# INFLUENCE OF CONSTRAINED PROGRAMMING ON HUMANITARIAN PROJECT OUTCOMES IN UNITED NATIONS AGENCIES IN KENYA

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# Influence of Constrained Programming on Humanitarian Project Outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya

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## DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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## DEDICATION

To my wife Frashia for her support, patience and encouragement throughout my studies.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| | |
|---|---|
| **ALNAP** | Active Learning Network for Accountability's |
| **ASAL** | Arid and semi-arid lands |
| **CARE** | An NGO that works with communities, Civil Society Organizations, Private Sector and Government |
| **CFA** | Confirmatory Factor Analysis |
| **CIHR** | County Integrated Humanitarian Plans |
| **CP** | Capacity building by other |
| **CERF** | Central Emergency Response Fund |
| **CSR** | Corporate Social Responsibility |
| **CPM** | Critical Path Method |
| **DaO** | Delivering as One |
| **DFAT** | Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade |
| **DFID** | Department for International Humanitarian's |
| **EAC** | East African Community Treaty |
| **EFA** | Explanatory Factor Analysis |
| **EHRP** | Emergency Humanitarian Response Plan |
| **ECHO** | European Commission Aid Department |

| | |
|---|---|
| **EIU** | Economic Intelligence Unit |
| **ELARH** | European Leader Association for Rural Humanitarian |
| **FAO** | Food and Agriculture Organization for United Nations |
| **FPA** | Financial Planning Association |
| **GATT** | General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade |
| **GDP** | Gross Domestic Product |
| **GHA** | Global Humanitarian Assistance |
| **GHD** | Good Humanitarian Donorship |
| **GHP** | Global Humanitarian Platform |
| **GNI** | Gross National Income |
| **GOK** | Government of Kenya |
| **GNP** | Gross National Product |
| **HAP** | Humanitarian Accountability Partnership |
| **HPA** | Humanitarian Partnership Action |
| **HR** | Human Resource |
| **HRR** | Humanitarian Response Review |
| **HRBA** | Human Rights-Based Approach |
| **IASC** | Inter-Agency Standing Committee |

| | |
|---|---|
| **ICAO** | International Civil Aviation Organization |
| **ICESCR** | International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights |
| **IFAD** | International Fund for Agriculture and Humanitarian |
| **ILO** | International Labour Office |
| **IMO** | International Maritime Organization |
| **IMF** | International Monetary Fund |
| **IPC** | Infection Prevention Control |
| **IPCC** | Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change |
| **IDP** | Internally Displaced Persons |
| **INGO** | International non-governmental organizations |
| **IRIN** | Integrated Regional Information Networks |
| **KMO** | Kaiser Meyer Olkins |
| **KIPPRA** | Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis |
| **MDG** | Millennium Humanitarian Goals |
| **NGOs** | Non-Governmental Organizations |
| **NGO-PSE** | Non-Governmental Organizations Promotion of Private Sector engagement |

| | |
|---|---|
| **NOREF** | Norwegian Centre for Conflict Resolution |
| **NPDFK** | National Policy on Disaster Management, Kenya |
| **OCHA** | Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Action |
| **ODA** | Official Humanitarian Assistance |
| **OECD** | Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| **ODI** | Overseas Development Institute |
| **PPP** | Public Private Partnership |
| **P-problem** | Polynomial-time |
| **PPSE** | Promotion of Private Sector Engagement |
| **PS** | Project Strengthening |
| **PTD** | Project Team Deployment |
| **RBM** | Results-Based Management |
| **SPF** | Structural Policy Framework |
| **SRA** | Strategic Result Areas |
| **TOC** | Theory of Constraints |
| **UN** | United Nations |
| **UNAIDS** | United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS |
| **UNCAS** | United Nations Common Air Services |

| | |
|---|---|
| **UNCRD** | United Nations Centre for Regional Humanitarian |
| **UNDAF** | United Nations Development Assistance Framework |
| **UNEP** | United Nations Environmental Programme |
| **UNEG** | United Nations Evaluation Group |
| **UNESCO** | United Nations Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| **UNDP** | United Nations Humanitarian Programme |
| **UN-HABITAT** | United Nations Human Settlement Programme |
| **UNHCR** | United Nations High Commission for Human Rights |
| **UNHG** | United Nations Humanitarian Group |
| **UNHP** | United Nations Humanitarian Partnership |
| **UNICEF** | United Nations Children's Fund |
| **UNIDO** | United Nations Industrial Humanitarian Organization |
| **UNISDR** | United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction |
| **UNOCHA** | United Nations Office for Coordination for Affairs |
| **UNODC** | United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime |
| **UNOPS** | United Nations Office for Project Services |

| | |
|---|---|
| **UNPF** | United Nations Population Fund |
| **UNPOS** | United Nations Political Office for Somalia |
| **UNV** | United Nations Volunteers |
| **UNWOMEN** | United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women |
| **US** | United States |
| **USD** | United States Dollar |
| **WB** | World Bank |
| **WFP** | World Food Programme |
| **WHO** | World Health Organization |

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

**Capacity Strengthening** Improving human, organizational, and institutional capacity systems and knowledge for providing solutions to food policy issues (Curion & Hedlund, 2016).

**Constrained Programming** A group of organizations coalescing around a common sector of relief and working together in a spirit of partnership and inclusivity to manage several related projects, often with the intention of improving project outcomes within the prevailing constraints of costs, timelines, quality among others (Shepherd-Barron, 2013).

**Humanitarian Program** A collection of related projects managed in a coordinated way to obtain benefits and controls not available from managing them individually. It can also be a portfolio comprised of multiple projects that are managed and coordinated as one unit with the objective of achieving (often intangible) outcomes and benefits for the organization (Altay & Labonte, 2011).

**Humanitarian Project Outcomes** The likely or achieved short-term and medium term effects of an intervention's outputs (Stoddard, Harmer, Haver, Salomons & Wheeler, 2017).

**Labour Deployment** Moving or allocating to a different position, use, function (Street et al, 2016)

**Private sector** Is a term in the international humanitarian industry which refers to a range of strategies for promoting economic growth

and reducing poverty in developing countries by building private enterprises (Bendell & Murphy, 2016).

**Program Management** Management of inter-related projects that can yield increased benefits when handled together. The scope of a program is likely to be wider than the project, and must focus heavily on the benefits of the investment. The goal is to satisfy the criterion for which the program was set up (Derderian & Stobberts, 2012).

**Project Environment** Enterprise environmental factors such as political, ecological, social cultural, technological, economic and legal factors (Knudsen, 2011).

**Project Management** Refers to the oversight and coordination of a set of tasks carried out to produce a product or service.

## ABSTRACT

Humanitarian project outcomes have not been achieved fully due to lack of effective programming. The result is failure to meet the needs of beneficiaries. It is for this compelling reason that it is important to deconstruct the roles of and linkages between emergency, relief and development aid, identify problems that influence effectiveness of desired project outcomes, and also acknowledge progress and successes both past and present. This study addressed the influence of constrained programming on project outcomes in United Nations agencies in Kenya. The main objective of the study was to establish the influence of constrained programming on project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya. The specific objectives were; to establish how project strengthening influenced project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya, to ascertain how structural policy framework influenced project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya, to determine project team deployment influenced project outcomes in United Nations' Agencies in Kenya, to find out how promotion of private sector engagement influenced project outcomes in United Nations' Agencies in Kenya and to establish the moderating effect of project environment on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The study adopted a descriptive research design guided by cross sectional survey. The study sampled 13 project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The study findings showed a significant influence of all the five variables to the Project outcomes in UN agencies. The study found out that there was significant corresponding change in the Project outcomes in UN agencies for every change in all the five predictor variables jointly. Test of overall significance of all the five variables jointly, Project Strengthening, Project team deployment, Structural Policy Framework and Promotion of private sector engagement using ANOVA, it found the model to be significant. The output given from the findings indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between the components of Constrained Programming namely Project Strengthening (PS), Structural Policy Framework (SPF), Project Team deployment (PTD) and Promotion of private sector engagement (PPSE) with Project outcomes in UN agencies as shown by the regression analysis value of t – Calculated which was greater than t critical and P Value that was acceptable level for all the variables. The findings also demonstrated that constrained programming can be used to mobilize, assemble, and manage all intangible resources in order to enhance Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The findings also indicated that all the independent variables were a major contributor towards the Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. Based on the findings, it can be concludes that Constrained Programming influenced Project outcomes in UN agencies to a very large extent. Further, the study concludes that project resources are an important factor influencing project outcomes. The regression coefficients of the study showed that project resources had a significant positive influence on project outcomes. The study concludes that Promotion of private sector engagement is also an important factor that influences project outcomes. The study recommends that humanitarian projects should realize that in the present project environment, constrained programming forms an important element of intangible assets

of the UN agencies which should be reconfigured to ensure that the projects seize opportunities, are proactive in the market place, make new product and process innovations. Areas for future research include other studies within different geographical contexts, concepts, methodologies and instruments. Future research can also be conducted using longitudinal research.

# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background to the Study

Humanitarian project outcomes represent a commitment to support vulnerable host populations that have experienced a sudden emergency, requiring ongoing assistance to maintain or improve their quality of life (Seybold, 2016). Golini and Landoni (2013) advance that over the past 15 years the number of humanitarian agencies: private organizations, governments (taxpayers), corporations, individuals and other stakeholders have grown enormously. This group of diverse donors have different target project outcomes but most function under one universal humanitarian programming principle (Khan, 2013). This is to protect the vulnerable by decreasing morbidity and mortality, alleviate suffering and enhance well-being, human dignity, and quality of life through constrained programming (Ika, 2012).

In the past decade humanitarian project outcomes have responded to over a thousand natural disasters and complex emergencies around the world, affecting hundreds of millions of people. Extreme weather and climate events have increased in both frequency and intensity, placing populations and assets at great risk (IPCC, 2012). Additionally, there are increasing number of humanitarian challenges such as internally displaced persons, refugees, and asylum seekers due to war or internal conflicts among or within nations. Further, natural disasters and political upheaval continue to threaten tens of millions of lives in the developing and developed worlds (Kopinak, 2013).

In response to the growing need for humanitarian response, (Gillman, 2016) notes that project outcomes have evolved into an industry, with a plethora of programmes, all with different missions, mandates, and agendas. With the increase of programmes, programming has met a series of constraints, including the need to both increase resources toward ends and to improve operational effectiveness and efficiency of the

project outcomes. Achieng (2016) advances that despite efforts to confront programming challenges, criticism has been leveled at the programming system for failing to meet the basic requirements of affected populations in a timely manner, with the quality of response varying greatly from crisis to crisis (Stumpenhorst & Oliver, 2011).

### 1.1.1 Global Perspective of Project Outcomes

Globally, assistance towards humanitarian project outcomes reached a record high in 2016, with US$13 billion of aid from governments. This is nearly double that of the 2006 figure of US$7.1 billion just 10 years back. The year 2016 marked a particularly important peak of aid with the Kashmir earthquake and particularly the Tsunami driving assistance well beyond the US$10 billion mark. This was also prompted by a series of other crises (the global food crisis, cyclones in Myanmar and Bangladesh and the Sichuan earthquake in China). The rise in financial aid has since remained the case, in part because of the continuing global financial crisis and high food prices (Bendell & Murphy, 2016).

Countries such as the United States of America have been able to achieve successful project outcomes because they put in place effective and efficient systems that track achievement of project outcomes (Muchelule, 2018).

In Syria, the diverse category of actors meant to drive project outcomes comprised: professional bodies (often medical groups) that existed prior to the conflict, charities, networks of anti-government and community activists, diaspora organizations, coordination networks and fighting groups that also provide relief. A study on Overseas Humanitarian Institute (OHI) advocates for creative partnerships between international and local aid agencies, based on a collective analysis of the project outcomes. The study further acknowledged that local and diaspora groups were the one set of actors able to implement project outcomes, though insuffient (Balogun, 2012).

### 1.1.2 Regional Perspective of Project Outcomes

The nature of project outcomes in South Africa poses a significant challenge for implementing agencies. The funding provided by donors for development projects has been extensive (Dominique & Clara, 2012). This financial support comes with conditionality's which affect the projects right from the pre-planning stage throughout the entire project life cycle. The experience as noted by (Eaton, Ibimina & Woka, 2014), is that in addition to projects reflecting the donor's thematic area rather than meeting a development need of the expected beneficiaries, donor interests often put a spanner in the wheels resulting in delays in implementation, changes in scope, and occasionally an abrupt cancellation of projects (Golinia, Kalchschmidta & Landonib, 2015).

Gregg and Ana (2016) advance that the Ethiopian context is plagued with cultural issues related to deferment, hierarchy, notions of respect, taboos and other aversions that often impact project outcomes negatively. Challenges in project monitoring have an impact on the overall quality and success of projects in Ghana.

Ika, Diallo and Thuillier (2014) note that project outcomes in the insecure context of Rwanda were complicated by increasing the number of distribution points to reduce travel time for beneficiaries, improving the service at distribution points to reduce beneficiary waiting time, increasing the value of the vouchers changing the value of cash distributed based on market price information and managing operational issues brought to agencies' attention through the feedback mechanism (Ika, Diallo &Thuillier, 2014).

### 1.1.3 Local Perspective of Project Outcomes

Karzner (2013) asserts that project outcomes in Kenya rely on funding from donors and well-wishers to finance their operations, hence the enormous accountability responsibility. Their finance, procurement and supply chain operations are subject to audits whose findings are presented to donor organizations. Itegi (2015) notes that

Kenya has a complicated disaster profile dominated by natural and technological disasters. Generally, some of these include droughts, fire, floods, terrorism, technological accidents, diseases and epidemics Most people have been affected, property and public utilities damaged, causing a general rise in the rate of economic losses, which require effective delivery of the project outcomes.

The 2013 assessment of humanitarian results by UNDP showed that project outcomes of the previous humanitarian programmes were relevant to the Kenya country context and that UNDP interventions supported the establishment of a critical foundation for development (Nadig, 2012). Keleckaite and Meiliene (2015) cited that the assessment further notes that areas requiring strengthening include the need for a more strategic approach to programming to improve effectiveness of project outcomes.

### 1.1.4 Constrained Programming

Musyula (2014) notes that constrained programming approach, also known as cluster approach is anchored on the five UN Programming Principles of Capacity development, Results-based Management (RBM), Environmental Sustainability, Gender Equality and Human Rights-Based Approach (HRBA). Muthomi (2015) further advances that in December 2015, based on the findings from the HRR, the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) established the Cluster Approach as a mechanism to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of coordination and thereby save lives and reduce suffering through improved project outcomes. Constrained Programming (Cluster approach) was established to address gaps in humanitarian response and to improve the predictability, accountability, and effectiveness of project outcomes through a more coordinated approach (IASC, 2012).

Constrained Programming is aimed at enhancing partnerships and complementarity among United Nations agencies, the Red Cross movement, international organizations and NGOs at both global and country levels (Svoboda, 2015). Constrained Programming assigns a lead agency to organize coordination, strengthen preparedness,

and to act as the provider of last resort for each major response area. Mwaura and Karanja (2014) posit that clusters were introduced for seven response and two service areas, with four crosscutting issues (See Appendix v).

### 1.1.4 Project Environment

Globally, the objectives of humanitarian action are to save lives, alleviate suffering and maintain human dignity during and in the aftermath of man-made crises and natural disasters, as well as to prevent and strengthen preparedness for the occurrence of such situations (Dunn, Brewin & Scek, 2014). However there are many examples of humanitarian or peacekeeping actors undermining these objectives by failing to take environmental issues into consideration in their operations.

Project environment includes virtually everything outside the project; its technology, the nature of its products, customer and competitors, its geographical setting, and the economic, political and even metrological climate in which it must operate (Akanni, 2015). Blecken (2016) in a major review of project management theory established that the environment interferes with the planned progress of humanitarian projects. The less predictable the environment and the greater its potential effects. It is therefore important to take into account project environment in managing the development of humanitarian projects.

A review of the results of World Bank projects by (United Nations, 2013) indicated that success or failure often depends on factors in the general environment outside the control of the project manager. The review pointed out that in the management of projects, a good understanding of the different features and factors within the environment that can have an effect on the project is essential. This can form a basis for analysis for overcoming or mitigating their effects on project performance.

### 1.1.5 United Nations Agencies Kenya

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has been responsible for coordinating the interventions of all UN agencies towards disaster situations in Kenya together with United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UNOCHA). These roles have are executed under the umbrella of the United Nations Disaster Management Team (UNDMT). The team is composed of: The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR), The World Food Programme (WFP), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), World Health Organization (WHO), United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Office in Nairobi (UNON), Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), World Bank and, United Nations Fund for Women (UNIFEM) (UNDAF, 2017).

UNOCHA coordinates humanitarian response to expand the reach of humanitarian action, improve prioritization and reduce duplication, ensuring that assistance and protection reach the people who need it most. Through critical situational and gender-responsive analysis, OCHA provides a comprehensive picture of overall needs and helps a diverse set of actors achieve a common understanding of the humanitarian context and a collective plan for the response. By doing so, OCHA influences timely decision-making to support more effective humanitarian response and emergency preparedness (Seybold, 2016).

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Achievement of planned humanitarian project outcomes remain the ultimate goal of any project or programme managers, as well as project stakeholders and beneficiaries. This not withstanding, humanitarian project outcomes have fallen short of the stakeholders' and beneficiaries' expectations. Dissatisfaction with the results along with outcomes of projects dates back to the year 2000. The rate of project outputs failure in Africa was over 50% until 2010 (IFAD, 2012). Khan (2013) noted that humanitarian projects

frequently fail to achieve the desired outcomes as a result of a problems that could be categorized as programming, precisely poor stakeholders' management, organizational imperfect project design, interruptions in project identification as well as start-up, postponements in the course of project implementation, budget overruns and organization failure.

Achievement of UN's planned project outcomes is mixed, with 33.3% of outcomes having been achieved, 34.8% having been partially achieved and 31.8% not been achieved(UNDAF, 2017). The constraints to progress most frequently cited by UN respondents were funding shortfalls and the paucity of current, accurate data. UN agencies have been unsuccessful in delivering on project outcomes owing to lack of coordinated programming and duplication of services among several projects. These resulted in a failure to deliver the desired project outcomes (Khan, 2013).

United Nations Development Assistance Framework (2017) provides that since appreciable donor finances towards humanitarian project outcomes total billions of dollars annually, these critiques present serious credibility and survival issues to humanitarian programmes that depend on donor funding in order to deliver project outcomes. A study by Kimweli (2013) analyzed the success of donor funded food security project outcomes in Kenya. The purpose of the study was to find out the role of monitoring and evaluation practices on the success of donor funded food security intervention projects. The study targeted residents of Kibwezi district who have benefited from donor funded food security projects. The study utilized a case study design because it was considered a robust research method particularly when a holistic and in-depth investigation is required.

Andove and Mike as cited by Muchelule, Iravo, Noor and Odhiambo (2018) assessed how monitoring affects the project outcomes of constituency development fund projects in Kenya. The aim of the study was to establish whether the project monitoring and control efforts of the contractors and project supervisors contribute to an improved project outcomes.

From the foregoing research efforts, there is need for more research to be conducted on constrained programming and more specifically on the relationship between constrained programming as a project coordination strategy and project outcomes in Kenya. This research aims at filling the knowledge gap of how constrained programming influences performance of project outcomes in UN agencies Kenya.

## 1.3 Objectives of the study

The study was guided by a general and specific objectives:

### 1.3.1 General Objective

The main objective of the study was to establish the influence of constrained programming on project outcomes in United Nations' Agencies in Kenya.

### 1.3.2 Specific Objectives

i. To establish the influence of project strengthening on project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya
ii. To ascertain the influence of structural policy framework on project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya.
iii. To determine the influence of project team deployment on project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya.
iv. To examine the influence of promotion of private sector engagement on project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya
v. To establish the moderating effect of project environment on the relationship between constrained programming and project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya.

## 1.4 Research Hypotheses

The study tested the following hypotheses:

**$H_{a1}$:** There was a significant positive relationship between project strengthening and project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya

**$H_{a2}$:** There was a significant positive relationship between structural policy framework and project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya.

**$H_{a3}$:** There was a significant positive relationship between project team deployment and project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya.

**$H_{a4}$:** There was a significant positive relationship between promotion of private sector engagement and project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya

**$H_{a5}$:** Project environment had a positive moderating influence on the relationship between constrained programming and project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya.

## 1.5 Significance of the Study

Specifically the findings of this study are deemed to be beneficial to:

### 1.5.1 Policy Makers and Regulators

The study findings speak to the general area of project outcomes. Government institutions can borrow a leaf on how to undertake effective programming for better results in humanitarian project outcomes.

### 1.5.2 Aid Organizations

They will understand the causes of delay in humanitarian timing and take necessary mitigation measures. Secondly, the findings will help in reducing costs that are related to time overrun, disputes, litigations and sometimes complete abandonment.

### 1.5.3 Scholars and Researchers

The study is deemed to benefit other scholars who may find the study valuable as a foundation for further research conceptually and methodologically. This is emphasized by the fact that constrained programming has enabled effective project coordination.

## 1.6 Scope of the Study

The study focussed on influence of constrained programming on project outcomes in United Nations' agencies in Kenya. The specific project outcomes are 13 (See Appendix IV & V) as implemented by UN agencies in Kenya over the last four years (2014 – 2018).

Nairobi was selected because it is the Headquarters of the UN Cluster in Africa. The variables that this study focused on are project strengthening, structural policy framework, Project team deployment, Promotion of private sector engagement as independent variables, project outcomes as the dependent variable and Project environment as the moderating variable.

## 1.7 Limitations of the study

A limitation as an aspect of the study that the researcher knows may negatively affect the results or the generability of the results but over which he /she probably has no control. Most of them have to do with size, length of the study or data collection procedures (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012).

The study used the questionnaires. The problem is that the respondents may have failed to respond to the questionnaires effectively by giving false information that would have affected the results. A letter from the university was included to assure respondents that the data was for academic purposes. The other problem of the questionnaires is that the data are affected by the characteristics of the respondents that are memory, knowledge, experience, motivation and personality. This was mitigated by statistical analysis which eliminated sampling bias.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides explanations of the theoretical rationale of the problem of study as well as the empirical framework related to the study. It developed the conceptual framework and reviewed the independent variables in relation to the dependent variable through critique of literature and identification of research gaps.

## 2.2 Theoretical Review

A theoretical review consists of concepts, together with their definitions, and existing theories that are used for a particular study. The theoretical framework must demonstrate an understanding of theories and concepts that are relevant to the topic of the research paper and that relates it to the broader fields of knowledge in the topic under investigation (KIPPRA & ODI, 2015). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2012), the development of the theoretical framework helps to clarify the implicit theory in a manner that is more clearly defined. It helps to consider other possible frameworks and to reduce biases that may sway the research interpretation.

The theoretical framework also gives a picture of how to conceptualize the research problem, its basis and the analysis to be chosen to investigate that problem. This framework makes the researcher to perceive, make sense of, and interpret the data, explain the theoretical framework understanding the researcher's perspective and context.

### 2.2.1 Theory of Constraints

The Theory of Constraints (TOC) developed by Goldratt (1990) is a "process aimed at identifying and removing constraints in organizational processes that are standing in the way of organizational goals. TOC judgment outlines major segments of the organizations' philosophy of continuous improvement. "It is applied to identify what factors that limit an organization from achieving its goals, developing a solution to the problem and getting individuals in the process to invent the requisite changes".

According to Blackstone (2010), TOC has been applied to "production planning, production control and project management practices" and it helps to identify the most critical bottlenecks in the process and systems, so that performance can be improved. . The basic premises of the Theory of Constraints assumes that people can think, they are good and systems are simple (Kweyu, 2013). Yet, there must be something missing. Why do good thinking people have so much trouble with projects? After all, projects are simply a set of tasks which must all be done within some precedence order before the project is complete.

Theory of Constraints argues that an organization facing challenges in cost management, poor performance and chronic conflicts is as a result of poor management practices and lack of necessary intervention. Eliyahu developed the theory of constraints in the early 1980s to help organizations decide what to change, identify a desirable new condition and how to trigger the change.

Adherence to cost estimates is either a constraint or has the potential to become a constraint. This cause-and- effect relationship can be very complex, especially in complex systems such as those of humanitarian projects. Capturing the essence of cause and effect within the system and identifying factors that emulate these relationships are the keys to system performance and excellent adherence to cost estimates (Bradbury, 2011).

The Theory of Constraints (TOC) approach focuses on successful on-time completion of the entire project. According to TOC, the main constraint in any project is the time taken for completion of the critical chain. Therefore emphasis is laid on completing activities in the critical chain without wasting any time. Hence, cutting safety time from individual activities eliminates the major cause of time wastage, thereby removing the constraint. However, this does not mean that the project is to be left unprotected against any unforeseen delays in any individual activity. The project is to be guarded against delays by providing time buffers (Nadig, 2012).

Projects involve a high level of uncertainty and depend heavily on the contributions of individuals. Project managers need to work with different departments involved in the project to estimate lead times so that they meet the needs of the critical chain. The critical chain concept starts with a set of talented and driven project managers and assumes that the resource constraints are within the scope of the project but not in its leadership (Soriano, 2013). This theory provides the foundation upon which projects need to operate within preexisting constraints. It helped with analysis of the constraints that the projects face in order to achieve the desired outcomes and therefore, supported the need for project strengthening within humanitarian projects.

### 2.2.2 Complexity Theory

One of the main advocates of many-sided quality hypothesis is Stuart Kauffman in the 1950's. An intricate framework is characterized by Thompson (1967) as one in which numerous autonomous specialists collaborate with others in different (now and again unbounded) ways. Simon (1969) depicts an unpredictable framework as one of the huge number of parts which can communicate in a non-basic manner. Arthur, Durlauf and Lane (1997) express that fundamental start of intricacy hypothesis is that there is a shrouded request to the conduct (and development) of complex frameworks, regardless of whether that framework is a national economy, a biological community, an association, or a creation line.

