987	0.465
	Division	-0.028	-0.732	0.465
	Supervisor	0.017	0.420	0.674

Summary Statistics	Model 1	Model 2
R	0.735	0.745
R ²	0.541	0.551

Model	Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
Adjusted R ²	0.533	0.538		
S.E.	9.44	9.39		
F stat	67.47	32.30		
P value	<0.001	<0.001		

Note: Dependent Variable: Total EPM: Method: Enter

- Predictors: (Constant), Total POLSP, Total CMGS, Total STAKHOP, Total PSM, Total DROPMS, Total USOPI
- Predictors: (Constant), Total POLSP, Total CMGS, Total STAKHOP, Total PSM, Total DROPMS, Total USOPI, Division, Supervisor, Grade, education, sex, experience, age group

To observe if there are changes in the dependent variable, EPM after controlling for some of the seven variables (age, sex, grade, education, experience, division, and supervisor), the first model shows that DROPMS contributed most ($\beta=.348$), in explaining the variance in EPM, followed by USOPI ($\beta=.223$), PSM ($\beta=.189$), CMGS ($\beta=.123$) and POLSP ($\beta=.059$). While stakeholder participation (STAKHOP) contributed the least ($\beta=.033$) in the total variance of the dependent variable.

However, after controlling for age group, sex, education, experience, grade, division and supervisor, DROPMS remained unchanged, while PSM dropped by .006 points ($\beta=.189$) in the second model. Also, CMGS and USOPI decreased by .126 ($\beta=.104$) and .013 ($\beta=.210$) respectively. However, STAKHOP and POLSP increased from ($\beta=.033$ to .041) and ($\beta=.059$ to .062). All the variables in the model were positive in both models, except education, grade and division.

In the two models above, after controlling for the seven variables, PSM, USOPI and DROPMS were statistically significant at $p \leq 0.05$ ($p=.000$), while CMGS was statistically significant at 5 percent ($p=.044$). It should be noted that both STAKHOP and POLSP were not statistically significant. With the control variables, age group, education, experience, division, and supervisor were not significant. However, grade had a negative relationship with EPM, but with a statistical significance at 5% ($p=.048$), implying that an increase in age will lead to a unit decrease in EPM. While sex had a positive relationship and significant relationship with EPM at a 5 percent confidence level ($p=.037$). The implication is that four control variables: age, education, experience, division and supervisor do not have an

impact on employee performance indicators attainment levels. However, an increase in an employee grade leads to a decrease in an employee's performance on their KPIs. Yet, being a female or a male has a significant impact on employee performance on goals and KPIs.

6.8.3 Stepwise Regression for Overall effect of the Independent Variables on the Dependent Variable

To find if all the explanatory variables were good predictors of the dependent variable (EPM), a stepwise regression was performed after the standard regression models. The results of the output showed that when DROPMS was included and the other five variables, CMGS, USOPI, SKAHOP POLSP, and PSM were excluded in the first model, DROPMS explained a total variation in the criterion variable of about 43.6 percent. While in the second model, when CMGS, USOPI, STAKHOP, and POLSP were excluded, R^2 increased to 48.1 percent, indicating a 4.5 units change. After the third model was run, R^2 increased to 52.4 percent when CMGS, STAKHOP and POLSP were excluded in the regression. The fourth model, when STAKHOP and POLSP were excluded from the model, $R^2=53.6$ which showed an improvement over the three other models it showed a 1.2 percent point change. It should be noted that the fourth model is like the standard regression model in the earlier analysis that was conducted for EPM ($R^2=53.6$) as a single dependent variable of the study, involving all the six independent variables. The implication is that organisational antecedents and PSM are better predictors, and offer a significant explanation in the total variance of the dependent variable (see Table 6.23 below).

Table 6.23 Stepwise Regression Model for Overall Effect of the Six Independent variables on the Dependent Variable

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. Error of Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	0.661 ^a	0.436	0.435	10.458	
2	0.694 ^b	0.481	0.478	10.047	
3	0.724 ^c	0.524	0.521	9.631	
4	0.729 ^d	0.532	0.527	9.631	1.503

a. Predictors: (Constant), DROPMS

b. Predictors: (Constant), DROPMS, Total PSM

c. Predictors: (Constant), DROPMS, Total PSM, Total USOPI

d. Predictors: (Constant), DROPMS, Total PSM, Total USOPI, Total CMGS

e. Dependent Variable: EPM

In the above, the four models were statistically significant with p values ≤ 0.05 confidence level. The results also showed that DROPMS contributed $\beta = .661$ in the first model, $\beta = .546$ in the second model, $\beta = .401$ in the third model and $\beta = .382$ in the fourth model. Also, PSM provided $\beta = .241$ in the second model, $\beta = .237$ in the third model and $\beta = .204$ in the last model. USOPI accounted for $\beta = .255$ and $\beta = .218$ in the third and fourth models. CMGS accounted for $\beta = .110$ in the third model contributing least in explaining the variance in the dependent variable (see Table 6.24 below).

Table 6.24 Summary Regression Results for the Overall Effect of Six Independent Variables on EPM

Model	Variable	b	T-stat	P-Value
1	Constant	46.775	19.514	0.000
	DROPMS	0.661	16.899	0.000
2	Constant	31.108	8.623	0.000
	DROPMS	0.546	12.778	0.000
	PSM	0.241	5.641	0.000
3	Constant	24.597	6.763	0.000
	DROPMS	0.401	8.339	0.000
	PSM	0.237	5.786	0.000
	USOPI	0.255	5.781	0.000
4	Constant	22.288	5.953	0.000
	DROPMS	0.382	7.892	0.000
	PSM	0.204	4.735	0.000
	USOPI	0.218	4.683	0.000
	CMGS	0.110	2.366	0.019
Summary Statistics	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
R	0.661	0.694	0.724	0.729
R²	0.436	0.481	0.524	0.532
Adjusted R²	0.435	0.478	0.521	0.527
S.E.	10.458	10.047	9.631	9.571
F stat	285.576	134.917	134.917	103.854
P value	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

Note Dependent Variable: Total EPM, Standardized beta values; Dependent Variable: Total EPM, Beta Values=Standardized Coefficients,

From the Stepwise regression approach, it is evident that the organisational determinants have more predictive power, followed by PSM, than the environmental determinants. The implication is that organisational determinants enhance PM

effectiveness, yet PSM contributes to the process of achieving individual KPIs. The implication is that to ensure significant contributions of outside actors, like clients, intersectoral collaborators, and elected officials who are not directly involved in the day-to-day administration of the district assemblies, organisational leaders must engage in broader consultation to include them in the PM. However, environmental determinants though they not have a statistically significant relationship with EPM through Stepwise method, it does not mean that the variables do not contribute to the performance cycle. Researchers have often disapproved of this type of method which excludes variables that are believed to contribute little to explain the variation in the dependent variable (Pallant, 2011). Also, since the early results showed that the two variables have some level of effect on the four dimensions of the dependent variable, they will be retained in the hypotheses testing. Table 6.25 below depicts the summary of the results of the multiple regression analysis and the outcomes of the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. The regression results are used to test the proposed hypotheses for the models.

There are 11 main hypotheses and 44 sub-hypotheses (see Table 6.25 below).

Table 6.25 Hypotheses Results

Hypothesis	Predicted Relationship	Estimate	T-stat	P-value	Outcome
H1a	CMGS→EPM1	0.224	4.638	0.000	Supported
H1b	CMGS→EPM2	0.141	3.595	0.001	supported
H1c	CMGS→EPM3	-.020	-0.405	0.686	Not supported
H1d	CMGS →EPM4	0.128	2.504	0.013	Supported
H1e	CMGS→TEPM	0.128	2.68	0.008	supported
H2a	DROPMS→EPM1	0.342	6.651	0.000	Supported
H2b					
H2c	DROPMS→EPM2	0.471	10.538	0.000	Supported
H2d	DROPMS→EPM3	0.367	6.997	0.000	Supported

Hypothesis	Predicted Relationship	Estimate	T-stat	P-value	Outcome
H2e	DROPMS→EPM4	0.375	6.977	0.000	Supported
	DROPMS→TEPM	0.362	7.34	0.008	supported
H3a	USOPI→EPM1	0.128	2.482	0.013	Supported
H3b	USOPI→EPM2	0.194	4.350	0.000	Supported
H3c	USOPI→EPM3	0.234	4.455	0.000	Supported
H3d	USOPI→EPM4	0.091	1.685	0.093	Not supported
H3e	USOPI→TEPM	0.197	4.01	0.000	Supported
H4a	STAKHOP→EPM1	0.293	5.251	0.000	Supported
H4b	STAKHOP→EPM2	0.363	7.706	0.000	Supported
H4c	STAKHOP→EPM3	0.307	6.516	0.000	Supported
H4d	STAKHOP→EPM4	0.219	4.465	0.000	Supported
H4e	STAKHOP→TEPM	0.021	0.492	0.623	Not supported
H5a	POLSP→EPM1	0.064	0.894	0.372	Not supported
H5b	POLSP→EPM2	0.052	1.099	0.272	Not supported
H5c	POLSP→EPM3	0.142	3.018	0.003	Supported
H5d	POLSP→EPM4	0.166	3.384	0.001	Supported
H5e	POLSP→TEPM	0.066	1.68	0.095	Not supported
H6a	ATTRA→EPM1	0.054	1.019	0.309	Not supported
H6b	ATTRA→EPM2	0.164	2.930	0.004	Supported
H6c					

Hypothesis	Predicted Relationship	Estimate	T-stat	P-value	Outcome
H6d	ATTRA→EPM3	0.105	1.753	0.080	Not supported
	ATTRA→EPM4	-0.040	-0.681	0.496	Not supported
H6e	ATTRA→TEPM	0.070	1.259	0.209	Not supported
H7a	COMMIT→EPM1	0.277	4.405	0.000	Supported
H7b					
	COMMIT→EPM2	.037	.546	0.586	Not supported
H7c					
	COMMIT→EPM3	-.077	-1.072	0.284	Not supported
H7d					
	COMMIT→EPM4	.111	1.57	0.118	Not supported
H7e					
	COMMIT→TEPM	.186	2.819	0.005	Supported
H8a					
	Civic duty→EPM1	.201	2.736	0.007	Supported
H8b					
H8c	Civic duty→EPM2	.155	1.954	0.051	Not supported
	Civic duty→EPM3	.050	.588	0.557	Not supported
H8d					
	Civic duty→EPM4	.098	1.18	0.237	Not supported
H8e					
	Civic duty→TEPM	.179	2.325	0.021	Supported
H9a					
	COMP→EPM1	.054	.700	0.484	Not supported
H9b					
H9c	COMP→EPM2	.069	.831	0.406	Not supported
	COMP→EPM3	.232	2.600	0.010	Not supported
H9d					
	COMP→EPM4	.131	1.51	0.133	Not supported
H9e					

Hypothesis	Predicted Relationship	Estimate	T-stat	P-value	Outcome
	COMP→TEPM	0.118	1.435	0.152	Not supported
H10a					
H10b	Self-Sacr→EPM1	0.041	0.559	0.576	Not supported
H10c	Self-Sacr→EPM2	0.085	1.109	0.268	Not supported
H10d	Self-Sacr→EPM3	-0.037	-0.451	0.652	Not supported
H10e	Self-Sacr→EPM4	0.079	0.979	0.328	Not supported
	Self-Sacr→TEPM	0.050	0.648	0.518	Not supported
H11a					
H11b	PSM→EPM1	0.512	11.816	0.001	Supported
H11c	PSM→EPM2	0.405	8.933	0.001	Supported
H11d	PSM→EPM3	0.231	4.782	0.001	supported
H11e	PSM→EPM4	0.328	6.924	0.001	Supported
	TPSM→TEPM	.193	4.45	0.001	Supported

Note: The coefficients are standardized beta values

From Table 6.25 above, out of the fifty-five hypotheses, only 29 of the hypotheses were supported at a $p \leq .05$ significant level, while 26 of them were not supported by the prediction $p \leq .05$. However, out of the 26 unsupported hypotheses, the following four pairs were significant at $p \leq .10$ level: COMP → EPM3 ($p = .10$), POLS → TEPM ($p = .09$), USOPI → EPM4 ($p = .093$), and ATTRA → EPM3 ($p = .080$). The rest of the 22 pairs failed to reach 10 percent significance levels. It is important to observe that the organisational determinants predicted better than the environmental

determinants with only CMGS→EPM3 not being significant and USOPI→EPM4 while the rest of the organisational variables were statistically significant with the four dimensions of the dependent variable. For environmental variables, STAKHOP predicted the four dimensions better than the combined total EPM.

