

COMPREHENSIVENESS OF PROJECT PLANNING AND PERFORMANCE OF AGRICULTURAL AND LIVESTOCK PROJECTS AMONG NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN KENYA

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<https://doi.org/10.37602/IJSSMR.2026.9317>

ABSTRACT

This study examined the impact of the comprehensiveness of project planning, specifically in terms of risk, scope, time, and financial planning, on the performance of agricultural and livestock projects among NGOs in Kenya. The study employed Program Theory, Contingency Theory, and the Resource-Based View Theory, using a descriptive cross-sectional research design to examine 45 NGO-managed projects within the agricultural and livestock sectors. Using Yamane's formula, a sample size of 40 projects was determined, and stratified random sampling was applied to ensure fair representation across agricultural-only, livestock-only, and mixed projects. Structured questionnaires were used to gather information from 34 project managers and field coordinators. Reliability tests produced Cronbach's Alpha values exceeding 0.7, thereby validating internal consistency. Data were gathered ethically, ensuring informed consent, confidentiality, and institutional approval, and were subsequently analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics, including correlation and multiple regression in SPSS. The results showed that there were strong, positive, and statistically significant correlations between all planning dimensions and project performance ($r = 0.765$ for risk planning, 0.686 for scope, 0.645 for time, and 0.606 for financial planning). The regression model was significant ($F = 15.390$, $p < 0.001$), showing that risk, scope, time, and financial planning account for 68% of the differences in project performance ($R^2 = 0.680$). Regression analysis indicates that among the predictors, only risk planning exhibited a statistically significant effect ($\beta = 0.311$, $p = 0.007$), underscoring its pivotal role in project performance. The research indicates that thorough project planning improves performance; however, risk management emerges as the paramount factor for attaining successful results in unpredictable operational environments. It recommends that NGOs make risk registers, ongoing staff training, coordinated planning across dimensions, and strong monitoring systems a part of their normal operations. Additional research may investigate the reasons behind the weaker, statistically insignificant effects of time, scope, and financial planning, as well as strategies to enhance their impact on project performance.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Planning is an important aspect of project performance since it lays forth the groundwork for a successful project execution. There is scientific evidence that shows superior outcomes when project scope, timing, risks, and financial factors are defined during planning. For instance, studies on project delivery highlight that effective planning and scheduling are crucial for

completing projects within budget and on time (Akinradewo, Agboola, Oladipupo & Oluwatosin, 2022; Oluwatosin, 2024). Likewise, project planning is a critical phase that enables project managers to establish boundaries and schedules (Ayele, 2023; Amarkhil & Elwakil, 2023). Conversely, poor planning is widely recognized as a major cause of delays, cost overruns, and failure to meet project goals, as supported by numerous studies (Elserougy, Khodeir & Fathy, 2024). Financial planning is especially vital for NGOs, as their financial management directly impacts achieving organizational goals and ensuring long-term sustainability (Mikeladze, 2021). Similarly, effective risk management practices significantly influence project performance concerning its targets (Aikpokhio, Gambo, Ogedengbe & Nwoye, 2024). Therefore, comprehensive project planning is fundamental for enhancing project performance, stakeholder satisfaction, timeliness, and budget adherence.

Numerous theories support the relationship between the comprehensiveness of project planning and project performance. Key theories are program theory, contingency theory, and resource-based view theory. Program theory is a framework explaining how a program works and what outcomes it produces (Sharpe, 2011). This theory emphasizes the critical importance of having a logical plan clearly indicating how specific project activities are expected to lead to desired outcomes, making the case for a defined plan for project success. Contingency theory talks about a basic approach to the aspect of organizational planning since it insists that proper planning for a project cannot be the same for all projects but must be tailored according to specific context, complexity, and environment related to a project. Contingency theory states that the effectiveness of risk response strategies is very dependent on the specific context and conditions (Nassou & Bennani, 2024). The Resource-based view (RBV) theory is used to explain the resource optimization variable. Resource optimization is the practice of making available resources to be most effective and economical (Almarri & Gardiner, 2014). Thus, the end goal, according to RBV theory, is to minimize waste, cost, or inefficiency while maximizing output value.

Numerous publications about the Kenyan setting highlight a persistent issue and significant importance for project planning, especially within agricultural and NGO set-ups. A study conducted in Nakuru County examined the relationship between project planning and the performance of farmer group projects. The study found that project planning significantly influenced beneficiary involvement in project identification and performance (Chepkemoui & Daniel, 2024). Subsequently, an appraisal of livestock projects with a major research institute in Kenya indicated that many projects appear to face challenges of timing and budget, thus calling for improvement in the planning process (Gitau & James, 2025). A different study by Wanyonyi, Mokaya, and Lango (2025) looked at how well the National Agricultural and Rural Inclusive Growth Program in Kenya worked by focusing on the project planning part. These studies together confirm that poor project planning is a consistent problem in the agricultural and livestock development landscape of Kenya, thus justifying the need for an in-depth examination of how comprehensive planning must be advocated to boost the performance of NGO-implemented agriculture and livestock projects in Kenya.

1.1.1 Comprehensiveness of Project Planning

Comprehensiveness in project planning refers to the extent to which a project's goals, activities, and resource requirements are defined and documented. According to Miringo and

Dushimimana (2023), project planning is a systematic process through which an organization creates its strategic direction to attain its intended objectives. Likewise, planning is defined by Wanjau, Namusonge, and Lango (2024) as an activity involving the definition of goals or the identification of activities and ensuring resources are made available for the successful accomplishment of a project. It is regarded as one of the critical management practices that guide project activities affecting project success (Miringo & Dushimimana, 2023). A comprehensive project plan, therefore, includes all possible factors such as scope, time, cost, and risk, which provide the pathway for project execution. Based on these definitions, this study defines comprehensiveness in project planning as the comprehensive and systematic development of project documentation along the four key areas of planning, including scope, time, risk, and finance, to collectively serve as the roadmap for successful NGO project execution.

Research carried out in project planning consistently emphasizes critical issues that need a holistic consideration, more so in the complex agricultural development project context. Among the greatest challenges is that poor project planning is one of the reasons why projects fail (Kosgei & Nyang'au, 2024). Projects that are inadequately planned are more likely to experience setbacks, including delays, excessive costs, and unmet goals. Hamidu, Agboola, Faruq, and Falade (2024) reiterated that poorly planned projects are associated with delays, poor-quality outputs, and poor implementation, weakening the overall project performance. Another study observed several projects failing during implementation, particularly due to a lack of or improper planning (Wanjau et al., 2024). Such challenges become very acute under NGOs implementing agricultural and livestock projects in Kenya, where contextual issues and limited resources render proper planning one of the first stepping stones toward project success and donor confidence.

The way project planning has been operationalized by researchers to measure its effect on project performance has differed in so many ways. The most common method, as shown in the study by Gitau and James (2025), involves using a five-point Likert scale that is supposed to measure dimensions of planning. They carried out a series of statements regarding the extent of planning implementation, as "There is proper scope planning," "There is proper time planning," "There is proper risk management," and "There is proper financial planning." This can make a quantitative measure of the extent of comprehensiveness of planning. Another study on risk management practices, which is a critical element of broader planning, also operationalized the variable using a Likert scale to measure the extent of practices such as risk identification, analysis, and response (Aikpokhio et al., 2024). Following this pattern, this study will operationalize comprehensiveness of project planning in measuring its four dimensions (scope, time, risk, and financial planning) to determine the level of each planning element present in the agricultural and livestock projects of NGOs in Kenya.

1.1.2 Project Performance

Project performance, defined largely under constraints, is the dependent variable in project management research, and simply put, it is the level to which set goals of the project are met. Gitau and James (2025) have defined project performance as on-schedule and on-budget completion of the project. In another study, project performance is described as the successful accomplishment of planned activities on a project, which is linked to the attainment of

organizational objectives and the overall project mission (Mpanju, 2024). Just like Wanyonyi et al. (2025), success is defined in terms of completion on schedule and budget. Thus, in this study, project performance will be defined in terms of the achievement of set project objectives, measured specifically through timeliness, adherence to budget, and the satisfaction level among stakeholders.

The idea of project performance is laden with challenges of research worthy of the current investigation. The main one is high cases of underperformance or failure of projects, particularly in development-type sectors. For instance, a study on livestock projects in Kenya indicated that only 60% of projects were delivered on schedule and within budget, implying very difficult implementation challenges (Gitau & James, 2025). This issue of underperformance often gets blamed on lack of adequate planning, which translates into delays, cost overruns, and unmet deliverables. Another study indicates that a large number of government projects have been poorly performed due to defects in the application of project management practices (Mpanju, 2024). All these findings indicate a huge gap between what was planned and what has actually occurred, and highlight the importance of examining the reasons that lead to such underperformance, particularly in the context of NGOs in Kenya, where project success is vital for community-level impacts and continued donor funding.

Various measures have been operationalized by researchers to quantify project performance in terms of its achievement. A typical example, as in the study by Wanyonyi et al. (2025), is evaluation against predetermined criteria such as "timely completion of projects," "proper utilization of budget," and "achieving the set objectives." Gitau and James (2025) also used a five-point Likert scale to measure project success on a project based on time, on budget, and to quality standards. Another study by Aikpokhio et al. (2024) measured success in terms of time, cost, and quality. Following such a standardized method, this study will redefine project performance based on three major dimensions, namely: timeliness, budget adherence, and stakeholder satisfaction. Data for these constructs will be collected through a structured questionnaire, which will facilitate a quantitative appraisal of project outputs as perceived by project implementers and stakeholders.

1.1.3 Agricultural and Livestock Projects among NGOs in Kenya

NGOs are the most important vehicles through which agricultural and livestock development is made a reality in developing countries such as Kenya. Diverse agricultural and livestock projects promoted by NGOs in Kenya address various challenges, among them food insecurity, poverty, and climate change (Abilla & Luketero, 2024). Initiatives range from those that provide input financing and training to smallholder farmers (One Acre Fund's Tupande program) to projects that promote sustainable practices like agroecology and beekeeping (such as NECOFA-Kenya's projects). Value chain-focused projects include dairy, poultry, or indigenous vegetables for enhancing farmer incomes and market access. Livestock health and disease surveillance in arid and semi-arid lands are the focus of VSF Germany, while KeLCoP works on upgrading livestock market infrastructure (NGO Coordination Board, 2025). The projects usually target vulnerable groups like women and youth, with tailored programs to enhance their economic empowerment and resilience (Abilla & Luketero, 2024).

The performance of these projects is indeed a significant issue since the majority are reportedly marred by implementation challenges due to inadequate planning (Elserougy et al., 2024). The proposed study conceives comprehensiveness of project planning as the independent variable, focusing on four main dimensions of scope, time, risk, and financial planning. The project performance success or failure measures these initiatives in terms of timeliness, according to budget, and stakeholder satisfaction.