The theory is based on classifying problems based on how difficult they are to solve. A problem is assigned to the P-problem (polynomial-time) class if the number of steps needed to solve it is bounded by some power of the problem's size. A problem is assigned to the NP-problem (nondeterministic polynomial-time) class if it permits a nondeterministic solution and the number of steps to verify the solution is bounded by some power of the problem's size (Svoboda, 2015). The class of P-problems is a subset of the class of NP-problems, but there also exist problems which are not NP. A prominent author in the field of complexity is Terry Williams who shares the view of other scholars on complexity but extends it by one additional dimension of time estimates.

In addition to the two components of complexity, vis-à-vis the number of factors and the interdependency of these factors, he introduces the third factor which is uncertainty. Since uncertainty adds to the complexity of a project, time estimates therefore can be viewed as a constituent dimension of project complexity that can be as a result of various factors (Svoboda, 2015). Kahane on the other hand puts a lot of emphasis on talking and listening to each other when solving tough problems when developing estimate costs. His approach to complexity is deeply rooted in a social environment.

It should be noted that complexity-based factors related to project dynamic are often abound. This is due to the difficulties in well understanding the nature of dynamic in humanitarian project in order to identify relative complex factors. In other words, planning for a dynamic system is difficult due to changes in environment and circumstances. It is even more difficult to estimate dependent on environmental conditions and other unknowns (Wasilkowska, 2012).

Humanitarian projects occasionally demand for more additional resources as there is an ever changing structure thus affecting the cost estimates of the project (Wasikowska, 2012). This theory is relevant to this study because it provides a clear structural framework to enable achievement of project outcomes. This theory, therefore, enabled

review of existing structural policy frameworks in order to enhance analysis of the variable.

### 2.2.3 Program Theory

The program theory was developed by Huey Chen, Peter Rossi, Michael Quinn Patton, and Carol Weiss (1195). The focus of this theory is on how to bring about change, and who is responsible for the change. Logical models often used to represent the program theory shows how the overall logic is used in an intervention. The theory is in the body of theory of change and applied development field. The application by the proponents to this theory was on how to relate program theory to project outcomes (Svoboda, 2015).

The program theory was famous for its conclusive mechanism to fix problems, and addresses the need to carry out assessments to strengthen the project. It also provides tools to control influential areas in implementation. (Sethi & Philippines, 2012). Quite a number of organizations' transactions entail the human service programs that are designed to develop the societal needs, the programs are dynamic and are subject to change based on prearranged situations. The program theory hence uses logical framework methodology. The program theory is a comprehensive version of the logic model. It presented through a graphical scale to relate to the logical model. The logical model support the stakeholders' engagement, senior management and review of outcomes (Seybold, 2016).

The theory further helps with the funds utilizations plans, and which analyses how the target persons get the required intervention. This is through the linkages of the service delivery systems. Finally, program theory provides a profound information how the planned activities for specified target persons represents the expected social benefits. Uitto (2010) illustrates the benefits of using theory-based framework in monitoring and evaluation. It includes the ability to attribute project outcomes of specific projects or activities as well as identification of anticipated and undesired program outcomes.

The logical model clarifies the objectives of the program, identifying expected casual links in following the result chain; inputs, process, outputs and the overall outcome. It provides a link to identification of performance measures at each stage of the logical model. It answers the questions of uncertainty within the project by monitoring the progress and taking corrective mechanisms.

A program theory shows a single immediate outcome by which the program has achieved, it helps to understand whether there is change towards a desired performance level. Complex programs mainly found in complex projects show a series of immediate outcomes. This theory therefore offers a generally acceptable framework for understanding a range of enterprise environmental factors that arise from the project environment. Projects survive within constrained internal and external environments. This theory, therefore, enabled analysis of internal, external and industry environments.

### 2.2.4 Project Management Systems Theory

Project management systems are plagued with misunderstanding of Interdependence versus Independence, Finite versus Limited Capacity and Strategic versus Individual Safety. Lecture and research are ineffective at convincing members of the project management community to come together to overcome these serious obstacles. Complex systems are defined as systems with numerous stakeholders, nonlinearities, multiple interdependencies and feedback systems (Kamau & Sinigallia, 2013).

Typical nonlinearities are often unanticipated changes in the scope of the project, the dismissal of project managers, shedding people with critical skills or the termination of credit arrangements with banks. The interdependencies are the relationships between project management, the suppliers and contractors, the clients and the other stakeholders. The feedback systems most common to the success and failure of project management are the rework cycles and their impact on both the demand for labour and the final budget and completion date (Kamau & Sinigallia, 2013).

Systems Theory leads onto Systems Thinking that teaches us to look at the total system performance and the relationships between systems. Take for instance the human body; it is a system that has many inter-related sub-systems like the heart, lungs, arteries and veins. While the heart is the most efficient and relatively maintenance free 'pump' known to man, on its own it is just a pump, but when it is inter-related with the lungs, arteries and veins it provides life to the human body (Jackson & Aynte, 2013).

Every project is a 'system' in that it consists of many interrelated and interconnected parts or elements which must function together as a 'whole'. Project Managers need to be concerned with the 'big picture', and as such, they must be systems thinkers and allocate adequate attention to every part of the project management system. Traditional approaches to competency standards have used a reductionist approach that deconstructs roles down into units, elements, underpinning knowledge and actions in the workplace as the assessment criteria. These standards move away from traditional philosophies, approaches and languages, which cannot adequately describe complex projects (IRIN, 2012).

Instead these standards use a Systems Thinking philosophical approach and methodology, based upon the premise that you cannot understand a whole through analyzing its parts. Views provide insights from multiple perspectives, that together provide a holistic understanding of the competencies required for the project management of complexity, and the assessment of individuals against those competencies, can only be achieved through using multiple views behaviours are complex sets of interactions arising from cognitive and emotional responses to dynamic conditions (IRIN, 2012).

It is in these complex interactions across multiple set of behaviours that competency is achieved. Behavioural flexibility and differentiation to suit the situation are measures of success. This theory is applicable to this study, because it emphasizes that projects cannot survive without private sector partners who enhance resource availability hence

project outcomes. The theory therefore, enabled analysis of the influence of promotion of private sector engagement of project outcomes.

### 2.2.5 United Nations Cluster Model

The Cluster model was implemented by the United Nations (2015) to address some of programming concerns and to improve the coordination of humanitarian relief and actors. Coordinating relief efforts entails minimizing the duplication of services, whether by filling gaps or preventing overlap, and ensuring various organizations are synchronized to work together to achieve a common objective, thereby enabling a more coherent, effective, and efficient response (Gillmann, 2016). Although the need for coordination in relief efforts is not disputed, there are generally two schools of thought on how coordination is best executed in relief.

A cluster-based response is led by the humanitarian coordinator, in support of the host Government. Clusters are represented by the country head of the cluster lead agency. (For example, the UNHCR Representative will represent the shelter cluster, the UNICEF Representative the WASH cluster, etc.). OCHA supports the HC's coordination role, and typically convenes ‘inter-cluster coordination meetings', in which national cluster coordinators participate (UNDAF, 2017).

The first group is driven by governmental and inter-governmental bodies, and places an emphasis on a centralized, unified, hierarchical structure, which is assumed to be more effective and efficient. The second group, preferred by NGOs, is based on a loose centralized approach to coordination. This group tends to regard the centralization as a means of control over actors and focuses on how a diversity of efforts and approaches can ensure success: if one fails, all do not fail (Field, 2013).

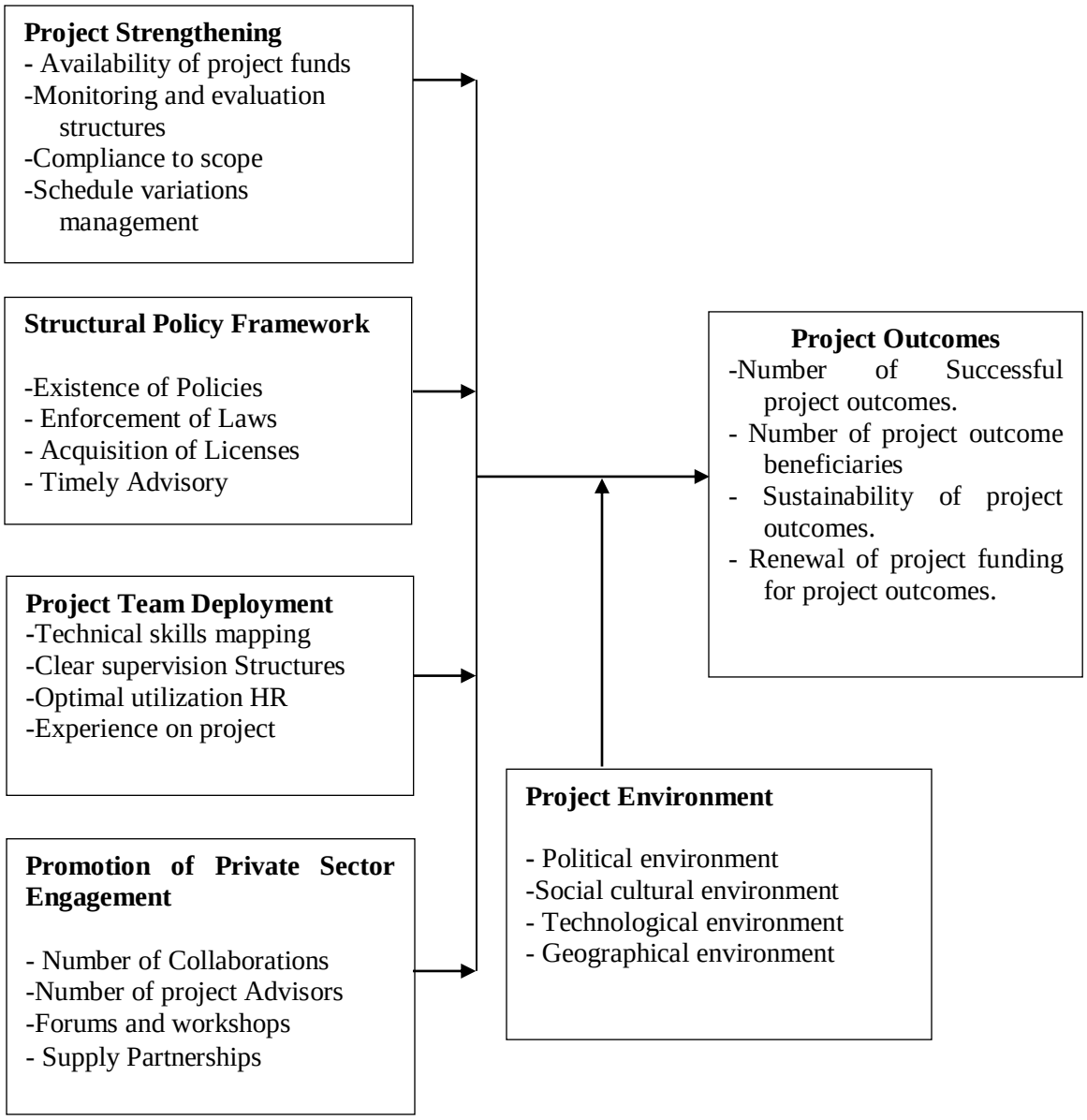
With a hierarchical structure featuring accountable lead agencies and encouraging equal-footed partnerships and collaboration, the Cluster Approach can be understood as an attempt to find a ‘middle-ground’ between the two schools. Although the Cluster

Approach is not the only means of coordinating assistance, examining the strengths and weaknesses of alternative coordination architectures is beyond the scope of this paper (Featherstone, 2016). This model therefore, provided a solid foundation upon which coordinating of actions, resources and outcomes within the concerned agencies is based. The theory enabled the study to analyze the relationship between project team deployment and project outcomes.

### 2.3 Conceptual Framework

Mugenda and Mugenda (2012) observed that a conceptual framework is a hypothesized model identifying the model under study and the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. A conceptual framework is a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of enquiry and used to structure a subsequent presentation (Kombo & Tromp, 2016).

According to Kothari (2012) a conceptual framework links the independent variable to the dependent variable. The following conceptual framework depicts the relationship between the independent variable, the dependent variable and the moderating relationship; it was based on four independent variables, one moderator and one dependent variable.




**Independent Variables** **Moderating Variable** **Dependent Variable**

**Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework.**

## Review of study variables

### 2.3.1 Project Strengthening

UN agencies have valid interests in using capacity building amid humanitarian action as a means to deliver project outcomes more efficiently. They also have a responsibility to ensure that local and national actors are ultimately better able to take charge of their own work. Difficulties arise because these short- and long-term goals generally require different strategies, partnerships and funding mechanisms. These differing and sometimes conflicting goals need to be managed better if the sector is to match its rhetoric with on-the-ground programming choices (Jackson & Aynte, 2013).

There is a need to be much clearer about the question of 'capacity building for what?' The supply-side, media-driven, short-term and neutrality-focused orientations of response are unlikely to change, even though these are all major impediments to a stronger emphasis on local institutional capacity building. Some of these factors relate to the composition of the system, others to principles (Knudsen, 2011).

The key point here, regarding capacity building, is that donors, international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) and other stakeholders need to fit capacity-building initiatives into the existing system. The institutional imperatives of running an organization are just as real as the needs of disaster-affected people. The search for practical means to optimize combining capacity building with providing assistance and protection requires that the 'needs' of higher-level sectoral stakeholders be assessed, analyzed and respected (Kituku, 2014).

A radical handover of responsibilities to local partners is unlikely to occur as long as international organizations are being held accountable for their ultimate operational performance and are reliant on funding structures and media exposure that emphasize what they themselves have achieved. This review asks whether it is possible for the sector to perform better in its engagements with local organizations, even if much of the

overall architecture of the system is accepted as a problematic fact of life (Lattimer & Berther, 2016).

### 2.3.2 Structural Policy Framework

Mucheru (2013) notes that the regulation concerning aid spells out the fundamental principles with which all aid operations must comply. These are further refined in the Financial Planning Association (FPA). The principles enshrined are: the principle of non-discrimination; the principles of impartiality, independence, neutrality and humanity; the need for aid: to be of quality, to involve participation of beneficiaries in the formulation, implementation and evaluation of aid operations, to respect the culture, structure and customs of communities, to observe the fundamental rights of beneficiaries, to be based on local capacities, and finally to establish a linkage between relief, rehabilitation and humanitarian. Compliance with these principles is monitored (Narasimhan &Jayaram, 2011).

In addition to the above-mentioned fundamental principles, Daniel and John (2012) add that the FPA with NGOs emphasizes that transparency and accountability towards the beneficiaries is essential in order to engage in quality partnerships with ECHO. Musyula (2014) advances that to this end, NGO partners must support and adhere to voluntary codes of good practices or charters, provide fair working conditions to workers (including volunteers), be committed to promoting the understanding of values, and picture victims as dignified human beings in information, visibility and advertising activities (Muthomi, 2015).

Mwaura and Karanja (2014) ascertain that Kenya has a rich tradition of philanthropy and volunteerism with roots in the communal relationships of a rural African society. This tradition was augmented by a host of educational and social welfare institutions established by the 19th-century Christian missionaries, by the social clubs created to serve the British colonial settlers, by the social, political, and protest organizations that

arose to combat British rule, and by the networks of self-help or *harambee* (pooling together) groups promoted by the first post-independence government (Kemuma, 2010).

Civil society in Kenya owes its origins to three major sources (Morgan & Hunt, 2012). Civil society organizations in Kenya have operations that are broad and diverse ranging from relief and social services to human rights. In 1990 the government of Kenya enacted the NGOs Coordination Act (hereinafter referred to as the Act) to be a central reference point for registration of all NGOs (both local and international) operating in Kenya. Prior to this, NGOs in Kenya were registered in different legal regimes (Doull, 2011).

These are operational agreements with the Kenyan Government through the Ministry of Culture and Social Services, Legislation, the Department of Social Services, and the Attorney General's Office, seeking registration as Societies, Companies Limited by Guarantee, or Trusts. Due to the multiple registration frameworks available for registration, NGOs in Kenya operate in diverse forms and operational structures, making consistent regulation difficult (Dunn et al., 2014).

### 2.3.3 Project Team Deployment

Labour deployment in areas affected by disasters has a contextual and organizational dimension. Organizations seek to create a balance between skill and local level politics when deploying staff. However, some disasters demand a level of skill in technical aspects of programming that may not be locally available. When governments, local authorities and community level leaders resist attempts to have professionals from other areas spearheading operations, there is high likelihood that the impact was felt and eventually in the whole operation. On a different note, cultural restrictions may not be happening on a big scale to warrant any significant association with project outcomes except in circumstances where deployment of staff is concerned (EIU 2017).

European Leader Association for Rural Humanitarian (2017) notes that local restrictions to labour deployment is also an important determinant of staff deployment with organizations that experience no restrictions many times (odd ratio) to have projects compared to those that have. Organizations that have sufficient funding are several times more likely to have re-deployment compared to those limited by funds.

Human Capital Leadership Institute (2016) looks at human resource management as a distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to obtain competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and skilled workforce using an array of culture, structural and personal techniques. It is very important that Programme managers design strategic approaches that are desirable in order to give a sense of direction and purpose and as a basis for the humanitarian programming of relevant and coherent human resource policies and practices.

Today, because of globalization, there is a lot of pressure demanding a broader, more comprehensive and strategic perspective with regard to project team deployment. This means that there is need for a longer-term perspective in managing and consideration of people as potential assets rather than variable costs. Street (2011) asserts that project team deployment means employing people, deploying their capacities, utilizing, maintaining and compensating their services in tune with the job and organizational requirement.

Project team deployment plays a very important role in managing, controlling, developing and maintaining team that significantly contributes to the achievement of outcomes. Deployment is responsible for assisting the project management for running the project processes efficiently. Deployment is also responsible for attracting skilled workforce, and carrying out recruitment and induction procedures, training and humanitarian, and settlement of the employee in a particular work environment he/she is comfortable in (Svoboda, 2015).

### 2.3.4 Promotion of Private Sector Engagement

The private sector generates 90 percent of jobs, funds 60 percent of all investments and provides over 80 percent of all government revenues in developing countries (UNOCHA, 2012). In the space, Promotion of private sector engagement (PSE) has begun to increase in recent years in acknowledgement of its capacity to provide critical assistance in times of an emergency. At the community and national level, the private sector has the ability to re-stimulate the local economy, reduce costs, and empower those affected in determining their own recovery.

In large emergencies where local capacities are not well developed, (Ali & Gelsdorf, 2012) note that there is often also a role for external actors to bring in additional expertise (beyond the contribution of additional funding and in-kind resources). In these partnerships, (Ambroso, Janz, Lee & Salomons, 2013) observe that NGOs, governments and civil society are able to complement their contextual understandings of vulnerable communities with the technical know-how and efficiency of their private sector partners.

At present, there is an emphasis in the Australian government on the role of the private sector in promoting humanitarian and facilitating aid, evidenced with the recent launch of DFAT's $140 million humanitarian innovation fund. As a result, CARE Australia will need to foster competitive approaches to engage this trend, reviewing their current strategy in order to sustainably and effectively enhance the benefits garnered from their work, whether that be in response, recovery or preparedness.

Broader concerns with PSE in the Australian sector resulted in an initial HPA-led workshop in December 2014, of which CARE was a part. Discussed were success factors for collaboration, potential pitfalls, and strategies to be applied for their mitigation. This workshop was just one component of an ongoing joint learning exercise being undertaken amongst Australian NGOs in dealing with PSE policy and practice in the sector. (Altay & Labonte, 2011).

### 2.3.5 Project Environment

According to Dewsnap and Hart (2014), a number of studies have been conducted to identify environmental factors that influence the success of project outcomes. The UN developed a framework for critical success factors of project outcomes. They classify the factors into four groups, factors related to the project, factors related to the project manager and team members, factors related to the organization, and factors related to the external environment. Variables that measure external environmental factors include the political environment, economic environment and social environment.

Afroce and Khan (2017) note that factors constituting environment of projects are political, legal, institutional, cultural, sociological, technological resources, economic, financial, and physical (infrastructure). Both studies directed attention to some factors within the environment that pose greater challenges to projects, management and organizational structure than others and suggested that these factors should form the focus for the management of the projects environment.

Political environment is concerned with government policy and the effect of political decisions upon humanitarian projects. The significant roles played by the government in the humanitarian sector are mostly clients, regulators of the national economy, and regulators of the project environment such as laws that guide ethics and humanitarian practices and many others (Achieng, 2016). As observed by Aira (2016) governments may also invoke their powers to initiate or stop projects on political, social and environmental grounds. Political stability, national unity and good political leadership are thus crucial to national development.

Williams et al. (2016) believed that no project exists in a vacuum but is rather subject to an array of influences from regulatory control to political and industrial intervention and opined that managers of the construction project will take cognisance of the political aspect that can produce an uncertain environment such as unstable government, unpredictable shifts in the economy and unexpected changes in consumer demand.

The legal environment facing organizations is becoming more complex and affecting businesses more directly. It has become increasingly difficult for businesses to take action without encountering laws and regulations (Rossi, 2012). The humanitarian projects operate within the covers of planning and environment regulations, codes of practice, safety regulations, licensing, insurances and taxation laws. These laws, codes and regulations (Seybold, 2016) believes are generally well defined, making it possible to predict their impact on humanitarian projects with reasonable accuracy. However, (Parker et al., 2013) observed that changes to industrial, safety, taxation and environmental laws are not uncommon and problems may arise when the law changes during the life of a project.

The physical environment within which a humanitarian project is sited may impact considerably on its development as humanitarian projects are always affected by physical influences (Muthomi, 2015). The geographical location of a project, ground conditions and weather patterns are the most common examples of physical influences. They are unpredictable and as such project management actions have not been able to prevent their occurrence. Nevertheless, Martin and Musyula (2014) opined that managers of humanitarian projects will take significant consideration of physical effects when planning the management strategies to avoid extremes which can take advantage of available resources.

The socio-cultural dimensions of the environment consist of customs, lifestyles, and values that characterize a society (William et al., 2016) while population demographics, rising educational levels, norms and values, language and attitudes toward social responsibilities are examples of socio-cultural variables (Kisia et al., 2016). These variables have the potential to influence or affect organizations that operates within the society.

Maxwell et al. (2015) developed a conceptual critical success factor model for project outcomes. The identified factors were classified into seven main groups, namely, external factors, institutional factors, project related factors, factors related to project

management and team members, factors related to project managers, factors related to clients, and factors related to contractors. The variables measuring external factors include the political environment, economic environment and social environment, among others.

Morgan and Hunt (2012) studied project success factors in different organizational conditions. He classified the factors into five groups, namely, factors related to the project, factors related to the project manager/leadership, factors related to the project team members, factors related to the organization and factors related to the environment

Nadig (2012) developed a conceptual framework for factors affecting project outcomes. The identified factors have been classified into five groups, namely, project management actions, project related factors, human related factors, project procedure and the external environment. Variables under the external environment include the political environment, economic environment and social environment (Maxwell et al., 2015).

### 2.3.6 Project Outcomes

Natural and man-made disasters have significantly increased in magnitude and frequency in recent years. This can be attributed to climate change and increase in terrorist activities in different parts of the world. According to the United Nations, natural disasters over the next years will become more severe, often and destructive (UNOCHA, 2012). Within a year there are approximately 150,000 deaths and 200 million people who are impaired by the devastating consequences of crisis and natural disasters (GHP, 2017).

Kenya has had its fair share of natural disasters which include; drought, famine, floods, food insecurity, diseases and manmade disasters like war and conflict, particularly with the increase of terrorist activities in the country. An extensive relief community has developed since the Second World War (Svoboda, 2015). This includes multilateral agencies like the United Nations, World Food Programme, Oxfam, Care International,

Medicins sans Frontieres and The International Committee of the Red Cross. These international organizations are supported heavily by governments, multinational organizations, NGO's, corporates and individuals (GHP, 2017).

Stumpenhorst and Oliver (2011) observes that aid is prone to political and military convenience of both donor and recipient countries and often lacks a coordinated plan. With more funding due to increased frequency of disasters, donors are increasingly demanding accountability, transparency and value for money in return for their funding of aid organizations. Stumpenhorst and Oliver (2011) also state that donors are becoming more aware of expenses and organizations are under greater scrutiny to monitor the impact of aid and not just the input and output but the whole operation.

Donors increasingly demand accountability, transparency and value for money in return for their sponsorship of aid agencies (Healy, 2014). The donors have great interest in knowing how successful a programme is in accomplishing its goals with the resources they have provided. According to Arslan and Kivrak (2014) aid should be relevant, of good quality, well managed and should be accountable with mechanisms to challenge failure and abuse. It should also build durable solutions and be sufficiently resourced. This emphasizes why mechanisms for measuring project outcomes in humanitarian projects are important.

Hedlund et al. (2013) argues that organizations should not concentrate solely on currently needed financial resources and an exclusive focus on fundraising and financial indicators since this shifts attention from other aspects of performance related to output, effectiveness, and quality and customer satisfaction. He notes that measures mostly revolve around the outcome of organizational activities which are measured by assessing the overall outcome of the activities performed as well as their efficiency and efficacy in relation to resources spent.

Different scholars have derived metrics to measure outcomes, (Hedlund et al., 2013) outlines a three part outcome measurement of resource, output and flexibility metrics which measure efficiency, effectiveness and ability to respond to a changing environment respectively. Humanitarian Assistance Partnership (2012) evaluated performance of project outcomes and categorized it as performance that can be measured in terms of project results based on quality of output, budget adherence, return on investment, operational performance whose metrics are product cycle time, due date performance, cost and quality; customer service performance evaluated in terms of customer satisfaction, delivery dependability, responsiveness and overall project outcomes.