Additionally, POLSP predicted accurately on EPM3 and EPM4. Most of the PSM sub-components were not statistically significant, except for the following: ATTRA→EPM2 ($p=.004$), COMMIT→EPM1 ($p=.000$), COMMIT→TEPM ($p=.005$), Civic duty→EPM1 ($p=.007$), Civic duty→TEPM ($p=.021$), and the overall effect of the PSM construct and total EPM, TPSM→TEPM ($p=.000$). This result indicates that the PSM variable is better predicted for EPM as a combined variable. Therefore, the subsequent analyses will use the PSM construct as a single predictor variable.

6.9 Research Hypotheses Test Results

The results for multiple regressions for the subscales of the dependent variable (EPM1, EPM2, EPM3 & EPM4), indicate that there is no sharp contrast when the variables are combined as a single dependent variable for effective performance management. Also, the interaction between explanatory variables, clear & measurable goals, development of results-oriented performance measures, and use of performance information representing organisational determinants did not show many deviations on EPM both as separate variables and a single variable. However, the environmental determinants: 'stakeholder participation' and 'political support' show different effects on the individual sub-components and the combined EPM as a dependent variable.

Furthermore, the PSM sub-components also performed better as a single variable rather than as individual components. The PSM construct was highly significant at a $p \leq 0.05$ confidence level. Therefore, the regression results were used to test four main hypotheses of the study. However, because of the results of the four dimensions EPM showed significant variation in with the environmental and PSM determinants, the regression results present them individually and as a combined single variable in the fifth model. The multiple regression results were used to explain the variance of the dependent variables against the five independent variables in the models and how much each independent variable contributed to the total

variance of the dependent variables. The regression results are summarized in Table 6.26.

Table 6.26 Summary of Five Models Regression Results

Equation/ Model		Dependent Variable				
		1	2	3	4	5
Independent variables						
CMGS		0.131**	0.132**	-0.025	0.127**	0.128***
DROPMS		0.238***	0.436***	0.338***	0.307***	0.362***
USOPI		0.160***	0.164***	0.203***	0.062	0.197***
STAKHOP		-0.025	0.064	0.115**	-0.016	0.021
POLSP		0.007	0.007	0.078*	0.152***	0.066*
PSM		0.032*	0.082*	-0.022	0.086*	0.193***
Summary Statistics	df	379	390	391	382	364
	R ²	0.408	0.50	0.309	0.276	0.536
	Adj. R ²	0.398	0.492	0.298	0.265	0.529
	F	43.486	64.913	29.137	24.261	70.172
	P	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

Note: Beta values are standardized coefficients, Method: Enter, ***= P<0.001, **=P <0.05, *=P<0.01

1= (EPM1SP): Effective Performance Management 1-strategic planning; 2= (EPM3PME): Effective Performance Management 2-performance monitoring & evaluation; 3= (EPM3PERREW): Effective performance management 3-performance review; 4= (EPM4PIMPROV): Effective Performance Management 4-performance improvement; 5=TEPM= total effective performance management; CMGS= clear & measurable goals; DROPMS- development of results-oriented performance measures; USOPI- use of performance information; STAKHOP- stakeholder participation; POLSP- political support; PSM= public service motivation

6.9.1 Model 1

This model explains that strategic planning (EPM1SP) is the dependent variable and it is used to test for six hypotheses (H1a, H2a, H3a, H4a, H5a, and H11a).

$$\text{EPM1SP} = a + 0.131\text{Cmgs} + 0.238\text{Dropms} + 0.160\text{Usopi} - 0.025\text{Stakhop} + 0.007\text{Polsp} + 0.302\text{PSM} + \varepsilon$$

The results for this model suggest that four variables, CMGS, DROPMS, USOPI and PSM were statistically significant in which each the four variables had a positive effect on strategic planning, with ($F_{6,379} = 43.486$, $p = 0.000$, $R^2 = 0.408$). Also, the Adjusted R^2 suggests that 39.8 percent of the variance in strategic planning was explained by the model. Two of the hypotheses were not supported (H4a and H5a), thus there is no significant effect of stakeholder participation and political support on strategic planning, whereas, four hypotheses were supported (H1a, H2a, H3a and H11a). This implies that ‘clear & measurable goals’, ‘development of result-oriented performance measures’, and ‘use of performance information’ had a significant effect on strategic planning of MMAs. In this model, PSM had the highest effect on strategic planning where an increase in PSM will lead to an .302 increase in strategic planning, followed by the ‘development of result-oriented performance measures’, .238, ‘use of performance information’, .160, and ‘clear & measurable goals’, .131. Stakeholder participation had a negative relationship with strategic planning which implies an increase in stakeholder participation will lead to -0.025 decrease in strategic planning. Meanwhile ‘political support’ had positive (0.007) relationship with but had no significant effect on strategic planning.

6.9.2 Model 2

The second model was used to for performance monitoring and evaluation (EPM2PME) as the second dimension of EPM. The model was developed to test six hypotheses like the previous model, (H1b, H2b, H3b, H4b, H5b & H11b).

$$\text{EPM2PME} = a + 0.132\text{Cmgs} + 0.436\text{Dropms} + 0.164\text{Usopi} + 0.064\text{Stakhop} + 0.007\text{Polsp} + 0.082\text{PSM} + \varepsilon$$

The second model results showed that only four out of the six variables were statistically significant, DROPMS (0.436***), USOPI (0.164***), CMGS (0.132**),

and PSM (0.082*). While development of results-oriented performance measures (DROPMS) had the highest (0.436) significant effect on performance monitoring & evaluation, PSM had the least effect on performance monitoring & evaluation (0.082). With the environmental determinants, stakeholder participation contributed more (0.064) in the total variance than political support (0.007). Interestingly, a close observation suggests that political support had the same beta values in both models (1st and 2nd models, $\beta=0.007$) indicating there is no significant effect of the variable on either strategic planning and performance monitoring & evaluation of MMAs. In most parts, the independent variables explained the variations in performance monitoring & evaluation about 50 percent in the model and it was statistically significant at $F_{6,390}=64.913$, $p<0.001$. The Adjusted R^2 provided a 49.2 percent explanation of the variation in performance monitoring & evaluation. Four hypotheses were supported by the model, (H1b, H2b, H3b, & H11b), while H4b and H5b were not supported, thus stakeholder participation and political support do not influence performance monitoring & evaluation in this study.

6.9.3 Model 3

The third model was developed to test whether there is a difference in a performance review of the sample. The hypotheses tested in this model includes H1c, H2c, H3c, H4c, H5c & H11c.

$$\text{EPM3PERREW} = a - 0.025\text{Cmgs} + 0.338\text{Dropms} + 0.203\text{Usopi} + 0.115\text{Stakhop} + 0.078\text{Polsp} - 0.022\text{PSM} + \varepsilon$$

The results indicate that the six variables explained a total variation of 30.9 percent in a performance review (EPM3PERREW), $F_{6,391}=29.137$, $p<0.001$, whereas DROPMS contributed the most to the total variance, which implies that an increase in development of results-oriented performance measures will lead to a corresponding 0.338. Use of performance information followed with 0.203, stakeholder participation, 0.115 and political support, 0.078. However, clear & measurable goals and PSM had a negative relationship with performance review and they had no significant effect on performance review. The implications are that one-unit change in both variables will lead to -0.025 and -0.022 respectively. The hypotheses supported in the model are H2c, H3c, H4c, and H5c, while H1c and H11c were not supported.

6.9.4 Model 4

The fourth model tested the effect of the six independent antecedent variables on performance improvement (EPM4PIMPROV). The model tested six hypotheses (H1d, H2d, H3d, H4d, H5d & H11d).

$$\text{EPM4PIMPROV} = a + 0.127\text{Cmgs} + 0.307\text{Dropms} + 0.062\text{Usopi} - 0.016\text{Stakhop} + 0.152\text{Polsp} + 0.086\text{PSM} + \varepsilon$$

The results demonstrate that the total variation in performance improvement was explained by 27.6 percent, where the F-statistic was defined as $F_{6, 382} = 24.261$, and $p < 0.001$. For each of the weights of the independent variable effect on performance improvement, DROPMS contributed the most, in which an increase in the variable will lead to an 0.307 increase in performance improvement. Political support contributed $\beta = 0.152$, followed by clear & measurable goals, $\beta = 0.127$ and PSM contributed, $\beta = 0.086$ and the variable with least contribution came from the use of performance information, $\beta = 0.062$. Stakeholder participation had a negative and non-significant effect on performance improvement implying that a unit change in stakeholder participation will lead to a -0.016 in performance improvement.

For the hypothesis testing, only four of the six hypotheses were supported, like in the three previous models, H1d, H2d, H5d and H11d, while H3d and H4d were not supported. This means that the use of performance information may not lead to performance improvement, and at the same time, involving stakeholders may not lead to MMAs organising performance improvement programmes for their staff.

6.9.5 Model 5

The model used to test the main hypotheses of the study was to find out if the six variables, CMGS, DROPMS, USOPI, STAKHOP, POLSP and PSM had significant effect on effective performance management as a single dependent variable. Six (6) hypotheses were involved, H1e, H2e, H3e, H4e, H5e and H11e.

$$\text{TEPM} = a + 0.128\text{Cmgs} + 0.362\text{Dropms} + 0.197\text{Usopi} + 0.021\text{Stakhop} + 0.066\text{Polsp} + 0.193\text{PSM} + \varepsilon$$

Five (5) variables were statistically significant at $p < 0.001$, DROPMS (0.362***), USOPI (0.197***), PSM (0.193***) and CMGS (0.128***) while POLSP was significant at $p < 0.01$ (0.066*). However, stakeholder participation had no

significant effect on total effective performance management. The variance explained by the model is 53.6 percent, $F_{6, 364}=70.172$, $p<0.001$. The model support five (5) hypotheses, H1e, H2e, H3e, H5e and H11e while H4e was not supported, thus there is no significant effect of stakeholder participation on effective performance management. This result does not deviate from the previous regression analysis performed earlier to test each determinant on the individual and combined scale of EPM. This finding is consistent with the literature that stakeholder participation has no statistical significance with performance management (Yang & Hiseh, 2007).

6.9.6 Revised Model for Effective Performance Management

Based on the results of the hypotheses of the study, it is evident that organisational determinants predicted effective performance management better than the environmental antecedents. At same, the PSM variable contributed more in explaining the dependent in the main model (Model 5) with 0.197, even better than clear and measurable goal with $\beta=0.128$. In terms of the variables which contributed most to explain the model, it is evident that ‘development of result-oriented performance measures’ has the most significant effect on effective performance with $\beta=0.362$ of the total variation (53.6%) in the model with an adjusted R^2 explaining 52.6 percent of the variance in effective performance management. While all the variables predicted a positive relationship with effective performance management, not all the variables were statistically significant. For example, ‘development of result-oriented performance measures’ is an effective predictor, followed by ‘use of performance information’ and ‘public service motivation’. While the ‘clear & measurable goals’ prediction is better than ‘political support’. However, for ‘stakeholder participation’, it had no significant effect on ‘total effective performance management’.