1.2 Research Problem

Although established, the nexus between project planning and project performance provides lots of avenues for continued research, thus creating areas for both convergence and divergence in academic discourses. Conceptually, an effective project plan is a universal determinant for project success, where poor and inadequate planning has been cited frequently as a common reason for project failures (Ayele, 2023; Mpanju, 2024). Scholars converge on the idea that a clearly defined project plan, taking care of such key elements as scope, time, cost, and risk, is a prerequisite to the realization of anticipated project outcomes (Gitau & James, 2025; Wanyonyi et al., 2025). Divergence comes in mainly from fragmentation of the concept, where much of the literature on project planning is concerned with individual components in isolation. Some investigate risk management exclusively (Aikpokhio et al., 2024), while others study cost control practices and their effects on project outcomes (Elserougy et al., 2024). Others, like Mogoia and Muchelule (2023), focused on the impact of time management on the performance of projects. This kind of focused approach, though useful, creates conceptual gaps by failing to give a holistic view of how the completeness of a plan in its synergistic and integrative application of multiple planning dimensions affects project performance. The literature has not evaluated the joint impact of scope, time, risk, and financial planning together, thus presenting an opportunity to explore how these operational factors interact with each other to deliver project outcomes.

The context for this study is the emerging nagging issue that faces Kenya's agricultural and livestock sector as it concerns projects implemented by NGOs. Although general studies have discussed the underperformance of projects within the wider context of Kenyan projects, it is still a glaring empirical gap to look into NGOs operating in the area of agriculture and livestock in Kenya. One study showed that more than half of livestock projects completed under the Kenyan umbrella are unfinished or have failed to meet budgetary constraints (Gitau & James, 2025). Another study shows that the following poor project management practices, including planning inadequacies, do contribute a lot to performance failure in any government-led projects; this finding could also be related to other sectors like NGOs (Mpanju, 2024). Another study was conducted by Mogoia and Muchelule (2023), focusing on the effect of project scheduling management on the performance of construction projects in Mombasa County, but in a different context. What makes this research unique is that it will be concentrating only on NGOs, which have a particular type of planning and performance metrics, such as timeliness, budget adherence, and stakeholder satisfaction, which are different from those applied in government or private projects, since NGOs are mostly funded by donors and engage the communities directly. Therefore, despite the plethora of existing literature, there is still a need for empirical evidence linking comprehensiveness in project planning with project performance in this critical but under-researched area.

Empirically, while many studies have attempted to analyze the link between planning and performance across a wider context, in terms of the global or regional context, there exists a serious knowledge gap in the local context of NGOs, specifically with agricultural and livestock projects in Kenya. Much of the existing literature has extended coverage to government projects or construction-which may come in handy but may not fully be generalized to the NGO sector (Mpanju, 2024; Aikpokhio et al., 2024). Filling such a methodological gap with a descriptive cross-sectional design to elicit specific quantifiable information from a representative sampling of NGOs, thereby gives it an unusual twist. Prior works have relied upon the same methods for operationalizing the variables and measuring their interrelationships (Gitau & James, 2025; Wanyonyi et al., 2025). The strength of this study will arise from the methodological rigour gleaned from such an exercise: the four-dimensional attributes of planning comprehensiveness (scope, time, risk, and financial planning) would be systematically measured for their influence on an interrelated set of project performance outcomes. This broad approach will be uniquely complemented by the specific contextual focus on NGOs in Kenya, thereby providing unique insights for propagating the conceptual, empirical, and methodological gaps laid out in the literature. So, this study intends to seek answers to the main question: How does the comprehensiveness of project planning (risk, scope, time, and financial-related) affect the performance of agricultural and livestock projects among NGOs in Kenya?

1.3 Study Objective

The objective of this study was to examine how the comprehensiveness of projects affects the performance of agricultural and livestock projects among NGOs in Kenya.

1.4 Value of the Study

First, this study offers practical recommendations for NGOs, notably in agriculture and livestock, by analyzing the links between comprehensive planning aspects and project success. This research will assist NGOs in improving their efficacy, credibility with donors and beneficiaries, rural livelihoods, and food security in Kenya by optimizing resource allocation, budgeting, and scheduling decisions during planning.

Second, the study could inform policy in several ways. The study could inform NGOs' policy and project planning best practices, ensuring program comprehensiveness in project planning. The NGO Coordination Board might utilize this study to suggest new laws or training for registered NGOs. Also, donor organizations may need extensive planning as a project support requirement or selection factor. This may motivate NGOs to improve their planning culture, making development aid more effective.

Third, the study advances project management theory. Examining how scope, time, risk, and finance planning affect timeliness and stakeholder satisfaction may test and develop theoretical models to help in project planning and implementation. This theory would then help in planning for NGO projects in developing countries like Kenya.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, important theories about the study are presented. The chapter also discusses real-world studies on project planning and performance. There is also a conceptual framework that shows how the comprehensiveness of project planning could affect performance in agriculture and livestock projects managed by NGOs in Kenya. At the end of the chapter, a summary of the literature study and research gaps is provided.

2.2 Theoretical Review

This section reviews theories supporting the variables of the study. The study was anchored on three theories: Program Theory, Contingency Theory, and Resource-Based View Theory.

2.2.1 Program Theory

The program theory was developed by Huey-Tsyh Chen in 1990. It seeks to demonstrate how an intervention achieves its desired results. The main idea is to "open up the black box" of a program such that the causal processes and intermediary outcomes connecting an intervention to its consequences can be articulated. It helps in differentiating between failure in theoretical assumptions and failure in implementation (Chen, 1990). Michael Quinn Patton criticized the term "black box" for its perceived derogatory connotation; he suggested the terms "an empty box" or "a mystery box" instead (Rogers, 2011). The theory emphasizes clearly articulating a causal pathway of how certain project activities are expected to lead to specific intended results. Thus, such an arrangement articulates the reason why a defined strategy is necessary to ensure project success (Sharpe, 2011). Program theory was very relevant in this study. It postulates a causative relationship between the independent variable-comprehensiveness of project planning-and the dependent variable-project performance. It posits that comprehensiveness of the planning is the "intervention," whose effectiveness depends on intermediate steps, namely, effective implementation of planning aspects (scope, time, risk, and finance). The theory helped explain mechanisms and rationale as to why project comprehensiveness is a determinant of success, thereby establishing a theoretical basis for the hypotheses of this study.

2.2.2 Contingency Theory

Joan Woodward developed contingency theory in the 1950s. It posits that there is no optimal way to run or organize a business. The optimal organizational structure and management methods depend on certain internal and external components, including technology, environment, and size (Woodward, 1965). Contingency theory has since been criticized for not accounting for people's actions and because it was deterministic. Contingency theory is a crucial approach to organizational planning, as it suggests that project planning cannot be a standardized process for all projects, but must be tailored to the specific context, complexity, and environment of each project (Nassou & Bennani, 2024). This theory was very significant for this study because it implies, the relationship between project comprehensiveness and project performance is not always consistent, but rather is dependent upon a number of factors. This finding suggests that the success of comprehensive project planning relies on the specific circumstances in which it is implemented, including the specific types of agricultural and livestock projects and the operational environment of NGOs in Kenya.

2.2.3 The Resource-Based View Theory

The Resource-Based View (RBV) emerged from the research of Edith Penrose in 1959, but was promoted by Jay Barney much more extensively in the 1990s. The primary proposition of the idea is that a firm can achieve a sustainable competitive advantage by acquiring and exploiting distinctive, valuable, and immobile resources (Penrose, 1959). The resources must satisfy VRIO criteria, namely, they are Valuable, Rare, Inimitable, and the organization succeeds in organizing and employing them. A key issue with RBV is that many of the major constructs, including what is "resource" and what is "value", are ambiguous (Barney, 1991). Moreover, several researchers have argued that it concentrates too much on internal factors as it ignores the influence of external factors and the strategic contexts related to them (Almarri & Gardiner, 2014). This study used RBV to explain the relationship between project comprehensiveness and project performance. The hypothesis argues that comprehensiveness in project planning can be a significant resource for an NGO if it is rare, difficult to imitate, and well-organized to be exploited successfully. This suggests that the relationship among study variables is a causal one, with comprehensiveness as a separate resource factor improving performance.

2.3 Empirical Studies on Comprehensiveness of Project Planning and Project Performance

Lin, Wang, Ning, Ma, and Chen (2024) examined how project planning affects megaproject performance in China by integrating processes and information while controlling for project complexity. In this work, a moderated mediation model was developed to shed light on indirect effects that vary with project complexity. Questionnaires were sent out to 214 megaprojects to gather data. The methods utilized included moderated mediation and hierarchical multiple regression. Findings demonstrate that process integration decreases with increasing project complexity, while Project planning and megaproject performance are positively correlated, with the mediating roles played by information and process integration. A critical analysis reveals that planning is necessary, but its effectiveness can be enhanced by a strong integration, which means that for big projects, proper planning will only work well when supported by very good collaboration processes.

In their study, Abdullahi and Tembo (2023) sought to find ways to apply lean principles to the planning and scheduling of construction projects in the UK in order to make them more efficient and successful. The study's overarching goal was to provide solutions to the prevalent problems of building project delays, cost overruns, and quality challenges. This research involved systematic reviews, case studies, and published works. Through these reviews, the study aimed to generate new knowledge and develop a framework for applying lean principles. The study's results showed that the integration of lean principles improves the efficiency of projects. A clear theoretical link is established in this article: the use of lean principles for planning and scheduling is a way to improve project efficiency and effectiveness directly.

Akinradewo, Aigbavboa, Ikuabe, Adekunle, Thwala, and Olatunji (2022) published a conference paper exploring project planning as a determinant of project delivery to time and cost in Lagos State, Nigeria. A qualitative research approach was used to gather archival data on public building projects that were carried out between January and December 2021. For this data analysis, researchers relied on descriptive statistics and Pearson's correlation. The study found that construction project budget and schedule overruns are strongly correlated, but that

the approaches used to plan the project had a non-linear relationship with these two variables. This study by Akinradewo et al. presents a compelling case regarding the correlation between the variables, suggesting a direct and causal relationship in which careful planning is viewed as key for keeping projects on track and within budget.

The study by Kasibante and Olonade (2023) looked into how building companies in Masaka City, Uganda, performed in terms of project planning. The purpose of the research was to examine the effects of three practices on the operation of these businesses: time and task scheduling, equipment and material use planning, and safety and resource planning. One hundred seventy-five individuals representing 20 different construction firms took part in the survey. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data. The study established that firms' poor performance is due to a lack of planning because no company fully followed all the planning standards. This caused materials to be wasted and projects to be delayed. This reveals a very direct and significant causal relationship with project under-planning affecting performance in negative ways.

A study was conducted by Magesi (2025) to evaluate how participatory planning affects development projects with emphasis on rural areas, specifically the Nsimbo District Council in Tanzania. The objective of the study was to evaluate the impact of participatory planning on project performance. The study employed purposeful non-probability sampling to choose 92 respondents. The researcher amassed extensive data from respondents with a questionnaire comprising both closed-ended and open-ended questions. Data analysis employed both descriptive and inferential statistics. A significant finding was that an enhanced comprehension of participatory planning resulted in the successful execution of social and economic development programs. Results reveal a positive connection between community participation in planning and project effectiveness. This shows that community involvement is important for projects to work well in rural areas.