## 2.4 Empirical Review

This section contains empirical review of all information concerning constrained programming based on the conceptualized variables. The review evaluates reports of previous studies including observations, conclusions and recommendations related to planned study leading to appreciating and understanding the research that has already been done in an area of constrained programming.

### 2.4.1 Project Strengthening and Project Outcomes

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (2012) acknowledges that in traditional approaches to disaster management, local capacity building is primarily seen to be something that should happen before emergencies. These investments include mitigation and preparedness, early warning systems and strengthening of relief skills. Sometimes the objectives are even broader. In disaster prone countries and regions, the strengthening of local NGOs in general is sometimes seen as a disaster-preparedness measure, regardless of the specific skills involved. Without belittling the quality and importance of current efforts, these investments are modest, at best.

Homes (2016) in their study highlight that methods are being developed to measure and therefore justify the importance of disaster-preparedness investments. The primary target group for the data produced through these methods is the humanitarian community, and herein lies the primary reason behind the preparedness deficit. The community may see the need for better disaster-preparedness, but its reactive bias has meant that it is rarely ready to take a role in meeting this need.

Humanitarian Accountability Partnership 2012) cites that neither does it have the funding structures required for the long-term capacity-building investments that preparedness demands. Disaster mitigation and preparedness must be anchored in local institutional capacities. By contrast, the engagement of local organizations is optional in response. After a major disaster it is often forcefully argued that many more lives would have been saved if preparedness had been a major priority of donors.

Although humanitarian spending on risk reduction is rarely triggered by imperatives, a study by Mucheru (2013) notes that the response to the Indian Ocean tsunami may become an exception. Massive investments were made in building capacity for reducing future disasters, but it is not yet clear how far the community was involved in these programmes or how steadfast the commitments from the humanitarian community will prove to be. Gujarat and Porter (2016) also note in a study that the outcomes of the plans currently being made for risk reduction initiatives was the biggest test ever of whether commitments to building capacities for risk reduction can be realized and sustained.

### 2.4.2 Structural Policy Framework and Project Outcomes

Doull (2011) notes that whereas humanitarian actors attempted to insulate themselves from the world of politics, today they are increasingly implicated in global governance. Many agencies now work closely with states and attempt to eliminate the root causes of conflict that place individuals at risk. Nowhere is the politicization more evident than in

high-stakes political crises such as Afghanistan, the occupied Palestinian territories and Iraq. A number of factors contributed to this shift.

One Response (2012) notes that one emergent feature of risk management for aid operations in insecure environments, is the ability to manage fiduciary risks, for ethical, legal and financial reasons. The ethical imperative to ensure that the diversion of aid from its intended beneficiaries is minimized, particularly in insecure contexts with reduced agency oversight.

Although few works have openly researched the issue, operational guidance to safeguard against aid diversions was produced in late 2014. Moreover, in their study Reindorp and Wiles (2011) agree as mentioned in the section above on counter-terrorism legislation, there has been a growth in the complexity, scope, and number of legal regulations and subsequent policies from donors and governments, which have particularly affected aid operations in areas where proscribed non state armed groups operate. Aid agencies are left grappling with how best to adapt new, externally imposed, counter-terrorism policies, particularly: anti-bribery and anticorruption; anti-fraud and anti-money laundering, and; anti-terrorism financing.

Featherstone (2016) noted in a study that in its Sessional Paper of 2014, the Government of Kenya explicitly recognized that NGOs are potent forces for social and economic development, important partners in national development, and valuable agents in promoting the qualitative and quantitative humanitarian of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This Sessional Paper has come more than fifteen years after the enactment of the NGOs Coordination Act. The Act was enacted without a policy paper. It is, however, an important policy document that sets the legal basis for the needed review of the Act. The Sessional Paper provides an opportunity to expand the definition as provided in the Act and achieve the objective of bringing together all NGOs under a single definition and a consistent regulatory regime.

Internationally, Kenya embraces the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 that enshrines the freedom of association. Kenya is also a party to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) since January 3, 1976 and to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' rights. Regionally, Kenya is also a party to the East African Community Treaty (EAC) which guarantees freedom of association (Featherstone, 2016).

The Constitution of Kenya according to Government of Kenya; Ministry of Devolution and Planning, (2018) promotes and respects the freedom of association as provided for by these international and regional legal instruments. The Constitution guarantees the right to assemble freely and associate with other persons. However, there are exceptions to this right. The right to freedom of association can be restricted if necessary for public defense, public morality, public health, public order, public safety, rights and freedoms of other persons.

The legal and regulatory framework in Kenya for NGOs is the NGOs Co-ordination Act of 1990 and it's Regulations of 1992. The intention of this law was to act as a single authority for registration and regulation of all NGOs in Kenya. The Act commenced its operations on 15 June 1992. It provided for a six-month transition period and later extended this period by three months to 15 February 1993 during which all existing NGOs were required to register with the NGOs Coordination (Forcier et al., 2014).

There are no guidelines provided under the Act on the terms and conditions attached to the certificate of registration. This subjects the freedom of association enshrined in the constitution to unreasonable prior restraint for registration and deregistration of NGOs. Informal groups with common interests should be allowed to engage in lawful activities without having to acquire a legal identity which is viewed as a barrier to entry (GHA, 2014).

### 2.4.3 Project Team Deployment and Project Outcomes

In a study by Integrated Regional Information Networks (2012), major shortcomings in project capacities in humanitarian programmes are acknowledged. Recruitment policies, in particular during emergencies, fail to provide, in a timely fashion, the number and quality of required staff. Training within organizations, in general, is limited in scope and number of dedicated hours. The voluntary nature of staff deployment for assignments to emergency missions, which is applied by the majority of the organizations, often hampers the speed of response, especially in very difficult and hardship situations.

Jackson and Aynte (2013) possits that reliance on the emergency team approach does not completely meet the challenges of effective response and often has the effect of distracting attention from significant deficiencies in Programming. Despite the fact that, in responding to a new emergency, many organizations draw personnel from their own standby pools - for some agencies up to 600/700 people - it is still difficult to find people willing to travel, regardless of geographic location and nature of emergency, even for periods of 4-6 weeks. In many cases, organizations must deploy personnel from their headquarters. This represents a far more limited pool and results in the risk of destabilizing work in other parts of the organizations.

The projects deploy senior technical advisors, as inter-agency resources, to address capacity needs in the humanitarian system's programming, in addition to providing training and policy influence and practice. Recognizing existing resources, the projects address institutional gaps, such as those created by shifts in the humanitarian system or a shortfall in the capacity of individual projects to deliver on specific humanitarian commitments. The inter-agency approach, senior level expertise and strategic support are recognized as programming added value and comparative advantage (Jackson & Aynte, 2013).

Kweyu (2013) notes that assignment of personnel for rapid deployment in emergencies is voluntary for all UN agencies with the exception of one. When recruiting expatriate staff, many organizations are often recruiting from each other or are tapping into the same resources, such as through short-term secondments. The large organizations make a distinction between the initial assessment phase and the deployment phase, with a pool of specially trained people for assessment and for kick-starting an operation, and a separate pool of trained people to provide actual assistance. Less of this sort of distinction is found among smaller agencies.

Most of the emergency teams are able to deploy within 72 hours, but primarily for assessment missions. Only a few agencies are able to react within 24 hours (only one within a limit of six hours), despite the fact that most agencies have a 24-hour on-call system (Kweyu, 2013). Most organizations have minimum equipment, enabling team members to be self-supplied for about four weeks, to communicate and to do necessary reporting. Many are, however, dependent on external transport and on the erratic provision of electricity during the assessment phase and in the initial period of the operation (Kamau & Sinigallia, 2013).

Knudsen (2011) in Cape Town found that the present approaches to the provision of staff during emergencies are inadequate to the need. There are simply not enough people with the right experience available quickly. Reliance on local hiring can be effective, but it needs to be supported by anticipation of the need for some training. Further, reliance on the emergency team approach does not completely meet the challenges of effective response and often has the effect of distracting attention from significant deficiencies in performance.

United Nations Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Action (2012) notes that humanitarian programming of today needs to identify what their teams need. Projects with more than one location can no longer assume that all teams in all sites have the same needs. Project teams have different needs that call for the establishment of a cost effective plan to provide for their needs. Employees' needs are static and ever changing.

Featherstoner (2016) asserts that Programme managers and project managers need to provide benefits based upon what the best particular fit is for the employee. This calls for projects to look at their total reward package in order to retain their skilled workers. Many Programme managers resist project team deployment as they think that it increases the cost of manpower as trade unions demand for employees based on the plan, more facilities and benefits including training and development. The other assumption by Programme managers is that they feel that project team planning is not necessary as candidates are/were available throughout the year due to the increasing rates of unemployment.

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (2012) argues that trade unions and employees resist project team deployment as they view it to increase the workload of employees and prepares programmes for securing human resources mostly from outside. Homes (2016) observed that employees and trade unions resist human resource planning because they view it as a practice that is aimed at controlling the employees through productive maximization. Effective project team deployment calls for adequate preparation of all the stakeholders in the organizations to manage the changes that can be brought about by planning.

### 2.4.4 Promotion of Private Sector Engagement and Project Outcomes

Lattimer and Berther (2016) affirm in a study, 'the private sector is infinitely creative and infinitely resilient' and thus, where appropriate, agencies should seek to access local workers, supplies and knowledge as opposed to bringing in international private sector support. There is a risk of seeing the engagement of the private sector as an ends-in-itself rather than appraising the costs and benefits of each partnership individually.

While there is often a sense of obligation in terms of using donated goods and services, a needs-based approach should be taken so that disaster affected communities remain at the Centre of response planning, programming and implementation. For this reason, local markets and supply chains need to be considered in the engagement of the private

sector with the risk that employing external organizations may manifestly disrupt local economics and the recovery process (Lattimer & Berther, 2016).

Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis (2015) notes that if one of the primary risks to the value of potential partnerships is the existence of an incongruence between organization motivations, then it is important that within the framework of a PSE that there is at least a shared vision of what is to be achieved. Creating clear incentives for each partner, mutually agreed goals should be determined with transparency and honesty, so that the partnership ultimately becomes of invested interest to both parties.

The particular value of long-term partnerships was also identified by Maxwell et al. (2015) in their assessment of PSE in the sphere. As contracts, codes of conduct, partnership objectives and dispute resolution mechanisms are pre-established and long-set, when disaster strikes, partners are in a better position to follow a routine and respond rapidly and effectively. Agencies need to strengthen their own processes around such partnerships, developing policies on PSE to ensure clarity and transparency of engagement from the onset. Meaningful and innovative collaborations often result from the establishment of trust and thus it is important to approach NGO-PSE with openness and honesty from both sides about their objectives and intentions.

The on-going transformation of the domain has created an atmosphere conducive to more extensive PSE in relief. A study by Ambroso et al. (2013) notes that until the late 1980s, the steady increase in financial assistance since this time, as well as the expansion of actors involved, has intensified competition for funding and projects. The reality of these supply-side constraints has created a friendlier environment for commercial involvement as NGOs scope for further funding avenues, but also improved means to strengthen their aid delivery and effectiveness.

In recent years, PSE in emergency response has been motivated by a concern to alleviate the suffering of affected populations and improve their wellbeing (Balogun, 2012). Often this desire to 'do good' and actively commit the resources necessary is leadership driven, underlying the philanthropic motivators that enable PSE. However it is also reflective of the increasing prominence of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) that has become more pertinent among multinationals and large corporations as they look to shape brand image.

Increasingly, consumers are concerned with the intrinsic values of the commercial organizations they support, so developing an emotional bond with the community is seen to resonate with an agency's integrity. Beyond its role in improving brand image, businesses often engage in assistance aspiring to motivate staff. If there are staff working locally in disaster areas, concerns with their safety can drive private engagement, but it also works to assist companies in their recruitment and lowering staff turnover. Studies by (Bendell & Murphy, 2016) have shown that organizations with a demonstrable commitment to CSR are more effective performers in the 'war for talent.

Bradbury (2011) articulate that when employees are directly engaged with relief operations, staff morale is also seen to significantly increase. In becoming a private sector partner, commercial operators have an opportunity to learn for their experience, and develop innovative products and services that provide significant business opportunities. In recent years there has been a trend towards collaborations within telecommunication and logistic sectors that has presented for businesses involved access to a new array of clients.

Belliveau (2015) notes that indeed, as found within a study undertaken by the ODI, businesses are increasingly involved in developing innovative social enterprise models that can be commercial in nature, but assist with needs. In helping to reduce the impact of future disasters, they then capitalize on new markets. Generally the earthquake in Haiti in 2016 presented some poor examples of promotion of private sector engagement within certain sectors, such as consumer goods, construction and pharmaceuticals.

Belliveau (2015), PSE was unsuccessful due to poor coordination amongst aid agencies and the government. Collaboration was also impeded at times due to the differing motives of the aid agencies (humanitarian) and the businesses (commercial profit). Further, the local community viewed some aid assistance, like the distribution of food and availability of free services, as having a damaging effect on local business instead of supporting the economy in the long term.

Bradbury (2011) after the earthquake, a key need in recovery was the reconstruction of housing, with tens of thousands of partially damaged houses in densely populated areas of the capital, Port-au-Prince. Although many international humanitarian organizations, including CARE supported the construction of new houses in outer areas of the city and gradual improvements to shanty housing, there has not been to date, any substantial reconstruction initiative. This has been the case, because establishing land tenure is difficult, and there are weak urban planning and governance processes at play that potentially distort legal liability in the case of any future disaster.

Charles et al. (2016), there should be significant opportunities to develop partnerships at scale for urban disaster housing, with the private sector in lead and civil society playing roles in community engagement (targeting, participatory design, feedback mechanisms). Nevertheless the complexity of the various issues surrounding such a project have meant that to date, there has not been a relationship between international NGOs, municipal authorities and construction companies in handling urban humanitarian projects after a mega-disaster. This exemplifies the necessity of high-level coordination and the need for large scale activation mechanisms that can be employed to facilitate the greater opportunity of partnership action. It also is perhaps indicative of why global, regional and national consortia are so rarely present in the PSE sphere (Collier, 2015).

In the Kenya drought response undertaken by the World Food Programme (WFP) and various NGO partners, a cash transfer and mobile money services initiative was launched in conjunction with financial institutions, like Equity Bank, and mobile network operators like Safaricom and Orange Kenya. Under this system it was intended

that beneficiaries open accounts with Equity Bank and be able to withdraw cash transfers through ATMs or using the registered SIM cards they were issued with (Comrey & Lee, 2013).

However concerns were raised regarding the effectiveness of this partnership given the insufficient geographical coverage of the private sector providers and the reluctance of Safaricom to meet the auditing and accountability needs of NGOs and UN agencies. This case highlights the discord between the expected and real capacities (Currion & Hedlund, 2016).

### 2.4.5 Constrained Programming, Project Environment and Project Outcomes.

Project Constraints particular to humanitarian programming make realization of desired project outcomes difficult. The difficulties of the operating environment and the need to act quickly in situations of immediate crisis make achievement of project outcomes difficult. Additionally, an organizational culture that values action over programming are among the reasons that constrain project outcomes (UNOCHA, 2012).

The humanitarian Programming Principle which features most prominently in the 2014-2018 United Nations Development Assistance Framework is clustering; also referred to as constrained programming (UNDAF, 2017). Constrained programming through clustering is emphasized in each Strategic result area (SRA) by United Nations at the enabling environment level. This is to be achieved through support to the development of legislation and policies; at the Programme level and at the project level aimed at enhancing achievement of project outcomes (UNHP, 2016).

Morgan and Hunt (2012) reveals that the environment of a project is described as “the pattern of all the external conditions and influences that affect its life and development of the project” For the analysis for the macro-environment Maxwell and Parker (2011) suggest the PESTEL framework, which is used to categorize environmental influences into six main types: political, economic, social, technological, environmental and legal.

Political factors include government stability, taxation policy, foreign trade regulations and social welfare policies. Economic factors are business cycles, GNP trends, interest rates, money supply, inflation, unemployment and disposable income (IASC, 2012).

Herfkens (2016) asserts that Technological factors comprise of government spending on research, government and industry focus and technological effort, new discoveries/development, Gregg and Ana (2016) notes that Governments impose laws to protect the home industry from cut- throat global competition They impose different kinds of tariffs, enter into agreements and sign treaties to protect indigenous industry and promote local trade. When governments feel that the home industry is affected because of dumping, under Article VI of GATT, they can impose heavy anti-dumping duties.

Afroze and Khan (2017) possit that globally, project outcomes in the humanitarian sector have had significant influence in determining important project agenda and turning the global spotlight where it matters most. Aira (2016) further advances that these spotlights have greatly influenced how funding flows to tackle the challenges in the developing countries. International partnerships resulting from this enable sharing of research and avoid duplication of efforts thereby maximizing impact and projects performance (Arslan & Kivrak, 2014).

Seybold (2016) reveals that Greater efforts were also put into improving accountability and performance of action. Significantly, the system-wide evaluation of the international response to the genocide in Rwanda. Seybold (2016) provided impetus and momentum for a number of initiatives aimed at increasing the quality and accountability of aid and improving learning. These included the Sphere Project, ALNAP, the Ombudsman project, the Accountability Project, and People in Aid. Of these initiatives, ALNAP has focused on improving evaluation quality and utilization as a key objective.

More recently, a study on UN Reform and the Good Humanitarian Donorship (GHD) initiative focused on changing the architecture of assistance in order to improve accountability and predictability of aid. It is important to recognize that the above humanitarians within the international system took place against a backdrop of fundamental change in the management of national and international public sector organizations (UN, 2013).

A central element of this reform was the shift from an input–output management model towards a greater emphasis on results. A culture of setting targets, measuring performance and assessing achievements in quantifiable terms permeated through to the international system. Results based management is now a dominant approach to assessing performance and impact (UNDAF, 2017).

Though aid is crucial in addressing the immediate needs of affected populations, it is of temporal importance. Activities that constitute good practice in the midst of an emergency may be irrelevant once recovery is well underway, and vice versa (Kopinak, 2013). In the early stages of a disaster, national structures are often overwhelmed and the immediate needs of those suffering must be provided for. In the later stages of a disaster, more attention can be paid to working with communities to establish natural resource and watershed management plans that can build long-term resilience.

Politicians in developing countries realize that disasters generate massive flows of aid from abroad. On principle, this aid is untied and disbursed only according to need, allowing countries that are least prepared for a disaster event to receive very high levels of relief. The promise of aid distorts incentives for politicians in these countries to invest in disaster risk reduction measures, despite their potential to save lives and protect physical assets. This phenomenon; the “Samaritan’s dilemma”, as demonstrated by Kamau and Sinigallia (2013) shows that the anticipation of foreign aid can result in a higher death toll from natural disasters.

According to Gillman (2016), the number of activities in projects varies from several to thousands. Certain solutions for small problems can be completely useless with bigger problems. A large number of tools are applied in the realization of success of any project outcome and techniques are developed that enabled representation of projects in a way that would be understandable to everyone involved.

Methods of network planning are based on graphic presentation of activities schedule within the project and their mutual dependencies. Such logical structure enables detailed analysis of realization duration of specific activities and the project as a whole. Besides the above-mentioned elements, the fact that large quantities of resources are used contributes to the great complexity. Since the available resources for the realization are most often limited, it is necessary to plan them in an appropriate way. Planning project activities regarding the necessary resources includes determining certain types of resources and deadlines when the specific resources are needed. Resources in the concept of project management include various materials, parts, workforce, equipment and financial assets (GHP, 2017).

National Policy on Disaster Management, Kenya (2013) provides that during the implementation of the complex projects, all planned activities and resources must be taken into account. In general, it is necessary to assign the resources to the activities, but to also avoid simultaneous engagement of resources for multiple activities. In order to solve these problems, various techniques and methods are used. Constraints exist in every segment of humanitarian programming. Problems such as scheduling and allocations are typical examples of constraints, where the basic concept of constrained programming can be applied.

Forcier (2014) posit that project management is a complex decision making process involving the rigid project deadline and budget. The traditional approach to project management is to consider projects as being independent of each other. However, in a multi-project environment the vast majority of projects share resources with other

projects and thus the major issue is to find a way of handling resource scarcity according to the overall strategic direction of the programme.

The external project environment concerns the economic, political, technological, social, and ecological issues. In turn, the internal environment includes the project risk factors such as schedule, cost, design, and organizational structure. Uncertainty can be defined in several ways. Essentially, it is lack of information, which may or may not be obtainable. Uncertainty is also linked with risk, based on the distinction between aleatory and epistemic uncertainty in the following couplet: uncertainty is immeasurable risk; risk is measurable uncertainty (Njanja & Pellisier 2011).

Seybold (2016) possits that engineers, designers and contractors view risk from the technological perspective, whereas lenders and developers tend to view it from the economic and financial side. According to Project Management Body of Knowledge, project risk is defined as an uncertain event or condition that, if it occurs, has a positive or a negative effect on a project objective.

Project risk planning utilizes the CPM (Critical Path Method) and PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique) for project scheduling, helping managers to guarantee the in time and on budget completion of the project. The hypothesis made in CPM is that activity durations are deterministic and none is rarely satisfied in real life where tasks are often uncertain and variable. The inherent uncertainty and imprecision in project scheduling has motivated the proposal of several fuzzy set theory based extensions of activity network scheduling techniques (Streets et al., 2016).

Williams, Ousman and Brown, (2016) defined external environmental factors as those factors affecting the project outcomes, which are mostly beyond the control of the management team. These factors include political, economic and social factors (Reindorp & Wiles, 2011). Political factors concern political stability and government intervention in providing both incentives and enabling environments for humanitarian programming. Government has an important role to play in ensuring the success of

public housing in terms of infrastructure development, provision of a favourable legal framework, and guarantees to developers.

Seybold (2016) argues that failure on the capability of government will affect the success of sector developmet. Economic factors constitute the economic environment that influences the flow of funds and affordability in financing. These include a stable macroeconomic environment, availability of credit facilities, low interest rates and long repayment periods (Stumpenhorst & Oliver, 2011).

Social factors have been concerned with the issues of the cultural aspect, health consideration and the general life style of beneficiaries. Reindorp and Wiles (2011) identified a stable political system, favourable economic system, adequate financial market, predictable currency exchange risk, low interest rate, long-term debt financing, a favourable legal framework and government support, as critical to the success of humanitarian projects. Reindorp and Wiles (2011) also identified good governance, a favourable legal framework, governmental involvement through the provision of guarantees, available financial market, political support, a sound economic policy and a stable macro-economic environment as critical factors to the success of humanitarian projects.

### 2.5 Critique of Existing Literature

Homes (2016) in their study highlight that methods are being developed to measure and therefore justify the importance of disaster-preparedness. The primary target group for the data produced through these methods is the humanitarian community, and herein lies the primary reason behind the preparedness deficit. The community may see the need for better disaster-preparedness, but its reactive bias has meant that it is rarely ready to take a role in meeting this need.

Project managers, in addition to their traditional functions, must set up a process to scan the environment, to identify potential problems, and to try to establish power relationships that can help in the management of the key actors and factors on which successful implementation depends (Aira, 2016). The study by United Nations (2016) also revealed that some factors within the environment pose greater challenges to projects, management, and organizational structure than others. These factors should form the focus for the management of the projects environment.

While an analysis of the key elements of the environment may not necessarily solve all problems, some of which are truly structural, they can provide a basis for establishing reasonable project objectives and also give an early warning of potential problems. Clients who initiate projects must put in place appropriate management, organizational structures, systems, and procedures for overcoming the effects of the environment (Kituku, 2014).

The project environment in many developing countries like Nigeria present special challenges for project managers that almost presupposes extensive cost and time overruns even before a project commences (Ambroso et al., 2013). These challenges arise mainly from inherent risks such as political instability, excessive bureaucratic contract procedures, and lack of adequate infrastructure such as transportation networks, electricity supply, and telecommunications systems (Svoboda, 2015).

The project environmental factors that have been generally identified include; political, legal, institutional, cultural, sociological, technological resource, economic, financial, and physical infrastructure. According to Nteere, Namusonge and Mukulu (2013), the four most important external environmental factors in decreasing order include community issues, weather conditions, economic situation (boom or meltdown) and government policy.

Destruction of livelihoods and deforestation as a result of brick production for humanitarian operations in Darfur (Jackson & Aynte, 2013); dried up wells due to excessive drilling for water by humanitarian organisations in Afghanistan (Belliveau, 2015); ruined livelihoods from an overprovision of fishing boats and consequent fishing stock depletion in humanitarian recovery operations in posttsunami Sri Lanka (Alexander, 2006); and failure to meet waste treatment standards leading to environmental contamination in Haiti and the largest outbreak of cholera in recent history are some of the results of humanitarian actions on the environment (Gregg & Ana, 2016).

A special edition of Exchange was dedicated to South Sudan, primarily looking at the resilience linkage between (repeated and/or protracted) project outcomes and long-term humanitarian programming. Previous work on secure livelihoods in the South Sudan context has also been published (Maxwell, Santschi, Moro & Gordon, 2015).

Kenya's environmental sustainability challenges, which are further exacerbated by climate change, coupled with the need for renewable energies, require an integrated approach linking better management practices for natural resources (land, water and forest) with early warning capacities and resilience-building (Kweyu, 2013). In Turkana County, UNDP successfully piloted a comprehensive range of disaster risk management (DRM) support services to national institutions and vulnerable communities, with tangible results which confirm enhanced resilience of communities concerning food security, human development and sustainable livelihoods as part of newly found coping mechanisms to withstand cyclical floods and drought(Kweyu, 2013).