Even more, ‘stakeholder participation’ only had a significant effect on ‘performance review’, which may be influenced by the fact that MMDAs are rated by Functional Organisational Assessments Teams (FOAT) during the District Development Capacity Facility (DDF) allocations. As part of the FOAT minimum conditions, stakeholder consultation in the budgeting and planning process is mandatory. While acknowledging that stakeholder involvement is important, its ability to predict EPM outcomes has no statistical relevance. Therefore, the revised

model of EPM will include it, but only to indicate its weak relationship with the dependent variable. Additionally, with the individual dimensions of EPM, performance monitoring & evaluation had the highest $R^2 = 50.0$ percent followed by ‘strategic planning’, $R^2 = 40.8$ percent, ‘performance review’ 30.9 percent, and ‘performance improvement’, 27.6 percent. Figure 6.1 below represents the revised model for the quantitative findings.

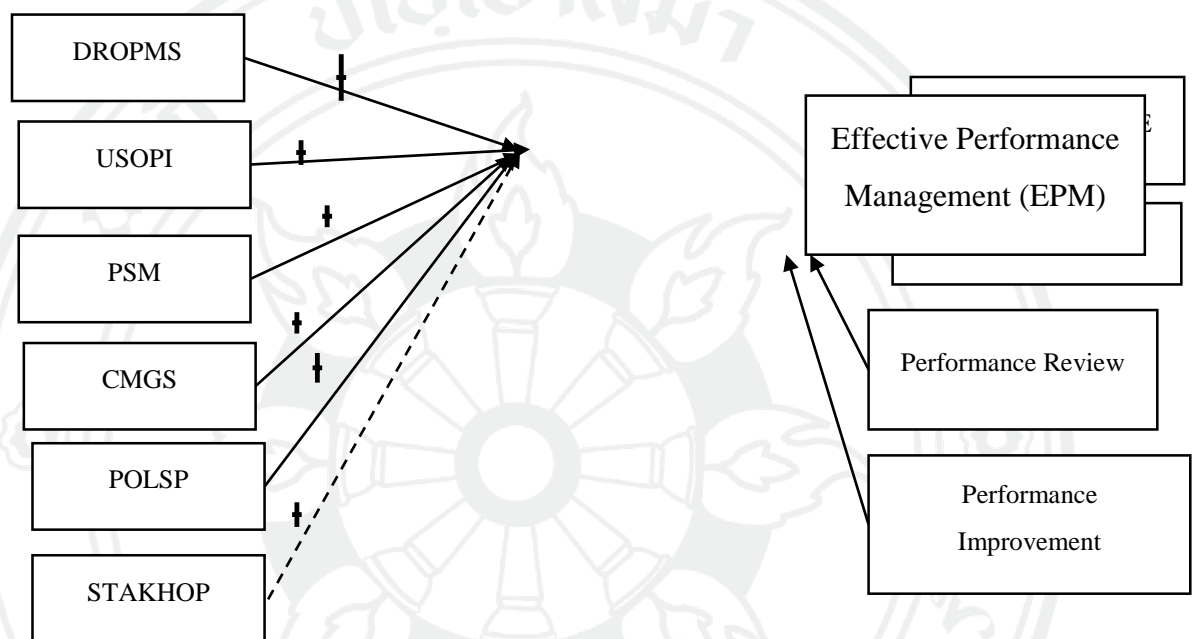


Figure 7.1 Revised Figure 6.1 Revised Model for Effective Performance Management based on quantitative findings

6.10 Discussion of Findings of the Quantitative Results

The sections explained the results of the study findings based on the research questions that were proposed to answer the quantitative part of the study. The focus of the quantitative design was to explain the relationship between organisational and environmental determinants and effective performance management, the relationship between ‘public service motivation’ (PSM) and effective performance management. Additionally, the study sought to examine the relationship between the dimensions of effective performance management and organisational variables as well as environment variables. At the same time, the study sought to test the PSM dimensions with effective performance management. At the beginning of the study, five main

hypotheses formed the core of the study, however, to help test the five hypotheses, 54 other hypotheses were tested to arrive at the models.

6.10.1 The Relationship between Organisational Determinants and Effective Performance Management

The study's second research question was to investigate the relationship between organisational determinants and effective performance management. Organisational determinant variables were three, clear and measurable goals (Dewettinck & van Dijk, 2013; Jung, 2014a; Latham et al., 2008; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Nurkholis et al., 2014), 'development of result-oriented performance measures' (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004), and use of performance information (Moynihan et al., 2012a). The results for these antecedent variables in 7.4.4 indicate that all had a direct and significant effect on EPM.

This finding implies that an MMDA's implementation of an effective performance management system is influenced by its ability to develop performance measures that are results-oriented, which clearly measure both outcomes and outputs. Undoubtedly, having an effective performance management system in place does not come as a given, but through efforts of senior management to set performance targets that are measurable from both output-outcome tangents. At the same time, for an MMDA's performance management to be effective, the 'use of performance information' generated from the performance feedback process is central to the attainment of performance goals. The behaviour of the three variables did not have the same level of effect, while 'development of result-oriented performance measures' showed more robustness in explaining EPM, at $p < 0.001$, significant at $p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.10$.

The results show that while development of results-oriented performance measures and clear & measurable goals are key determinants of the implementation of performance management reforms, use of performance information does not necessarily involve an MMA's implementation of their key performance areas and indicators. PM as a management tool in the local government sector appears to be a process activity which concentrates on the outputs rather than the results or the outcomes of the process. Therefore, for MMDAs whose focus is on generating outputs, will find the use of performance data as an added burden. Because

information use is not always part of the requirement in the performance reporting of MMDAs to the central government, the implication is that MMDAs may view the 'use of performance information' to be an extra process in the implementation of an effective performance management system since it contributes less to their KPAs' achievement.

This finding is not unique to the Ghanaian experience because this observation is consistent with other studies that found evidence to support that the use of performance information is less prevalent in the public sector and maintain that for public organisations to ensure the effectiveness of their performance management systems, there should be a strong link between information and performance management (Kroll & Moynihan, 2015; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Saliterer & Korac, 2014; Wright, Moynihan, & Pandey, 2012). These studies sustain that government agencies should use performance data generated from the performance management cycle to ensure probability accountability of performance results (Saliterer & Korac, 2013). In this respect, and based on the potential of performance information use, this study maintains that the organisational determinants of performance management have a significant effect on the effective implementation of performance management reforms and this is supported by the empirical data in this present study. The unique findings of this study are that while most studies tend to measure effective performance management, this study observes that the organisational determinants interact with the four dimensions of effective differently. Whereas the development of results-oriented performance measures has high positive and significant effect on all the four dimensions, clear & measurable goals and the use of performance information had less impact on the four dimensions of the dependent variable. This study finds that clear and measurable goals had a negative relationship with performance review which implies that the presence of clear goals does not necessarily lead to the implementation of an effective performance review system. In tune with this it may be better for organisations with results-oriented performance measures to implement an effective performance management system rather than organisations who emphasize on the development of clear goals.

6.10.2 The Relationship between Environmental Determinants and Effective Performance Management

Another research question of the study sought to investigate the association between environmental determinants and effective performance management as well as to map each of the two determinants on the four dimensions of effective performance management to observe their effects. The research question examined the relationship between stakeholder participation and effective performance management as well as the relationship between political support and effective performance management. Additionally, the study addressed each of the four dimensions of the main dependent variable separately to see if there are any significant changes in the four dimensions and their interactions with the predictors of the environment.

The regression results showed that the two variables only explained 16.0 percent of the total variation in effective performance. Stakeholder participation contributed significantly to the dependent variable (table 6.18), however, when all the six (6) main variables of the study were put in the standardized regression analysis to test the main hypothesis, the effect of stakeholder participation disappeared as it only contributing very little to explain the variation in total effective performance management (See Table 6.24). Yet, the results of the dimensions of effective performance management showed that stakeholder participation has a significant and positive effect on all the dimensions of effective performance management in bivariate regression analysis.

This finding confirms Bouckaert and Halligan's (2008) and Yang and Hsieh's (2007) studies that stakeholder participation has a significant effect on 'performance measurement and management'. At the same time, the findings also confirm what Moynihan et al. (2012a) have find that stakeholder participation had no effect on performance information use (Kroll & Vogel, 2013). While admitting that there is inconclusive evidence of stakeholder participation, this study finds evidence to support that stakeholder participation has some level of effect on the different dimensions of performance management. The departure of this study with other findings on this variable is that the study systematically mapped different dimensions of effective performance management and the empirical results demonstrate that stakeholders' involvement in their management process of MMDAs involvement impacted on their performance review system in place, thus organisations who engage

others in the performance management tend to have a better review of their key performance areas and indicators.

Further, the hypothesis testing indicates that political support has a significant and positive effect on effective performance management (See Table 6.26). With bivariate regression results, the political support (Yang & Hiseh, 2007; Gianakis & Wang, 2000; Moynihan et al., 2012a) variable performed differently across the four dimensions of effective performance management. While there is a positive and significant relationship between political support and performance review and improvement at $p < 0.001$ level, political support has a positive but non-significant effect on both strategic planning and performance monitoring & evaluation. The implication is that MMDAs who had the support of their elected officials (Assembly Members and Members of Parliament) or the district chief executives, were more likely to have effective performance review and improvement process than those without the support of their elected officials.

The findings on the environmental determinants of effective performance management suggest that the environment is very important in the outcomes of some dimensions while others may not change, whether there is support from political office holders or not. This is in line with the structural contingency theory that some environmental situations may affect the performance of organisations if they are not well managed. The findings suggest that certain contingencies are important in defining the performance management systems of organisations (Conaty, 2012; Rhodes et al., 2012). While there is little effect of both stakeholder participation and political support, there is significant evidence that local government institutions may need the support of inter-sectoral actors and politicians to implement their KPAs (Abane & Phinaitrup, 2017a; Bouckaert & Halligan, 2008; Moynihan et al., 2012a). The participation of citizens and customers in the performance management process, though an overlook area, may have 'spillover effects' on performance management goals (Kroll, Neshkova, & Pandey, 2017). It is fundamental that local government authorities ensure that key stakeholders participate in the implementation by organising town hall meetings and fora for active citizen participation in the KPAs of the MMDAs because the KPAs are carved around the priority areas of the district concern.

6.10.3 The relationship between Public Service Motivation and Effective Performance Management

The fourth research question sought to address the association between PSM and effective performance management. In addition to finding the relationship between PSM as a single indicator variable and EPM, the five dimensions of PSM and the four dimensions of effective performance were explored to find out if each of the individual scales influenced the four dimensions of the EPM. Although the main hypothesis for this research question was to test the combined scale of PSM on EPM, the subscales were used to test the sub-hypotheses. The hypothesized relationship was confirmed, which suggests that the PSM variable had a significant impact on effective performance management (see Table 6.26) in the model testing and with the bivariate analysis see (table 6.19). Whereas the PSM sub-component was not robust in predicting the four dimensions scientifically, the PSM as a combined single dependent variable was highly significant with all the four dimensions of EPM. This finding is consistent with Vandenabeele's (2008) study that some of the items making up the PSM construct were not reliable in measuring employees' PSM levels. For example, the results indicate that while 'commitment to the public interest' and 'civic duty' had significant effect ($p < 0.001$) on strategic planning (EPM1), 'attraction to policymaking' and 'civic duty' had significant impact on performance monitoring & evaluation, while compassion ($p < 0.001$) and attraction to policy ($p < 0.10$) had a positive and significant effect on performance review (EPM3) ($p < 0.10$). The 'self-sacrifice' scale had a positive relationship with all the four dimensions of the dependent variable, but has no significant effect on all the four. Also, the PSM sub-components failed to predict the statistical significance of performance improvement.