Kakw'u and Sang (2024) evaluated how project management, particularly planning, affects Nairobi City County PPP Road projects. They sought to know how planning, monitoring, risk management, and stakeholder involvement affect road project success. Ninety-nine questionnaires were sent to road construction specialists, and 82 responses were collected for 11 PPP road projects. The data were examined using descriptive statistics, correlations, and regression. The results showed that project planning greatly affected performance. The study's conclusion, which emphasizes the importance of the correct application of these tactics for success, illustrates a robust, positive, and direct correlation among the variables within the realm of large-scale infrastructure projects.

Gatibiri, Kamau, and Kibos's (2024) study further investigates project planning versus how it impacts execution in public TVET institutions within Nairobi County, Kenya. Their research approach was explanatory, requesting the participation of 132 individuals comprising officials from the Ministry of Education and staff from public TVET schools. Using multistage sampling approaches, 72 questionnaires were returned, resulting in a sample size of 79 respondents. Project planning significantly improves project execution, according to their study. This study established that planning works well for predicting how the project will be implemented in public TVET schools within Nairobi County. It was demonstrated in the study

that there is a direct relationship among the variables, which connotes that for a successful implementation within the public education sector, project planning has to be effective.

Another study by Mutungi and Chabayanzara (2025) investigated the effects of strategic planning practices on the work of self-help groups in the Lower Eastern region of Kenya. The purpose was to know to what extent the processes of framing goals, naming leadership, communication, and identification of risks contributed towards the success of grassroots projects using the lens of project management. A descriptive quantitative approach was then adopted to collect information from 169 group representatives. Multiple regression, descriptive statistics, and Pearson correlation were employed in the data analysis process carried out using SPSS. The results showed that there was a weak but statistically significant correlation between well-planned projects and their successful completion. In this study, the level of education was the best predictor used. The study suggests that although planning is significant, its correlation with success is interconnected with, and may be eclipsed by, other characteristics such as education.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

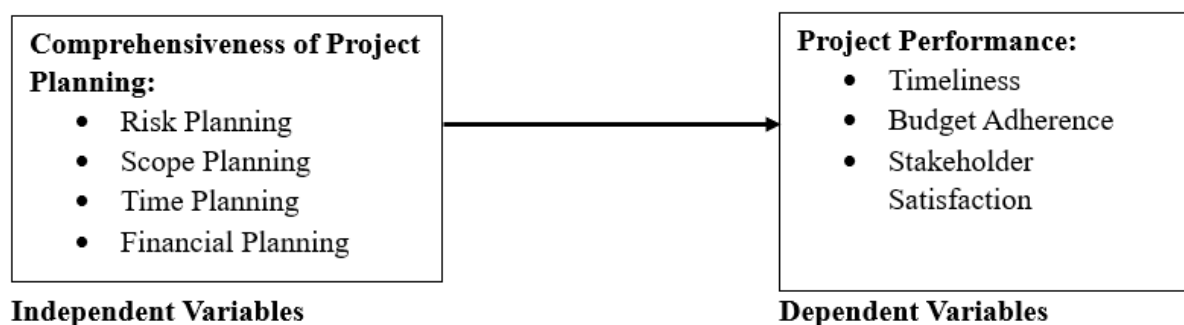


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework Showing Relationships between Variables

The comprehensiveness of project planning, including risk planning, scope planning, time planning, and financial planning, directly influences the performance of agricultural and livestock projects among NGOs in Kenya. Projects with clearly defined and integrated planning elements are more likely to stay on time, stay on budget, and meet stakeholder expectations than projects that are not planned properly. Projects that fail to be planned properly have a higher chance of not being completed on time and not completed within budget, while not meeting stakeholder expectations. Thus, it was expected to have a positive relationship between the comprehensiveness of planning and project performance.

2.5 Summary of Literature Review and Research Gaps

The following table presents a summary of the studies reviewed above, highlighting their main findings and identifying existing research gaps.

Table 1: Summary of Literature Review and Research Gaps

Variable	Author (Year)	Study title	Methodology used	Findings	Knowledge Gaps	Focus of Current Study
Project Planning	Kasiban te & Olonade (2023)	Impact of Project Planning Practices on the Performance of Construction Firms in Uganda	Cross-sectional survey design	Inadequate project planning adversely affects the performance of construction companies.	The study was limited to a single city, which restricts the generalizability of findings to the broader national context.	This study focused on agricultural and livestock projects among NGOs in Kenya, providing a different country and sector-specific context.
Project Planning and Integration	Lin et al. (2024)	Examining the effect of Project Planning on Megaproject Performance: The conditional mediating role of integration	A model of moderated mediation used in conjunction with hierarchical multiple regression	Project planning and performance are positively impacted by the integration of processes and information.	The study focused solely on megaprojects in China, thus limiting the generalizability of its findings to other types of projects or countries.	This study addressed this gap by focusing on the performance of agricultural and livestock projects, which are smaller in scale and from a different national context.
Project Planning and Lean Principles	Abdullahi & Tembo (2023)	Improving the Efficiency and Effectiveness of Project Planning and Scheduling Using Lean Principles	Systematic literature review	The planning of projects can be more effective and efficient when lean concepts are used.	The study is a theoretical review and lacks primary empirical data to support its claims in a specific, real-world context.	This study addressed this gap by collecting primary empirical data from NGOs in Kenya to assess the relationship between comprehensiveness of project planning and project performance.
Participatory Planning	Magesi (2025)	Participatory Planning and Project Performance in Rural Areas: A Case of Nsimbo	Case study research design	Involvement of the community in project planning improves project	The study was a case study of one district council, limiting the findings'	This study moved beyond a single case study by examining NGOs across Kenya, thereby

		District Council		performance in rural areas.	applicability to other rural areas or different administrative contexts.	providing a wider perspective on planning practices.
Project Management Strategies	Kakw'u & Sang (2024)	Project Management Strategies and Performance of Public Private Partnership Road Infrastructure Projects in Nairobi City-County, Kenya	Descriptive statistics, correlations, and regression analysis	Project planning, monitoring, and risk management significantly affect project performance.	The study focused exclusively on PPP road projects in one county, which does not allow for a comparative analysis with non-PPP projects or a wider range of infrastructure projects.	This study addressed this gap by shifting the focus to agricultural and livestock projects and their unique planning variables (risk, scope, time, and financial planning).
Project Planning and Implementation	Gatibiri, Kamau, & Kibos (2024)	Project Planning and Implementation in Public TVET Institutions in Nairobi County	Explanatory research design	The research indicated that project planning significantly enhances project implementation. This study shown that planning effectively forecasts the implementation of the project in public TVET schools.	The abstract does not provide a clear indication of the study's specific findings or the analytical model used, which makes it challenging to evaluate the relationship between variables.	This study provided a clear methodology and detailed analysis to examine the influence of comprehensiveness of project planning on project performance in the NGO sector.
Project Planning and Project Delivery	Akinradewo et al. (2022)	Project Planning: A Determinant of Project Delivery to Time and Cost	Conference paper based on a literature review	The research demonstrated that there is a direct	The study's theoretical nature and absence of a defined methodology	This study addressed this gap by using a specific population and sample to

				connection between planning and the implementation of projects in relation to both time and cost.	y, population, or sample make it impossible to validate the claims empirically.	empirically test the relationship between the comprehensiveness of planning and project performance outcomes (timeliness, budget adherence).
Strategic Planning	Mutung'i & Chabayanzara (2025)	Strategic Planning Practices and the Performance of Self-help Groups in Kenya	Descriptive quantitative design	A modest yet notable positive connection exists between strategic planning approaches and project performance.	The study found that educational attainment was a stronger predictor than planning, suggesting a need for more research on other moderating variables.	This study delved deeper into specific planning variables (risk, scope, time, and financial planning) to give a fuller picture of how they individually and collectively affect the project's success.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodologies for data collection and analysis employed in the study. Specifically, the study describes research design, study population, sample size and sampling technique, data collection instruments, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

This research employed a quantitative methodology utilizing a descriptive cross-sectional research design. According to Ihudiebube-Splendor and Chikeme (2020), descriptive cross-sectional studies yield data to delineate the status of phenomena or the interrelations among phenomena at a specific point in time. This research method was very appropriate for the study as it facilitates the collection of data regarding the "comprehensiveness of project planning and project performance" from numerous NGOs in Kenya at one point in time. This research design describes the state of existing variables with respect to one another, within the target population, very efficiently and cost-effectively, whilst avoiding the cumbersome long-term tracking of these variables (Wang & Cheng, 2020). The quantitative approach, which entails working with numerical data, will help to statistically analyze this relationship and thus test their proposed hypotheses.

3.3 Study Population

The study population consisted of agricultural and livestock projects currently being implemented by NGOs in Kenya. According to the NGO Coordination Board database, Kenyan NGOs were actively engaged in 45 agricultural and livestock development projects spread across counties in Kenya. This formed the sampling frame. Each NGO could be running one or more projects, but for this study, the unit of analysis was the individual NGO project.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The sample size was obtained using Yamane's (1967) formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e^2)}$$

Where:

- n = sample size
- N = population size (45 NGOs)
- e = margin of error (0.05)

$$n = 45 / ((1 + 45(0.05)^2)) = 40$$

This means that a sample of 40 NGO projects will be selected.

Stratified random sampling was applied to ensure fair representation. Stratification was based on the project type: agricultural-only projects, livestock-only projects, and mixed-agriculture and livestock projects. The key respondents were the 40 project managers or project officers, or field coordinators, purposively selected, since they are directly involved in project planning and implementation. Each project had one respondent.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

Data collection was done using structured questionnaires. They contained three sections. Section A will entail demographic and organizational data. Section B entailed measures of comprehensiveness of project planning (risk, scope, time, financial planning), specifically Likert-scale items (1–5). Section C entailed measures of project performance (timeliness, budget adherence, stakeholder satisfaction), specifically Likert-scale items (1–5). Data collection instruments were pre-tested on two NGOs for clarity and reliability before full rollout.

3.6 Data Analysis

This section outlines the data analysis procedures, including diagnostic tests, the analytical model, and significance testing methods used to ensure reliability, validity, and robustness of the study's findings.

3.6.1 Diagnostic Tests

The study began with the reliability test. Mugenda & Mugenda (2003) define reliability as the extent to which the instrument reliably assesses the intended variable. A pilot study was conducted to ascertain the reliability of the research questionnaire. Eight people outside the target demographic were involved in a pilot test. The questionnaire's reliability was subsequently assessed utilizing Cronbach's alpha. Internal consistency is established if Cronbach's Alpha α is equal to or above 0.7.

The second test was that of validity. The test of validity examines how accurately the instrument measures the dependent variable or constructs it is supposed to measure (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). This included Construct Validity and Content Validity. For content validity, experts evaluate the tools, while construct validation involves carrying out exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for the validation of the structures of the variables.

The third test was a test for normality. A normality test is a statistical tool to confirm whether a data set is normally distributed. The test looks at the shape of the distribution of the data set and compares it with what is expected of a normal distribution (Hatem, Zeidan, Goossens, & Moreira, 2022). The Shapiro-Wilk test was applied to determine the spread of the data.

The fourth test is Multicollinearity. A regression model is considered multicollinear if and only if its predictors are linearly dependent. A situation of perfect multicollinearity exists when all of the predictor variables have a perfectly linear connection with one another (Vatcheva & Lee, 2016). Scatterplots and Variance Inflation Factor ($VIF < 10$) were included.