OCHA's key role in other functional areas, such as humanitarian financing, helps to enhance its coordination role. Currently, the Constrained Programming Approach is implemented in UN agencies in Kenya under the United Nations Disaster Management Team (UNDMT) (See Appendix 5) that undertake clustered humanitarian emergencies (One Response, 2012). Implementation requires significant investments in time, money, and energy on behalf of all member organizations, with cluster lead organizations often

contributing additional funds from their own budgets. From 2014 to 2016, over 57 million USD was raised through global appeals to implement the Constrained Programming, in addition to the annual coordination costs in each country at around several million dollars per annum (Streets, Grunewald, Binder, de Geoffroy, Kauffmann & Kruger, 2016).

Ika (2012) notes that Kenya's humanitarian project outcomes could be dramatically reversed by various internal as well as external threats. These challenges are associated with governance, or the climate change-induced hazards to which the country is particularly prone such as drought and floods. Recently, political tensions increased in advance of August 2017 presidential and parliamentary elections; with the subsequent annulment of the presidential results by the Kenya Supreme Court; and with the October election re-run (UNHG, 2017).

The Kenya UNDAF presents the United Nations System's intended areas of collaboration with national, sub-national and local stakeholders for this period. It is the fourth generation UNDAF in Kenya, and it is the first in that country to adopt the Delivering as One (DaO) approach. The 2014-2018 Kenya UNDAF was designed to align with the GoK's national humanitarian priorities, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and with other key internationally agreed humanitarian goals and principles (UNHG, 2017).

The Kenya UNDAF provides a common operational framework for humanitarian activities upon which UN organizations can formulate their programmes, either as individual agencies or jointly. In addition, although the Kenya UNDAF does not capture all UN agencies' activities, it is expected that its results matrix include most of the UN system's interventions (UNDAF, 2017).

Lattimer and Berther (2016)) in their study established that the main challenges facing humanitarian project outcomes are; lack of recognition of the role of programming in humanitarian operations, delays in humanitarian operations due to domestic barriers, demand uncertainty and high costs.

African Humanitarian Bank Group (2014) identified the lack of adequate human resource and transport services during disaster management which influenced project outcomes in Indonesia. The study identified the challenges but did not seek to establish solutions. Narasimhan and Jayaram (2011) conducted a study to establish the project practices being implemented by humanitarian organizations in Nigeria and their impact on project outcomes. The study did not evaluate the effect of the challenges or identify possible solutions to the challenges faced.

Blecken (2016) identified the challenges of project outcomes with respect to different types of disasters, phases of disaster relief and the type of humanitarian organization in Uganda. The study was, however based on Uganda as a case study. Country environment and dynamics differ from country to country. Most of the previous research has mainly focused on Nigeria and Uganda whose operating environment is different from that of Kenya.

One Response (2012) notes that one emergent feature of risk management for aid operations in insecure environments, is the ability to manage fiduciary risks, for ethical, legal and financial reasons. The ethical imperative to ensure that the diversion of aid from its intended beneficiaries is minimized, particularly in insecure contexts with reduced agency oversight.

Taken as a whole, humanitarian programming has been poor at measuring or analyzing outcomes, and the introduction of results-based management systems in programmes has yet to feed through into improved analysis of outcomes in the field.. This suggests that, there is a need for greater investment in the skills and capacities needed to achieve the desired project outcomes (One Response, 2012).

Kituku (2014) notes that planning, implementing and controlling the efficient, cost-effective flow and storage of goods and materials as well as related information, from point of origin to point of consumption for the purpose of alleviating the suffering of vulnerable people complicates the realization of Project outcomes. Kamau and Sinigallia (2013) advance that in cases of emergencies, coordination and communication are vital. The programmes need to not only ensure that there is adequate and timely communication, their activities must also be well coordinated to ensure that they respond to the emergency in good time and with the appropriate supplies and personnel to remedy the situation and ensuring maximum impact of their activities(Mucheru, 2013).

Integrated Regional Information Networks (2012) notes that major shortcomings in project capacities in humanitarian programmes are acknowledged. Recruitment policies, in particular during emergencies, fail to provide, in a timely fashion, the number and quality of required staff. Training within organizations, in general, is limited in scope and number of dedicated hours. The voluntary nature of staff deployment for assignments to emergency missions, which is applied by the majority of the organizations, often hampers the speed of response, especially in very difficult and hardship situations.

Given the large (and rising) expenditures on assistance, it is arguable that there has been significant under-investment in evaluation and outcome analysis. Improvements in outcome assessment would have wider benefits beyond simply the practice of outcome assessment: greater emphasis on the participation of the affected population, the need for clearer objectives for aid, more robust assessments of risk and need and more research into what works and what does not would be to the advantage of the humanitarian programming as a whole.

## 2.6 Summary of literature Reviewed

Lead agencies are usually large UN agencies, such as the High Commissioner for Refugees or the World Food Program, capable of facilitating the coordination of all actors, including local and national NGOs. Clusters are permanently established at the global level and on an ad-hoc basis during times of emergencies at the country level. Constrained programming thus aims at clustering agencies to enhance coordination of the project activities in order to achieve the desired project outcomes (UNDAF, 2017).

Golini and Landoni (2013) note that constrained programming is established at the country-level during times of emergencies. The aim is to ensure a more coherent and effective response through mobilizing humanitarian actors to respond in a strategic way across all sectors, with each sector having a designated lead agency (IASC, 2006). Country level clusters most often mirror the lead agency arrangements at the global level and meet regularly to share information, create cluster strategies and work plans. They also contribute to the preparation of funding appeals, share information, or organize joint activities (Steets et al., 2016).

Currently, constrained programming is implemented in 27 of the 29 countries that are experiencing humanitarian emergencies (Achieng, 2016). Implementation requires significant investments in time, money, and energy on behalf of all member organizations, with cluster lead organizations often contributing additional funds from their own budgets. Aira (2016) notes that from 2006 to 2008, over 57 million USD was raised through global appeals to implement the Cluster Approach, in addition to the annual coordination costs in each country at around several million dollars per annum (Steets, 2011). As the main instrument of the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), the Cluster Approach is the prevailing strategy for humanitarian emergency response (Atalay & Labonte, 2011).

Dominique and Clara (2012) note that constrained programming arose in response to the heightened public awareness of disasters following the 2004/5 Indian Ocean tsunami and the inadequate response to Darfur, the UN commissioned the Humanitarian Response Review (HRR), with the goal to improve the effectiveness and timeliness of project outcomes. The HRR assessed response capacities of the UN, NGOs, Red Cross/Crescent Movement, and other key actors and recommends ways to mitigate shortcomings in capacity and response (Maxwell & Parker, 2011).

Findings from the HRR were then translated into reforms and implemented by the United Nations in 2015. The reforms were based on four pillars including improving leadership (through the Coordinators system), Better coordination of action (through the Cluster Approach), Promote faster, more predictable and equitable funding (through improved financing, such as the Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF) and More effective partnerships among all actors (through the Principles of Partnership implemented in 2017) (HAP, 2012).

There is a wealth of evidence to suggest that humanitarian programming is often unclear; objectives are not clearly defined within the context of the intervention; stakeholder analysis is limited; timing relates to institutional priorities rather than need; and that skills relating to outcome assessment methodologies are limited. Humanitarian programming capacities are even more limited in developing country contexts (GHP, 2017).

The high staff turnover and the lack of a learning culture and adequate resources are all contributing factors to the lack of capacity (GHP. 2017). In their report, “When will we ever learn?” the Center for Global Humanitarian suggest that part of the difficulty is that too many different tasks are implicitly simultaneously undertaken. These include building knowledge on processes and situations in recipient countries, promoting and monitoring quality, informing judgment on performance, and measuring actual outcomes (Street, 2011).

According to Streets et al. (2016) While these different dimensions of evaluations are complementary, there are strong arguments to suggest that, for effectiveness and efficiency reasons, they should be carefully identified and organized into separate 'systems' demanding specific methodologies and capacities. One area that has to date been insufficiently explored is the potential for sector-wide initiatives to strengthen capacity for impact assessments, or for collective within specific crisis contexts in order to undertake impact assessments.

### 2.7 Research Gaps

A study by Charles et al. (2016) focusses on what is measurable; they argue, risks reduce aid to a technical question of delivery, rather than a principled endeavor in which the process, as well as the outcome, is important. A study by Bradbury (2011) focused on Resource Based Management and on outputs (as opposed to outcomes), as these are easier to attribute to particular interventions. The study notes that a number of actors are concerned with results-based management approaches as opposed constrained programming, the study also focused on log frames and quantifiable results. This can undermine a central element of the ethic: a desire to protect and demonstrate solidarity with victims, and to restore their dignity.

Another study by Healy 2014) notes that number of cultural barriers and biases that hinder constrained programming, have also been identified including: the tendency to value action over analyses and the tendency to maintain previously held beliefs and neglect evidence that might conflict with those beliefs; and increasing aversion to risk, reflecting donor cultures and growing competition for resources.

While research on programming has increased recently, a study by the Center for Global Humanitarian conclude that there is little focus on project outcomes and hence no emphasis put on implementing agencies to carry out constrained programming. Furthermore, the study views constrained programming as having immediate costs while the benefits are felt only well into the future. In spite of this, as a public good, the

benefits of constrained programming have the potential to go well beyond the organization in which they are generated.

A recent scoping study, which looked at improving coordination and constrained programming uptake, found that only a limited number of programming studies in both humanitarian and development sector are published, and tend to be biased towards those which contain favourable results (Belliveau, 2015). This study therefore seeks to fill the gaps by examining the influence of constrained programming on project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya.

# CHAPTER THREE

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the research methodology that was used to carry out the study. It was guided by the research objectives as presented in chapter one. The methodology of this study covered research design, study population, sampling frame, sample and sampling technique, data collection instruments, data collection procedures, pilot test, data processing and analysis.

## 3.2 Research Philosophy

A The research was guided by positivism philosophy whose key ideal is that a social world exists externally, and that its properties should be measured through objective methods rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation, reflection and intuition (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The positivist philosophy in itself premises that knowledge is based on facts and that no any abstractions or subjective reality considerations can be entertained. Positivism perspective holds that there is objective reality which can be expressed numerically based on explanatory and predictive power (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012).

The positivist paradigm asserts that real events can be observed empirically and explained with logical analysis. The criterion for evaluating the validity of a scientific theory is whether our knowledge claims (theory-based predictions) are consistent with the information we are able to obtain using our senses. Positivist research methodology (methodological individualism) emphasizes micro-level experimentation in a lab-like environment that eliminates the complexity of the external world (Creswell, 2013).

Understandably, knowledge from this perspective is valid only if it is based on values of reason and facts, generated from data gathered through direct observations and experience, measured using qualitative methods and subjected to statistical analysis to explain causal relationships as conceptualized (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Thus the philosophical foundation underpinning this study was positivism where the scientific process was followed in hypothesizing and deducing the observations so as to determine the correct position of the hypotheses.

### 3.2.1 Research Design

A Research design is a model or an action plan upon which the entire study is built; dictates the manner in which a study is conducted and provides the road map of a study in terms of the sample, data collection instruments and analysis procedure (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012).

The study adopted a combination of descriptive research design and a cross sectional survey design to justify the relationship between the independent and dependent variables using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. A descriptive design involved describing the present status of the phenomenon, determining the nature of the prevailing conditions and seeking accurate descriptions (Kombo & Tromp, 2016). In this study, descriptive design was used to describe the characteristics of constrained programming, project environment and project outcomes.

A cross sectional survey is a method that involves the analysis of data collected from a population, or a representative subset, at one specific point in time (Orodho, 2011). This design is used to gather data on more than one case at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative data in connection to the variables. The study picked data for projects and sought to investigate the concept trends and status of project outcomes at a particular period (2014-2018). These designs were successfully used in similar studies by [Kirimi and Njeru (2018), Muma, Nzulwa and Ombui (2018), Muchelule, Iravo, Noor and Odhiambo (2018), Hassan, Gathenya and Iravo (2018)].

A population is a group of objects, individuals or items from which samples are taken for measurement. Cohen, West and Ailen (2013) describes target population as a complete set of individual cases, objects with some common characteristics to which a researcher wants to generalize the result of the study. This study was restricted to thirteen (13) project outcomes implemented by UN agencies in Kenya (See Appendix V) over the last four years (2014 to 2018). The 13 project outcomes were selected since they fall within the UN clustered programmes.

The study respondents included Project managers (total=233) in charge of realization of the 13 humanitarian project outcomes as shown in Table 3.1, within the UN Agencies' thematic areas (See Appendix IV).

**Table 3.1: Target population**

| Project Outcome | Cluster/Leader | Population | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|
| Health | WHO | 26 | 11.1588 |
| Food Security | WFP/FAO | 24 | 10.30043 |
| Logistics | WFP | 22 | 9.44206 |
| Nutrition | UNICEF | 19 | 8.01717 |
| Early recovery | UNDP | 25 | 10.72961 |
| Education | UNICEF | 20 | 8.583691 |
| Protection | UNHCR | 23 | 9.871245 |
| Shelter | UNHCR | 13 | 5.5794.1588 |
| WASH | UNHCR | 23 | 9.871245 |
| Camp Mgt | UNHCR | 10 | 4.2918 |
| Emergency Tel. | UNHCR | 6 | 2.5751 |
| HIV/AIDS | UNAIDS | 13 | 5.5794 |
| Environment | UNEP | 9 | 3.862 |
| **Total** | **13** | **233** | **100** |

Source UNDAF (2017)

### 3.4 Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is a list or other device used to define a researcher's population of interest. The sampling frame defines a set of elements from which a researcher can select a sample of the target population. Because a researcher rarely has direct access to the entire population of interest in social science research, a researcher must rely upon a sampling frame to represent all of the elements of the population of interest (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012). The sampling frame was drawn from UN agencies in Kenya (See Appendix 3).

### 3.5 Sample Size

The study used a census since the population was small.The study selected all the 233 respondents for the study since this is a small number (David et al., 2010). A sample size must be large enough to adequately represent the significant characteristics of the reachable population. Within this research, the main objective of the sampling plan was to select a representative and non-biased sample to increase the reliability and validity of findings. Where a population is small, a census study is recommends (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2012).

### 3.6 Data Collection Instruments and Procedures

Data collection instruments, procedures and techniques are discussed in this section.

#### 3.6.1 Data collection Instrument

Data collection instrument refers to the tools used for collecting data from the informants and how those tools are developed (Kombo & Tromp, 2016). This study used closed and open ended questionnaires to collect primary data. A questionnaire is a research instrument that gathers data over a large sample and its objective is to translate the research objectives into specific questions, and answers for each question provide the data for hypothesis testing.

Questionnaires are the most commonly used when respondents can be reached and are willing to cooperate. Information can also be collected from a large sample that is able to write independently and hence it can be free from the interviewer bias (Cohen et al., 2014). Both closed and open ended questionnaire was used in this study, this is because questionnaires are economical and time saving.

### 3.6.2 Data collection Procedure

Data collection procedure is an essential element in the gathering and production of useful data for analysis. The researcher developed and prepared the data collection instrument. Data was collected using self-administered survey questionnaire which befit large enquiries and are free from bias because they are respondent – only based, and they increase the rate of response (Kothari, 2014).

Primary data was obtained through the use of self-administered survey closed and open ended questionnaires. In this study, questionnaires were given to respondents and collected after two weeks for coding and analysis. Secondary data involved information collected directly from project reports. Specifically, secondary data was obtained from United Nations Development Assistance Framework report for the period 2014 – 2018. This was a useful tool for evaluating historical and confidential project outcome performance (Kombo & Tromp, 2014).

## 3.7 Pilot Study

A Pilot test as explained by (Ghesami & Zubeidas, 2012) is conducted to detect weaknesses in design, instrumentation and to provide proxy data for selection of probability sample. The procedure which was used in pre-testing the questionnaire was identical to those that were used during the actual study or data collection. The number in the pre-test should be small, about 10% of the target population (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

In this study the questionnaire was tested on 10% of the entire sample size, which translated to 23 respondents. The questionnaire was pilot tested on respondents from UN agencies that are not in the cluster programme and that were not part of the sample size so as to get reliable responses (Orodho, 2013).

### 3.7.1 Reliability of Research Instruments.

According to Kombo and Tromp (2016) reliability is realized when one administers an instrument to a subject twice and gets the same score on the second administration as on the first. The study used Cronbach's alpha formula to test reliability.

$$\alpha = \frac{K}{K-1}\left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{K} \sigma_{Y_i}^2}{\sigma_X^2}\right)$$

Where K is the number of items, $\Sigma\sigma_k^2$ is the sum of the k item score variances, and $\sigma_{total}^2$ is the variance of scores on the total measurement. This helped to find out if the wordings were clear and if all the questions were interpreted the same way by the respondents and if there were any research bias and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient value should be above 0.7 (Kothari,2014).

### 3.7.2 Validity of Research instruments

Kothari (2012) define validity as the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. Validity also refers to the degree to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure. Validity therefore, is concerned with the meaningfulness of research components (Creswell, 2012).

Content validity is a qualitative type of validity where the domain of the concept is made clear and the analyst judges opine whether the measures fully represent the domain. Cooper and Schindler (2011) posits that there are basically two ways of assessing content validity, that is, ask a number of questions about the instrument or test and/or

ask the opinion of expert judges in the field. This study enlisted content validity through expert opinion on the research instrument content.

Construct validity was also enlisted through application of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) which validated hypothetical constructs by clustering those indicators or characteristics that appear to correlate highly with each other. Construct validity refers to how well the study translated or transformed a concept, idea, or behavior (a construct) into a functioning and operating reality.

### 3.8 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis refers to examining what has been collected in a survey or experiment and making deductions and inferences (Kombo & Tromp, 2016). Validation and checking was done on receipt of the questionnaires. Quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics with the aid of Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS version 24).

Descriptive statistics included percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations while inferential statistics included regression and correlation analysis. Qualitative data was analyzed using Content analysis where categorizing of verbal or behavioural data to classify, summarize and tabulate the data was done. This was meant to make replicable and valid inferences by interpreting and coding textual material.

Based on the objectives, this study adopted multiple regression analysis method which generated a weighted estimation to be used to predict values for the dependent variables from several independent variable values (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). The study sought to predict project outcomes with respect to constrained programming in UN Agencies in Kenya. Inferential analysis examined the relationship between the variables through multi-variate analysis.

Further, correlation coefficients were utilized to test for the significance of the association between the variables. The research hypothesis was tested at 95% confidence level enabling drawing of conclusions. mnResults of quantitative data analysis was presented using charts and tables. Qualitative data was analyzed on the basis of common themes and presented in a narrative form.

### 3.8.1 Measurement of Variables

The independent variables of the study were project strengthening, Structural Policy Framework, Project team deployment and Promotion of private sector engagement. The moderating variable was project environment while the dependent variable was project outcomes. Independent variables were operationalized as follows; Project Strengthening is a crucial aspect and was operationalized into availability of project funds, Monitoring and evaluation structures, Compliance to scope and Schedule variations management.

Structural Policy framework was operationalized into existence of Policies, enforcement of Laws, acquisition of Licenses and timely Advisory. Project team deployment was operationalized into technical skills mapping, Clear supervision Structures, Optimal utilization of human resources and experience on project.

Promotion of private sector engagement was operationalized into Number of Collaborations, Number of project advisors, Forums and workshops and supply partnerships. Project environment, which is the moderating variable, was operationalized into political environment, social cultural environment, technological environment and geographical environment while project outcomes was operationalized into Number of Successful outcomes, Number of beneficiaries, implementation time and renewal of project funding.

A five – point likert scale was used to measure each of the sub-variables of the independent and dependent variables. Secondary data was also used to measure the dependent variable. The moderating variable was based on items coded: 0 = Internal environment factors and 1 = External environment factors.

**Table 3.2: Measurement of Variables**

| Variable type | Variable Name | Sub Variables /Indicator/Measures | Measurement Tool |
|---|---|---|---|
| Independent Variables | Project Strengthening | Availability of project funds | 5 – Point Likert Scale |
| | | Monitoring and evaluation Structures | Content analysis |
| | | Compliance to scope | |
| | | Schedule variations management | |
| | Structural Policy framework | Existence of Policies | 5 – Point Likert Scale |
| | | Enforcement of Laws | Content analysis |
| | | Acquisition of Licenses | |
| | | Timely Advisory. | |
| | Project team deployment | Technical skills | 5 – Point Likert Scale |
| | | Clear supervision Structures | Content analysis |
| | | Optimal utilization of human resources | |
| | | experience on project | |
| | Promotion of private sector engagement has | Number of Collaborations | 5 – Point Likert Scale |
| | | Number of Trained staff | Content analysis |
| | | Forums and workshops | |
| | | Partnerships. | |
| Moderating Variable | Project Environment | Political environment | Documents analysis and Survey |
| | | Social cultural environment | |
| | | Technological environment | |
| | | Geographical environment | Content analysis |
| | Project Outcomes | Number of Successful project outcomes | 5 – Point Likert Scale |
| | | No. of project outcome beneficiaries | Secondary Data Content analysis |
| | | Sustainability of project outcomes | |
| Dependent Variable | | Renewed project outcomes funding. | |

### 3.9 Inferential Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was preferred for this study because the dependent variable was used to test significance of the independent variables. The predictor variables were combined into a single regression equation. Assessment of the effect of multiple predictor variables on the dependent measure was thus possible. The goal of analysis for using this model was to find the best fitting and most parsimonious reasonable model to describe the relationship between the variables.

Analysis of covariance was used to test whether the overall models are statistically significant by indicating whether or not $R^2$ could have occurred by chance alone. This is because the study generated both quantitative and qualitative data. The F-ratio generated in the ANCOVA table measured the probability of chance departure from a straight line. The p value of the F- ratio generated should be less than 0.05 for the equation to be statistically significant at 5% level of significance.

If the p value is greater than that, then the equation is not statistically significant. For the individual variables, p values of coefficient generated in the regression analysis must be less than 0.05 for their relationship to be concludes significant at 5% level of significance. Principal Components Analysis regression method that cut the number of predictors to a smaller set of uncorrelated components was used to control multi – collinearity and autocorrelation.

The model was represented in a linear equation form. Using multivariate regression analysis it was possible to calculate the values of the constant coefficient ($\beta_o$) and the slope of the coefficients ($\beta$) from the data already collected.

The overall multiple regression models was:

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

Where

$Y$ = the value of dependent variable (Project Outcomes)

$\{\beta_i; i = 1.2.3.4\}$ = The coefficient of values representing the various independent variables.

$\beta_o$ = The Y intercepts which is a constant coefficient.

$\{X_i; i = 1.2.3.4\}$ = Values of the various independent (covariates) variables.

$\varepsilon$ = the error term

$X_1$ = Project Strengthening

$X_2$ = Structural policy framework

$X_3$ = Project team deployment

$X_4$ = Promotion of private Sector engagement

### 3.9.1 Testing for moderation using the Baron and Kenny (1986) Methodology

$$Y = \beta_o + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 M + \beta_3 X.M + \varepsilon$$

Where;

$X$ = Composite for all the constrained programming components.

$M$ = Moderating variable.

$X.M$ = Moderator multiplied by the composite.

$\varepsilon$ = the error term

In order to assess the alternative hypothesis relating to the moderator, the regression coefficient and its associated probability value was evaluated. Specifically, the critical probability value of 0.05 (5%) was used as a benchmark. The calculated probability was assessed against this benchmark. If the calculated probability is less than the critical probability, then the conclusion was that there exists a significant moderating relationship between constrained programming and project outcomes.

### 3.9.2 Hypotheses testing for the Alternative Hypotheses

The hypotheses are that there is a significant relationship between independent variables and the dependent variable. To reject the null hypotheses, the calculated t statistic was examined and compared to the tabulated / critical statistic. If the calculated t statistic is greater than the critical, then the null hypothesis was rejected and it was concludes that constrained programming components have a significant relationship with Project Outcomes.

## 3.10 Diagnostic Tests.

Field (2013) recommends that linearity, normality, autocorrelation, multicollinearity and heteroscedasticity should be conducted when checking for the relationship between the independent and dependent variable.

### 3.10.1 Linearity Test

The linearity relationship of the independent variables on the dependent variable was tested using Pearson's correlation coefficient between the project outcomes and each of the hypothesized explanatory variables. Correlation coefficient shows the strength as well as direction of the linear relationship. A negative correlation indicates an inverse relationship where an increase in one variable causes a decrease in the other, whereas a positive correlation indicates a direct influence, where an increase in one variable causes an increase in the other (Kothari, 2014).

### 3.10.2 Heteroscedasticity Test

Heteroscedasticity was tested using Breush – Pagan test as recommends by (Gujarat & Porter, 2016). This tested the null hypothesis that the error term has constant variance versus the alternative, that the error term variances are not constant, that is they are multiplicative function of one or more variables. P values less than 0.05 imply that there was heteroscedasticity (no constant variance in the error term) and would lead to rejection of null hypothesis at 5% level of significance. Large Chi – square also indicated heteroscedasticity.

### 3.10.3 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is the extent to which independent variables in multiple regression are correlated with each other (Kothari, 2014). High Multicollinearity results in difficulty in interpreting individual parameter estimates. Variance inflator factor test (VIF) is recommends to test the presence of Multicollinearity. VIF of above 5 suggests the presence of Multicollinearity. In such a case, one of such variables was removed from the regression model. If VIF is not significantly different then this is indication of lack of multi-collinearity.

### 3.10.4 Normality test

A test of outliers within the constructs was done and the ones identified were dropped. Outliers are cases or observations showing characteristics or values that are markedly different from the majority of cases and should be dropped (Gujarati & Porter, 2016). This is because they distort the relationship between variables, either by creating a correlation that should not exist or suppressing a correlation that should exist. The Mahanobis d – squared test was used to test for outliers on the dependent and independent variables where they produce box plots. After dropping the outliers Shapiro – Wilk test was done for normality of variables whereby if P – Value is greater or equal to 0.05 the data is normal.

### 3.10.5 Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation is the correlation between members of a series of numbers arranged in time. Autocorrelation is usually associated with time series data though it can also occurs in cross sectional data (Gujarat & Porter, 2016). The result of autocorrelation is that the least square estimators are still linear and unbiased. The usual t and f tests are not generally reliable and the computed $R^2$ may be an unreliable measure of the true $R^2$.