All the PSM sub-indicators had a positive effect on performance improvement but failed to reach statistical significance as predicted at $p \leq 0.05$. The study findings suggest that the PSM construct as a single dependent variable is significant at $p < 0.001$ with all the four dimensions of effective performance management (see Table 6.16). The implication is that the PSM as a good predictor of performance management and is explained better when the sub-components are combined to measure employee PSM levels. This supports the literature and empirical research on the PSM construct

on performance (Andersen, Heinesen, & Pedersen, 2014; Grant, 2012; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010).

Interestingly, the PSM performed better on two motives, the rational and the normative, out of the three motives. There are three motives that define the PSM construct, rational which represented in this study by 'attraction to policymaking', and 'commitment to the public interest'. 'Norm-based motives' were represented by 'civic duty' and 'affective motives' denoted by 'compassion' and 'self-sacrifice' (Perry, 1996). The findings revealed that only three out of the indicators of PSM had a significant effect on both the four individual dimensions of effective performance management as dependent variables and EPM as a combined single dependent. Evidently, 'self-sacrifice' and 'compassion', which exhibit the highest levels of public service motivation were only positive, with no significant effect on the dependent variable (s). Why the two were not statistically significant is unclear.

The findings on PSM indicate that employees' PMS levels influence EPM, since the results showed that employees with a higher level of PSM led to a corresponding increase in their MMDAs strategic planning practices, performance monitoring, and hence, enhancing PSM levels of employees can help MMDAs to achieve their key performance areas (KPA) and key performance indicators (KPIs). This finding is unique in this study because previous studies, as noted in Chapter One and Two of this study, they fail to test the effect of each of the PSM construct on the different dimensions of performance management (Andersen et al., 2014; Kroll & Vogel, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012a; Moynihan & Pandey, 2010; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010; Wright et al., 2012) for these studies tend to link PSM with organizational performance and performance information use, which fail to illustrate how the PSM can support public organisations to improve on strategic planning performance monitoring & evaluation, on performance review and improvement in their performance reforms. This implies that for any organisation to achieve its performance goals or performance management reform policies, it needs to use both rational strategies like goal-setting and result-oriented performance targets, and at the same time a non-rational component in the form of PSM, which is defined by motives, and which cannot be quantified, yet is relevant. This should be explored to help achieve the performance management goals.

6.11 Summary of Chapter

The foregoing chapter presented the results of the regression analyses for the sub-scales and main variables of the study. The chapter began with some descriptive statistics of the six main variables, clear and measurable goals, 'development of result-oriented performance measures' and "use of performance information" as the main organisational determinants of effective performance management. The results showed that organisational determinants are better predictors of the dependent variable which contributed high in explaining the variations in the dependent variable, whereas, the environmental determinants of effective performance management could have an impact on individual dimensions of EPM without any significant effect on the total EPM construct. Further, the PSM sub-components did not show any significant direct effect on any of the four dimensions of the dependent variable, strategic planning, performance monitoring & evaluation, performance review, and performance improvement. However, the results indicate that the PSM construct, as a single variable, does have a positive influence on total effective performance management, whereas, its sub-components do not performance well with the four dimensions of effective performance management. Also, 'clear and measurable goals' had a negative effect on performance review. This suggests that if an MMDA has clear goals, it will lead to a decrease in the performance review process. This finding may need further research to test whether goal clarity does or does not improve performance review of local government authorities in another setting.

The findings suggest that 'development of result-oriented performance measures', 'use of performance information' and 'public service motivation' explain the dependent variable better than 'clear & measurable goals', 'stakeholder participation', and 'political support'. Yet, the findings imply that all the variables studied have a positive relationship with a total effective performance management, while some variables were better in predicting the sub-components of the dependent variable. The next chapter presents the summary, conclusion, contributions and recommendations of both the qualitative and the quantitative findings.

CHAPTER 7

INTEGRATION, SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, CONTRIBUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter has five main objectives; the first is to summarize the findings of the two sets of data, thus the qualitative and the quantitative results. The second part addresses the conclusions drawn from the findings, the third focusses on discussing the contributions of the study, and the last section makes recommendations for policy, practice and future research implications. The aim of this study was to advance a model to test and examine the determinants of effective performance management based on different theoretical approaches. The major theoretical models used in this study were the goal-setting theory, the structural contingency theory, and the public service motivation theory as theoretical approaches to performance management.

There were two data sets for this study. The first data set was from qualitative in-depth interviews with 10 senior top managers in the Public Services Commission (PSC), the Office of the Head of the Local Government Service (OHLGS) and the Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council (GARCC) in Ghana. The second set of data came from a cross-sectional survey of 441 employees of the Local Government Service (LGS) in Greater Accra Region the National Capital of Ghana.

The findings of this study support the conceptual model of the study with minimum revision of the effect of each of the variables of the study. Four main questions formed the foundation for this study: (1. What are the context-specific determinants of effective performance management in Ghana? (2. In what ways do organisational determinants impact on effective performance management? (3. How do environmental determinants have an impact on effective performance management? And (4. In what ways does PSM impact on effective performance management? To help answer the four questions, the first question (Q1) used interviews to explore the contextual factors that best explained effective performance

management. The other three questions (Q2, Q3 & Q4) were answered using survey questionnaires which were self-administered by the respondents. The summary of the two findings is presented, followed by the integration of the two data sets, the conclusions of this study, the study's contributions to learning and recommendations for policy implementation and further research.

7.2 Integrating Qualitative and Quantitative Findings of the Study

The discussions of the two findings emphasise the determinants of an effective performance management and what the implications of the findings for the Local Government Service are. The results of the two studies have both a convergence and a divergence of the determinants of an effective performance of a management system. To help provide a better understanding of these issues, these two themes are discussed separately.

7.2.1 Convergence of the Two Findings

To say something converges is to say that there is concord and agreement of two or more things. The issue of convergence in performance management literature holds that, the concept is a universal principle that is widespread globally (Aguinis et al., 2012) and that the basic underlying doctrine is new public management (NPM) where public organisations are tasked by the Bretton Wood institutions to reform their management style to include private sector ethos. Therefore, the world over, people are measuring performance (Behn, 2003). Based on this argument, the study findings suggest that in the Ghanaian experience, the basic principles of goal/target-setting were visible in the performance management framework, as the qualitative interviews revealed.

In addition, the quantitative hypotheses which sought to argue that organisational determinants such as clear & measurable goals, and 'development of result-oriented performance measures' had the strongest effect on effective performance management as well as on the use of performance information. The interviews revealed that target setting, assessment methods and the development of clear job descriptions were key determinants of a successful performance management goals. This finding is consistent with previous research (Cavalluzzo & Ittner, 2004; Latham et al., 2008, Nurkholis et al., 2014) that the drivers of an effective PM policy are anchored on these determinants.

Further, the two findings demonstrate that strategic planning, assessment and monitoring of the performance management process are key dimensions of an effective performance management system. For example, the interviews suggest that the Ghanaian experience is a built-in model where, at the beginning of the implementation of the KPAs and KPIs, employees and their supervisors agree on the process of scoring, reviewing and ranking of KPIs. The reliability and transparency of the performance measures are also seen as fundamental to the achievement of individual KPIs. This finding is like what the quantitative survey found, that among the determinants of EPM, 'development of result-oriented performance measures' the reliability of performance indicators, quality of service delivery, accounting for output and outcomes were all said to measure results-oriented performance targets of MMDAs.

As earlier noted, both findings agree that an effective performance management is defined by the clarity of the performance targets, action planning, performance monitoring and employee development by organising performance improvement programmes. These findings suggest that an effective performance management system can only be attained if MMDAs in Ghana if they take their annual action planning, monitoring of KPAs & KPIs, training and capacity building of their human resources, the policy goals of institutionalizing performance culture in the public service serious to be worthy investment of the taxpayer resources (Abane & Phinaitrup, 2017a).

7.2.2 Divergence of The Two Findings

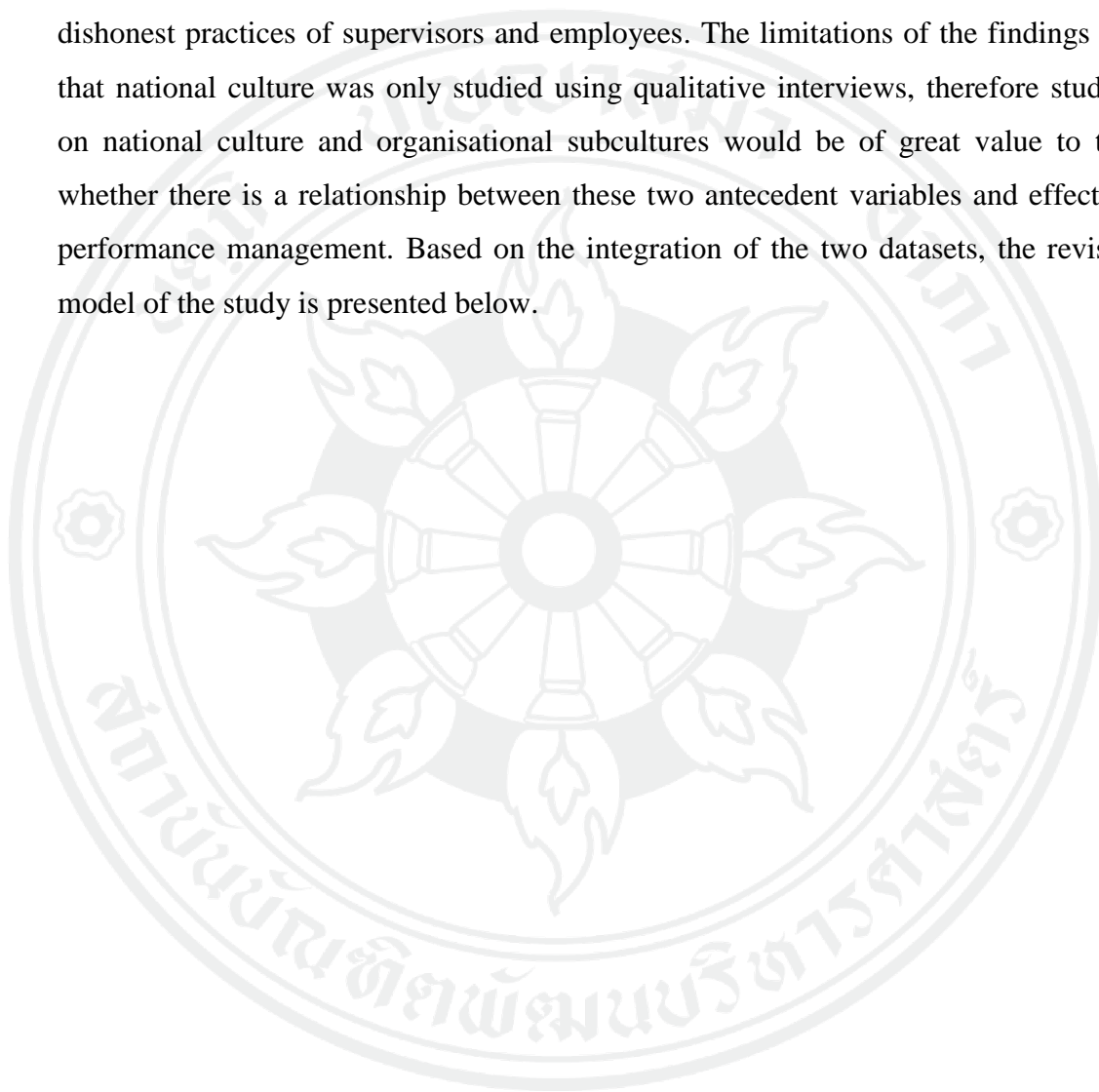
Even though the two seem to agree on the main determinants of EPM, they are not without need of modification. While the results of the quantitative data suggest that stakeholder participation has no statistical relevance on the dependent variable, the interview data indicate that the Ghanaian performance management framework is anchored on intersectoral collaboration and involvement. The stakeholder involvement theme that emerged from the interviews during which participants sought to indicate that because of due to previous experience, which saw many key actors criticizing the performance of reforms, due to lack of involvement, the new performance management policy was implemented after wider consultation with most

actors, including elected politicians, customers/citizens, public managers and top leadership of 21 piloted public organisations in 2012. To ensure the effectiveness of the implementation process, the PSC organised a validation stakeholder workshop to sensitize participants on the main principles of the new policy. Therefore, the quantitative findings on stakeholder participation may not be conclusive, because a variable may not be statistically significant, but that it is important in explaining the outcome variable, cannot be undermined.