3.6.2 Analytical Model

The study adopted a multiple linear regression model as shown below:

$$Y = \alpha + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \epsilon$$

Where:

- **Y= Project performance-** Project performance will be measured based on three indicators: timeliness, budget adherence and stakeholder satisfaction.
- **X1= Risk planning** -Measurement of risk planning: Indicators include documented risk registers, risk scoring and monitoring tools, and contingency resources
- **X2 =Scope planning** - Measurement of scope planning: Indicators include documented project charters, clear deliverables, and defined roles and responsibilities
- **X3 =Time planning** - Measurement of time planning will include assessing the use of work breakdown structures, Gantt charts, and critical path analysis.
- **X4 =Financial planning** - Measurement of financial planning will be assessed through budget completeness, variance monitoring, and resource tracking tools.
- **α** = Constant
- **ϵ** = Error term

3.6.3 Significance Tests

The researcher conducted the following statistical tests of significance. First, t-tests will be carried out, entailing assessing individual coefficients (β_1 , β_2 , β_3 , β_4). Second, the F-test, which entails assessing the overall model significance. Third, p-value < 0.05 , which indicates a statistically significant relationship.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

The researcher followed key ethical practices in the collection and handling of data. The researcher made sure that participants were briefed about the study's goal and scope, and that their voluntary participation was followed up with informed consent. The second step was for the researcher to make sure the data was secure and that it would remain confidential. Third, the study was approved ethically since the researcher got approval from respected regulatory agencies and an institutional review board. Also, participants were given the assurance by the researcher that the data collected would be used just for academic purposes without any further use.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis and presentation of study findings. The chapter also discusses the findings by comparing them with earlier studies. This section is organized under the following subheadings: reliability test, respondents' background information and project profiles, descriptive statistics for study variables, diagnostic tests, correlation analysis, and regression analysis.

4.2 Questionnaire Response Rate

Table 2: Questionnaire Response Rate

	Number	Frequency
Sample Size	40	100%
Google Form-Questionnaire Link	40	100%
Distribution		
Filled	35	87.5%
Duly Filled	34	97%

Table 2 shows a high questionnaire response rate. The Google Form link was sent to all 40 respondents. Of them, 35 (87.5%) completed the questionnaire, and 34 (97% of those) were complete and valid for analysis. This response rate was sufficient for full data analysis, according to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003).

4.3 Reliability Test

Table 3: Reliability Statistics

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
Risk Planning	0.844
Scope Planning	0.705

Time Planning	0.774
Financial Planning	0.870
Project Performance	0.885

The results of the reliability test in Table 3 show that all of the variables had good internal consistency, with Cronbach's Alpha values above 0.7. Risk Planning ($\alpha = .844$), Financial Planning ($\alpha = .870$), and Project Performance ($\alpha = .885$) exhibited robust reliability, whereas Scope Planning ($\alpha = .705$) and Time Planning ($\alpha = .774$) displayed satisfactory consistency. These findings demonstrate that the measurement scales employed for project planning dimensions and performance were internally consistent and reliable for analytical purposes. Consequently, the questionnaire instrument was appropriate for investigating the correlation between project planning comprehensiveness and project performance within agricultural and livestock initiatives in Kenyan NGOs, thereby ensuring reliability in subsequent statistical analyses and interpretations.

4.4 Respondents’ Background Information and Project Profile

This section is about the respondents' professional backgrounds and the most important parts of the agricultural and livestock projects being looked at. This presents background information such as the roles of the respondents, their experience, their level of education, the types of NGOs, the types of projects, the geographic focus, the budgets, the duration of the projects, the sizes of the teams, the types of donors, the planning methods, and the monitoring systems. This understanding is crucial for contextualizing the impact of project comprehensiveness on performance outcomes in Kenyan NGOs.

4.4.1 Respondent Role

Table 4: Respondent Role

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Field Officer/Coordinator	27	79.4	79.4	79.4
	Project Manager	7	20.6	20.6	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

According to Table 4, the majority of respondents (79.4%) were field officers or coordinators, while 20.6% were project managers. This suggests that most data was collected from staff directly engaged in day-to-day project activities, providing practical insights into project implementation and performance.

4.4.2 Years of Experience in Project Management

Table 5: Experience in Project Management

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	11-15	4	11.8	11.8	11.8

2-5	13	38.2	38.2	50.0
6-10	8	23.5	23.5	73.5
less than 2	5	14.7	14.7	88.2
Over 15	4	11.8	11.8	100.0
Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 5 shows that respondents had diverse project management experience, with most (38.2%) having 2–5 years, followed by 6–10 years (23.5%). A smaller proportion had over 15 years (11.8%). This indicates a mix of early-career and seasoned staff contributing to the projects, potentially influencing project performance perspectives.

4.4.3 Highest education level

Table 6: Education Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor	24	70.6	70.6	70.6
	Diploma	1	2.9	2.9	73.5
	Masters	9	26.5	26.5	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 6 indicates that most respondents held a bachelor’s degree (70.6%), with 26.5% having a master’s and 2.9% a diploma. This suggests a generally well-educated workforce capable of understanding complex project requirements, planning, and monitoring processes.

4.4.4 NGO Type

Table 7: NGO Type

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	County government	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Faith-Based	7	20.6	20.6	23.5
	International NGO	16	47.1	47.1	70.6
	National NGO	10	29.4	29.4	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 7 indicates that nearly half of the NGOs (47.1%) were international, 29.4% national, 20.6% faith-based, and 2.9% county government. This indicates that projects are drawn from a mix of organizational contexts, which may affect project planning comprehensiveness and performance standards.

4.4.5 Project Type

Table 8: Project Type

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
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Valid	Livestock-only	15	44.1	44.1	44.1
	Mixed (agriculture & livestock)	19	55.9	55.9	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 8 shows that a majority of projects (55.9%) were mixed (agriculture and livestock), while 44.1% focused solely on livestock. The predominance of mixed projects suggests that the study captures a broad range of project activities and resource requirements.

4.4.6 Geographic Context in Which the NGO Operates in Kenya

Table 9: Geographic Context

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Arid and Semi-Arid Areas (ASAL)	21	61.8	61.8	61.8
	Both ASAL and Non-ASAL	10	29.4	29.4	91.2
	Non-ASAL	3	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 9 shows that most projects operated in Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASAL) (61.8%), with some spanning both ASAL and non-ASAL areas (29.4%). Only a small fraction were in non-ASAL areas (8.8%). This reflects the focus on challenging environments, which may influence project complexity, planning, and performance outcomes.

4.4.7 Project Budget Band (KES)

Table 10: Project Budget

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	10-50M	16	47.1	47.1	47.1
	101-300M	4	11.8	11.8	58.8
	51-100M	4	11.8	11.8	70.6
	Less than 10M	7	20.6	20.6	91.2
	Over 300m	3	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 10 shows that nearly half of the projects (47.1%) had budgets between KES 10–50 million. Smaller budgets (<10M) accounted for 20.6%, while larger budgets (>300M) were rare (8.8%). This indicates most projects operate with moderate funding, which may constrain comprehensiveness and scope.

4.4.8 Project Duration

Table 11: Project Duration

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	13-24	7	20.6	20.6	20.6
	25-36	9	26.5	26.5	47.1
	Above 36	13	38.2	38.2	85.3
	Less than 12	5	14.7	14.7	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 11 shows that project durations varied, with most lasting over 36 months (38.2%) or 25–36 months (26.5%). Short-term projects (<12 months) were fewer (14.7%). Longer durations suggest sufficient time for planning and implementation, potentially enhancing performance outcomes.

4.4.9 Team Size (Core Project Staff)

Table 12: Team Size

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-5	9	26.5	26.5	26.5
	11-20	8	23.5	23.5	50.0
	5-4	1	2.9	2.9	52.9
	6-10	11	32.4	32.4	85.3
	Above 20	5	14.7	14.7	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 12 shows that most core project teams had 6–10 members (32.4%), followed by 1–5 members (26.5%). Larger teams above 20 were less common (14.7%). Team size distribution indicates varying capacity for handling project complexity and comprehensiveness.

4.4.10 Primary Donor Type

Table 13: Primary Donor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bilateral	12	35.3	35.3	35.3
	Corporate/CSR	1	2.9	2.9	38.2
	Internal/own funds	1	2.9	2.9	41.2
	Multilateral	9	26.5	26.5	67.6
	Pooled (consortium)	10	29.4	29.4	97.1
	Private foundation	1	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 13 indicates that bilateral donors funded 35.3% of projects, multilateral 26.5%, and pooled consortia 29.4%, while corporate, internal, and private foundations accounted for small proportions. This diversity in funding sources may influence project design, reporting requirements, and implementation quality.

4.4.11 Planning Approach Used

Table 14: Planning Approach

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Adaptive/Agile	3	8.8	8.8	8.8
	Logical Framework	24	70.6	70.6	79.4
	PRINCE2	1	2.9	2.9	82.4
	Results-Based Management	6	17.6	17.6	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 14 shows that most projects (70.6%) used the Logical Framework approach, with 17.6% employing Results-Based Management, and a few using Agile or PRINCE2. This indicates a structured, formal planning culture among NGOs, which can enhance project clarity and performance monitoring.

4.4.12 Whether there is M&E System in Place

Table 15: M&E System in Place

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Yes	33	97.1	97.1	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 15 indicates that nearly all projects (97.1%) had a monitoring and evaluation system, highlighting the importance of tracking performance and outcomes in NGO-managed agricultural and livestock projects.

4.4.13 Tool Used in the M&E

Table 16: Tool Used in the M&E

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Digital data collection	5	14.7	14.7	14.7
	Indicator tracking table	24	70.6	70.6	85.3
	Routine learning reviews	5	14.7	14.7	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 16 indicates that the majority (70.6%) used indicator tracking tables, while digital data collection and routine learning reviews were less common (14.7% each). This suggests reliance on traditional M&E tools, which may influence the speed and quality of project performance insights.

4.4.14 Project Complexity

Table 17: Project Complexity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High	4	11.8	11.8	11.8
	Low	5	14.7	14.7	26.5
	Moderate	25	73.5	73.5	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 17 indicates that most projects (73.5%) were rated as moderately complex, while 14.7% were low and 11.8% high complexity. This indicates that the majority of projects have manageable complexity, likely affecting the efficiency and effectiveness of project execution.

4.5 Descriptive Statistics for Variables

This section presents the descriptive statistics for key project management variables, including risk planning, scope planning, time planning, and financial planning, alongside project performance indicators such as timelines, budget adherence, and stakeholder satisfaction. The study offers a quantitative assessment of the techniques, frameworks, and results of successful project planning, emphasizing strengths and opportunities for enhancement.

