An Evaluation of Change Management and Its Implications on Competitiveness of Public Universities in Kenya

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Abstract

A plethora of theory, research and practice in change management has evolved considerably over many years, and experienced a major transformation in form and function amid a rapidly changing environment. The pressure for change comes from all sides, government initiatives, the need for efficiency, improving the quality of student learning, intense competition and ever-changing environment make change a permanent condition in all organizations and the pace of change is ever increasing. The purpose of this study was to evaluate change management and its implications on competitiveness of public Universities in Kenya. The population of the study was teaching and non-teaching staff in public universities in Kenya. Key informants drawn from both teaching and non-teaching staff were purposively sampled to respond to the data collection instruments since they had information that was significant to the objectives of the study. A total of 381 respondents were purposively selected to participate in the study as respondents. Both questionnaire and interview guide were used to collect data. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in data analysis and presentation. The results revealed that management of change significantly influences competitiveness of public universities in Kenya. Organizational factors were found to significantly influence the relationship between management of change and competitiveness of public universities. Organizational factors were also found to influence competitiveness of public universities. The findings of this study are useful to the administrators and stakeholders of public Universities as well as other institutions of higher learning in Kenya and beyond who are increasingly becoming challenged by inadequate change management practices. It is important for all those involved in change management initiatives to be well versed with aspects of management of change including an assessment of the need for change, determination of the adequacy of human as well as financial resources to roll out change programmes, how to conduct periodic and step by step monitoring and evaluation of the change management activities to determine and correct any challenges in the change management progress and the need to involve employees in the change management process to enhance acceptance and support for the change programme. Keywords: Change Management, organizational factors, competitiveness of public Universities.

1.0 Introduction

Kenya placed considerable importance on the role of education in promoting economic and social development after the attainment of independence in 1963 (Sifuna, 1998). This resulted in the rapid expansion of the education system to provide qualified persons for the growing economic and administrative institutions, and to undertake some reforms to reflect the aspirations of an independent state (Court and Ghai, 1974). Over the last four decades, the social demands with respect to higher education in Kenya have clearly intensified. This has been exemplified by the rise in enrolments in public and private universities, the proliferation of more private universities and the establishment of self-sponsored programmes in the public universities (Sifuna, 1998). The large enrolment of university students was a key corollary to the establishment of more public universities (Sifuna, 1998).

The capacity to manage, and adapt to change is a necessary condition for enhancing organizational performance, survival, and growth (Burnes, 2004; Tizard, 2001). Managing change requires an organized, systematic application of knowledge, tools and resources of change to enhance an organization's capacity in its basic business strategies (Bateman & Snell, 1999). This is true even for higher education institutions (HEIs). Organizations have to deal with new technology and with upgrades of existing technology. They must cope with reorganization processes, improvement initiatives, mergers and acquisitions, all meant to make them viable and competitive in the case of challenges posed by their competitors (Burnes, 2009). The reality is that relatively fewer of the organizations that institute change or are forced into it realize the benefits they had hoped to achieve as a result of such change. Andrew, (2008) argues that companies ought to develop change approaches that focus on the behaviours of employees and adopt rigorous tracking and reporting in order to stay on course, schedule and budget. Managing change is probably the single most important competence for all those organizations which have undertaken the difficult task of managing organizational change.

Research shows that appropriate change management is a vital competence for improved efficiency and competitiveness yet continues to be greatly mishandled by those charged with the responsibility of managing it (Beverly & John 2005; Washing & Hacker 2005). Arnemakis and Harris (2002) contend that change

competences like formulation of change strategy, management expertise, availability of resources and feedback undoubtedly result into successful organizational change which in turn results into organizational effectiveness.

Research by Washington and Hacker (2005) affirms that most change efforts always fail, and contend that organizational change failure rate is estimated at 70%. Public Universities in Kenya have transformed their systems and diversified themselves into financially prudent institutions. These Universities have in the recent past undergone various changes such as; transforming from polytechnics to University Colleges, implementing the private sponsorship scheme as an alternative financing strategy as well as introducing demand driven courses, distance learning programmes, in service programmes, two semester systems, prudent financial management information systems among many other changes. Public universities in Kenya include: Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, University of Nairobi, Kenyatta University, Jomo Kenyatta University of Science in Kenya exemplify the innovative nature of leading organizations and have resulted into marked increase in student intake and increased revenue for public Universities enabling most of them to be able to adequately finance their activities.