Durbin Watson test was therefore used to detect autocorrelation. The Durbin Watson which tests for serial correlation varied between 0 and 4 with a value of 2 meaning that the residuals are uncorrelated. A value greater than 2 indicated negative correlation between the adjacent residuals and vice versa. Values lesser than 1 and greater than 3 are a concern (rule of thumb).

### 3.10.6 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was done on the instruments, and then the data was analyzed statistically. Factor analysis was used to identify "factors" that explain a variety of results on different tests. Kombo and Tromp (2016) assert that factor analysis has advantages that: both objective and subjective attributes can be used provided the subjective attributes can be converted into scores; factor Analysis can be used to identify hidden dimensions or constructs which may not be apparent from direct analysis; it is easy and inexpensive to do.

Factor analysis was performed to identify the patterns in data and to reduce data to manageable levels (Field, 2014). The factor analysis analyzed the factors that measured constrained programming and project outcomes. The results were generated to explore the variables contained in each component for further analysis. Factors with Eigen values (total variance) greater than 0.5 were extracted and coefficients below 0.49 were deleted from the matrix because they were considered to be of no importance. The factor

loadings are the correlation coefficients between the variables and factors (Orodho, 2011).

### 3.10.7 Communalities

Communality is the extent to which an item correlates with all other items. The test sought to establish whether there are higher or lower communalities. Higher communalities was sought as Comrey and Lee (2013) note that low communalities (between 0.0 -0.4) lead to variables struggling to load significantly on any factor.

### 3.10.8 Kaiser – Meyer – Olkin Test

According to Williams, Ousman and Brown (2016) KMO test is a measure of how suited data is for factor analysis and it measures sampling adequacy for each variable in the model. The statistic is a measure of the proportion of variance among variables that might be common variance. The lower the proportion, the more suited the data for this study was to factor analysis. KMO returns values between 0 and 1, values between 0.8 and 1 indicate adequacy in sampling. Values less that 0.6 indicate inadequacy in sampling hence remedial actions required. Values close to 0 indicate large partial correlations to the sum of correlations.

### 3.10.9 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

According Wasilkowska (2012), Bartlett's test tests if k samples are from populations with equal variances (homogeneity or homoscedasticity). This test therefore was used to verity ANOVA, the assumption that variances are equal across samples hence deriving non normality.

# CHAPTER FOUR

# RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

## 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents information on the analysis of the data using descriptive and inferential statistics as well as the quantitative and qualitative data. It starts with the response rate, personal characteristics of the sample, and provides the findings. The chapter ends with a discussion of the various objectives.

## 4.2 Response Rate

The study was conducted on 13 projects outcomes managed as clusters (See Appendix IV) within United Nations Agencies in Kenya that act as lead cluster agencies (See Appendix V) Questionnaires were administered to the 233 Project managers (total=233) in charge of the realization of the project outcomes in the United Nations agencies. Orodho (2011) defines the response rate as the extent to which the final data set includes all sample members and it is calculated as the number of people with whom interviews are completed divided by the total number of people in the entire sample, including those who refused to participate and those who were unavailable.

The instruments were administered to all the respondents as in the selected sample. A total of 233 respondents were sampled in the study (see Table 4.1). The response rate was 87 % since a total of 203 responded. This response rate was adequate according to Cooper and Schindler (2011) who note that a response rate of 80% and above is sufficient. Therefore, this response rate was sufficient to provide data for the study variables analysis and generalization.

**Table 4.1: Response Rate**

| Response rate | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Response | 203 | 87% |
| Non Response | 30 | 13% |
| Total | 233 | 100% |

### 4.3 Pilot Study Results

Kisia, Mwenda, Nyapera, Palmer, Rono, and Zuurmond, (2016), denote that pilot study refers to the extent to which a measuring instrument contains variable errors that is, errors that appear inconsistently from observation to observation during any one measurement attempt or that vary each time a given unit is measured by the same instrument. SPSS version 24 was used as the tool of analysis to test the relationship between the dependent variable and the four independent variables, the moderating variable and the results.

#### 4.3.1 Reliability Results

Reliability is the extent to which the measurement of an instrument or procedure yields the same results on repeated trials. Without reliable measures, scientists cannot build or test theory, and therefore cannot develop productive and efficient procedures for improving human wellbeing Reliability reflect the quality of the research design and its administration. Reliability is chiefly concerned with making sure the method of data gathering leads to consistent results (Acimovic & Goentzel, 2016).

The reliability coefficient (alpha) can range from 0 to 1, where 0 representing an instrument with full of error and 1 representing total absence of error. A reliability coefficient (alpha) of .70 or higher is considered acceptable reliability. The results in

Table 4.2 show Cronbach's alpha of well above 0.7 and most of it above 0.8 implying that the instruments were sufficiently reliable for measurement.

**Table 4.2: Reliability of the research instrument**

| Variable | **Cronbach's Alpha** |
|---|---|
| Project strengthening | 0.87933 |
| Structural Policy Framework | 0.886676 |
| Project deployment | 0.960274 |
| Promotion of private sector engagement | 0.862037 |
| Project Outcomes | 0.708313 |

Cooper and Schindler (2011) note that the instrument to be chosen to produce a measurement of variable (s) must be proven to be reliable and valid. Higher alpha coefficient value means there is consistency among the items measuring the concept of interest. As a rule of thumb acceptable alpha should be at least 0.70 or above. Cronbach's alpha is a general form of the Kunder-Richardson (K-R) 20 formula derived from Kothari (2014).

The following was the formula:

$$KR_{20} = (K)\ \frac{(S^2 - \sum_s{}^{2})}{(S^2)\ (K-1)}$$

Where; $KR_{20}$ = Reliability coefficient of internal consistency

K= Number of items used to measure the concept

$S^{2=}$ Variance of all scores

$s^2$ = Variance of individual items

As shown in table 4.2 The Cronbach's alpha for all the variables were above 0.70 and hence the questionnaire was considered reliable.

### 4.3.2 Validity Results

The following measures were taken to ensure the research instruments yielded valid data; Expert opinion from project and programme managers in the humanitarian sector: Care was taken in designing research instruments to ensure that it would measure and collect the data it was meant to collect. The designed instrument was to be counter checked by the researcher, supervisors, peers and professionals in the UN agencies. Pilot study: Instruments pretest survey was carried out in a similar area of study.

After the pretest, pilot data analysis led to modification where necessary to ensure desired results were obtained; Triangulation. The principle of triangulation was employed in every way. Data was collected from the areas of study. Three different types of research instruments were used; Questionnaire, Survey and Observation. Efforts were also be made to validate data collection by use of well-trained research assistants who were also conversant with the respondents under study.

## 4.4 Diagnostic test Results.

This study applied several diagnostic tests that enabled elimination of errors and enhanced accuracy of the findings.

### 4.4.1 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon in which two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression model are highly correlated. In this situation the coefficient estimates may change erratically in response to small changes in the model or the data

(Kombo & Tromp, 2015). Mathematically, a set of variables is perfectly multicollinear if there exists one or more exact linear relationships among some of the variables. Multicollinearity test helps to reduce the variables that measure the same things and also checks model redundancy (Kothari, 2014).

Collinearity is a linear relationship between two explanatory variables. Two variables are perfectly collinear if there is an exact linear relationship between the two. Formal detection-Tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF) are used to test multicollinearity. As indicated in Table 4.3, the tolerances were 0.916 for project strengthening, 0.877 for structural policy framework, 0.911 for project deployment, and 0.851 for promotion of private sector engagement. Variance inflation factors were 1.092 for project strengthening, 1.141 for structural policy framework, 1.098 for project deployment, and 1.175 for promotion of private sector engagement. VIF of below 5 for all variables were acceptable limits according to Kothari (2014) who notes that VIF of below 5 indicates that multicollinearity is not present.

**Table 4.3: Multicollinearity Test**

| **Model** | **Collinearity Statistics** | |
|---|---|---|
| | **Tolerance** | **VIF** |
| (Constant) | | |
| Project Strengthening | .916 | 1.092 |
| Structural Policy Framework | .877 | 1.141 |
| Project deployment | .911 | 1.098 |
| Promotion of private sector engagement | .851 | 1.175 |

Tolerance is the percentage of information of the dependent variable that cannot be explained by the other independent variables. According to Comrey and Lee (2013), the reciprocal of tolerance gives the VIF (Variance Inflated Factor). Multicollinearity can

also be detected with the help of tolerance and its reciprocal, called variance inflation factor (VIF). If the value of tolerance is less than 0.2 or 0.1 and, simultaneously, the value of VIF equal to 10 and above, then the multicollinearity is problematic.

In this instance, the researcher might get a mix of significant and insignificant results that show the presence of multicollinearity. Suppose the researcher, after dividing the sample into two parts, finds that the coefficients of the sample differ drastically. This indicates the presence of multicollinearity. This means that the coefficients are unstable due to the presence of multicollinearity. Suppose the researcher observes drastic change in the model by simply adding or dropping some variable. This also indicates that multicollinearity test is present in the data.

### 4.4.2 Autocorrelation Test

According to Comrey and Lee (2013), serial correlation, or autocorrelation, is defined as the correlation of a variable with itself over successive observations. It often exists when the order of observations matters, the typical scenario of which is when the same variable is measured on the same participant repeatedly over time. The assumption is that for any observation, the residual term should be uncorrelated (independent). Autocorrelation test was done using Durbin Watson (DW) test. Durbin--Watson (DW) is a test for first order autocorrelation that is it tests only for a relationship between an error and its immediately previous value.

This study used Durbin Watson (DW) test to check that the residuals of the models were not auto correlated since independence of the residuals is one of the basic hypotheses of regression analysis. A value of 2 means the residuals are uncorrelated, a value greater than 2 indicates a negative correlation between adjacent residuals, whereas, a value below 2 indicates a positive correlation. Values greater than 3 and less than 1 are a cause for concern.

The results in the Table 4.4 show that there was no DW statistics that were above prescribed value of 2.0 for residual independence; this implied that the data had no autocorrelation. This result is similar to that of (Comrey & Lee, 2013).

**Table 4.4: Autocorrelation Results**

| | **Durbin Watson** |
|---|---|
| Project Strengthening | 1.984 |
| Structural Policy Framework | 1.989 |
| Project team deployment | 1.971 |
| Promotion of Private sector engagement | 1. 965 |

Serial correlation has mainly been considered in multiple regression and time-series models. Multiple regression models are designed for independent observations, where the existence of serial correlation is undesirable. So the main focus in multiple regression is on testing whether serial correlation exists. Conversely, the purpose of time-series analysis is to model the serial correlation to understand the nature of time dependence in the data. The pattern of serial correlation is essential for identifying the appropriate model. This presentation on serial correlation is around regression and time series (Kothari, 2014).

Autocorrelation test was made by using Durbin and Watson (1951). According to Kombo and Tromp (2015) Durbin-Watson (DW) is a test for first order autocorrelation that is it tests only for a relationship between an error and its immediately previous value. This study used Durbin Watson (DW) test to check that the residuals of the models were not auto correlated since independence of the residuals is one of the basic hypotheses of regression analysis. The results in the Table 4.4 show that there was no DW statistics that were close to the prescribed value of 2.0 for residual independence; this implied that the data had no autocorrelation.

### 4.4.3 Heteroscedasticity

Cooper and Schindler (2011) observes that one of the key assumptions of regression is that the variance of the errors is constant across observations. Typically, residuals are plotted to assess this assumption. Standard estimation methods are inefficient when the errors are heteroscedastic or have non-constant variance. Heteroscedasticity is not present since Breusch pagan test =1.867 with a non-significant p_ value of 0.760 >0.05 at 5 % level of significance.

Hayes et al (2017) observed that heteroscedasticity occurs if there are sub-populations that have different variability from others. Here "variability" could be quantified by the variance or any other measure of statistical dispersion. Thus heteroscedasticity is the absence of homoscedasticity. The existence of heteroscedasticity is a major concern in the application of regression analysis, including the analysis of variance, as it can invalidate statistical tests of significance that assume that the modelling errors are uncorrelated and uniform, hence that their variances do not vary with the effects being modeled (Taylor, 2014).

For instance, while the ordinary least squares estimator is still unbiased in the presence of heteroscedasticity, it is inefficient because the true variance and covariance are underestimated. Similarly, in testing for differences between sub-populations using a location test, some standard tests assume that variances within groups are equal. As indicated in Table 4.5, since the sig-value is more than 0.05, the null hypothesis is not rejected. This implied that heteroscedasticity did not exist. Breusch-Pagan test is a large sample test and assumes the residuals to be normally distributed.

**Table 4.5: Heteroscedasticity Test**

| Ho | Variables Chi2 (4) | Prob > Chi2 |
|---|---|---|
| Constant Variance Project strengthening, Structural Policy Framework, Project deployment and Private agencies engagement | | |
| ------- Breusch-Pagan and Koenker test statistics and sig-values – | | |
| LM | 1.867 Sig | .760 |
| BP | 1.867 | .760 |
| Koenker | 3.267 | .514 |

### 4.4.4 Test of Normality

This test of normality helped to confirm that the data followed a normal distribution. In this study, the Shapiro-Wilk test was used. Orodho (2011) notes that Shapiro-Wilk test is more appropriate for small sample sizes; Less than 500. For this reason, this study used this test since the sample size was 233 respondents. The Shapiro-Wilk test results showed that the Standardized residuals are significantly normally distributed with a significance 0.118 which is greater than 0.05 (See Table 4.6). The findings are proof that the independent variable, constrained programming had a strong influence on project outcomes in the UN agencies.

Orodho (2011) also established that the null-hypothesis of this test is that the population is normally distributed. Thus if the *p*-value is less than the chosen alpha level, then the null hypothesis is rejected and there is evidence that the data tested are not from a normally distributed population. In other words, the data are not normal. On the contrary, if the *p*-value is greater than the chosen alpha level, then the null hypothesis that the data came from a normally distributed population cannot be rejected. For example an alpha level of 0.05, a data set with a *p*-value of 0.02 rejects the null hypothesis that the data are

from a normally distributed population. However, since the test is biased by sample size, the test may be statistically significant from a normal distribution in any large samples.

**Table 4.6: Tests of Normality on project outcomes**

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Statistic** | **df** | **Sig.** | **Statistic** | **df** | **Sig.** |
| Unstandardized Residual | .097 | 202 | .200* | .967 | 202 | .118 |

### 4.4.5 Sampling adequacy Results

Further, two tests namely; Kaiser-Mayor-Oklin measures of sampling adequacy(KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity were applied to test whether the relationship among the variables was significant or not.(See Table 4.7). Orodho (2011) recommends that 0.5 as a minimum threshold for acceptability, values between 0.7 – 0.The Kaiser-Mayor-Oklin measures of sampling adequacy results show the value of test statistic as 0.876 >0.5. This value indicate that the sample was adequate for the study. Bartlett's test of sphericity is used to test whether the data is statistically significant or not. With the value of test statistic and the associated significance level, it shows that there exists a high relationship among variables.

**Table 4.7: KMO and Bartlett's Test**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling | | 0.876 |
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 1296.428 |
| | Df | 202 |
| | Sig. | 0.002 |

### 4.4.6 Factor Analysis

In this study, Confirmatory factor analysis allowed the study to test the hypothesis that a relationship between the observed variables and their underlying latent constructs existed. The study used knowledge of the theory and empirical data to postulate the relationship and then test the statisticality of the hypothesis (Orodho, 2011). This test sought to determine if the number of factors and the loadings of measured indicator variables conform to what is expected on the basis of pre-established theory.

Further, the items were forced into three factors and the output was sorted and ranked based on a 0.5 loading cutoff. Typically, loadings of 0.5 or greater are considered very significant (Hair et al., 1987). Only the items that loaded on their corresponding factors at levels of 0.5 or greater were retained for the rest of the analysis. Items were not retained because they did not load on any factor with a value of 0.5 or greater; loaded on the wrong factor; or had cross-loadings on two factors. The results indicated that all the observed measurements had factor loadings greater than 0.5 on average and were therefore retained (See Table 4.8).

**Table 4.8: Factor Loading Results**

| | **Factor Loading** | **Validity** |
|---|---|---|
| Project Strengthening | 0.6743 | Retained |
| Structural Policy Framework | 0.7231 | Retained |
| Project Team Deployment | 0.6932 | Retained |
| Promotion of Private sector engagement | 0.7672 | Retained |
| Project Environment | 0.6345 | Retained |
| **Total** | | |

Finally, Exploratory Factor Analysis test was conducted for only new data sheets to identify the number of constructs and the underlying factor structures (Kothari, 2014). Exploratory Factor Analysis is a statistical approach for determining the correlation among the variables in a data sheet. This type of analysis provides a factor structure; a grouping of variables based on strong correlations.

### 4.5 Background Information

In this section the personal characteristic of the respondents are discussed as follows:

#### 4.5.1 Gender of the Respondents

The survey results indicated in Table 4.9 shows that 122 (60%) of the respondents were men while the remaining 81 (40%) were women. The above results indicate that both gender were represented sufficiently. This is in agreement with (Berenguer, Iyer & Yadav, 2016) advance that an acceptable balance should be between the range of 40% to 60% .

**Table 4.9: Gender of the respondents**

| | **Frequency** | **Valid Percent** |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 122 | 60 |
| Female | 81 | 40 |
| **Total** | **203** | **100** |

#### 4.5.2 Age of the Respondents

The findings showed that 0.8% were between 20-24 years, 10.1% were between 25-29 years, 11.2% were between 30-34 years, 13.4% were between 35-39 years,16.1% were between 40-44 years,17.2% were between 45-49 years ,10.9% were between 50-54 years

and 20.3% were over 55 years. The high response were received from 55 and above age brackets and 45-49 brackets giving 20.3% and 17.1% respectively (See Figure 4.1).

Lower responses were received from 20-24 and 25-29 age brackets as this categories mostly comprises of newly graduates who have joined the job market who are normally few. The study shows that the United Nations agencies have all age groups representing the work force. These finding are in line with (Alfonso, Martinez & Wassenhove,2016) who established that majority of workforce were over 55 years which paused a challenge of aging professoriate with no equivalent replacement at lower cadres.

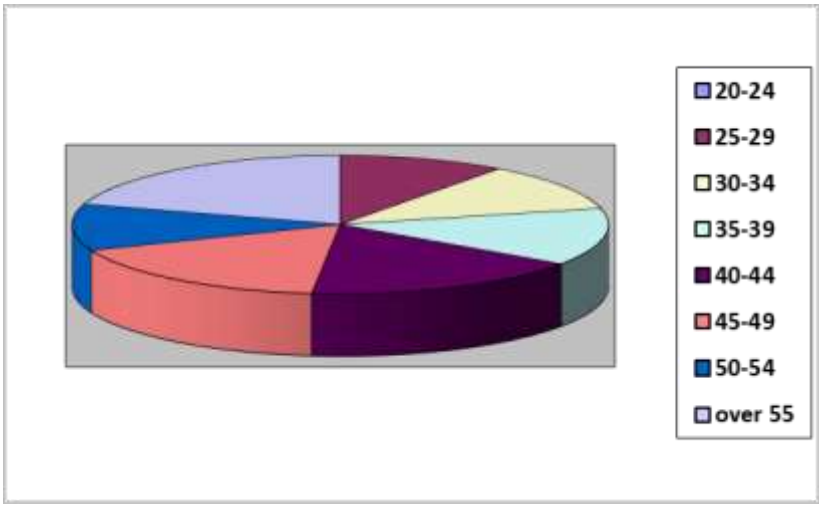



**Figure 4.1: Age of respondents**

### 4.5.3 Academic Qualifications

The study also revealed that those who were with masters and above were 10% (20). About 41% (84) possessed degree, while 40% (81) hold diploma and 9% (18) were certificates holders. The findings that majority of the respondents possessed qualifications for the requirements of delivering successful Project outcomes (See Table 4.10).

Previously, studies such as (Parker, Charlton, Ribeiro & Pathak, 2013) observes that the level of education influences the impartation of staff working in the United Nations. The role of education as a change agent is indisputable and has always been a central mechanism for delivery of Project outcomes (Parker, Dressel, Chevers & Zeppetella, 2018). Therefore, realization of Project outcomes can be attributed to the level of education of the staff.

**Table 4.10: Academic qualification of the respondents**

| | **Frequency** | **Valid Percent** |
|---|---|---|
| Post Graduate | 20 | 10 |
| Bachelors | 84 | 41 |
| Diploma | 81 | 40 |
| Certificate | 18 | 9 |
| **Total** | **203** | **100** |

### 4.5.4 Working Experience

On average, the statistics from the respondents targeted sample size, giving a mean of 6.31 years, standard deviation of 3.51, skewness of 1.070%, standard error of skewness .285%, kurtosis of .900%, standard error of kurtosis of .566 years, minimum of 1 years and maximum of 16 years respectively (See Table 4.11).A high percentage of 56.1% (41) had worked in their current agency for less than 10 years, while 43.9% (31) had experience over 10 years. Studies suggest that for investments on human capital to be realized staff should remain in an agency for long period.

**Table 4.11: Years of Working in Current Agency (Statistics analysis)**

| N | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Skewness | Std. Error of Skewness | Kurtosis | Std. Error of Kurtosis | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Missing | | | | | | | | |
| 200 | 1 | .31 | 3.516 | 1.070 | .285 | .900 | .563 | 1 | 16 |

A significant percentage of 56.1% (41) who had worked in the same UN agencies for less than ten years. This is an indicative of a significant number. The findings agree with that of Bebbington and Unerman (2018) who observed that technical project strengthening are important in businesses that relate to engineering and other technical orientations. Kisia et al. (2016) in his theory of management competencies view technical project strengthening as very important to lower level managers. In his management theories Daft (2012) shows the importance of technical project strengthening in supervising employees and notes that they are required by all levels of managers though in different degrees.

Further this implied that majority were young. Therefore, with good management level of staff with technical project strengthening in United Nations can employ professionals in the specialized departments like procurement while those in the trade stratum require good financial and management project strengthening.

### 4.5.5 UN Agency worked for

A high percentage of the respondents 20.1% (46) worked for UNICEF, while 18.7% (38) worked for WFP; 12.3% (25) worked for UNDP & UNEP; 10.3%, (21) worked for UNHCR; 8.8 (18) worked for UNAIDS; 7.8% (16) worked for WHO; 6.8% (14) worked for FAO. Most of the respondents were from cluster leaders.

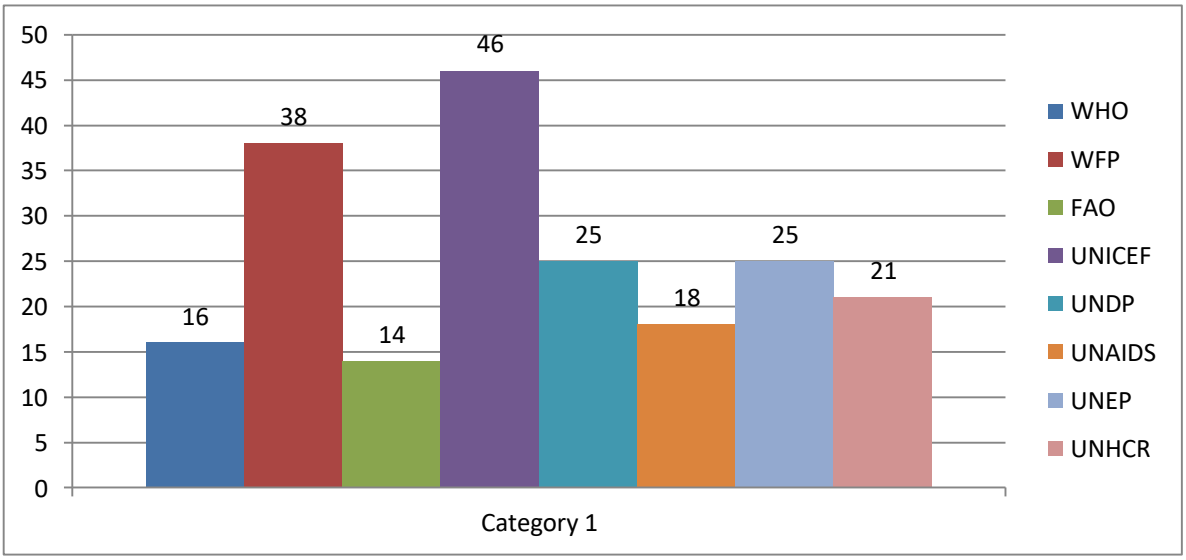



**Figure 4.2: UN Agency worked for**

### 4.6 Descriptive Results of Study variables

The study set out to examine the influence of constrained programming on project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. To this end, four variables were conceptualized. These include: project strengthening, structural policy framework, project team deployment, promotion of private sector engagement. These were moderated by project environment.

#### 4.6.1 Project Strengthening.

The study sought to assess the influence of project strengthening on project outcomes as a means of measuring central tendency. The study findings in Table 4.12 indicate that the respondents indicated to a great extent that the Budgetary allocation directly determines the number of projects completed on time (4.987); Budgetary allocation enables the overall success of the projects (4.875); The Capacity of projects depends on budget (3.670); Monitoring and evaluation enables capacity gap identification (4.215);

Monitoring and evaluation provides corrective actions for project (3.902); Scope planning strengthens capacity (4.934).

The study findings corroborates with literature review by homes (2016) who observed that project strengthening improves efficiency, yields better projects, better outcomes as well as greater transparency, accountability and enhances sustainability of these projects. The average for all the measures indicated a mean of 4.4305 which implied that project strengthening influenced project outcomes to a greater extent.