4.5.1 Risk Planning

Table 18: Descriptive Statistics of Risk Planning

	N	Mini	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
We maintain a comprehensive risk register updated at defined intervals.	34	2.000	5.000	3.88235	.977464
Risk scoring (likelihood × impact) informs mitigation prioritization.	34	2.000	5.000	4.11765	.807717
We allocate contingency resources (budget/time) for key risks.	34	2.000	5.000	3.61765	1.128547
Early warning indicators/triggers for risks are monitored routinely.	34	2.000	5.000	3.91176	.830029
Risk owners and clear escalation paths are documented.	33	2.000	5.000	3.69697	.918043
We conduct after-action reviews to update risk assumptions.	34	2.000	5.000	3.82353	.936486
Valid N (listwise)	33				

Table 18 reveals that there was a consensus among the respondents that risk planning was undertaken in their projects, with a mean score of between 3.62 and 4.12 on a 5-point scale. The highest mean score was for risk scoring used to prioritize mitigation (4.12), demonstrating a good emphasis on a systematic risk assessment process. There was also strong agreement for having a complete risk register and monitoring early warning indicators. Although allocating resources to contingency was slightly less emphasized (3.62), indicating there was strong risk identification, but the provision of resources for risk could be improved.

The high mean value for risk planning activities (3.62 to 4.12) in Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) in Kenya is corroborated by the study by Aikpokhio et al. (2024), who showed how risk management is positively associated with project performance and focused uncertainty. The highlighting of risks via a risk scoring system (Mean 4.12) is particularly instructive of risk assessment being the crucial project management practice of assessing risk, where a probability-impact matrix is used to identify severity and identify action. These proactive measures, alongside monitoring, presented a significant positive relationship with project implementation by Munyoki and Sang (2024). The lower mean for allocating contingency resources (Mean 3.62) indicates that the process of responding to risks in planning was weaker than the risk identification and assessment process. The current finding regarding resource-based risk responses is consistent with a recurring finding identified by Aikpokhio et al. (2024), that the resource plan component of risk responses often requires comparably greater strengthening than risk identification and risk control.

4.5.2 Scope Planning

Table 19: Descriptive Statistics of Scope Planning

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
The project charter clearly defines objectives, deliverables, and boundaries.	34	3.000	5.000	4.47059	.662195
A work breakdown structure (WBS) decomposes deliverables into activities.	34	3.000	5.000	4.41176	.743360
Roles and responsibilities are documented and known.	34	3.000	5.000	4.58824	.556920
Change control procedures govern scope revisions.	34	3.000	5.000	3.97059	.758199
Beneficiary needs and theory of change are explicitly linked to outcomes.	34	2.000	5.000	4.50000	.662868
Partners' roles in delivery are clearly agreed.	34	4.000	5.000	4.73529	.447811
Valid N (listwise)	34				

Table 19 demonstrates that practices around scope planning are institutionalized with means between 3.97-4.74. The items which had the highest means included defining partner roles clearly (4.74) and evidenced roles and responsibilities (4.59), which are highly indicative of coordination and accountability. Linking beneficiary needs and the theory of change to the outcomes (4.50) demonstrates some attention to aligning program impacts. Implementation of change controls scored relatively lower (3.97) which suggests the adjustments in the scope may be less formally executed in practice.

The average scores for planning related to project scope (3.97 to 4.74) were high and were confirmed by Akinradewo et al. (2022), who argued that having a defined project scope is one of the primary factors that determine the success of a project and the overall performance of the project. The high scores recorded for defining the roles of partners and documenting expectations and responsibilities (4.74 and 4.59) suggest an emphasis on managing stakeholders and having appropriate coordination processes, confirming a finding from

Munyoki and Sang (2024), who noted that stakeholder management is linked with project success in areas from road infrastructure and self-help groups in Kenya. This finding was confirmed in a similar study by Mutungi and Chabayanzara (2025). Also, the practice of utilizing a work breakdown structure (WBS) to decompose deliverables is a fundamental practice required for an orderly and systematic project implementation, a finding posited by Gatibiri (2024). On the other hand, a low mean rating for change control procedures (3.97) indicates a weakness in formal changes in scope. Akinradewo et al. (2022) note that not controlling for scope change is one of the primary problems with delivering projects on time and budget.

4.5.3 Time Planning

Table 20: Descriptive Statistics of Time Planning

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
A Gantt schedule with milestones and dependencies guides implementation.	34	1.000	5.000	3.94118	1.013281
Critical path is identified for time-sensitive tasks.	34	2.000	5.000	4.08824	.900089
Resource loading (people/inputs) is aligned with the schedule.	34	2.000	5.000	4.17647	.833779
We review milestone slippages and implement corrective actions promptly.	34	3.000	5.000	4.20588	.640994
Lead times/seasonality are built into plans.	34	3.000	5.000	4.05882	.648596
Coordination meetings review timeline performance at least monthly.	34	2.000	5.000	4.02941	.936961
Valid N (listwise)	34				

According to Table 20, the area of time planning is quite well accomplished, with means ranging from 3.94–4.21. Monitoring milestone slippages and corrective action was rated highest (mean = 4.21), which reflects more proactive planning for a schedule. Resource alignment and identification of a critical path also scored high (means of 4.18 and 4.09) versus the total scale rating for this planning area. The lower scores for Gantt schedules (3.94) suggest that not all projects are using visual schedules consistently, while overall, the area of time planning aligns with adequate management.

The generally high mean scores of 3.94 to 4.21 for time planning suggest effective time management practices. These, as highlighted in the study done by Akinradewo et al. (2022), are important determinants of time delivery for project delivery. The highest rated practice was reviewing milestone slippages and taking corrective actions, with a score of 4.21. This shows a highly proactive approach to project control and monitoring and indicates alignment with Munyoki and Sang's (2024) findings that a proactive approach to project control is an important strategy in project management and effectiveness. The strong scores for the practice of determining the critical path and the practice of adjusting the resource loading (4.09 and 4.18, respectively) indicate some awareness on behalf of the organizations for adjusting important factors that can influence planned schedule performance. On the contrary, the lowest mean was for the practice of routinely using a printed Gantt schedule (3.94), which indicates that not all

organizations do not appear to use formal visual time scheduling aids, but Abdullahi and Tembo (2023) indicate project control can still be functionally valid, so long as monitoring is proactive. Confirmation is indicated by the regular use of coordination meetings to review planned timeline performance and build seasonality into plans. A study conducted by Gatibiri et al. (2024) also revealed that these NGOs have systematic processes of time management. Project planning effectiveness requires project managers to commit to time management as an important component of project management practice.

4.5.4 Financial Planning

Table 21: Descriptive Statistics of Financial Planning

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
The budget is detailed at activity level and aligned to the WBS.	34	3.000	5.000	4.58824	.656790
Cash flow forecasts match implementation phasing and procurement plans.	34	2.000	5.000	4.29412	.835914
Variance analysis (budget vs. actual) is performed and acted upon.	34	3.000	5.000	4.32353	.726994
Procurement lead times and price volatility are incorporated.	34	2.000	5.000	4.00000	.738549
Unit costs/standards are documented and used.	34	3.000	5.000	4.26471	.709623
Donor compliance is built into financial planning.	34	4.000	5.000	4.67647	.474858
Valid N (listwise)	34				

The findings presented in Table 21 demonstrate that there are strong financial planning practices in place, with the mean scores ranging from 4.00 to 4.68. Donor compliance (4.68) and detailed budgeting consistent with WBS (4.59) received the highest scores, which demonstrates the active customizable features for complying with donor requirements and good attention to activity-based budgeting. The score for procurement lead times and incorporation of price volatility (4.00) is lower than other variance explanations. It can be interpreted as one of the minor gaps in the anticipation of external fluctuations in costs or price increases, and global financial control appears to be in good standing.

The financial planning practices by the NGOs are notably strong in the range of 4.00 to 4.68, especially in following institutional requirements (laws and regulations), and their own internal accountability protocols. Aiding in those findings is the relatively high mean rating for donor compliance (4.68). According to the work by Elserougy et al. (2024), this high ranking is reflective of the non-profit sector's strict accountability protocols and indeed, demonstrates a high priority for this contextual factor in financial planning as it relates to financial oversight. The donor compliance is bolstered by the high rating budget information detailing at the activity-level and on less detail (4.59). The practice of detailing budgets (even if activities are included) is an expense control technique to support tracking costs, as it relates to accounting for an organization's financial performance on a given program. The continual use of variances

(4.32) provides evidence of a strong system of financial control, which is welcomed as an organizational control feature for project performance, as evidenced again by Elserougy et al. (2024). A more concerning finding is the mediocre mean for observing procurement lead times and price volatility (4.00). This more uncertain dependence on external market issues, or supply chain issues in general, exposes a notable risk for NGOs (Xu et al., 2022), indicating that this risk may be more salient than perceived for these organizations.

4.5.5 Project Performance

Table 22: Descriptive Statistics of Timelines

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Key milestones were achieved as per the planned schedule.	34	3.000	5.000	4.17647	.626224
Activity start/finish dates closely matched the Gantt plan.	34	2.000	5.000	4.20588	.769865
Schedule recovery plans minimized delays when they occurred.	34	2.000	5.000	4.00000	.852803
Seasonal windows were hit without slippage.	34	2.000	5.000	3.32353	.911894
Valid N (listwise)	34				

According to Table 22, the overall performance of the project in terms of adherence to schedule is viewed as satisfactory, with scores ranging from 3.32 to 4.21. Milestone achievement (4.18) and following Gantt schedules (4.21) signify that planning and execution are effective. However, seasonal windows fell to the lowest mean (3.32), a reflection of the challenges faced in ensuring scheduling on project timelines, particularly when outcomes are temporally sensitive.

Project performance regarding timelines shows strong internal control but a significant weakness in external responses, based on the mean data (3.32-4.21). The fact that we hold or beat key milestone dates (4.18) and align closely with the Gantt plan (4.21) is a testament that the high level of project planning and internal controls noted earlier translates into a positive time delivery outcome. This finding was found by Akinradewo et al. (2022) to support the notion that this level of performance is a target of organizational project management, assuring delivery to time. The lowest mean, that of the inability to utilize seasonal windows without slippage (3.32), also indicates a significant weakness and consequently was noted as a significant vulnerability by Gitau and James (2025), thus important for agricultural and livestock projects. Overall, the data show that the ability to deliver on time is strong overall, yet as noted by Aghileh et al. (2024), in the sense that all undertaking was based on internal timelines and monitoring, yet were unable to mitigate external, time-constrained disregard for the planning and monitoring capabilities. Akinradewo et al. (2022) point out that using schedule recovery plans when delays occur will assist this gap in performance; however, schedule recovery remains a challenge we consistently face.

Table 23: Descriptive Statistics of Budget Adherence

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Actual expenditures were within approved budgets ($\pm 10\%$).	34	2.000	5.000	4.32353	.806060
Burn rate aligned with planned cash flow.	34	2.000	5.000	4.17647	.903548
Variance drivers were identified and addressed quickly.	34	3.000	5.000	4.20588	.729442
The project closed without budget overruns.	34	1.000	5.000	3.61765	1.255647
Valid N (listwise)	34				

Table 23 shows that NGOs under the study stick to their budgets well, with means ranging from 3.62 to 4.32. Good financial discipline means sticking to approved budgets (4.32) and quickly dealing with the causes of variance (4.21). The project closing without going over budget scored lower (3.62), which means that some projects may still have to deal with final cost pressures even though the overall budget is under control.