Furthermore, the qualitative findings uncovered that resource and budgetary allocations, and top management commitment to the performance management implementation are central to an effective outcome of performance management goals. The findings revealed that for the public sector to attain performance-based status, there is the urgent need for enough budgetary allocation to government subvented institutions to implement their KPAs. One significant observation of the Ghanaian model is that it is a top-down approach, where KPAs are set by central government agencies and passed down to sub-national and local levels to implement. Although there is the minimal local content of MMDAs' KPAs, most of the targets are set from central government agencies and passed on to local government units. Because of this top-down approach to performance management, most MMDAs have limitations in achieving their KPAs because the major funding for all projects at the local level is through statutory allocations such as the District Common Fund (DACF) and the District Development Facility (DDF). The challenge with the arrangement is that almost all districts in Ghana have several projects being funded from these two sources which makes it difficult for some MMDAs to achieve their targets, because all the KPAs are competing for scarce resources. Therefore, participants noted that the status of the two sources are not usually released timely to implement their KPAs and at the same time, the budgetary allocation for each KPA is usually inadequate. However, some districts have more resource endowments than others through their internally generated funds (IGF) but these districts are in the minority, because out of 216 districts in the country, about two-thirds of them are deprived.

Finally, it is instructive to observe that the findings of the interviews indicate that the national culture effect on effective performance management is present in the Ghanaian performance system. Participants observed that national cultural traits such

as collectivism and male dominance influenced the employee-supervisor relationship during performance rating, feedback and review sessions. This finding is consistent with the literature on national culture effect on performance management objectives (Aguinis et al., 2012). However, the study also found evidence that organisational subcultures had even more effect on performance management through religiosity and dishonest practices of supervisors and employees. The limitations of the findings are that national culture was only studied using qualitative interviews, therefore studies on national culture and organisational subcultures would be of great value to test whether there is a relationship between these two antecedent variables and effective performance management. Based on the integration of the two datasets, the revised model of the study is presented below.



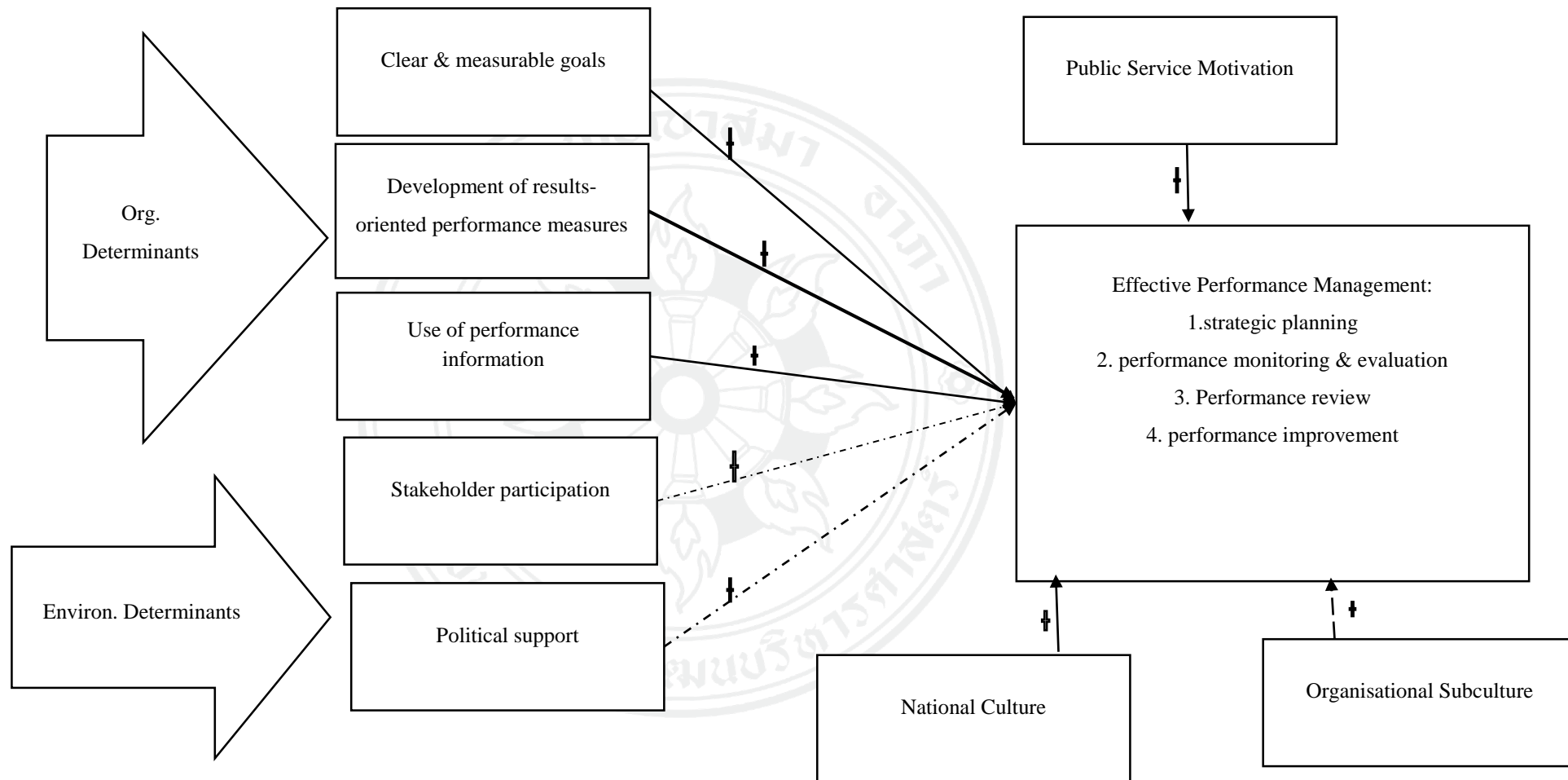


Figure 7.1 Revised Framework for Effective Performance Management



7.3 Summary of Major Findings

The summary section is composed of two parts, the first discusses the findings of the qualitative interviews, and the second section outlines the quantitative findings. The two studies clearly demonstrate that effective performance management is measured by strategic planning, monitoring, reviews and performance improvement. The findings of the two suggest that the key determinants of an effective performance management system are development of result-oriented performance measures/targets, clear goals and the use of performance information. While PSM is a new variable tested only in the quantitative data it indicates that employees with higher levels of PSM will increase effective performance management. However, stakeholder participation and political support are positively correlated with effective performance management with no statistically significant evidence, except political support which is statistically significant at a $p < 0.01$.

7.3.1 Summary of Qualitative Findings

The research objective of the qualitative methodology was to answer the context-specific question of the study. The research question for the qualitative component of the study was to find out the nature, content, determinants and the effect of national culture on effective PM in the context of Ghana. More specifically, the study sought to address the following questions: (1. What are the nature and the content of performance management reforms in Ghana? (2. What are the determinants of effective performance management from the perspective of key actors in the Ghanaian public service? (3. What are the differences and similarities of the content of Ghana's PM model to different contexts? (4. What is the role of national culture on performance management reforms within the context of Ghana? (5. What are the challenges in implementing performance management reforms at the national and local levels of governance in the country? Generally, the findings of the interviews showed that goal clarity, job descriptions, top management commitment and adequate budgetary and resource allocation are the key determinants of effective performance management in the Ghanaian context.

The analysis and discussions demonstrated that although PM is a universal concept, it may not have the same outcomes in different countries or settings. The

findings revealed that although the Ghanaian experience with PM reforms have the potential to institute a performance culture in public organisations, national culture and organisational subcultures may affect its sustainability in the long-run. The following findings were central to the discussion:

- 1) The Ghanaian PM is made up of two models: Performance contracting and performance appraisals.
- 2) The elements of the PM policy are anchored on four principles: equity, transparency, accountability and ownership of the assessment process.
- 3) The determinants of effective performance management (EPM) are measured by four main attributes: strategic planning, budgetary and resource allocation, clear job descriptions, and top management commitment.
- 4) Two national cultural attributes, collectivism and male dominance or masculinity tend to affect performance rating and feedback.
- 5) Two organisational subcultures, religiosity and dishonest practices had negative consequences for the sustainability of the PM reforms.
- 6) The social character 'Martha' has the tendency to lower morale in public organisations and promote patronage in the system.
- 7) There are several challenges that affect the implementation process.

7.3.2 Summary of Quantitative Findings

The quantitative data sought to answer the question of how do three perspectives namely organisational, environmental and individual-level determinants impact effective performance management? This question was anchored on three theoretical models: goal-setting, structural contingency, and public service motivation. Specifically, the following questions guided the quantitative data collection: (1. In what ways do organisational determinants (clear & measurable goals, development of result-oriented performance measures and use of performance information) related to effective performance management? (2. How do environmental determinants impact on effective performance management? (3. And in what way does PSM impact effective performance management?

The results of these questions were discussed in Chapters 6 and 7 and the findings indicate that generally, organisational and individual-level determinants are

predictors of effective performance management with ‘development of result-oriented performance measures’ and ‘use of performance information’ having the highest effect on effective performance management, while the PSM variable predicted effective performance management better than clear & measurable goals. The least effect of the six antecedent variables was the ‘political support’, while ‘stakeholder participation’ had no significant effect on effective performance management. The following findings were observed on the three major determinants of effective performance management:

7.3.2.1 Organisational Determinants of Effective Performance Management

With regards to the three variables, ‘clear & measurable goals’ (CMGS), ‘development of results-oriented performance measures’ (DROPMS) and ‘use of performance information’ (USOPI) making up the organisational determinants, the findings show that DROPMS had the strongest significant effect on EPM, followed by USOPI and CMGS. The initial review of the literature indicated that development of clear goals would lead to effective performance management, however, the findings show that goal clarity is less effective in predicting EPM. However, the finding is not different from previous studies, because having clear goals was statistically significant during the main hypotheses testing and the implication is that the role that goals play in performance is still relevant in predicting an effective outcome on management reforms. Yet organisations should focus on setting results or outcomes measures, because the evidence in this study supports that an organisation which sets results-based performance targets is more likely to achieve their performance management goals than an organisation without results-based measures.

In addition, the use of performance information showed a negative relationship with performance review which implies that using performance data does not improve an organisational performance review system. This is interesting because the assumption is that when managers use performance information for decision-making, it will lead to a better review of performance outcomes. Yet this finding should be treated with caution because the negative and nonsignificant effect may imply that performance information is not used and it is not part of the performance management system of MMDAs. This is consistent with Moynihan and Pandey’s

(2010) finding that performance information use is an organisational behaviour which managers have discretion over and may need an extra motivation to accomplish.

In the light of the research hypotheses, the organisational determinants were robust by predicting the dependent variable, effective performance management at $p < 0.001$ for all the three variables. With regressions results for each group of determinants, the organisational variables provided 49.8 percent to explain the variation in effective performance management. Therefore, the weights of the regression standardized beta coefficients in the fifth model (See Table 6.24) of the study suggest that the organisational determinants are good predictors of effective performance management as the Stepwise regression results indicate during the assessment of the six variables (See Table 6.22 in 6.8.3).