**Table 4.12: Project strengthening**

| Statement | Mean | Std |
|---|---|---|
| Budgetary allocation directly determines the number of projects completed on time | 4.987 | .987 |
| Budgetary allocation enables the overall success of the projects | 4.875 | .765 |
| The Capacity of projects depends on budget | 3.670 | .453 |
| Monitoring and evaluation enables capacity gap identification | 4.215 | .543 |
| Monitoring and evaluation provides corrective actions for project | 3.902 | .432 |
| Scope planning strengthens capacity | 4.934 | .321 |
| | **4.4305** | **0.5835** |

The respondent's views were sought on whether project strengthening enables successful achievement of project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The findings as presented in table 4.13 revealed that majority of the respondents (51.2%) agreed that project strengthening enables successful achievement of project outcomes. 28.2 %

strongly agreed that project strengthening enables successful achievement of project outcomes. 10.3% and 5.9% disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that project strengthening enables successful achievement of project outcomes. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that project strengthening is a major factor in programming that ensures achievement of project outcomes.

**Table 4.13: Project strengthening enables successful achievement of project outcomes.**

| | SD | D | N | A | SA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Project strengthening enables successful achievement of project outcomes | 5.9% | 10.3% | 4.4% | 51.2% | 28.2 |

### 4.6.2 Structural Policy Framework

The study sought to assess the influence of constrained programming on project outcomes. As indicated in Table 4.14 the finding show that majority of respondents can be said to agree to a moderate extent that Clear policies exist within the regulation (3.345); Laws governing the sector are clear (3.276); Licenses enable achievement of the objectives (3.218); Advisory services are available within the regulatory framework (3.891); The study findings are in line with literature by Doull (2011) who observed that structural framework enables projects manage fiduciary risks in insecure environments. The findings thus indicated an average mean of 3.4325 which implied that structural policy framework influenced project outcomes to a moderate extent.

**Table 4.14: Structural Policy Framework**

| Statements | Mean | Std. Dev |
|---|---|---|
| Clear policies exist within the regulation | 3.345 | .067 |
| Laws governing the sector are clear | 3.276 | .008 |
| Licenses enable achievement of the objectives | 3.218 | .010 |
| Advisory services are available within the regulatory framework | 3.891 | .087 |
| | **3.4325** | **0.043** |

The respondent's views were sought on whether structural policy framework complements successful achievement of project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The findings as presented in table 4.15 revealed that majority of the respondents (36.2%) agreed that structural policy framework complements successful achievement of project outcomes. 14.5 % strongly agreed that structural policy framework complements successful achievement of project outcomes. 22.3% and 14.3% disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that structural policy framework complements successful achievement of project outcomes. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that structural policy framework is a major factor in programming that ensures achievement of project outcomes.

**Table 4.15: Structural Policy Framework Complementary of project outcomes.**

| | SD | D | N | A | SA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Structural policy framework complements achievement of project outcomes | 14.3% | 22.3% | 12.7% | 36.2% | 14.5 |

### 4.6.3 Project Team deployment

The study sought to find out the influence of project team deployment on project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The findings in Table 4.16 indicate a majority of respondents can be said to have highly agreed to large extent that Technical skills of project managers enable successful outcomes of projects (4.221); The level of Supervision determines successful outcomes of projects (3.009); Optimal utilization of Human resources enables successful outcomes of projects (3.234); Experience of project enables successful outcomes of projects (3.876); Labour constraints have resulted failure of project outcomes (3.456); Most projects have adequate staff outcomes (3.040); HR tools and techniques have enabled achievement of project outcomes (3.456).

The study findings are in agreement with the findings of the Kweyu (2013) who notes that assignment of personnel for rapid deployment in emergencies is voluntary for all UN agencies with the exception of one. When recruiting expatriate staff, many organizations are often recruiting from each other or are tapping into the same resources,

such as through short-term secondments. The mean was 3.482 which indicated that project team deployment influenced project outcomes to a moderate extent.

**Table 4.16: Project Team Deployment**

| Statements | Mean | Std. Dev |
|---|---|---|
| Technical skills of project managers enable successful outcomes of projects | 4.221 | .764 |
| The level of Supervision determines successful outcomes of projects | 3.009 | .237 |
| Optimal utilization of Human resources enables successful outcomes of projects | 3.234 | .568 |
| Experience of project enables successful outcomes of projects | 3.876 | .111 |
| Labour constraints have resulted failure of project outcomes | 3.456 | .235 |
| Most projects have adequate staff outcomes | 3.467 | .390 |
| HR tools and techniques have enabled achievement of project outcomes | 3.111 | .261 |
| | **3.482** | **0.366571** |

The respondent's views were sought on whether the agency embraced project team deployment in its project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The findings as presented in table 4.17 revealed that majority of the respondents (32.8%) strongly agreed that the agency embraced project team deployment in its project outcomes. 26.7 % agreed that the agency embraced project team deployment in its project outcomes. 15.3% and 17.6% disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that project strengthening enables successful achievement of project outcomes. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that project team deployment is a major factor in programming that ensures achievement of project outcomes.

**Table 4.17: Agency embraced project team deployment in its project outcomes**

| | SD | D | N | A | SA |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The agency embraced project team deployment in its project outcomes | 17.6% | 15.3% | 7.6% | 26.7% | 32.8 |

### 4.6.4. Promotion of Private Sector Engagement

The study sought to find out the influence of the influence of promotion of private sector engagement on project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. According to the findings in Table 4.18, the study established that majority of the respondents stated that collaborations enabled achievement of project outcomes (4.347); training had enhanced achievement of project outcomes (4.509); relevant forums had been set up to steer promotion of private sector engagement (3.135); frequent meetings were held with private sector (4.278); more partnerships had been developed (3.125);

These findings are in line with Belliveau (2015) who advanced that in recent years there has been a trend towards collaborations within humanitarian sector that has presented for agencies involved access to a new array of strengths. Indeed, as found within a study undertaken by the ODI, agencies are increasingly involved in developing innovative social enterprise models that can be commercial in nature, but assist with needs. In helping to reduce the impact of future disasters, they then capitalize on new markets. The results (3.0094) indicated that promotion of private sector engagement influenced project outcomes to a moderate extent.

**Table 4.18 Promotion of Private Sector Engagement**

| Statement | Mean | Std |
|---|---|---|
| Collaborations enable achievement of project outcomes | 4.347 | .237 |
| Training has enhanced achievement of project outcomes | 4.509 | .009 |
| Relevant forums have been set up to steer Promotion of private sector engagement | 3.135 | .007 |
| Frequent meetings are held with private sector | 4.278 | .011 |
| More partnerships have been developed | 3.125 | .700 |
| | **3.0094** | **0.1928** |

The respondent's views were sought on whether the agency emphasized promotion of private sector engagement in its project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The findings as presented in table 4.19 revealed that majority of the respondents (33.8%) agreed to a great extent that the agency emphasized promotion of private sector engagement in its project outcomes.

25.9 % agreed to a very great extent that the agency embraced project team deployment in its project outcomes. 13.3% and 11.3% greed to a small extent and did not agree at all respectively that project strengthening emphasized promotion of private sector engagement in its project outcomes. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that promotion of private sector engagement is a major factor in programming that ensures achievement of project outcomes.

**Table 4.19: Agency emphasized promotion of private sector engagement in its project outcomes.**

| | Not at all | Small extent | Moderate extent | Great extent | Very great extent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agency emphasized promotion of private sector engagement in its project outcomes | 11.3% | 13.3% | 15.7.6% | 33.8% | 25.9 |

### 4.6.5 Project Environment

The study sought to assess the influence of project environment on project outcomes. The study findings in Table 4.20 indicate that the respondents indicated to a great extent that the geographical environment affect project outcomes (4.565); Micro economics inhibit project outcomes (3.875); Beliefs and traditions affect project outcomes (4.670); Communities determine the success project outcomes (3.215); Political instability hinders success of project outcomes (3.734). project outcomes are directly linked to legal environment (3.734); Technological changes affect project outcomes (3.713).

The study findings corroborates with literature review by Morgan and Hunt (2012) which reveals that the environment of a project is described as "the pattern of all the external conditions and influences that affect its life and development of the project" For the analysis for the macro-environment Maxwell and Parker (2011) suggest the PESTEL framework, which is used to categorize environmental influences into six main types: political, economic, social, technological, environmental and legal. The results (3.924) indicated that project environment influenced project outcomes to a moderate extent.

**Table 4.20: Project Environment**

| Statement | Mean | Std |
|---|---|---|
| Geographical environment affect project outcomes | 4.565 | .764 |
| Micro economics inhibit project outcomes | 3.875 | .665 |
| Beliefs and traditions affect project outcomes | 4.670 | .553 |
| Communities determine the success project outcomes | 3.215 | .643 |
| Political instability hinders success of project outcomes | 3.702 | .532 |
| project outcomes are directly linked to legal environment | 3.734 | .421 |
| Technological changes affect project outcomes | 3.713 | .657 |
| | **3.924** | **0.605** |

The respondent's views were sought on whether project environment affected success of project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The findings as presented in table 4.21 revealed that majority of the respondents (42.3%) agreed to a great extent that project environment affected success of project outcomes. 25.4 % agreed to a very great extent that project environment affected success of project outcomes. 9.3% and 10.4% greed to a small extent and did not agree at all respectively that project environment affected success of project outcomes. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that promotion of project environment is a major factor in programming that ensures achievement of project outcomes.

**Table 4.21: Project strengthening enables successful achievement of project outcomes.**

| | Not at all | Small extent | Moderate extent | Great extent | Very great extent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Project environment affected success of project outcomes | 10.4% | 9.3% | 12.6% | 25.4% | 42.3 |

### 4.7 Correlation test Results

The results indicated a correlation factor of 0.789, this relationship was found to be statistically significant as the significant value was 0.001 which is less than 0.05. The correlation results indicated that there was a strong positive correlation coefficient between project outcomes in humanitarian programmes and project strengthening. This implied that an increase in one factor of project strengthening meant that project outcomes will significantly increase.

The study also found strong positive correlation between structural policy framework and project outcomes as shown by correlation coefficient of 0.864, the significant value was 0.016 which is less than 0.05. Further, the study found positive correlation between project team deployment and project outcomes as shown by correlation coefficient of 0.753 and had a significant value of 0.014 which is less than 0.05. The correlation between promotion of private sector engagement and project outcomes was positive as shown by correlation factor of 0.724; this relationship was found to be statistically significant as the significant value was 0.024 which is less than 0.05 (See Table 4.22).

**Table 4.22: Correlation Results**

| | | PO | PE | SPF | PTD | PPSE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PO | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .789 | .864** | .753* | .724** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .001 | .016 | .014 | .024 |
| | N | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 |
| PS | Pearson Correlation | .789 | 1 | .016 | .005 | .103 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .001 | | .898 | .965 | .406 |
| | N | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 |
| SPF | Pearson Correlation | .864** | .016 | 1 | .746** | .021 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .016 | .898 | | .000 | .863 |
| | N | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 |
| PTD | Pearson Correlation | .753* | .005 | .746** | 1 | .052 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .014 | .965 | .000 | | .676 |
| | N | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 |
| PPSE | Pearson Correlation | .724** | .103 | .021 | .052 | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .024 | .406 | .863 | .676 | |
| | N | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 | 203 |

**Correlation is significant at 0.05 level 2-tailed)

Key: PO=Project Outcomes; PS=Project strtengthening; SPF= Structural policy framework; PTD=Project team deployment; PPSE=Promotion of private sector engagement.

## 4.8 Regression Results

### 4.8.1 Linear regression model of Project outcomes in UN agencies and Project Strengthening

The linear regression analysis models the relationship between the dependent variable which is project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya and independent variable which is Project Strengthening. The correlation coefficient R= .888 showed that there was a strong positive significant influence between project strengthening and project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The results of the linear regression indicated that $R^2$=.789 .This implied that 78.9% of variability in project outcomes is explained by project strengthening in UN agencies in Kenya (See Table 4.23). The remaining 20.2% is explained by other factors not included in this study.

**Table 4.23: Model fitness Project Strengthening**

| Model Summary | |
|---|---|
| R | .888 |
| R Square | .789 |
| Adjusted R Square | .675 |

This implied that an increase in project strengthening factors such as availability of funds leads to an achievement of project outcomes in UN agencies. Kisia et.al (2016), found that project strengthening as measured positively influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies. Cohen and Kaimnenakis (2017) found that project strengthening is an important element of constrained programming in UN agencies as found by UN agencies tend to limit variations in project scope. It can be inferred that Project outcomes in UN agencies are associated with availability of funds, monitoring and evaluation structures, compliance to scope and schedule variations management.

As indicated in Table 4.24, the results of ANOVA test revealed that project strengthening had a significant effect on Project outcomes in UN agencies. Since the P value is actual 0.045 which is less than 5% level of significance. This is depicted by linear regression model $Y=B0+B_1X_{1+}E$ where X1 is the project strengthening the P value was 0.045 implying that the model $Y=B0+B_1X_{1+}E$ was significant.

**Table 4.24: ANOVA: Project Strengthening**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 6.131 | 1 | 6.131 | 4.321 | .045[b] |
| | Residual | 285.199 | 201 | 1.419 | | |
| | Total | 291.330 | 202 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Project outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Project Strengthening

The results indicate that there was positive gradient which implied that an increase in project strengthening led to increased project outcomes in UN agencies as indicated in Table 4.25. Acimovic and Goentzel (2016) indicate that project strengthening includes aspects such as time, schedule and cost. Inferences can be drawn from the findings and literature that UN agencies should strengthen projects in order to realize successful outcomes.

**Table 4.25: Model: Project Strengthening**

| Model | | Coefficients | | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 3.332 | .165 | .000 |
| | Project Strengthening | .072 | .036 | .045 |

As indicated in Figure 4.3 shows the results of Project Strengthening on the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. In a scatter diagram. The scatter diagram indicated a positive gradient which is an indicative that project strengthening influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies.

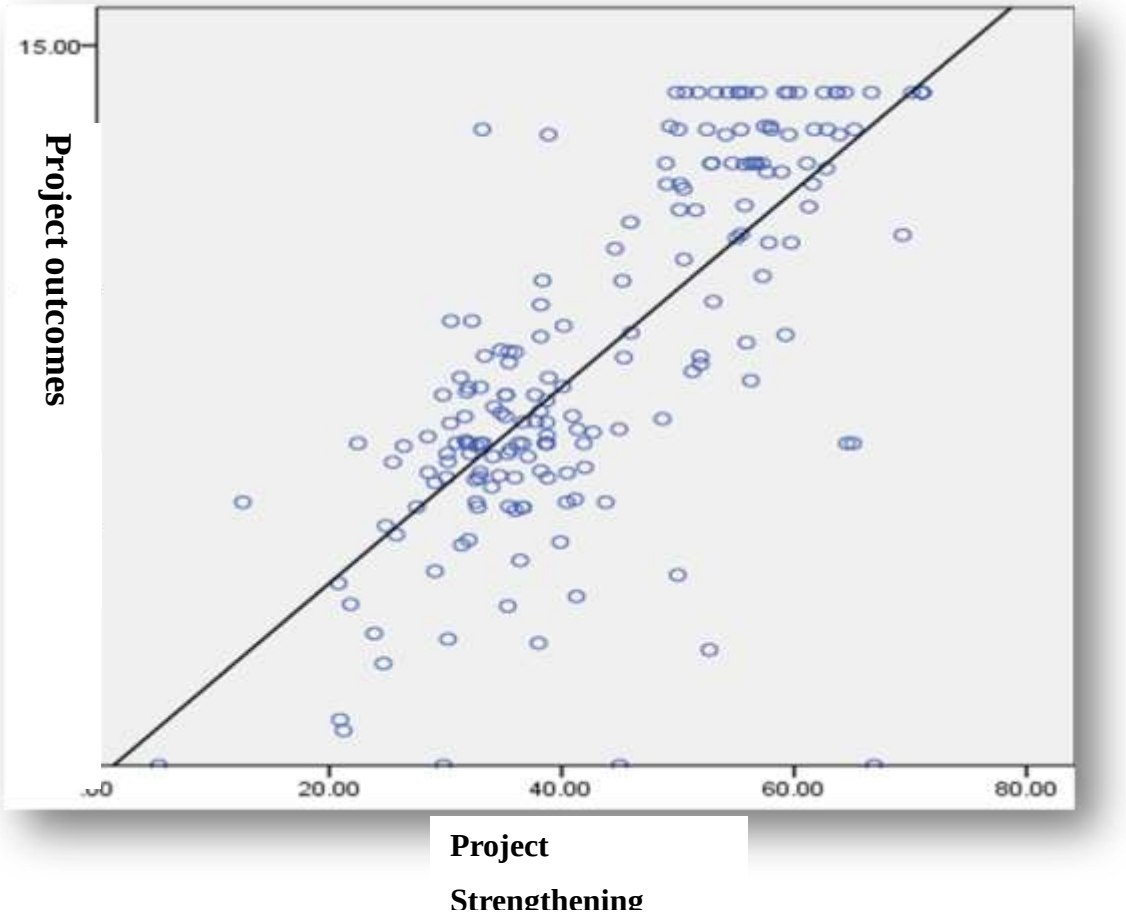



**Figure 4.3: Scatter Diagram on Project Strengthening**

### 4.8.2 Linear Regression model of Project outcomes in UN agencies and Structural Policy Framework

The linear regression analysis shows a relationship between the dependent variable which is project outcomes in UN agencies and independent variable which is structural policy framework. The coefficient of determination $R^2$ and correlation coefficient r shows the degree of association between structural policy framework and project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

The results of the linear regression $Y=\beta_0+\beta_3X_3+E$ in Table 4.27 indicate that $r^2=.746$ and R= .864 this is an indication that there was a strong linear relationship between structural policy framework and project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. Further, the results indicated that variability in project outcomes is explained by structural policy framework at 74.6%.

**Table 4.26: Model fitness: Structural Policy Framework**

| Model Summary | |
|---|---|
| R | .864 |
| R Square | .746 |
| Adjusted R Square | .662 |

The findings concur with those of Berenguer et al. (2016) who found that effects of structural policy framework including policies, laws, licenses and advisory on project outcomes exist at significant levels, suggesting a perfect effect. Inferences can therefore be made that agencies that emphasize structures results in successful outcomes.

The results of ANOVA test revealed that structural policy framework had significant influence on project outcomes in UN agencies. (See Table 4.27). Since the P value is actual 0.007 which is less than 5% level of significance.

**Table 4.27: ANOVA[b] Structural Policy Framework**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 2.067 | 1 | 2.067 | 1.4363 | .007 |
| | Residual | 289.263 | 201 | 1.4391 | | |
| | Total | 291.330 | 202 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Project outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Structural Policy Framework

This is depicted by linear regression model $Y=B0+B_3X_{3+}E$ where $X_3$ is the structural policy framework the P value was 0.007 implying that the model $Y=B0+ B_3X_{3+}E$ was significant (See Table 4.28).

**Table 4.28: Model: Structural Policy Framework**

| Model | | Coefficients | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 3.514 | .000 |
| | Structural Policy Framework | .033 | .007 |

a. Dependent Variable: Project outcomes

**Scatter Diagram on Structural Policy Framework**

The results of structural policy framework on the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya are shown in Figure 4.4. In a scatter diagram. The scatter diagram indicates a positive gradient which is an indicative that structural policy framework influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies.

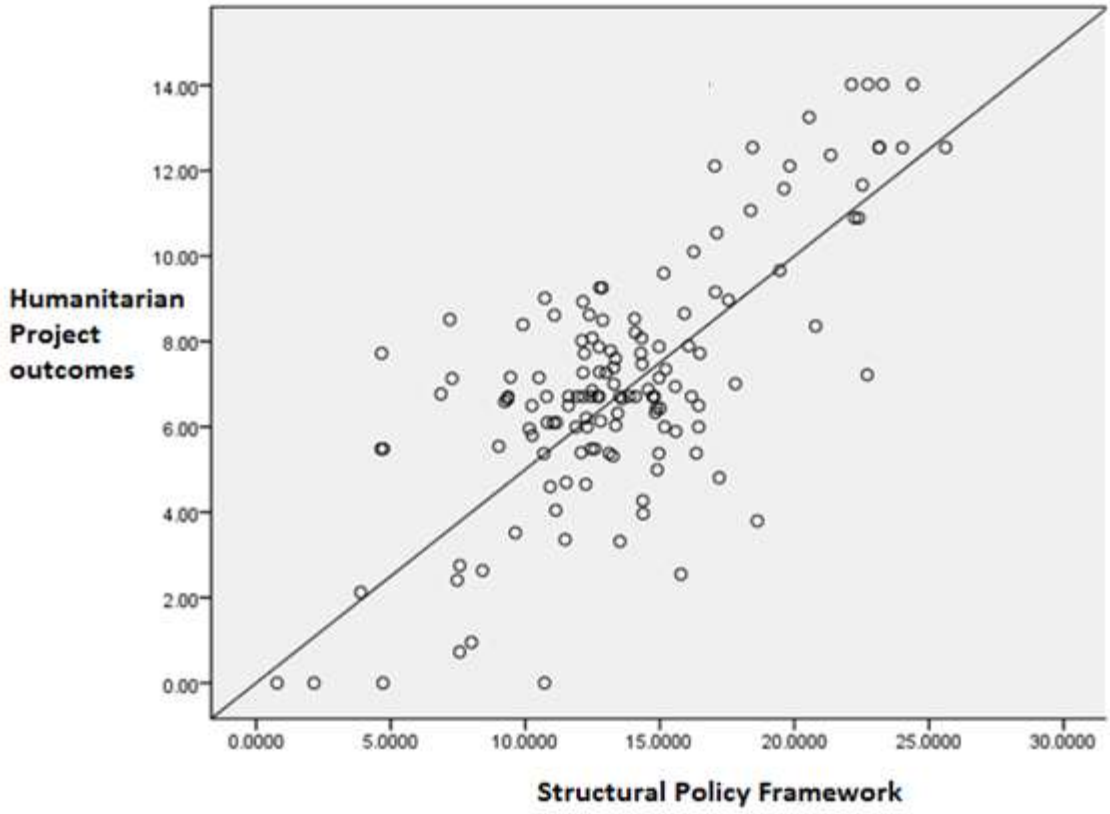



**Figure 4.4: Scatter Diagram on Structural Policy Framework**

### 4.8.3 Linear regression Model of Project outcomes in UN agencies Project team deployment

A summary of regression model results are shown in Table 4.25. The value of R and $R^2$ are 0.753 and 0.656 respectively. The R value of 0.753 represents the strong positive

linear relationship between project team deployment and the Project outcomes in UN agencies since it is close to 1.

The $R^2$ indicates that explanatory power of the independent variables is 0.656. This means that about 65.6% of the variation in project outcomes is explained by the model $Y=\beta_0+ \beta_2X_2+E$. The $R^2$ value as revealed by the result which means that about 34.4% of the variation in the dependent variable is unexplained by the model, denoting a strong relationship between the project team deployment and project outcomes in UN agencies (See Table 4.29).

**Table 4.29: Model: Project team deployment**

| Model Summary | |
|---|---|
| R | .753 |
| R Square | .656 |
| Adjusted R Square | .740 |

These findings concur with Parker et. al (2016) who found that project team deployment such as technical skills, clear supervision, HR utilization and reassignment act as a major factor on the project outcomes in UN agencies. It can be infered that UN agencies should have project team deployment as important aspect of constrained programming on the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

The ANOVA test results indicated in Table 4.30 show the results of which reveal that project team deployment have significant effect on project outcomes in UN agencies. Since the P value is actual 0.003 which is less than 5% level of significance.

**Table 4.30: ANOVA: Project Team Deployment**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 13.041 | 1 | 13.041 | 9.4193 | .003 |
| | Residual | 278.289 | 201 | 1.3845 | | |
| | Total | 291.330 | 202 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Project outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Project team deployment

This is depicted by linear regression model $Y=B0+B_2X_{2+}E$ where $X_2$ is the project deployment the P value was 0.003 implying that the model $Y=B0+ B_2X_{2+}E$ was significant (See Table 4.31).

**Table 4.31: Model Project Team Deployment**

| **Model** | | **Coefficients** | **Sig.** |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | |
| 1 | Constant | 3.915 | .000 |
| | Project team deployment | .102 | .003 |

a. Dependent Project outcomes

**Scatter Diagram Project outcomes in UN agencies/ Project deployment**

The results of project team deployment on the Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya (See Figure 4.5). In a scatter diagram. The scatter diagram indicates a positive gradient which is an indicative that project deployment influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies.