Budget adherence shows strong ongoing financial discipline, which, like time performance, has problems at the end of the project, with means from 3.62 to 4.32. The success in keeping actual spending within approved budgets (4.32) and making sure the burn rate matches planned cash flow (4.18) shows that the project control methods used were effective, especially the strong use of variance analysis, as shown by Elserougy et al. (2024). A key part of project control and monitoring is being able to quickly find and fix variance drivers (4.21). Munyoki & Sang (2024) found that this practice was linked to better project performance. The lowest mean for the project closing without budget overruns (3.62) suggests that projects often run into problems with their final costs or unexpected costs when they are closing. Aikpokhio et al. (2024) conducted a study that identified this as a performance gap resulting from inadequate risk response planning, exemplified by the reduced allocation of contingency resources. Gitau and James (2025) contended that, notwithstanding robust in-process financial management, the susceptibility to ultimate cost overruns signifies that attaining project success across all performance metrics continues to be a prevalent challenge.

Table 24: Descriptive Statistics of Stakeholder Satisfaction

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Beneficiaries report satisfaction with access, quality, and relevance of services.	34	3.000	5.000	4.17647	.626224
Donors rate planning, reporting, and compliance as satisfactory.	33	3.000	5.000	4.48485	.565752
Local government/partners express satisfaction with coordination.	34	3.000	5.000	4.47059	.563285
Project team reports adequate support, tools, and clarity to deliver.	34	3.000	5.000	4.41176	.656790
Overall stakeholder satisfaction with outcomes is high.	34	3.000	5.000	4.38235	.603761
Valid N (listwise)	33				

Table 24 shows that stakeholders are very satisfied, with average scores between 4.18 and 4.48. Donors (4.48) and local partners (4.47) gave high marks to project coordination and compliance. Beneficiaries' satisfaction (4.18) was a little lower, which means that service delivery alignment could be better. Overall, the results show that many stakeholders are happy and that the project management worked well.

The descriptive statistics show that stakeholder satisfaction is high (4.18 to 4.48), indicating that effective project management leads to better project performance in many areas (Turner, 2025). The study's strong financial planning and scope definition (Tables 4.19 and 4.17) are directly related to the highest mean scores from donors (4.48) and local partners (4.47). Mutungi and Chabayanzara (2025) similarly demonstrated that organized project management and communication produce significant outcomes with essential managerial stakeholders. For example, stakeholder management is a key strategy that affects how well organizations do overall, including self-help groups in Kenya. On the other hand, the fact that beneficiaries are less satisfied with the quality and relevance of services (4.18) is an important finding. In support, Gitau and James (2025) argued that even though process efficiency and compliance are high, there may be a gap in fully turning the planned benefits into satisfactory end-user outcomes. This is a common problem when trying to link project deliverables directly to end-user needs and outcomes.

4.6 Diagnostic Tests

The main objective of this study is to find out how the comprehensiveness of project planning (risk, scope, time, and financial planning) affects the success of agricultural and livestock projects run by NGOs in Kenya. Before conducting multiple regression, diagnostic tests were performed to assess the assumptions of normality and multicollinearity.

4.6.1 Test of Normality

The Shapiro–Wilk and Kolmogorov–Smirnov tests reveal that most independent and dependent variables are regularly distributed. Risk Planning, Scope Planning, and Timelines are normal because they are not significant (p =.131,.065, and.122). However, Financial Planning (p =.012), Budget Adherence (p =.016), and Stakeholder Satisfaction (p =.015) deviate from normality. Q-Q plots reveal nearly diagonal points, and the Shapiro-Wilk test is sensitive. Reason: modest sample size (n = 34). Small differences are permissible, and regression is valid if residuals are close to normal.

Table 25: Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Risk Planning	.148	34	.059	.951	34	.131
Scope Planning	.121	34	.200*	.941	34	.065
Time Planning	.156	34	.036	.946	34	.090
Financial Planning	.156	34	.035	.915	34	.012
Timelines	.146	34	.064	.950	34	.122
Budget Adherence	.158	34	.030	.920	34	.016

Stakeholder Satisfaction	.127	34	.180	.919	34	.015
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*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