7.3.2.2 Environmental Determinants of Effective Performance Management

The environmental determinants consist of stakeholder participation and political support. The findings of these two variables indicate that political support has a positive and significant effect on 'effective performance management' in the main model (Model 5), whereas 'stakeholder participation' has a positive and insignificant effect on effective performance management. However, the findings suggest the hypothesis testing in model 3, confirm that 'stakeholder participation' had a positive and significant effect on the performance review while the individual regression results show that 'stakeholder participation' had a positive and significant effect on all the four dimensions of effective performance management. The behaviour of this variable may suggest that the inclusion of organisational determinants tend to diminish the effect of stakeholder participation on the four dimensions of effective performance management. Why this occurs is beyond the focus of this present study and may require further research.

Unlike stakeholder participation, political support was only significant with two dimensions of effective performance management, performance review and performance improvement during the regression analysis for the group determinants of effective performance management. This implies that MMDAs should focus on encouraging their elected officials to support them during the performance review and improvement sessions because they are more likely to be given resource and

budgetary support to organise capacity building and training for their staff to enhance both individual and organisational performance. Although ‘political support’ had no effect on strategic planning and performance monitoring, it is important for MMDAs to encourage and involve their General Assemblies especially the Sub-committee system of the District Assembly System to attract quality from elected officials, because these elected officials represent their constituents who are the ends of the MMDAs’ KPAs, and strategic planning is the means to these ends.

7.3.2.3 PSM Effect on Effective Performance Management

‘Public service motivation’ (PSM) is the type of intrinsic motivation grounded in public institutions (Perry & Wise, 1990). The theory of PSM is anchored on ‘three motives, rational, normative and effective’. Whereas the ‘rational motives’ are measured by two indicators of PSM, ‘attraction to policymaking’, and ‘commitment to the public interest’ in this study, the ‘normative motive’ was measured by ‘civic duty’. Additionally, the study used two ‘affective motives’, ‘compassion’ and ‘self-sacrifice’ which are perceived to be at the highest point of the PSM construct. The findings suggest that the rational and normative motives components of PSM, ‘attraction to policymaking’, ‘commitment to the public interest’, and ‘civic duty’ were the highest predictors of three dimensions of effective performance management, strategic planning (EPM1SP), and performance review (EPM3PERREW), and performance monitoring & evaluation (EPM2PME). None of the five dimensions was significant on performance improvement (EPM4PIMPROV).

What is revealing about the PSM construct is that the affective motive indicators, ‘compassion’ and ‘self-sacrifice’ were not significant on three dimensions of effective performance management: ‘strategic planning’, ‘performance monitoring & evaluation’, and ‘performance improvement’, while ‘compassion’ had a significant effect on ‘performance review’. The expectation of the PSM construct is that ‘self-sacrifice’ items, especially (PSM1) constitute the extreme form of the affective motive which is towards making a difference in society at the expense of personal benefits and achievement. The ‘self-sacrifice’ scale defines the concept of ‘public service motivation’ and therefore, the absence of this attribute of the sample is perhaps challenging. This finding is unique in the study context because similar

studies have found evidence that supports that employees who measured high on the 'self-sacrifice' scale were highly significant (Gould-Williams, Mostafa, & Bottomley, 2015; Houston, 2000). Even though the two 'affective motives': compassion & self-sacrifice' were not supported in this sample, their results indicate that the two variables have a positive relationship with all the four dimensions of effective performance management.

7.4 Conclusion of the Study

The main conclusion of this study is that almost all the hypotheses were supported in the main model except one, thus the stakeholder participation effect on effective performance management. However, the rejection of this hypothesis should be interpreted with caution, because when the environmental antecedents were run in a multiple regression without the inclusion of organisational and individual antecedents of effective performance management, stakeholder participation was statistically significant. This implies that stakeholder participation is still relevant in the implementation of performance management reforms at the local level of governance. The underlying assumption of Local Government is to give voice and participation and to devolve power to the grassroots, therefore involving key intersectoral actors, clients/customers, elected officials and structures of the District Assembly System especially the Sub-Committee structure of the Local Government Administrative system is fundamental to the success of the performance management policy goals. Therefore, the study draws the following conclusions:

First, the main model had a significant effect on effective performance management by explaining 53.6 percent of the total variation in the variable. Additionally, the PSM variable which comprises of five dimensions involving three main motives was highly significant on effective performance management. Whereas, data loaded strongly on 'rational motives': 'attraction to policymaking' and 'Commitment to the public interest'; 'norm-based motive': 'civic duty'; and the 'affective motives': 'compassion' and 'self-sacrifice' were largely insignificant.

While this conclusion may be premature, further validation of this finding will be needed in the future to evaluate either the same population or a different population before concrete conclusions could be drawn on the PSM variable reliability in the Ghanaian context. Two of the four dimensions of effective

performance management, 'strategic planning', and 'performance monitoring & evaluation' were predicted strongly by the six antecedent variables, while the remaining two, 'performance review' and 'performance improvement', had moderate prediction by the six independent variables. The strongest explanatory variables were the organisational determinants and the PSM variable, while the environmental determinants were the weakest in predicting the effect on the outcome variable, effective performance management.

Second, the study concludes that an effective performance management is anchored on the development of results-based measures, the use of performance data and the setting of clear goals. Also, the PSM construct should be measured as a combined single variable, because the evidence in this study indicates that there is a strong effect of PSM on effective performance and its dimensions. Therefore, future research should be tailored towards testing it other than the individual sub-components.

Third, the potentials of stakeholder participation in explaining effective performance management are inconclusive, while political support should be used by local governments to strengthen their performance review and improvement systems by advocating for adequate budgetary and resource allocations.

Fourth, the findings have implications for MMDAs' KPAs and KPIs development. It is paramount for local government institutions to tap the intrinsic motivation of their employees in addition to measurable performance indicators to achieve their KPAs and KPIs. It is important to note the current performance management system which at two levels: performance contracting and appraisal, demonstrate the need for the Local Government Service to decentralised the first schedule, thus performance contracting, to include other unit heads and middle level managers to ensure that each level contributes towards to the attainment of the district's KPAs. Yet, the appraisal system should be made to reflect the job descriptions of employees, because the generic nature of the Service schedule does not meet the exigencies of the time where KPIs could be derived from them.

Fifth, with the qualitative findings, the evidence revealed that effective performance management is affected by four main determinants: strategic planning, clear job descriptions, budgetary and resource allocation, and top management

commitment. However, the effect of two national cultural traits: collectivism and masculinity, have the potentials of impeding the reform outcomes. Meanwhile, two organizational subcultures: religiosity and dishonest practices in supervisors and employees may inflate the performance rating system and compromise the objectivity of the rating system. To ensure that MMDAs achieve their performance targets, there should be benchmarking of employee conduct where employees are socialized to the norms of the organisation by senior management on acceptable work ethics. It is important for street-level bureaucrats to be harmonized into the values of modern organisational culture and thus, it will lead to proper work ethics by employees at all levels of the organisation. One critical observation is that collectivist cultural traits such as a teamwork spirit could be a potential feature that would encourage employees to work towards the larger organisational goals. In this respect, collectivism is not a negative attribute because it can serve as a potential strength to help MMDAs to achieve their KPAs in the long-run.

Sixth, the evidence on the phenomenon of male-dominance in the management system is inconsequential and, it would be catastrophic to conclude anything definite based on the few interviews in this study, because the modern organisational setup is highly bureaucratic which implies that there are hierarchical arrangements, where authority and power are based on seniority and the competence of the post holder. Therefore, the feelings of lower employees who are male may not be explicitly shown. However, the presence of dominance of the male could be more of an imagined phenomenon than the reality. Therefore, this study holds the view that further research needs to be done before any real conclusions can be drawn. Although this evidence is inconclusive, it is important for local government institutions to strengthen their reporting systems where employees make distinctions as to whom to report to and whom to take authority from. Besides, the span of control should be stated in a way so that a lower-level officer report to one supervisor in the performance feedback and communication process.

Seventh, the study concludes that local government senior managers must make efforts and invest their most in the monitoring and supervision system by creating an objective performance rating system which scores several aspects of performance to provide a satisfactory performance rating of employee KPIs. Further,

top management should be willing to learn and provide mentoring, coaching and on-job training to build lower level officers' professional outlook. One of the core pitfalls of organisational subcultures is lack of professionalism of junior and frontline officers in the public service. Therefore, management must demonstrate a commitment to the performance-based system by building the capacity of their employees through training on administrative ethics and work ethic management to unleash their potential to provide quality services to the public at the local level.

7.5 Contributions to the Study

The study contributes moderately to the literature on the implementation of performance management reforms at the local level of governance. Two major contributions can be observed in this study: theoretical and professional contributions. These two are discussed further in the following subsections:

7.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

The study has made modest contributions to the theory of performance management and added knowledge to the literature on performance management. First, research on performance management has often used the new public management (NPM) model to explain how management reforms started in the public sector where it is argued that one of the core principles of the NPM doctrine is performance measurement and research and it has often focussed on following this tangent. However, NPM lacks theoretical foundation at its inception because it is an infusion of both public policy, evaluation and neo-economic theories to explain implementation failure in the early 1990s. Even though other studies have used the principal-agent model based on the agency theory, these theoretical models only focus on explaining rationality with little focus on non-rational models such as PSM which is built on both rational, normative and affective motives to link these to performance management. Therefore, this study bridges this gap by testing the PSM construct on effective performance management. By using the PSM theoretical model, it broadens the discussions on the models that can be used to explain performance management.

Second, this study contributes convincingly to knowledge because this study has proven that the structural contingency theory can be used to explain the environmental determinants that contribute to effective outcomes on performance management. With the use of 'stakeholder participation' and 'political support' in the

environmental component of structural contingency, the study closes the gap because the early conception of the contingency approach left out several variables that could be classified as environmental determinants. Besides contributing to the structural contingency, it widens the possible expansion of the multiple contingency views to include more variables.

Third, by developing a conceptual framework to test the hypotheses, the study provides insight into the multiple approaches to studying performance management at the micro level of governance, because most studies tend to concentrate on central government agencies with few studies at the micro level, thereby providing aggregate findings and making inferences that do not completely represent the real situation at the micro level. Therefore, such analyses lose sight of the local conditions which are unique and present different experiences to performance management. This study bridges this gap because the study was conducted at the decentralised level, which constitutes the smallest unit in the administrative setup of Ghana. What this implies is that the results are different from previous studies on performance management which focus on the macro level, thus semi-public organisations and state-owned enterprises (SOEs).

Fourth, the study contributes to the PSM literature by testing the PSM construct in Ghana for the first time since the development of the construct in 1996. It should be noted that though there have been revisions on the scale, this study used the original scales and provided factor analysis to reduce items that were not strongly loaded on the individual scales. The test of the PSM construct has often been done in Western countries, except for South Africa, the test of the PSM construct is not well known. Therefore, this study is perhaps one of the first to validate the scale in Ghana. The findings on the PSM variable will add to theory building since the results have revealed valuable information on its effect, not only performance, but also on performance management reforms.

Fifth, the study contributes to the literature on culture and how it impacts on performance management. There are few studies that have explored the effects of culture on effective performance management, therefore, this study is perhaps one of the few studies to provide empirical evidence to support that national culture influences performance management implementation. Additionally, the findings on

organisational subcultures in this study are clearly robust and unique, which will add to theory building and models of performance management.

7.5.2 Professional Contribution

An important exercise such as this would be meaningless if the products making up this thesis cannot be useful to practitioners of Human Resource Management and Administrators globally and particularly Ghana. In tune with this, this study has several practical uses, but only a few are enumerated here.