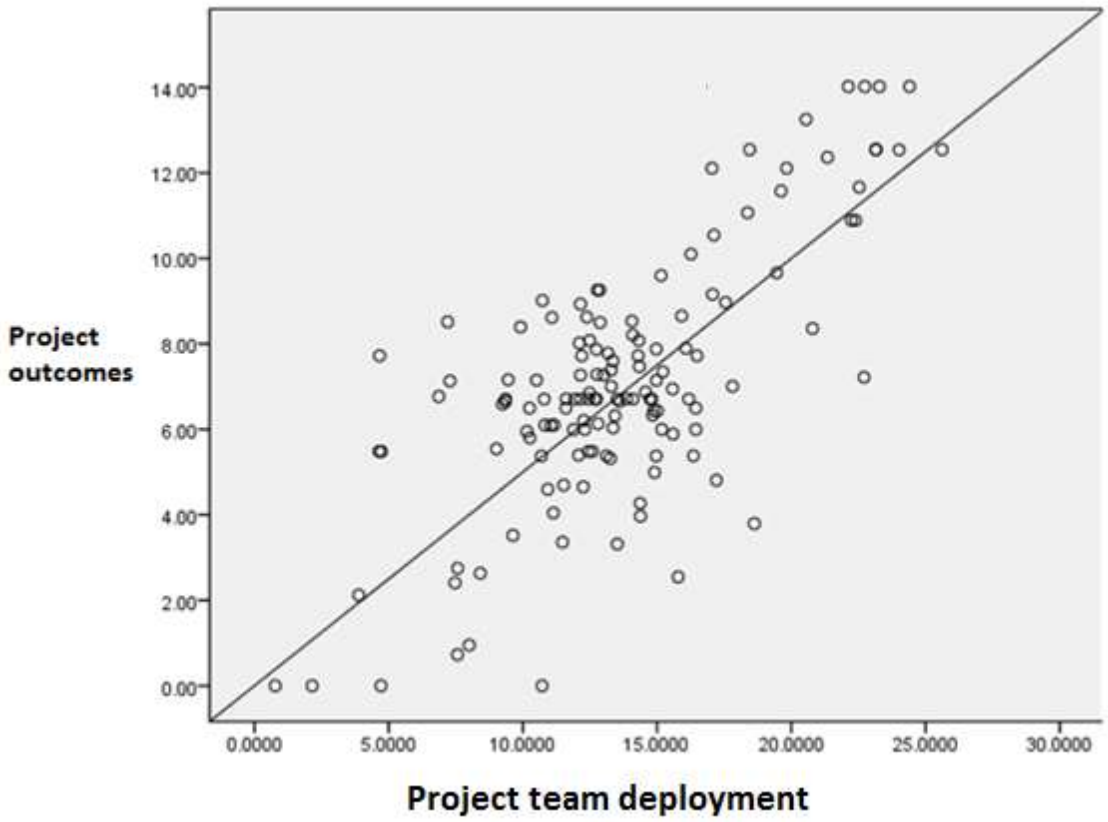



**Figure 4.5: Scatter Diagram on Project deployment**

### 4.8.4 Linear regression model of Project outcomes in UN agencies and Promotion of private sector engagement

The linear regression analysis $Y=\beta_0+ \beta_4X_4+E$ shows a relationship between the dependent variable which is project outcomes and independent variable which is promotion of private sector engagement. Where $X_4$ is the promotion of private sector engagement. The coefficient of determination ($R^2$) and correlation coefficient (r) shows the degree of association between promotion of private sector engagement and Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The results of the linear regression indicate that R=.724 and $R^2$=.624 this is an indication that there is a strong relationship between promotion of private sector engagement and project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya (See Table 4.32).

**Table 4.32: Model Promotion of private sector engagement**

| Model Summary | |
|---|---|
| R | .724 |
| R Square | .624 |
| Adjusted R Square | .750 |

These findings concur with those of Parker et al. (2018) found that the main focus of promotion of private sector engagement is to embrace a sound foundation, with views from organizational capital and process capital. Therefore, promotion of private sector engagement is positively associated with the project outcomes in UN agencies. Inferences can therefore be made that the collaborations and partnerships interconnect each project in an agency and thus enhancing successful project outcomes.

The results of ANOVA test which reveal that promotion of private sector engagement have significant effect on project outcomes in UN agencies. Since the P value is actual 0.000 which is less than 5% level of significance (See Table 4.33).

**Table 4.33: ANOVA[b] Promotion of private sector engagement**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 53.071 | 1 | 53.071 | 44.7705 | .000 |
| | Residual | 238.259 | 201 | 1.1854 | | |
| | Total | 291.330 | 202 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Project outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Promotion of private sector engagement

This is depicted by linear regression model $Y=B0+B_4X_{4+}E$ where $X_2$ is the promotion of private sector engagement the P value was 0.000 implying that the model $Y=B0+B_3X_{3+}E$ was significant.

**Table 4.34: Coefficients Promotion of private sector engagement**

| **Model** | | **Unstandardized Coefficients** | | **Sig.** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 2.236 | .227 | .000 |
| | Promotion of private sector engagement | .421 | .065 | .000 |

As indicated in Figure 4.6 shows the results of promotion of private sector engagement on the Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya in a scatter diagram. The scatter diagram indicates a positive gradient which is an indication that promotion of private sector engagement influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies.

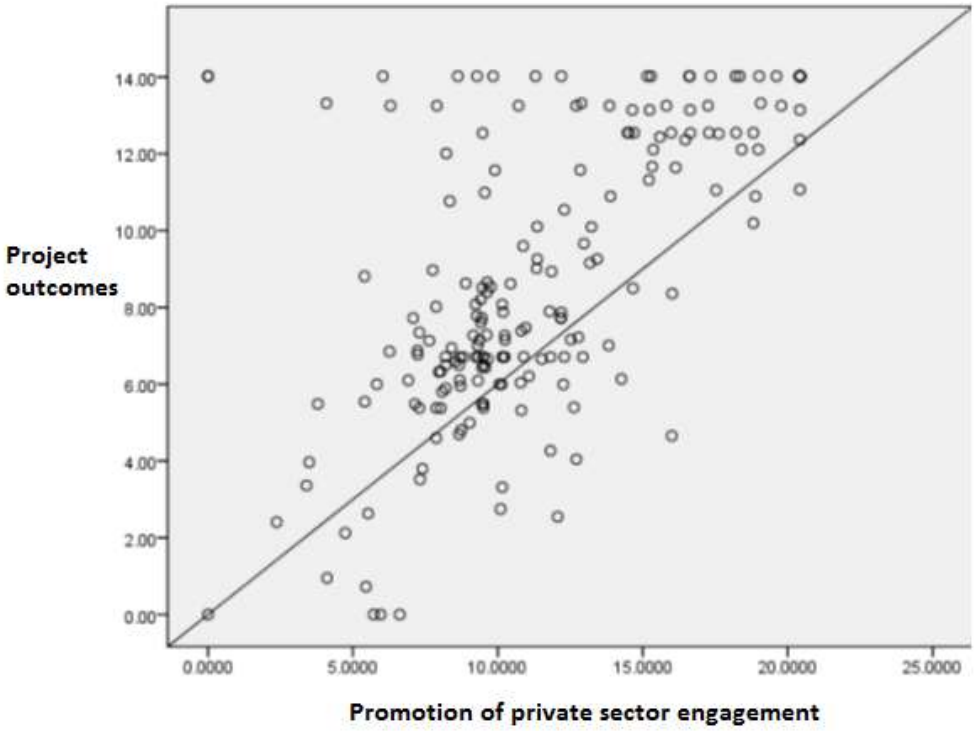



**Figure 4. 6: Promotion of private sector engagement Influence the Project outcomes in UN agencies**

### 4.8.5 Moderating influence of Project environment on Project Outcomes.

The summary of regression model $Y=\beta_0+\beta_5X_5+ E$ result is presented in Table 4.35. The value of R and $R^2$ are of 0.798 and 0.636 respectively. The R value of 0.798 represents the correlation between project environment and the Project outcomes. The $R^2$ which indicates the moderating power of the independent variables is .636. This means that about 76% of the variation between the independent variables and Project outcomes is explained by the moderating variable.

The $R^2$ value as revealed by the result is high which means about 76% of the variation in the independent variables and project outcomes is unexplained by the model, denoting a strong relationship between the moderating variable and independent variables and project outcomes. The standard error of the estimate is 1.213, which explains how

representative the sample is likely to be of the population. The findings concur with those of Alphonso et al. (2016) who found that project environment includes relationships with customers and the government and refers to humanitarian and maintenance of important relationships such as those with customers and suppliers of goods and services, as well as the degree of partner satisfaction and customer loyalty.

Inferences can therefore be made that project environment is very important in UN agencies. Compared to large organizations UN agencies are closer to their customers, and, therefore, are able to capture information on customers and market as their source of expertise and know-how. Therefore UN agencies are mostly customer-focused and aware of their competitors' actions.

**Table 4.35: Model Project environment**

| Model Summary | |
|---|---|
| R | .798 |
| R Square | .636 |
| Adjusted R Square | .7536 |
| Sig | 0.000 |

As indicated in Table 4.36, the results of ANOVA test reveal that project environment have significant effect on project outcomes in UN agencies. Since the P value is actual 0.000 which is less than 5% level of significance.

**Table 4.36: ANOVA[a] Project environment**

| Model | | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Regression | 30.655 | 1 | 30.655 | 23.6371 | .000[b] |
| | Residual | 260.674 | 201 | 1.2969 | | |
| | Total | 291.330 | 202 | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Project outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Project environment

This is depicted by linear regression model $Y=B0+B_5X_{5+}E$ where $X_5$ is the project environment the P value was 0.000 implying that the model $Y=B0+ B_5X_{5+}E$ was significant (See Table 4.37).

**Table 4.37: Coefficients Project environment**

| Model | | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | T | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | Std. Error | Beta | | |
| 1 | (Constant) | 3.027 | .151 | | 20.112 | .000 |
| | Project environment | .163 | .034 | .324 | 4.715 | .000 |

a. Dependent Variable: Project outcomes

The results of customer capital on the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. In a scatter diagram. The scatter diagram indicates a positive gradient which is an indicative

that project environment influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies (See Figure 4.7).

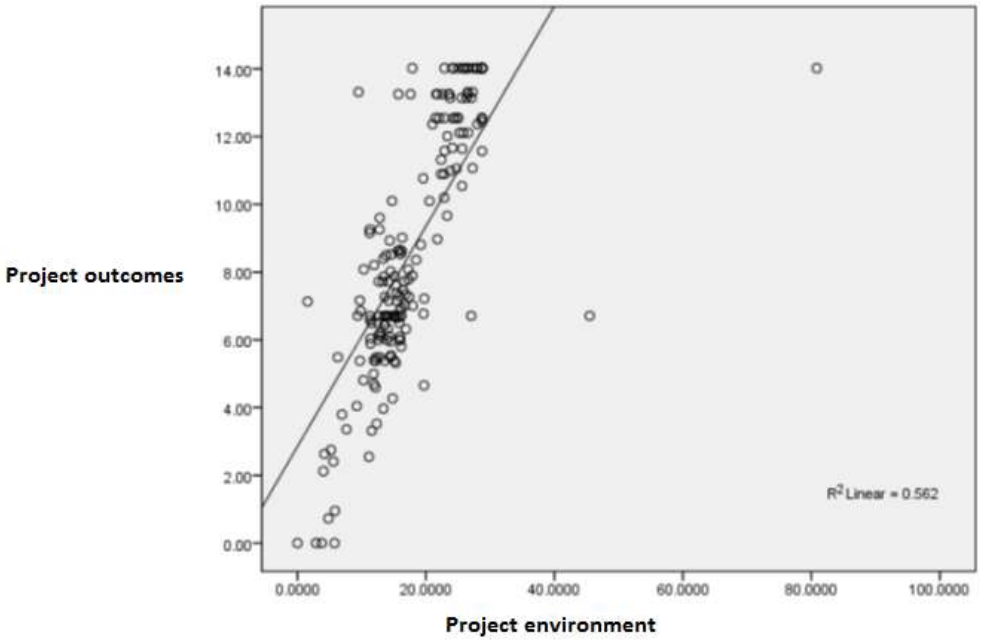



**Figure 4.7: Moderating Influence of Project environment on Project outcomes in UN agencies.**

### 4.9 Project Outcomes.

Humanitarian project outcomes were measured in terms number of successful project outcomes, number of project outcome beneficiaries, sustainability of project outcomes and renewal of project outcome funding. Trend analysis was conducted for data collected on actual project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya for the period between 2014 - 2018.

### 4.9.1 Number of Successful Project Outcomes

The trend line for number of successful project outcomes for the period between 2014-2018 is shown in figure 4.8. The results indicated that the gradient for mean number of successful project outcomes for the 5 consecutive years has been increasing. 4 project outcomes were successful in 2014, 5 in 2015, 7 in 2016, 6 in 2017 and 9 in 2018. This is attributed to constrained programming which enhanced efficiency in programming.


**Figure 4.8: Number of Successful project outcomes.**

### 4.9.2 Number of Project Outcome Beneficiaries.

The trend line for number of project outcome beneficiaries for the period between 2014-2018 is shown in figure 4.9. The results indicated that the gradient for mean number of project outcome beneficiaries for the 5 consecutive years has been increasing. Project outcome beneficiaries rose from 800,000 in 2014; 920,000 in 2015; 1,250,000 in 2016;

2,755,000 to 3647,000 in 2018. This is attributed to constrained programming which enhanced efficiency in programming.

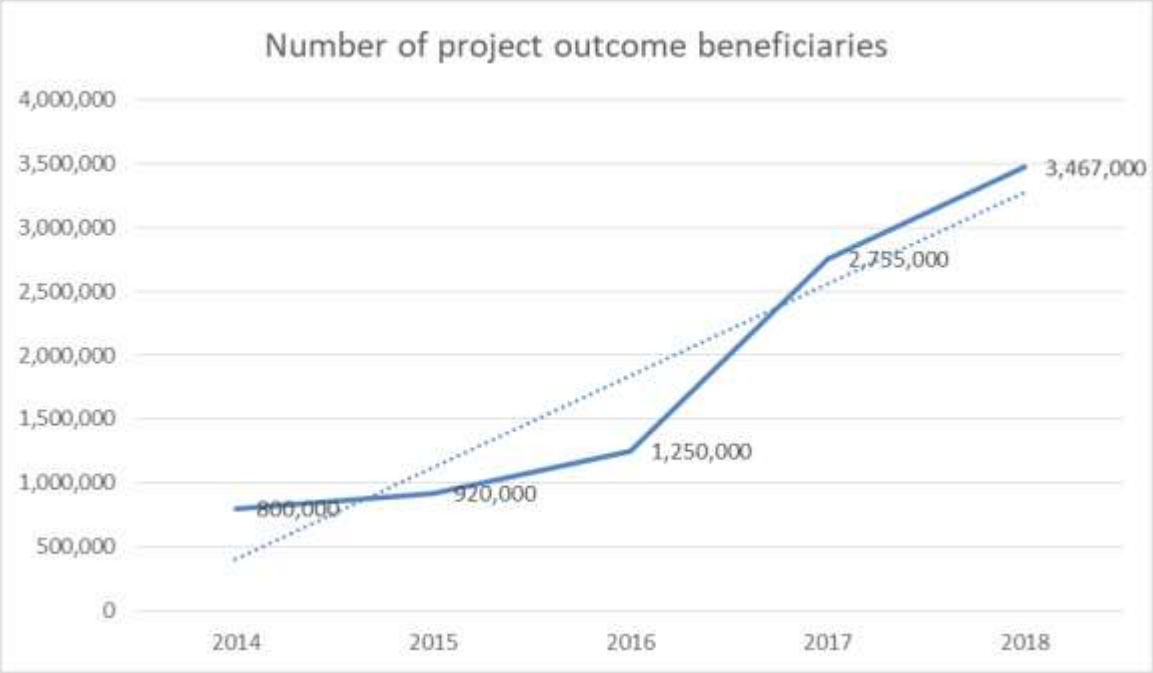



**Figure 4.9: Number of project outcome beneficiaries.**

### 4.9.3 Sustainability of Project Outcomes.

The trend line for sustainability of project outcomes for the period between 2014- 2018 is shown in figure 4.10. The results indicated that the gradient for mean sustainability of project outcomes for the 5 consecutive years has been increasing. 5 project outcomes were sustainable in 2014, 3 in 2015, 6 in 2016, 7 in 2017 and 9 in 2018. This is attributed to constrained programming which enhanced efficiency in programming.


**Figure 4.10: Sustainability of project outcomes.**

### 4.9.4 Renewal of Project Outcome Funding.

The trend line for renewal of project outcome funding for the period between 2014-2018 is shown in figure 4.11. The results indicated that the gradient for mean renewal of project outcome funding. for the 5 consecutive years has been increasing. Funding for 9 project outcomes was done in 2014, 12 in 2015, 10 in 2016, 11 in 2017 and 12 in 2018. This is attributed to constrained programming which enhanced efficiency in programming.

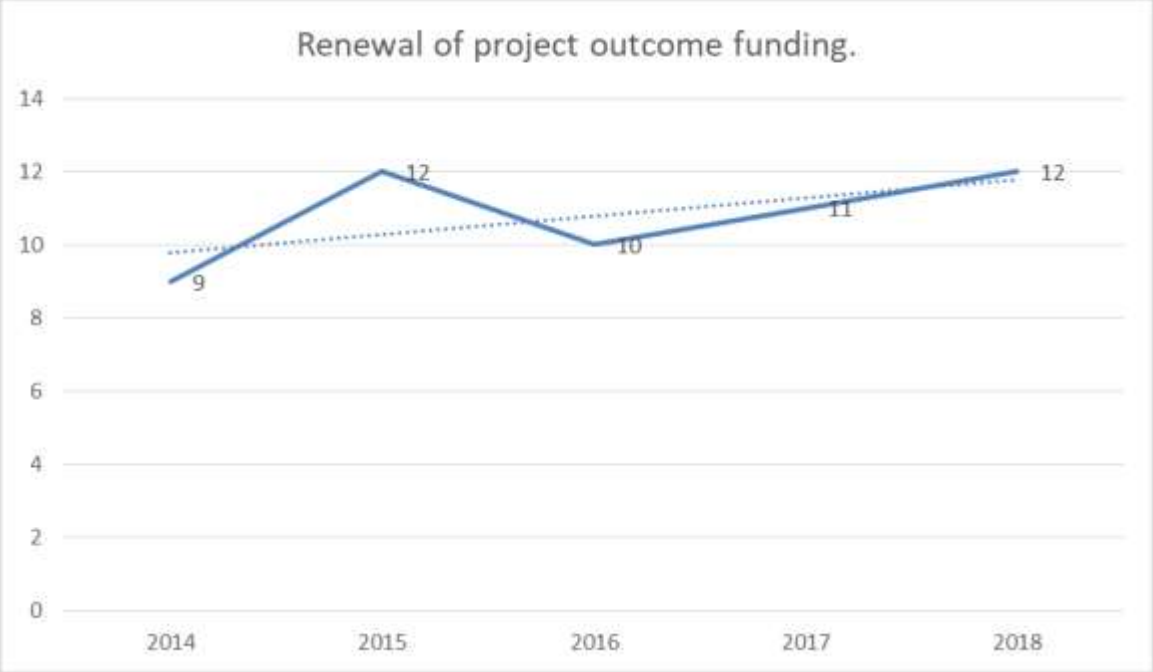



**Figure 4.11: Renewal of project outcome funding.**

### 4.10 Discussion of results: Combined model

The coefficient of determination $R^2$ and correlation coefficient (r) shows the degree of association between Independent Variables and Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. The results of the multiple linear regression indicate that $R^2$=.704 and R= .839 this is an indication that there is a strong relationship between project strengthening, structural policy framework, project team deployment, promotion of private sector engagement and the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya (See Table 4.38).

**Table 4.38: Model Summary: Combined Model**

| Model Summary | |
|---|---|
| R | .839 |
| R Square | .704 |
| Adjusted R Square | .756 |
| P Value | 0.000 |

The findings concur with those of Parker et al. (2018) who postulates that constrained programming to be key factors for project success and important levers for value creation. Their core competence as invisible assets rather than visible assets. Parker et al. (2018) revealed that constrained programming is becoming a crucial factor for a projects long-term sustainability and performance that identify their core competence as invisible assets rather than visible assets.

The results indicated that P value = 0.000 which is less than 5%. This shows that the overall model is significant. It further implies that project strengthening, structural policy framework, project team deployment and promotion of private sector engagement have a significant effect on the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

### 4.10.1 Test of Hypotheses.

The study was guided by a set of hypotheses which were used for the realization of the research. The relationship between the four independent variables, the moderating variable and the dependent variable showed a significant influence. The hypotheses are that there was a significant influence of the independent variables on dependent variable was tested. To reject the null hypotheses, the calculated t statistic was examined and compared to the tabulated / critical statistic. If the calculated t statistic was greater than

the critical, then the null hypothesis was rejected and it was concludes that constrained programming components have a significant relationship with project Outcomes.

**$H_{a1}$ There is a significant positive influence of project strengthening of project outcomes in United Nations' Agencies in Kenya**

The results indicated a regression analysis value of t – Calculated which was greater than 2 (i.e. 6.855) and P Value is 0.018 at 95% level of significance that is less than 5%. The null hypothesis was subsequently rejected and it was concludes that project strengthening had a significant positive influence on project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

**$H_{a2}$ There is a significant positive influence of Structural Policy framework on project outcomes in United Nations' Agencies in Kenya.**

The results also show p value of 0.019 at 95% level of significance which is less than 0, 05 and a t value of 6.610, which is greater than 2. The null hypothesis was rejected implying that structural policy framework had a significant positive influence on the Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. It is therefore conclusive to indicate that structural policy framework is positively correlated to project outcomes in UN agencies.

**$H_{a3}$ There is was significant positive influence of Project team deployment on project outcomes in United Nations' Agencies in Kenya.**

The results indicate that project team deployment also positively influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies, but less than project strengthening, and structural policy framework as shown by the unstandardized beta coefficients. The above table of regression analysis shows that project team deployment had a positive and significant influence on project outcomes in UN agencies as shown by a t value of 5.749 (greater than 2) and a p value of 0.031 which is less than 0.05.

**$H_{a4}$ There is was significant positive influence of Promotion of private sector engagement on project outcomes in United Nations' Agencies in Kenya**

Regression analysis results for promotion of private sector engagement showed that the t value was 4.114, which is more than 2. promotion of private sector engagement as a module of constrained programming therefore had a significant positive relationship with project outcomes UN agencies as shown by a p value of 0.045(less than 0.05) at 95% level of significance.

**$H_{a5}$ Project environment had a positive moderating influence on the relationship between constrained programming and project outcomes within United Nations' Agencies in Kenya.**

The results showed that project environment had a significant positive influence on the dependent variable (project outcomes UN agencies). This was revealed by a t value of 6.414 which is greater than 2 and a p value of 0.021 which is less than 0.05 at 95% level of significance.

From the results, Project strengthening which had a t value of 6.855 contributed most to the project outcomes in UN agencies, while promotion of private sector engagement which had the smallest t value of 0.414 the contributed to project outcomes.

**Table 4.39: Test of hypotheses Results**

| | **Unstandardized Coefficients** | **T** | **p – Value** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Constant | 0.119 | | |
| Project Strengthening | 0.413 | 6.855 | 0.018 |
| Structural Policy Framework | 0.219 | 5.749 | 0.031 |
| Project team deployment | 0.319 | 6.610 | 0.019 |
| Promotion of private sector engagement | 0.111 | 4.114 | 0.045 |
| Project Environment | | 6.414 | 0.021 |

**Dependent variable; Project outcomes**

### 4.10.2 Optimality of model.

The overall regression model was retained since no variable recorded an insignificant influence of project outcomes; all the null hypotheses were rejected. The new model therefore was: Y = 0.119 + 0.413 (project strengthening) + 0.319 (project team deployment) + 0.219 (structural policy framework) + 0.111 (promotion of private sector engagement). For this reason, the conceptual framework was: (See figure 4.12).

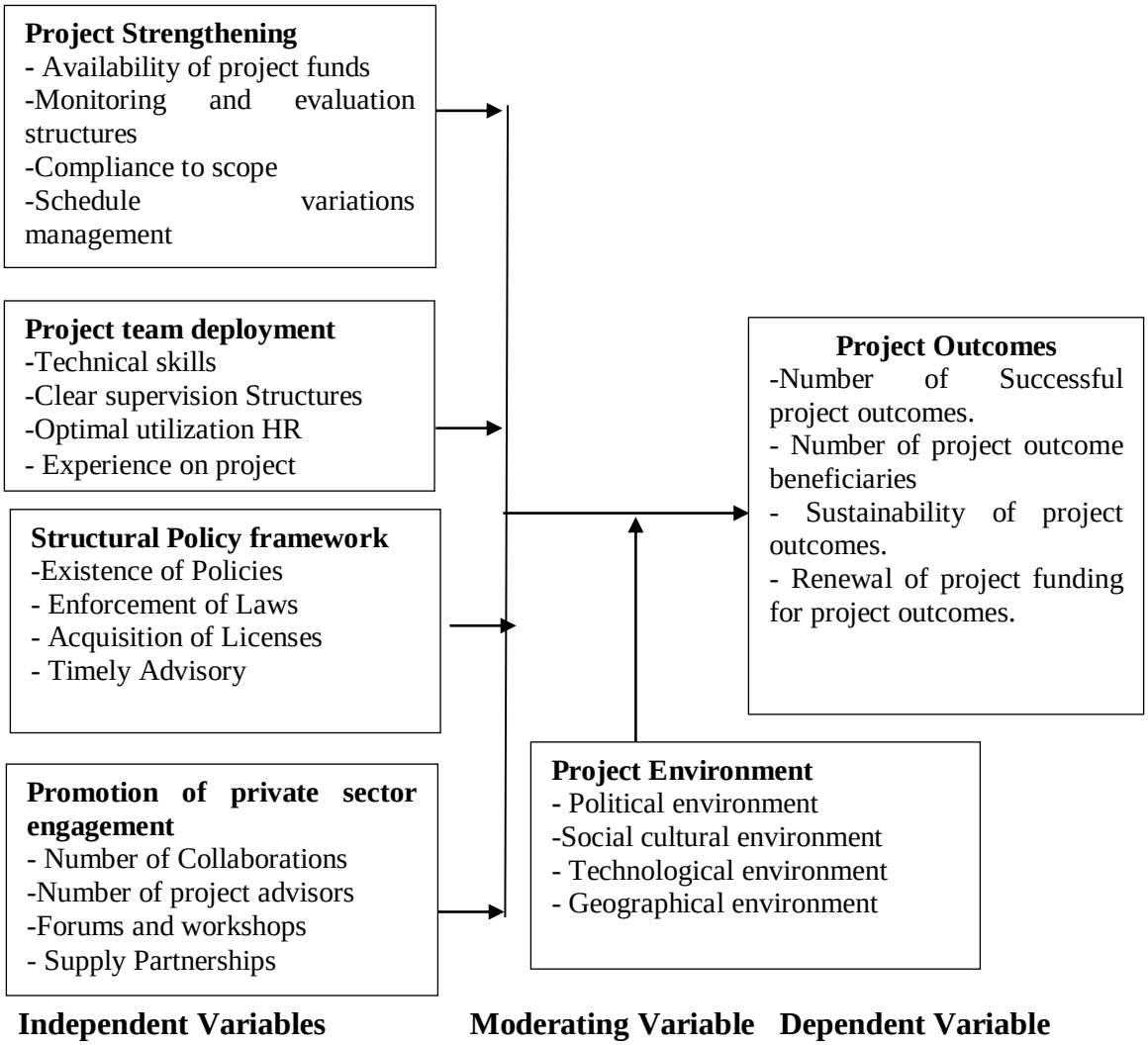



**Figure 4.12: Optimal Conceptual Framework.**

# CHAPTER FIVE

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 5.1 Introduction

The chapter provides a summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations. It was guided by the analysis presented in the previous chapter as per the objectives of the study. Areas for further studies have also been identified and presented.