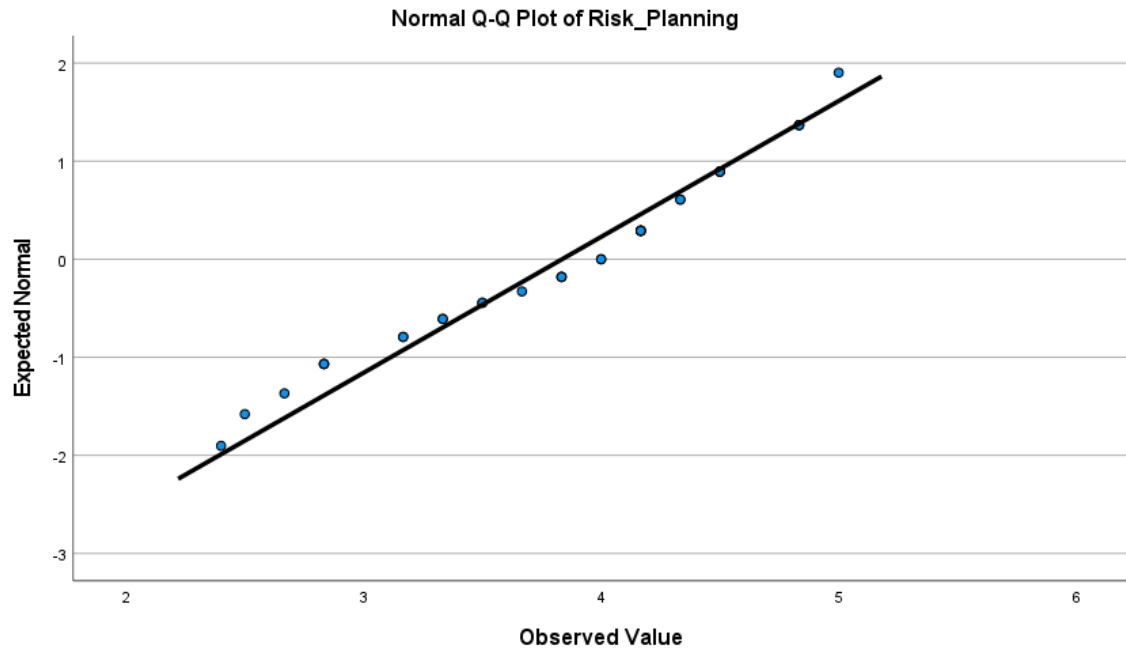


Figure 1: Normal Q-Q Plot for Risk Planning in Normality Test

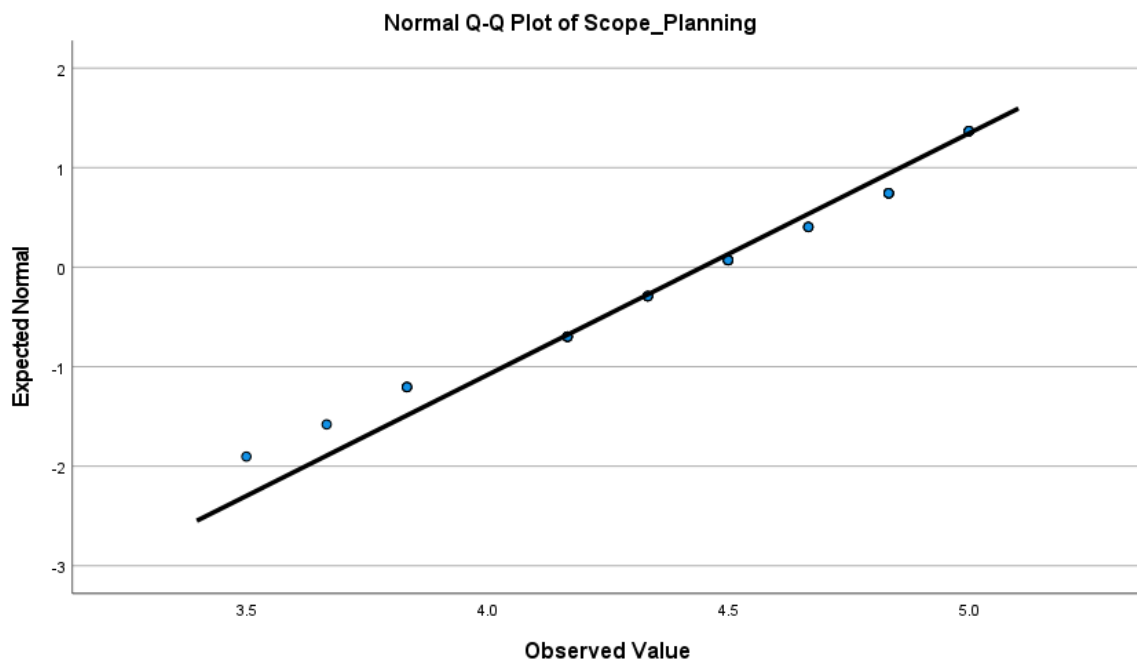


Figure 2: Normal Q-Q Plot for Scope Planning in Normality Test

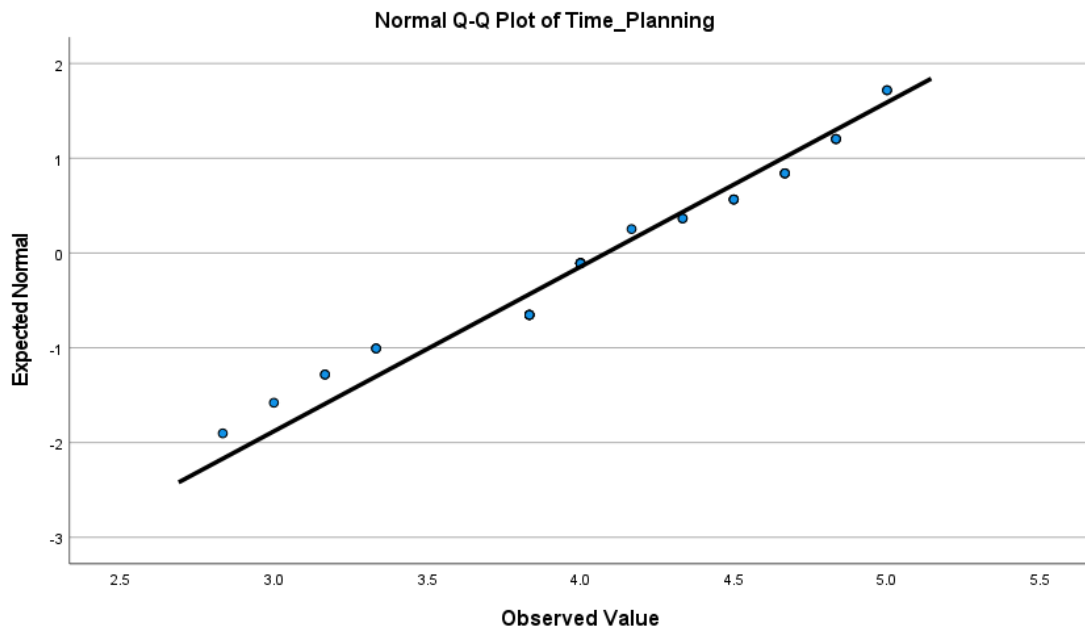


Figure 3: Normal Q-Q Plot for Time Planning in Normality Test

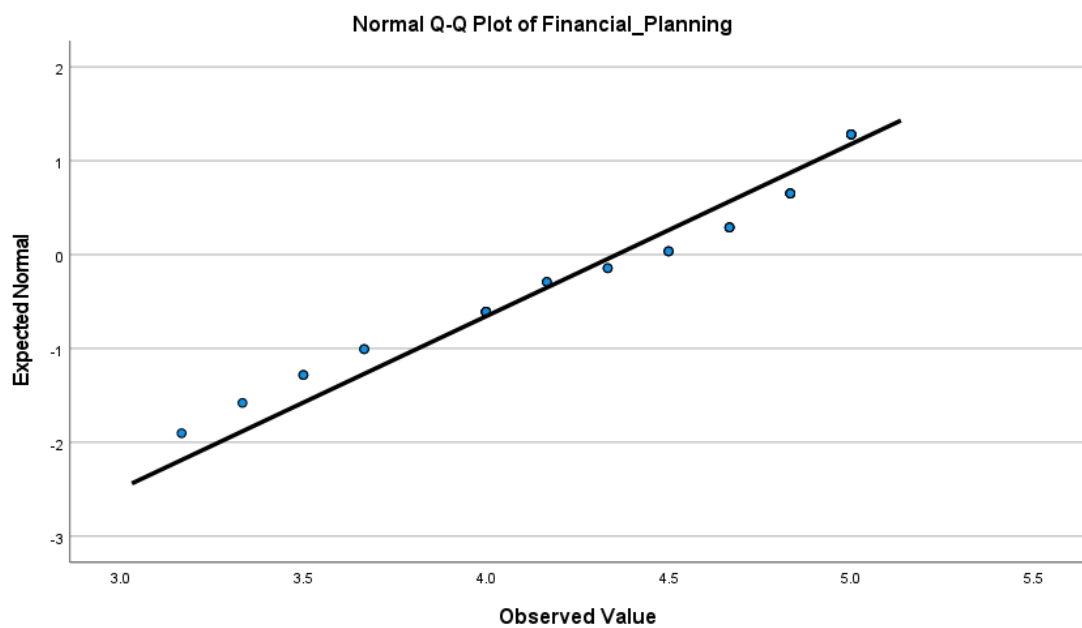


Figure 4: Normal Q-Q Plot for Time Planning in Normality Test

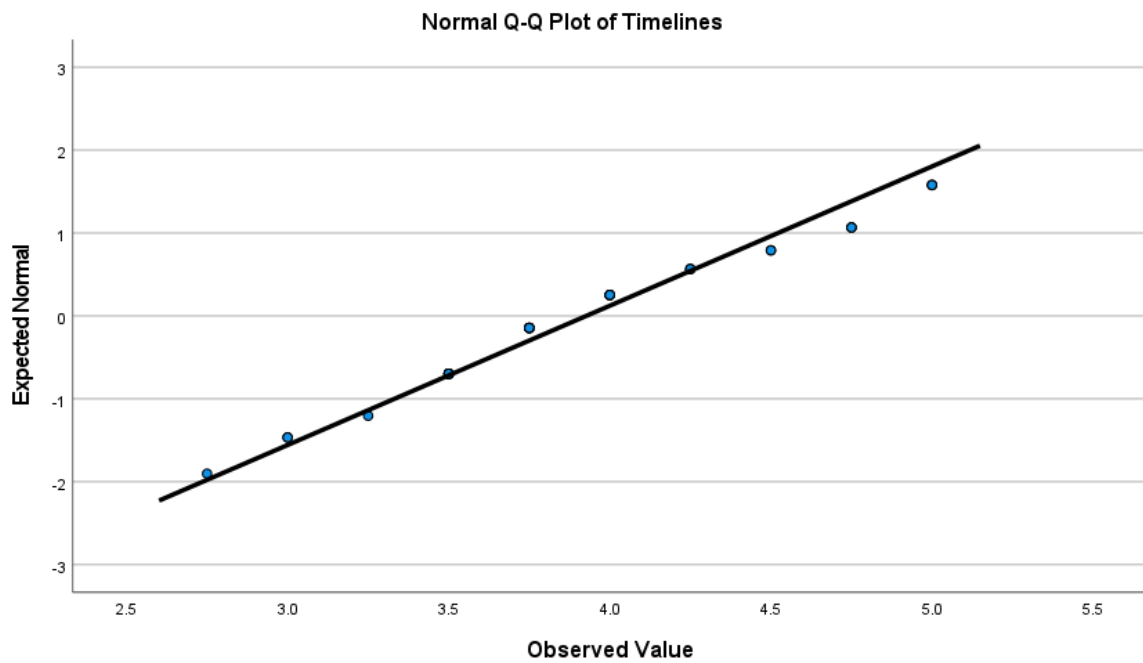


Figure 5: Normal Q-Q Plot for Timelines in Normality Test

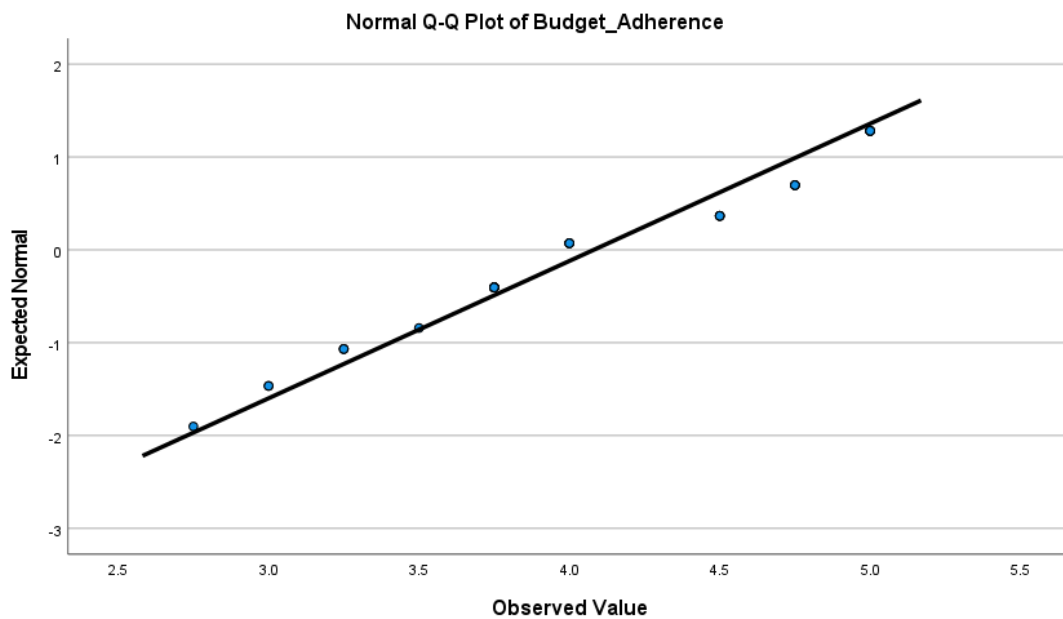


Figure 6: Normal Q-Q Plot for Budget Adherence in Normality Test

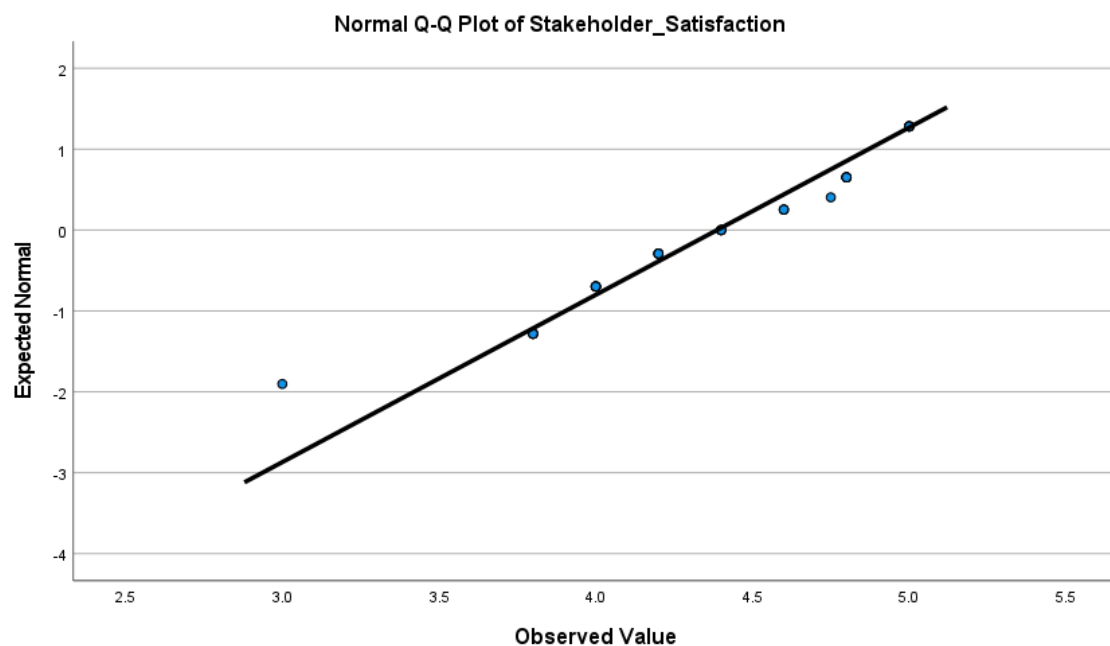


Figure 7: Normal Q-Q Plot for Stakeholder Satisfaction in Normality Test

4.6.2 Test for Multicollinearity

In this test, the study examines the Coefficients Table, which includes VIF and Tolerance values. If the tolerance is less than 0.10, there is a problem with multicollinearity. A VIF greater than 10 indicates high multicollinearity. In the Collinearity Diagnostics table, high variance proportions (> 0.90) that are close together in the same dimension also suggest multicollinearity.

The variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values for the multicollinearity test are between 2.246 and 2.450, which is well below the critical threshold of 10 and even the conservative cutoff of 5. The tolerance values (0.408–0.445) are higher than 0.10, which means that collinearity is at an acceptable level. The collinearity diagnostics show that there is no clustering of high variance proportions in one dimension, which confirms that multicollinearity is not an issue.

Table 26: Coefficients of Collinearity

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	Risk Planning	.445	2.246
	Scope Planning	.445	2.246
	Time Planning	.414	2.416
	Financial Planning	.408	2.450

a. Dependent Variable: Project Performance

Table 27: Collinearity Diagnostics

Variance Proportions	

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	(Constant)	Risk Planning	Scope Planning	Time Planning	Financial Planning
1	1	4.965	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.018	16.411	.12	.49	.01	.01	.01
	3	.008	24.219	.15	.25	.04	.39	.13
	4	.006	29.626	.23	.00	.06	.43	.46
	5	.002	45.491	.50	.25	.90	.18	.40

a. Dependent Variable: Project Performance

4.7 Inferential Statistics

This section presents the inferential analysis used to examine the relationships between project planning practices (risk, scope, time, and financial planning) and project performance outcomes, including timelines, budget adherence, and stakeholder satisfaction. This section presents correlation analysis and regression analysis results. These analyses provide insights into which aspects of project planning most significantly contribute to achieving successful outcomes in agricultural and livestock projects managed by NGOs in Kenya.