First, this study comes timely to support the practical execution of performance management implementation at the local level of governance in Ghana and elsewhere. For example, the usefulness of the findings for human resource managers is to redefine the zone of acceptance of employee behaviour, especially with regards to organisational subcultures. This is important, because the present work ethics in local government institutions from the results of the interviews, suggest that employee performance rating is not objective, because supervisors use subjective means such as unfair practices and religious affiliation and other criteria which are in contravention to the established norms of behaviour of public managers. Therefore, HR managers must help their organisations achieve their KPAs by their employees on the ethics of public service.

Second, the findings on PSM imply that public managers are not only motivated by monetary rewards to work in public institutions, but by the will to serve the society is present. In this regard, senior management could reinforce PSM by imbibing the core principles of their organisation's social responsibility to the larger society to help employees develop strong public service spirit which is a higher call to service in any given circumstance.

Third, practitioners can use the findings of this study to develop HR practices which support employees' professional outlook. The core foundations of the modern organisation are the ability of HR managers to add value to their organisations by unleashing the potential of their employees to view the core business of HR as doing the right things that add value to the corporate image of the organisation. As a result, it is fundamental for administrators and HR managers to consistently include in their functions the professional building and etiquette of their employees to change their personal values to that of the organisations. This is central to eliminate characters

such as ‘Martha’ and ‘bootlickers’ in the organisation who patronize this system pattern of behaviour. The resocialization of employees is necessary because ‘if you employ a man, you employ a whole man’ (Storey, 1989) and the responsibility lies with HR managers to consciously become aware that managing a diverse people entails defining a common ground where employees will replace their personal values with common values. In this way, both practitioners and policymakers can include in their HR policies such employee value-adding activities to revolutionise employee professional behaviour

Fourth, practitioners could tap into exploring stakeholder participation to support their strategic planning process to ensure that the KPAs and KPIs represent the priority areas of the district-wide needs. This is because the decentralised planning is a mandatory feature of the decentralisation action plan of the country in which planning and budgeting is a bottom-up approach. Therefore, the intersectoral collaboration is now mandatory in the amended Local Government Act, 936, 2016.

7.6 Limitation of the Study

The conduct of social research is transient; thus, it changes from the conceptualization of the topic through to the final product. Therefore, it is besieged with limitations. It is instructive to state that these limitations do not invalidate the findings of this study. Four central limitations which pertain to methodological accuracy, theoretical and miscellaneous limitations must be featured:

First, the key significant limitation of this study is the issue of missing data. The completed questionnaires had missing data where respondents decided to answer some questions and leave others. This problem was present because of the large nature of the sample, 650 questionnaires were distributed to respondents to fill out and, because the study is situated in the capital of Ghana, Accra, it is humanly impossible for the researcher to access respondents directly without the use of their HR managers and the two Research Assistants employed for the data collection. Therefore, it was difficult to really check each questionnaire before retrieving it from the respondent, because the respondent deposited the answered questionnaire at their HR departments.

As a result, there was little the study could do without encountering this problem. However, the impact of missing data affected the use of the path analysis

which was to be employed as the final regression technique, because the path analysis model is very sensitive to missing values. The path analysis results could have provided more understanding of how PSM could be a strong predictor of both the organisational and environmental determinants.

Second, the study limitation lies in the nested mixed method research that was employed to answer the four questions of the study. At the beginning of the thesis, the study employed both qualitative and quantitative research questions, whereas the qualitative part answered the context-specific determinants of effective performance management, the rest of the questions sought to test a set of hypothesized relationships. By using this approach, it resulted in two different findings which had to be integrated during the discussion stage. However, not all the variables for the quantitative study were discussed in the qualitative interviews because the focus was different to find factors within the Ghanaian context to explain effective performance management. Yet the implication is that there is a gap between the two findings, since the themes that emerged during the interviews: collectivist culture, masculinity and the two organisational subcultures: religiosity and dishonest practices were not tested deductively. This limits the generalization of the two findings, national culture attributes and organisational subcultures.

Third, because the qualitative findings cannot be generalized to the sample population due to the small sample size, it has very little implications for theory building in a performance management framework. Hence, it would require a systematic and repeated grounded-theory approach to uncover whether male-dominance and religiosity have any significant effect on performance management.

Fourth, the use of a cross-sectional survey is quite problematic, because it leaves very important deals that may change over time. Using a cross-sectional survey implies collecting data at one point in time, however, the world is not a perfect place and things change, and because the organisational behaviour is fluid and dynamic, the information collected from respondents could change as well. The limitation is that there is no opportunity to cross-validate the information, unlike a longitudinal study which could be used to collect information from the same respondents at different times and compare them. Consequently, the use of a longitudinal study would have

offered more information on the phenomenon of performance management of MMDAs.

Another major methodological limitation of this study is the difficulty associated with survey studies where the variables may have a problem of collinearity. However, the collinearity test revealed no major violations of the assumptions of the multiple regression techniques used, yet an absence of multicollinearity among the independent variables can be misleading, especially if the independent variables correlate high with the dependent variable. Nevertheless, the mixed design, which is a case study approach, complemented the deficiencies of the survey method because by using a case study design, it provided detailed information, thereby providing a thick description of the phenomenon under investigation. The additional methodological limitation is the causal relationship between the variables; the changes in the dependent variable may be associated with the variations in the independent variables. This is problematic because it is possible that the changes in the dependent variable might be associated with a spurious or third variable other than the independent variables that are investigated in this study. To mitigate the limitations, the study used a multiple regression statistical technique, especially the Stepwise method to test the complex relationships among the variables and to observe which of the variables explained the dependent variable better. Again, the use of the multivariate statistics helped to prevent the type I error rate, at least by 5 percent.

The literature review revealed that the context of PM is not universal because of the national culture of a country which could affect its effectiveness. In this light, it may be difficult to generalise one finding to another. However, EPM has basic topologies such as strategic planning and setting of goals, development of performance measurement, use of performance information, performance feedback and communication developmental approach. Therefore, the Ghanaian local government PM has these basic characteristics of a PM system.

Fifth, the final category of limitations is termed as miscellaneous because they do not constitute or add up to the internal validity of the findings like the others. For example, the data was collected from only one region out of ten regions because of resource constraints. The ideal number would have been three, where comparative analysis could have been drawn. Also, out of the 16 MMDAs located in Greater

Accra, only 11 MMAs were studied, while the remaining five DAs were not part of the sample, because of budgetary constraints during the data collection.

Finally, these limitations were expected at the beginning of the proposal, nevertheless, they do not constitute a meaningful setback to the validity of the findings.

7.7 Recommendations

Based on the above summary of the major findings, conclusions and contributions, the study makes two major recommendations, directions for research and policy implications:

7.7.1 Policy Implications

The findings of this study would be an exercise in futility if it fails to recommend for policymakers what should be done to improve the current performance management system of the Local Government Service. The following recommendations of interest from this study are:

First, policymakers should contribute substantial resources to institutionalise a performance culture in the local government setup. This is particularly important because any real development can only be possible if the management of human resources is performance-based and each employee feels that their individual performance matters in the achieving the goals of local governance in the country. Hence, political leadership and senior managers should focus on building a motivated staff whose performance results could be measured to help the development agenda of the country.

Second, it is important for policymakers to fully implement the decentralization framework because, during the interviews, some interviewees expressed the view that they felt left out of the current performance contracting system, where only district coordinating directors and chief executives sign performance agreements. It will need the Local Government Council to expand the scope and the size of the performance contracting to include unit and decentralized heads because they directly oversee the task performance of their subordinates. They must be made to be involved in the crafting of the KPAs and be accountable through the performance contracting system.

Third, the implications for policy in the qualitative findings suggest that there are several challenges that may impede the success of the performance management reforms of the LGS. Therefore, interest should be towards addressing local content requirements of the KPAs, because, participants expressed their views that the current top-down approach used to set the five KPAs (2, 3.4, 5 & 6) lacks the locally-induced needs of the individual district assemblies, because the KPA which focusses on district-specific needs is not enough and should be widened.

Fourth, the current KPAs and KPIs do not measure outcomes or results. It only measures outputs and inputs used in the process. However, performance management is about measuring outcomes, which is the reason for measuring performance. Therefore, both implementing agencies and policymakers should ensure that the present process accounting is replaced with an outcome accounting. For example, if a district wants to construct a two-unit classroom as their KPA, the performance rating should extend to the utilization and the performance of the school children.

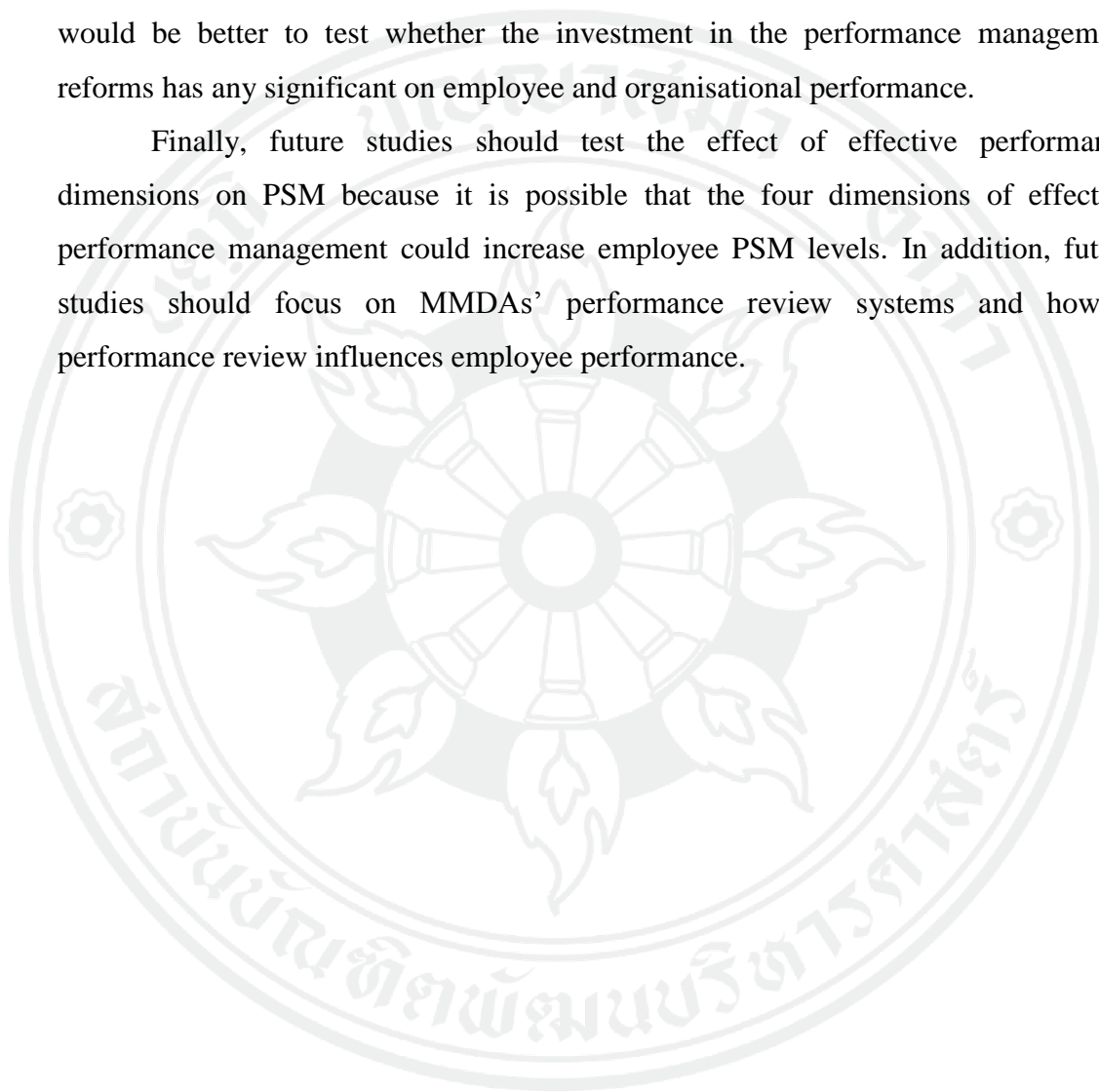
Fifth, the results have implications for the performance review and feedback system of MMDAs at the local level. The results of the performance review showed that both the organisational and environmental determinants have less significance on performance review and improvement. This implies that the performance review systems of MMDAs may not be utilizing the performance information that is generated from the PM cycle to monitor employees' performance based on the goals, and targets set at the beginning of the performance cycle. Consequently, MMDAs should focus on improving their performance review and feedback system to help employees enhance their future performance and goal attainment.