## 5.2 Summary of findings

The study sought to investigate the influence of constrained programming on the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. Specifically, the study investigated project strengthening, structural policy framework, project team deployment, promotion of private sector engagement and project environment as the moderating variable. The findings showed that constrained programming is a key ingredient of project outcomes in UN agencies which have very low survival rate whereby the success rate is alarming for developing countries.

### 5.2.1 Influence of Project Strengthening on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

The study sought to establish the influence of project Strengthening on project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The findings revealed that project Strengthening positively influenced project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. Results of the inferential statistics such as ANOVA showed that availability of project funds which is a component of project strengthening had a major positive significance to the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. They further indicated that monitoring and evaluation structures, a component of project strengthening had a significant effect on project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

The study established that compliance to scope and schedule variations management influenced project outcomes in humanitarian projects as it reduced budgetary constraints, reduced cost overruns, reduces interference with implementation of the project schedule, reduces insufficient capital to run project activities and enhances compliance to statutory and regulatory obligations.

### 5.2.2 Influence of Structural Policy Framework on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

The study sought to ascertain the influence of structural policy framework on project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The finding of the study ascertained that Structural Policy Framework positively influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. According to the findings of the study existence of policies, enforcement of laws, acquisition of licenses and timely advisory which are components of Structural policy framework had a statistically significant influence on the project outcomes in UN agencies.

### 5.2.3 Influence of project team deployment on project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

The study sought to determine the influence of project team deployment on project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The study found out that technical skills, clear supervision structures, optimal utilization of human resources and experience on project; which are components of project team deployment had a great positive influence the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. According to the findings of the study, project team deployment which is an element of Constrained Programming was a key lever for the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

Project team deployment was revealed to be part of constrained programming which included knowledge management that helped a project in undertaking risk-taking propensity initiatives was a crucial characteristics a project manager should possess for

the project outcomes in UN agencies. The majority of the respondents indicated that technical skills influenced project outcomes. This is due to clear supervision structures. It was further established that optimal utilization of HR influenced project outcomes. The experience of project staff influenced project outcomes through the project managers' knowledge of the technology which can reduce project life cycle, encourage up-front planning efforts and lead to effectiveness of communication.

### 5.2.4 Influence of Promotion of private sector engagement on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

The study sought to examine the influence of promotion of private sector engagement on project outcomes in United Nations agencies in Kenya. According to the findings of the study, promotion of private sector engagement components; number of collaborations, number of project advisors, forums and workshops, and supply partnerships positively, significantly influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

The coefficient of determination indicated that the project outcome is explained by promotion of private sector engagement by a significant percentage. The findings are a pointer to the critical role that promotion of private sector engagement such as number of collaborations have great influence on the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

### 5.2.5 Moderating effect of Project environment on influence of contrained programming on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

The study sought to establish the moderating effect of project environment on the relationship between constrained programming and project outcomes in UN Agencies in Kenya. The study found out that project environment as a moderator influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

According to the findings, the components of project environment; institutional environment, time provisions, stakeholder demands / expectations and resources significantly positively influenced the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya. This

indicates that project environment as a moderator which entails political environment, social cultural environment, technological environment and geographical environment is an important element of constrained programming that had a positive and significant influence on the project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya.

## 5.3 Conclusion of the study

This study sought to investigate the influence of constrained programming on project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The conclusions were drawn from the findings and summarized per objective.

### 5.3.1 Influence of Project strengthening on Project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that project strengthening influenced project outcomes in UN agencies to a very large extent. The components of project strengthening; availability of funds, monitoring and evaluation structures, compliance to scope and schedule variation management are crucial aspects in relation to project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya and humanitarian projects at large.

The study also concluded that increasing levels of project strengthening increased the levels of achievement of project outcomes. Further, the study concludes that project resources were an important factor influencing project outcomes. The regression coefficients of the study showed that project resources had a significant positive influence on project outcomes. This implied that increasing levels of project resources could increase the influence on project outcomes.

### 5.3.2 Influence of Structural Policy Framework on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

Based on the study findings, the study concluded that project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya are influenced by existence of policies, enforcement of laws,

acquisition of licenses and timely advisory which are components of structural policy framework. The study concludes that existence of policies is the first important factor that influences project outcomes in United Nations agencies in Kenya.

The regression coefficients of the study showed that structural policy framework had a significant influence on project outcomes in United Nations agencies in Kenya. This implied that increasing levels of structural policy framework by a unit would increase the levels of project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The conclusion therefore is that shows that structural policy framework had a a strong positive influence on project outcomes in United Nations agencies in Kenya.

### 5.3.3 Influence of Project team deployment on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

Based on the study findings, the study concluded that project team deployment is an important factor that influences project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The regression coefficients of the study show that technical skills, clear supervision structures, optimal utilization of human resources and experience on project staff had a significant positive influence project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya.

This implied that increasing levels of Project team deployment could increase the levels of project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The study further concludes that project team deplloyment is a necessary aspect of programming that could increase achievement of project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya.

### 5.3.4 Influence of Promotion of private sector engagement on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

Based on the findings, the study concluded that promotion of private sector engagement is also an important factor that influenced project outcomes. The study concludes that number of collaborations, number of project advisors, forums and workshops, and supply partnerships influenced project outcomes.

The regression coefficients of the study showed that number of collaborations, number of project advisors, forums and workshops, and supply partnerships had a significant positive influence on influences project outcomes. This implied that increasing levels of project team deployment could increase the levels of project outcomes.

### 5.3.5 Moderating effect of Project environment on influence of contrained programming on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

Based on the findings, the study concluded that institutional environment, time provisions, stakeholder demands/expectations and resources had to be considered when programming fr rhumanitarian projects. The regression coefficients of the study showed that institutional environment, time provisions, stakeholder demands/expectations and resources had a significant positive influence on project outcomes. This implied that increasing levels of project environment could increase the moderating effect on the relationship between constrained programming and project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya.

## 5.4 Recommendations of the study

The study recommends that that a project should embrace project Strengthening, enhance structural policy framework, redeploy Project team in a timely manner, and incorporate sufficient promotion of private sector engagement in order to achieve desired project outcomes in UN Agencies in Kenya. The study further recommends that UN agencies should embrace project team deployment as a necessary process to optimize HR in the project which drives the employees into creating new and more competitive products for increased project outcomes to be realized.

### 5.4.1 Influence of Project strengthening on Project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya

Based on the conclusions of this study, it recommended that there is need to enhance project financing mechanisms for sustainability of project outcomes as it reduces

budgetary constraints, reduces cost overruns, reduces interference with implementation of the project schedule, and reduces insufficient capital to run project activities. The internal controls such as record keeping and ensuring sufficient funds are offered for the sustainability of the project outcomes.

The study further recommends that effective monitoring and evaluation to project outcomes be embraced. The staff working on monitoring and evaluation should be dedicated to the function. The roles and responsibilities of monitoring and evaluation personnel should be well specified at the start of the project. The monitoring and evaluation system should be in place to ensure it raises timely feedback of the progress in the UN Agencies.

### 5.4.2 Influence of Structural Policy Framework on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

The study recommends that humanitarian programming should focus more on using their policies that stipulated so as to ascertain there consistency of implementation. The study recommends that project managers and programme managers should ensure that they strictly enforce procedures to ensure that activities meet requirements. It is recommends that whenever necessary, timely advisory should be sought to ensure that the outcomes are achieved in good time. This will enable the benefits trickle down to the beneficiaries effectively.

### 5.4.3 Influence of Project team deployment on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

It is recommends that project team deployment management skills should be treated as an important factor to be considered for humanitarian programming. There is need to enhance planning skills, leadership and management skills and human skills to influence project outcomes. The managers of projects should be managing resources properly, management of the projects should meet the needs of the stakeholders.

The study recommends that technical skills should be adequate in humanitarian projects through the project managers' knowledge of the technology. Project managers should possess technical, interpersonal, and conceptual skills to effectively plan, lead, organize and control the enterprise effectively leading to increased performance and consequently project outcomes.

### 5.4.4 Influence of Promotion of private sector engagement on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

Based on the study conclusions, Understanding of promotion of private sector engagement is a key ingredient of constrained programming to creating a solid relationship between and project and its customers. The study recommends for effective project outcomes in the projects enhance promotion of private sector engagement initiatives of the projects.

This can be achieved through taking an active role in identifying their needs and prioritizing those needs, mobilizing internal and external resources and implementing activities towards achieving their objectives, self-reliance is stimulated thus reducing dependency on the outside agencies and improves efficiency and local participation yields better projects.

### 5.4.5 Moderating effect of Project environment on influence of contrained programming on Project outcomes in UN agencies in Kenya

Specifically, the study recommends that humanitarian projects should realize that in the present project environment, constrained programming forms an important element of intangible assets of the UN agencies. These should be reconfigured to ensure that the projects seize opportunities, are proactive in the market place, make new product and process innovations.

The study also recommends that planning, implementing and controlling the efficient, cost-effective flow and storage of goods and materials as well as related information,

from point of origin to point of consumption for the purpose of alleviating the suffering of vulnerable people should be enhanced for the realization of Project outcomes.

The study further recommends that in cases of emergencies, coordination and communication are vital. The programmes need to not only ensure that there is adequate and timely communication, their activities must also be well coordinated to ensure that they respond to the emergency in good time and with the appropriate supplies and personnel to remedy the situation and ensuring maximum impact of their activities.

### 5.5 Contributions of the Study

The study contributes the body of knowledge by examining the influence of project strengthening, structural policy framework, project team deployment and promotion of private sector engagement on project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The study also establishes the moderating effect of project environment on project outcomes. The study, therefore, contributes to the existing literature in the field of project management by elaborating exiting theories, models and empirical studies to improve project outcomes in humanitarian sector in Kenya.

The study confirmed that project strengthening, structural policy framework, project team deployment and promotion of private sector engagement significantly influence project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya. The central implication was that constrained programming actually influences project outcomes; this was made clear when the theories were actually incorporated into one model and tested. The study identified constraints in individual as well as cluster projects which influence project outcomes.

Consequently, the findings underscore the significance and application of constrained programming in delivering desired project outcomes in United Nations Agencies. Results of this study also confirmed that there was no one best organizational structure to deliver humanitarian projects. Rather, the appropriate structure depends on clustering

of projects into manageable programmes. Based on the findings of this study, projects that were we clustered delivered project outcomes effectively than those that were not clustered. In effect, the findings reinforce the application of constrained programming in delivering humanitarian project outcomes, specifically in the United Nations context.

Finally, the findings confirmed that project environment indeed moderates delivery of project outcomes. This means that programme and project managers must be quick to incorporate environment factors in humanitarian programming. In essence, the findings pointed to the fact that project outcomes depend on the political, social, technological and geographical contexts of the projects.

### 5.5.1 Policy Makers and Regulators

The findings of this study are of great benefit to the management of humanitarian programmes in United Nations Agencies and the sector at large. The goal is to ensure achievement of desired project outcomes. From the findings of the study, the policy makers are now guided on areas which need to be strengthened in terms of resources to improve programming effectiveness.

The findings are also useful in development of both tactical and strategic programming policies to enable successful delivery of project outcomes for humanitarian projects. It is clear from the findings that programming is critical to achievement of project outcomes.

### 5.5.2 Aid Organizations

The study contributes to the existing literature by providing empirical support for the theories previously tested constructs which are of benefit to aid organizations. The findings of this study aim to better the understanding humanitarian programming; specifically constrained programming and project outcomes.

### 5.5.3 Scholars Researchers

The study gives a significant understanding of the theoretical review associated with constrained programming and project outcomes which will enable other scholars in the field of project management to pursue and explore. The scholars in this area are now able to get nexus between constrained programming and their overall influence on project outcomes.

This study is also a major theory building endeavour that suggests a conceptual model and presents empirical results that have significant implications. Few studies have been undertaken in programming in UN Agencies in Kenya. This study, therefore, contributes to a better understanding of the influence of constrained programming on project outcomes in UN Agencies in Kenya.

## 5.6 Areas for Further Research

This study concentrated on constrained programming aspects of project strengthening, structural policy framework, project team deployment, promotion of private sector engagement and their influence on project outcomes within UN agencies in Kenya. Since the focus is humanitarian projects, Future research can be carried out in other sectors such as manufacturing. Contextually, this study focused on UN agencies that are part of humanitarian clustering.

As such, there is need for future research to build on this by examining different geographical contexts, methodologies and instruments. The study recommends that future research should be conducted in other humanitarian agencies. Likewise, the study adopted a cross sectional research design which was limited to one point in time. Therefore, future research can be conducted using longitudinal research so as to identify factors which influence project outcomes in United Nations agencies in Kenya.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix I: Introduction Letter

29th June 2017

Ronald Kwena

Jomo Kenyatta University of Technology

Nairobi CBD Campus

Dear Respondent,

**RE: REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH STUDY**

I am a student at Jomo Kenyatta University of Technology carrying out a Thesis entitled "Influence of constrained programming of project outcomes in United Nations Agencies in Kenya". This is in partial fulfillment for the requirement for the award of Doctorate degree in Project Management.

It is in this regard that I am humbly requesting for your participation in filling this questionnaire. Kindly give answers to the best of your knowledge. Any information collected was treated with confidentiality and only used for academic purposes. Thank you in advance.

Yours Faithfully,

**RONALD KWENA**

**HD417-C004-5816/15**

## Appendix II: Questionnaire

### Section A

**General Information**

a) Age: Below 25 years ☐ 25 – 35 years ☐ 36 years and above ☐

b) Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

c) Education: ☐ O-Level ☐ Diploma ☐ Graduate ☐ Post Graduate

Others (specify)……

d. Length of service at UN Agency

d) Below 5 years [ ]

e) 5-10 years [ ]

f) 11-15 years [ ]

g) 16-20 years [ ]

h) 21-25 years [ ]

e) Please state the UN Agency you work in……

……

……

……

## Section B

### A] Project Strengthening

1. **Research has identified Project strengthening key influence of project outcomes.**

**In your experience, do you agree with this statement?**

| | Strongly Agree | Agree (4) | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Budgetary allocation directly determines the number of projects completed on time | | | | | |
| Budgetary allocation enables the overall success of the projects | | | | | |
| The Capacity of projects depends on budget | | | | | |
| Monitoring and evaluation enables capacity gap identification | | | | | |
| Monitoring and evaluation provides corrective actions for project capacity strengthening | | | | | |
| Scope planning strengthens capacity | | | | | |
| Capacity failure is directly linked to scope management | | | | | |
| Proper time management enables project strengthening | | | | | |

2a) does project strengthening enable successful achievement of desired project outcomes

1. St?rongly agree [ ]
2. Agree [ ]
3. Neutral [ ]
4. Disagree [ ]
5. Strongly disagree [ ]

2b) Explain

……

……

**B] Structural Policy Framework**

**8a). Research has identified NGO Structural Policy Framework as a major factor in project outcomes?**

| | Strongly Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Clear policies exist within the Structural Policy Framework | | | | | |
| Laws governing the sector are clear | | | | | |
| Licenses enable achievement of the objectives | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Advisory services are available within the regulatory framework | | | | | |

**8b) is the Structural Policy Framework complementary project outcomes?**

1. Strongly disagree [ ]

.2 Disagree [ ]

3. Neutral [ ]

4. Agree [ ]

5. Strongly agree [ ]

**8c** **Explain**

……

……..……

……

……

……

…….

**C] Project Team Deployment**

**5. Research has identified Project team deployment a major factor in project outcomes?**

| | Strongly Agree | agree | Neutral | disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Technical skills of project managers enable successful outcomes of projects | | | | | |
| The level of Supervision determines successful outcomes of projects | | | | | |
| Optimal utilization of Human resources enables successful outcomes of projects | | | | | |
| Experience of project enables successful outcomes of projects | | | | | |
| Labour constraints have resulted failure of project outcomes | | | | | |
| Most projects have adequate staff outcomes | | | | | |
| HR tools and techniques have enabled achievement of project outcomes | | | | | |

6. Has the organization embraced project team deployment in its projects?

1. Not at all [ ]

2. Small extent [ ]

3. Moderate extent [ ]

4. Great extent [ ]

5 Very great extent [ ]

6b)Explain……

……

……

……

**D] Promotion of private sector engagement**

7. **Research has identified Promotion of private sector engagement as a major factor in project outcomes?**

| | Strongly Agree | agree | Neutral | disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Collaborations enable achievement of project outcomes | | | | | |
| Training has enhanced achievement of project outcomes | | | | | |
| Relevant forums have been set up to steer Promotion of private sector engagement | | | | | |
| Frequent meetings are held with private sector | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| More partnerships have been developed | | | | | |

**7b. has the organization emphasized Promotion of private sector engagement?**

1. Not at all [ ]

2. Small extent [ ]

3. Moderate extent [ ]

4. Great extent [ ]

5. Very great extent [ ]

7c)Explain……
……
……

**E] Project Environment**

**3. Based on your knowledge, does project Environment affect project outcomes?**

| | Strongly Agree | agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Aspects of macro economy affect project outcomes | | | | | |
| Micro economics inhibit project | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| outcomes | | | | | |
| Beliefs and traditions affect project outcomes | | | | | |
| Communities determine the success project outcomes | | | | | |
| Political instability hinders success of project outcomes | | | | | |
| project outcomes are directly linked to project outcomes | | | | | |
| Technological changes affect project outcomes | | | | | |

4. To what extent does project environment affect success of project outcomes?

5. Very great extent [ ]

4. Great extent [ ]

3. Moderate extent [ ]

2. Small extent [ ]

1. Not at all [ ]

**F] Project outcomes**

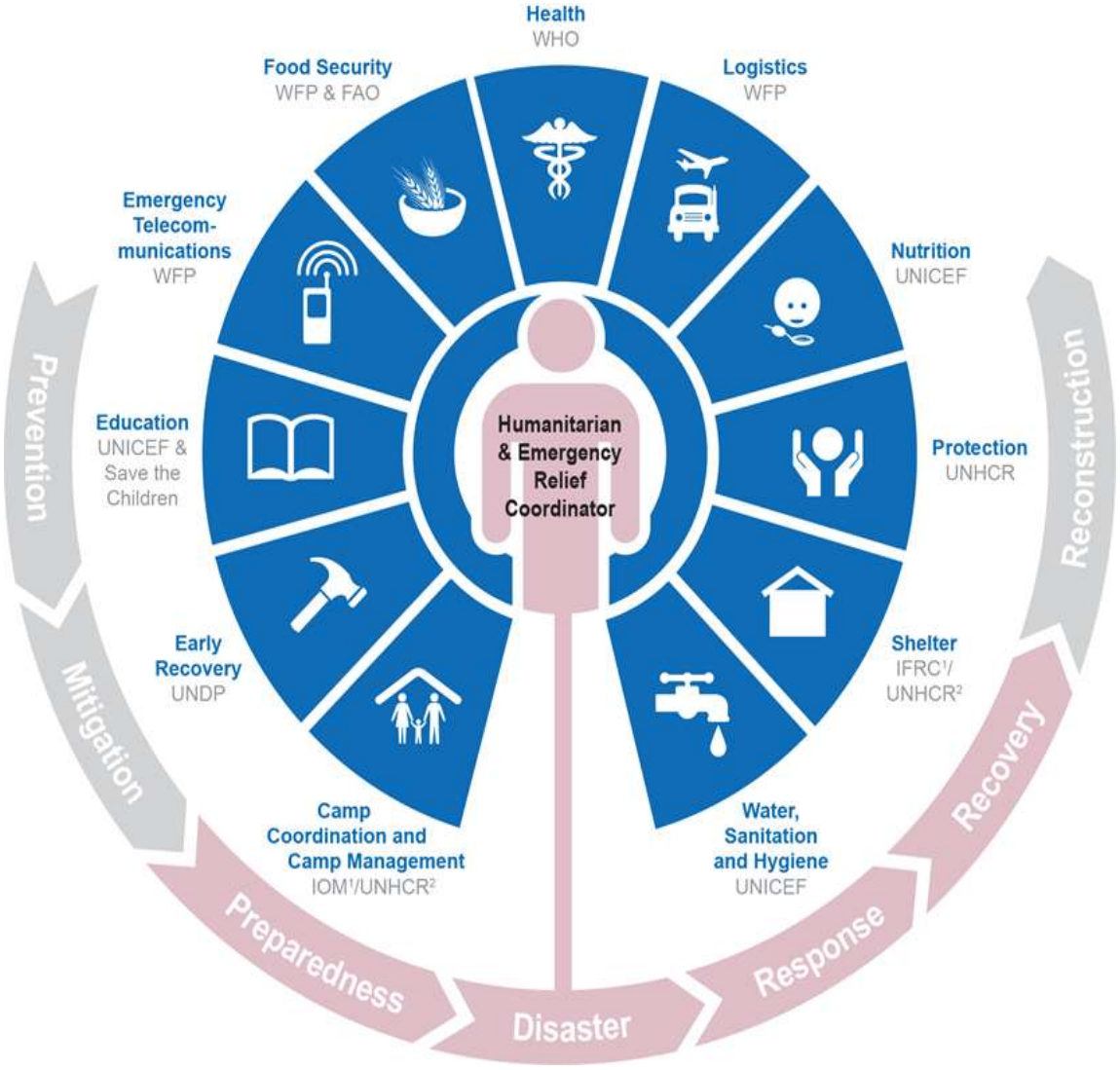
| | **2013** | **2014** | **2015** | **2016** | **2017** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of Successful project outcomes. | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of project outcome beneficiaries | | | | | |
| Sustainability of project outcomes. | | | | | |
| Renewal of project funding for project | | | | | |

## Appendix III: List of United Nations Agencies

1. Food and Agriculture Organization for United Nations
2. International Fund for Agriculture and Humanitarian
3. International Civil Aviation Organization
4. International Labour Office
5. International Maritime Organization
6. International Monetary Fund
7. United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
8. United Nations Common Air Services
9. United Nations Centre for Regional Humanitarian
10. United Nations Environmental Programme
11. United Nations Scientific and Cultural Organization
12. United Nations Humanitarian Programme
13. United Nations Human Settlement Programme
14. United Nations High Commission for Human Rights
15. United Nations Children's Fund
16. United Nations Industrial Humanitarian Organization
17. United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction
18. United Nations Office for Coordination for Affairs
19. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
20. United Nations Office for Project Services
21. United Nations Population Fund
22. United Nations Political Office for Somalia
23. United Nations Volunteers
24. United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the empowerment of Women
25. World Bank
26. World Food Programme
27. World Health Organization

## Appendix IV: Humanitarian Project Outcomes



## Appendix V: UN Clusters

**Figure 1. Clusters and Lead Agencies at the Global Level**

| Clusters for Response Areas: | Cluster Lead Agencies: |
|---|---|
| Camp Coordination & Camp Management | UNHCR/IOM |
| Early Recovery | UNDP |
| Emergency Shelter | UNICEF/Save the Children |
| Food Security | FAO/WFP |
| Health | UNICEF |
| Protection | UNHCR |
| Water, Sanitation & Hygiene | UNICEF |
| **Service Clusters:** | |
| Emergency Telecommunications | OCHA/WFP/UNICEF |
| Logistics | WFP |
| **Cross-cutting Issues:** | |
| Age | Help Age International |
| Environment | UNEP |
| Gender | IASC Sub-Working Group Co-Chairs |
| HIV/AIDS | UNAIDS |

## Appendix VI: Achievement of Outcomes (UNDAF, 2017)

| Results area | | **Progress of Outcome indicators** | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **SRA/Outcome Area** | **% Achieved** | **% Partially Achieved** | **% Not used in Assessment** |
| SRA 1 - Transformational Governance | | | |
| 1.1 Policy and Institutional Framework | 40.0% | 40.0% | 20.0% |
| 1.2 Democratic participation and human rights | 40.0% | 20.0% | 40.0% |
| 1.3 Devolution and accountability | 100% | 0.0% | 0.0% |
| 1.4 Evidence and Rights Based Decision Making | 0.0% | 66.7% | 33.3% |
| SRA 2 – Human Capital Development | | | |
| 2.1 Education and Learning | 66.7% | 16.7% | 16.7% |
| 2.2 WASH, Nutrition & Health | 50.0% | 16.7% | 33.3% |
| 2.3 HIV & AIDS | 0.0% | 40.0% | 60.0% |
| 2.4 Social Protection | 60.0% | 40.0% | 0.0% |
| SRA 3 - Inclusive and sustainable economic growth | | | |
| 3.1 Productive and business environment | 40.0% | 40.0% | 20.0% |
| 3.2 Productive sectors and trade | 0.0% | 44.4% | 55.6% |
| 3.3 Inclusive and sustainable economic growth | 20.0% | 20.0% | 60.0% |
| SRA 4 - Environmental Sustainability, Land Management and Human Security | | | |
| 4.1 Policy and Legal Frameworks | 50.0% | 0.0% | 50.0% |
| 4.2 Community Security and Resilience | 33.3% | 50.0% | 16.7% |
| Overall achievement | 33.3% | 34.8% | 31.8% |