4.7.1 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was conducted to explore the strength and direction of associations between project planning comprehensiveness and performance of agricultural and livestock projects managed by NGOs in Kenya. Below is Table 28 showing the correlation analysis results.

Table 28: Correlations

		Risk Planning	Scope Planning	Time Planning	Financial Planning	Project Performance
Risk Planning	Pearson Correlation	1	.625**	.664**	.525**	.765**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001	.000
	N	34	34	34	34	34
Scope Planning	Pearson Correlation	.625**	1	.513**	.667**	.686**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.002	.000	.000
	N	34	34	34	34	34
Time Planning	Pearson Correlation	.664**	.513**	1	.667**	.645**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002		.000	.000

	N	34	34	34	34	34
Financial Planning	Pearson Correlation	.525**	.667**	.667**	1	.606**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000		.000
	N	34	34	34	34	34
Project Performance	Pearson Correlation	.765**	.686**	.645**	.606**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	34	34	34	34	34

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

In Table 28 above, the correlation results show strong, positive, and statistically significant links between all of the project's planning areas (risk, scope, time, and financial planning) and the project's overall performance. Risk planning has the strongest link to project performance ($r = 0.765$, $p < 0.01$), followed by scope planning ($r = 0.686$), time planning ($r = 0.645$), and financial planning ($r = 0.606$). All of these are significant at the 0.01 level. Furthermore, the planning variables exhibit a positive correlation among themselves, indicating that well-coordinated and comprehensive planning across various dimensions enhances effective project execution. These results suggest that strong planning practices are closely related to better results in agricultural and livestock projects run by NGOs in Kenya.

The Pearson correlation analysis validates a robust, positive, and statistically significant correlation among all facets of project planning (risk, scope, time, and financial planning) and the overall performance of the project. Planning for risk has the strongest link to project performance ($r = 0.765$, $p < 0.01$). These results are in line with those of Aikpokhio et al. (2024) and Aghileh et al. (2024), who both highlighted the significance of risk management as a basic tactic for accomplishing project goals and reducing the uncertainties that impact project execution, especially in livestock and agricultural projects that are vulnerable to outside influences. Strong correlations for scope ($r = 0.686$) and time planning ($r = 0.645$) further supported the results by Gatibiri et al. (2024), who established that explicitly delineating project boundaries and formulating a systematic schedule are essential factors for timely and cost-effective project delivery. The positive correlations between the planning variables (for example, Risk Planning and Scope Planning, $r = 0.625$) show that these planning processes are not separate from each other but work together to make each other stronger. This, according to Gitau and James (2025), indicates that organizations excelling in one domain, such as financial planning, are likely to exhibit effective practices in additional domains, such as time planning ($r = 0.667$), resulting in more comprehensive overall project management.

4.7.2 Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used to assess the predictive influence of planning dimensions on overall project performance. Below are three tables showing the results of the regression analysis.

Table 29: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.824 ^a	.680	.636	.29916

a. Predictors: (Constant), Financial Planning, Risk Planning, Scope Planning, Time Planning

According to Table 29, the multiple regression model explains 68% of the variance in project performance ($R^2 = 0.680$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.636$), indicating a strong predictive relationship between the combined planning variables and performance outcomes.

Table 30: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.510	4	1.377	15.390	.000 ^b
	Residual	2.595	29	.089		
	Total	8.105	33			

a. Dependent Variable: Project Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Financial Planning, Risk Planning, Scope Planning, Time Planning

The ANOVA results ($F = 15.390$, $p < 0.001$) in Table 30 confirm that the overall model is statistically significant, meaning that together, risk, scope, time, and financial planning significantly predict project performance in agricultural and livestock projects among NGOs in Kenya.

Table 31: Regression Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.650	.596		1.090	.285
	Risk Planning	.311	.108	.453	2.878	.007
	Scope Planning	.320	.190	.266	1.688	.102
	Time Planning	.124	.140	.144	.884	.384
	Financial Planning	.086	.150	.095	.577	.568

a. Dependent Variable: Project Performance

Table 31 shows the regression coefficients. When looking at each predictor separately, risk planning is the only one that has a statistically significant positive effect on project performance ($\beta = 0.311$, $t = 2.878$, $p = 0.007$). This means that projects that have strong practices for identifying, mitigating, and monitoring risks are more likely to get the results they want. Scope

planning, time planning, and financial planning exhibit positive yet statistically insignificant effects ($p > 0.05$), indicating that although these factors enhance performance, their individual impact is less pronounced than that of risk planning. These findings highlight the essential function of risk management in improving the efficacy of agricultural and livestock initiatives overseen by NGOs.

The multiple regression analysis offers enhanced understanding of the predictive impact of these planning practices. The model is statistically significant ($F = 15.390$, $p < 0.001$) and accounts for a significant amount of the variation in project performance ($R^2 = 0.680$). This high level of explanatory power supports the work of Munyoki and Sang (2024), who showed that good project planning is a strong predictor of success for these kinds of projects.

An analysis of the individual predictors indicates that risk planning is the only statistically significant predictor of project performance ($\beta = 0.311$, $p = 0.007$). This reinforces the conclusion from the correlation analysis, highlighting that the capacity of NGOs to identify, evaluate, and address risks is the paramount factor influencing project success, a finding that corresponds with the research conducted by Aikpokhio et al. (2024). The high level of uncertainty, especially from things outside of your control like the seasons, probably makes risk planning more important than other types of planning.

While scope, time, and financial planning exhibited a strong correlation with performance, their individual impacts within the combined regression model were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). This is probably because the independent variables are very correlated with each other (multicollinearity). This does not diminish their significance; instead, it indicates that their impact on performance is partially mediated by or collectively encompassed within the overarching planning framework, with risk planning being the most distinct and influential component, as posited by Elserougy et al. (2024). For example, accurate budgeting is very important for strong financial planning because it helps keep costs down (Cordery et al., 2023). However, its overall effect may be linked to how well risk planning works (for example, having enough money set aside for emergencies).

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of study findings and discussion, highlighting the background information and project profile, descriptive statistics, and inferential statistics results and discussion. The chapter also provides conclusions of the study as well as recommendations based on the study findings. The chapter ends with suggestions for further studies, providing research ideas to other researchers to advance this study.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The background information and project profile show that the NGOs surveyed run moderately complex agricultural and livestock projects, mostly in difficult ASAL areas, where they do a variety of things. Most of the people who answered the survey are field officers with 2 to 10 years of experience and at least a bachelor's degree. This shows that they have the right skills to carry out and keep an eye on projects. Most projects are funded by bilateral, multilateral, or

pooled donors. They have moderate budgets (KES 10–50M) and last for several years, giving planners and executors enough time and resources to do their jobs. The fact that structured planning methods, strong M&E systems, and tools for tracking indicators are used a lot shows that institutions are very focused on project monitoring and performance management. These traits all point to the idea that project comprehensiveness, shown by having the right number of team members, thorough planning, enough funding, a long enough duration, and good monitoring and evaluation practices, helps performance by making things more efficient, coordinated, and flexible. This, in turn, leads to successful outcomes in agricultural and livestock projects run by NGOs in Kenya.

The descriptive statistics show that NGOs in Kenya that work on agricultural and livestock projects usually have good planning practices when it comes to risk, scope, time, and financial dimensions. Risk planning, scope definition, schedule management, and financial controls all scored well above the middle, showing that these were structured ways to carry out the project. Project performance outcomes, such as timelines, sticking to the budget, and stakeholder satisfaction, also got high mean scores. This means that NGOs mostly meet their goals, stay on budget, and meet the needs of their stakeholders.

The correlation analysis indicates that all aspects of project planning (risk, scope, time, and financial planning) are significantly and positively correlated with overall project performance, with risk planning demonstrating the most robust correlation. The substantial interconnections among the planning variables suggest that cohesive and holistic planning across these domains enhances project outcomes. The results show that good planning is one of the most important factors in the success of agricultural and livestock projects run by NGOs in Kenya.

A multiple regression analysis showed that risk, scope, time, and financial planning together account for 68% of the variation in project performance. The model was statistically significant. Risk planning was the strongest and only statistically significant predictor of project performance. This shows how important risk planning is in the success of agricultural and livestock projects run by NGOs in Kenya. Planning for scope, time, and money had positive but not significant effects, which means that while they help with performance, good risk management is the most important thing in this case.

5.3 Conclusions

The findings strongly support the conclusion that project planning practices are essential in influencing the performance of agricultural and livestock initiatives among NGOs in Kenya. Comprehensive planning in terms of risk, scope, time, and financials makes it easier to carry out, coordinate, and adapt projects, which leads to better timelines, sticking to budgets, and happy stakeholders. The study also concludes that risk planning is the most important factor in determining how well a project will do, which shows how important it is to systematically identify, reduce, and monitor risks. While scope, time, and financial planning contribute to performance, their individual effects are less significant, underscoring the necessity of integrated planning practices, with a pronounced focus on risk management, to attain successful project outcomes in complex operational environments such as ASAL regions. The study collectively concludes that for NGO-managed agricultural and livestock projects, comprehensive planning across all four dimensions is essential and interconnected; however,

risk management practices emerge as the most significant and distinguishing factor in forecasting and ultimately attaining successful project performance.

5.4 Recommendations

This study makes the following five key recommendations:

1. NGOs should make it a priority to create detailed risk registers, do regular risk assessments, and set aside resources for emergencies to lessen the impact of possible problems.
2. Risk planning is very important, but combining strong planning for scope, time, and money can make project performance even better. NGOs should make sure that these areas are in sync with the project's overall goals.
3. Field officers and project managers should get ongoing training on advanced project management tools and methods. This will make implementation more efficient and flexible.
4. NGOs should keep using and adding to monitoring tools like indicator tracking tables and digital data collection to get feedback quickly and make better decisions.
5. To make sure that projects have enough money and resources to run smoothly, there should be good budgeting and coordination between donors.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Studies

The researcher suggests three further studies to advance this study:

1. Further studies could investigate why certain dimensions, such as time, scope, and financial planning, have weaker and statistically insignificant individual effects on project performance and how their effectiveness can be enhanced. This might be accomplished with a larger sample size and increased geographical coverage, such as cutting across multiple countries.
2. Future research may investigate the impact of environmental, socio-economic, and cultural factors across various regions of Kenya on the efficacy of project planning practices.
3. Research that compares projects run by NGOs with those run by the government or the private sector could show the best ways to improve performance.

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DEDICATION

I would want to thank my family, whose prayers and encouragement have been there for me every step of the way, and I dedicate my effort to them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I want to start by giving thanks to God for achieving this academic success. I also take this occasion to convey my deepest gratitude to the entire University of Nairobi community. My university supervisor, Dr. Johnbosco M. Kisimbii, PhD, has been an invaluable resource to me during this process; I am very appreciative of his thoughtful direction, competent supervision, commitment, accessibility, and expert advice. Also, I want to thank the faculty members in the Department of Management Science for all the useful remarks and suggestions they gave me

during my proposal presentation. I also want to thank my friends and coworkers for all the help, support, and good advice they have provided me over the years. Also, I want to thank my husband and children for always being there for me and supporting me through this whole thing.