7.7.1 Directions for Further Research

For a study to be worthy of the investment put in it, it should be able to identify gaps either in the methodological procedures or the findings and theoretical shortcomings to be addressed by future studies. In this regard, this study, as earlier enumerated the limitations, may need a clear understanding of certain areas which might not have been answered. First, future studies should resolve the methodological issue by using a longitudinal case study of fewer MMDAs to find out if stakeholder participation will influence strategic planning, because by incorporating the longitudinal study the researcher can observe if other intersectoral actors and

customers are involved in the process. Second, future research should focus on testing the PSM variable using longitudinal case studies to provide more understanding of how PSM affects employee performance. Third, future studies should focus on testing whether performance management policies influence local government institutions' performance, though this is beyond the scope of the study, it would be better to test whether the investment in the performance management reforms has any significant on employee and organisational performance.

Finally, future studies should test the effect of effective performance dimensions on PSM because it is possible that the four dimensions of effective performance management could increase employee PSM levels. In addition, future studies should focus on MMDAs' performance review systems and how a performance review influences employee performance.



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Appendix I



Questionnaires

Informed Consent Form

Dear Respondent

This questionnaire is meant to solicit your response to performance management and performance appraisal reforms implemented in your Assembly since 2012. The purpose is to examine the performance management reforms in the Local Government Service. Your answers are anonymous and confidential because the information sought after is for academic purposes only. Please, you are kindly requested to answer all the questions as candid as possible. Thank you for your cooperation and participation.

Instruction to Respondents

There are five (5) sections in all and each section contains sub-sections with ‘a number of questions which you are required to respond to, you are kindly requested to answer all questions by circling’ your answer where appropriate.

‘Please for each of the statements in this section indicate your agreement or disagreement by (circling) as follows’: *1) “Strongly disagree, (2 disagree, (3 slightly disagree, (4 neither agree nor disagree, 5 (slightly agree, (6 agree, (7 strongly agree”*

Item	Response						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strategic planning	Response						
My Assembly annual action plan incorporates performance indicators							
My Assembly PM results are used for strategic planning & decision-making							
My Assembly's strategic planning incorporate the mission and goals of PM process							
My Assembly prepares performance-based budgets							
My Assembly prepares quarterly/mid-year review performance reports							
My Assembly prepares its strategic plan incorporating performance indicators							
My Assembly has an action plan for implementing the Service PM policy							
My Assembly prepares progress reports of employee and the Assembly's performance							
My Assembly conducts in strategic planning							
Performance Monitoring & Evaluation	Response						
My Assembly's PM involves formal assessment of individual employee performance							
My overall performance is rated and scored by my boss every six months							
My Assembly has a routine monitoring plan of the PM cycle							
I can track my progress on my KPIs							
Performance Review	Response						
During performance reviews, my supervisor focus on the results I should obtain							
During performance reviews, my supervisor focus on my personal development							
During performance reviews, my supervisor focus on what I must do and how I do my job							
Performance Improvement	Response						
PM contributes to my professional development							
PM enhance my self-esteem							

Item	Response						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PM provides me with more insight into my personal contributions and added value PM clarify the expectations regarding my functioning PM has a clear effect on how comfortable I feel in my job PM has a clear effect on my performance PM make me function better My Assembly has a routine performance improvement programmes for staff							
Clear & Measurable Goals	Response						
My Assembly has a clear mission statement My Assembly programmes and activities are focussed on achieving its mission 'It is easy to explain the goals of this Assembly to outsiders'							
Development of Results-oriented Performance Measures	Response						
My Assembly's performance indicators are reliable My Assembly's performance measurement is a worthy investment of my energy This Assembly's performance measures are results-driven My Assembly performance measures can increase productivity My Assembly performance measurement can improve quality of service delivery My Assembly's performance measures involve accounting for inputs used in my work							
Use of Performance Information	Response						
My assembly uses 'performance information' to develop "new approaches for doing things" My assembly uses 'performance information to set priorities'. My assembly uses 'performance information to identify problems that need attention' My assembly uses performance information to make decisions regularly My assembly uses performance information to identify training needs assessment for improving performance							

Item	Response						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stakeholder Participation	Response						
I am involved in designing this assembly's performance indicators							
I am part of the performance evaluation process of this assembly							
External stakeholders are familiar with the results of this assembly's performance management goals.							
External stakeholders trust the performance management system of this assembly							
My assembly's PM helps communicate more effectively with elected officials and citizens							
I am part of my Assembly's PM process							
Political Support	Response						
Elected officials support my Assembly with adequate resources to implement training programme							
Elected officials support my Assembly with resources to implement the Assembly's KPAs							
'Most elected officials are very critical of the assembly because the assembly is less effective'							
Policy initiative or request from my assembly is not always supported by elected officials.							
Most elected officials in this district do not trust the assembly							
PSM Construct: Attraction Policymaking	Response						
PSM 22 "Ethical behaviour of public administrators is as important as competency"							
PSM15. "I respect public officers who can turn a good idea into law"							
PSM27. I like the give and take nature of policy making							
PSM11. Politics is a good word							
PSM31. "I care much for politicians"							
PSM Construct: Commitment to the public interest	Response						
PSM34. "I would prefer seeing public managers do what is best for the whole community even if it affected my interest"							
PSM37. "A manager's obligation to the public should always come before loyalty to superiors"							
PSM39. "I consider public service my civic duty"							

Item	Response						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PSM30. "Meaningful public service is very important to me"							
PSM Construct: Civic Duty	Response						
PSM21. "I am willing to go great lengths to fulfil my obligations to my country"							
PSM25. "Public service is one of the highest forms of citizenship"							
PSM28. "I believe everyone has a moral commitment to civic affairs no matter how busy they are"							
PSM35. "To me, the phrase 'duty, honour and country' stirs deeply felt emotions"							
PSM29. "I have an obligation to look after those less well off"							
PSM Construct: Compassion	Response						
PSM 8. "To me, patriotism includes seeing to the welfare of others"							
PSM 10. "I usually think about the welfare of people whom I don't know personally"							
PSM 13. "I am often reminded of daily events about how dependent we are on one another"							
PSM 2. "I am often moved by the plight of the underprivileged"							
PSM 3. "Most social programs are too vital to do without"							
PSM 4. "It is difficult for me to contain my feelings when I see people in distress"							
PSM 40. I do support public programs wholeheartedly							
PSM24. "I have compassion for people in need who are unwilling to take the first step to help themselves"							
PSM Construct: Self-Sacrifice	Response						
PSM1 "Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements"							
PSM5 "I believe in putting duty before self"							
PSM26 "I am prepared to make huge sacrifices for the good of society"							
PSM17 "I feel people should give back to society more than they get from it"							
PSM6. "Doing well financially is defined less important to me than doing good"							

Respondents Background Information and Demographic Questionnaires

Directions: Please **tick** the answer that best describes you and your employment status.

Demographics									
My age	24 or Below	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60			
My Gender is				Male	Female				
My Marital Status is	Married	Single	Divorced	Widowed	Separated	Other specify?			
My highest qualification is	Diploma (HND, University Diploma)	Bachelors (BA, BSC, Bed)	Masters [MBA, MSC, MA, EMBA]	PhD, DBA, DPA	Professional qualification or other				
I work in a	Metropolitan Assembly	Municipal Assembly	District Assembly	Sub-Metro	Decentralised Department				
Number of years I have worked in the service is	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Over 20				
I am on the Grade of	DD & Analogues	ADI & Analogues	ADII & Analogues	ADIIB & Analogues	CEO & Analogues	PEO & Analogues	SEO & Analogues		
I work in the division of	Central Administration	Planning & Budgeting	Human Resource	Internal Audit	Revenue & Finance	Decentralised Department			
I supervise or manage other staffs			Yes How many?			No			
I am a full-time Local Service staff			Yes			No			

Appendix II



Qualitative Interview Guide

Informed Consent Form

Dear Respondent

This interview is meant to solicit your responses on performance management and performance appraisal reforms implemented in the Local Government and the public service since 2012 and the role public service can play to support Ghana's performance culture. The aim of this study is to find out the implementation of the performance management systems in the Local Government Service and the Public Service. Your responses would be treated as anonymous and confidential because the information sought for is to be used for academic purposes only. Please, your candid responses to the interview are kindly needed. Thanks for your participation.

Interview Guide for Qualitative Data

In-depth interview schedule for effective performance management developed and modified from existing literature on performance management.

BACKGROUND OF PARTICIPANTS

Name of public institution.....

Department:

Age.....

Gender.....

Marital Status.....

Position/Grade.....

Number of years worked in the organisation.....

Highest Level of education.....

Type of appointment

Role play in the design & implementation process of the PM policy.....

Context-Specific Factors and the Nature of Performance Management Reforms in Ghana

1. In your opinion what is the nature of the Ghanaian performance management system? Is it different from a different context?
2. What is the content of the Ghanaian performance management reform policy? What are the goals of this policy?
3. Do you think that Ghana's PM reform policy have similarities with other countries within the sub-region, developing and the developed world?
4. Are there any differences that can be observed in other countries models? What are they?
5. In your view what are the determinants of effective performance management in the Ghanaian experience?
6. In your view do you think that there are key actors and stakeholders in the design and implementation of the performance management policy in the public service in Ghana?
7. What is the role of key actors and stakeholders in the performance management reforms policy in Ghana?
8. Are elected politicians part of the design and implementation of the PM policy?
9. What is their level of support for performance management reforms in the public service?
10. In your opinion do you think involving citizens/customers in your performance management policies will contribute to effective performance culture in the public service?
11. In your view does a culture of a country have an impact on performance management success?
12. Is there any Ghanaian culture that impedes or enhance the success of the PM policy?
13. Are there any challenges in achieving the objectives of the performance management policy?

14. In your opinion what can you suggest how to mitigate the challenges facing the effectiveness of PM in Ghana especially the public service?
15. Please, do you have any information on PM you think is opened for discussion?



Appendix III



Profile of Interview Participants

Rank	Organization	Department
Commissioner	Public Services Commission	Administration
Secretary to The Commission	Public Services Commission	Administration
Director of MSD	Public Services Commission	Management Services Division
Chief Director	Office of the 'Head of the Local Government Service'	Administration
Director Human Resource Development	'Office of the Head of the Local Government Service'	Human Resource Development
International Technical Assistant to DANIDA	'Office of the Head of the Local Government Service'	Management and Technical Services Division (MTSD)
Chief Director	Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council	Administration
Budget Analysis	Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council	Budget Unit
Assistant Human Resource Manager	Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council	Human Resource Unit
Chief Engineer	Greater Accra Regional Coordinating Council	Urban Roads

Source: Field Interviews 2017

BIOGRAPHY

NAME

JULIANA ABAGSONEMA ABANE

ACADEMIC

BA, SOCIOLOGY with PSYCHOLOGY

BACKGROUND

MPHIL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

EXPERIENCES

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

CHANGE MANAGEMENT

COMPENSATION and BENEFITS MANAGEMENT

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGEMENT & POLICY

REFORMS