Change management initiatives enable organizations to become efficient, effective and to compete favourably in the face of competition from other organizations in the same business (Burnes, 2004; Tizard, 2001). However, a number of challenges and signs of poor change management skills have been registered as a result of the new changes (Sifuna, 1998). They often manifest themselves in various forms notably; imprudent financial management, poor quality service, staff strikes and threats to strike, insufficient infrastructure, dissatisfaction and distress among staff, students and other stakeholders (Sifuna, 1998). It is against this backdrop that it was found necessary to carry out a study on the influence of management of change on competitiveness of public universities in Kenya. This provides policy makers with empirical data that forms a basis for making informed decisions when carrying out change in organizations.

1.1 Statement of the problem

Like many other institutions of higher learning in the world, public Universities in Kenya have adopted a number of changes in the realm of academic and administrative structure in the recent past In spite of the attention that change management has received, organizations have continued to have problems and fail in managing organizational change successfully (Saka, 2003).

The relationship between management of change and competitiveness of public Universities presents a real problem that warrants research since change management is in itself a very complex phenomenon. In recent years, both academics and practitioners have challenged the ways in which organizations structure themselves. Traditional models of hierarchy and control have been described as pathological, appropriate for an erstwhile era of stability but inappropriate for today's dynamic business world (Subo, Varun and James, 1997). Organizational change has been advocated over the past decade under banners of downsizing, restructuring, and business process reengineering. These projects often engender themes of empowerment, teamwork, and customer orientation. While billions of dollars have been committed to redesign of organizational business processes, including investment in technology infrastructure, consulting, and people, the results are ambivalent at best. Some reports indicate that as many as 70 percent of reengineering projects fail (James, 1997).

McKenna ,(1998) indicates that while many organizations throughout the world have adopted change strategies in order to remain competitive in turbulent environments, higher education institutions change processes have been slower and more incremental, leaving institutional administrators unable to respond efficiently to pressures including those brought about by increasing demands from constituencies while simultaneously having fewer resources to meet those demands. This creates a gap between what the managers and change agents do on one hand and what they are supposed to know and do on the other hand, in order for them to achieve total change success. It is upon this backdrop that this study sought to investigate the influence of management of change on competitiveness of public Universities in Kenya.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Change Management

Various scholars have provided a wide spectrum of definitions of the concept of organizational change management. Maginn, (2005) defined Organizational change management as the process of recognizing, guiding and managing human emotions and reactions in a way that minimizes the inevitable drop in productivity that accompanies change. This implies that successful change will be determined by the company's improved productivity or output. Change management is a structured approach to change in individuals, teams, organizations and societies that enables the transition from the current to a desired future state. Beckhard and Harris, (1987) support the assertion above.

Accordingly, Browne, (2005) contends that the first and most obvious definition of change management is the task of managing change. The author believes that the obvious is not necessarily

unambiguous and managing change is itself a term that has at least two meanings; one meaning of managing change refers to the making of changes in a planned and managed or systematic fashion. The aim is to more effectively, implement new methods and systems in an ongoing organization. The changes to be managed lie within and are controlled by the organization. However, these internal changes might be triggered by events originating from outside the organization in what is usually termed "the environment".

The second meaning of managing change is the response to changes over which the organization exercises little or no control e.g. legislation, social and political pressure, the actions of competitors, shifting economic tides and currents (Nickolas, 2006). Nickolas, (2006) argues that the task of managing change also includes managing its impact on people. For many managers this aspect of the task of managing change is usually complicated because it involves helping people cope with the shocks of change.

Similarly Oliver, (2001) further argues that change management means to plan, initiate, realize, control and stabilize change processes on both corporate and personal levels. Change may cover such diverse problems as strategic direction or personal development programmes for staff.

2.1.1 Deliberate Change Strategy

Stated simply, strategy is a road map or guide by which an organization moves from a current state of affairs to a future desired state (Oliver, 2001).

It is not only a template by which daily decisions are made, but also a tool with which long-range future plans and courses of action are constructed. Strategy allows a company to position itself effectively within its environment to reach its maximum potential, while constantly monitoring that environment for changes that can affect it so as to make changes in its strategic plan accordingly (Oliver, 2001). In short, strategy defines where you are going, and how you are going to get there and this is paramount in a change environment.

Strategic management is an ongoing process that evaluates and controls the business and the industries in which an organization is involved; assesses its competitors and sets goals and strategies to meet all existing and potential competitors; and then reassesses each strategy annually or quarterly [i.e. regularly] to determine how it has been implemented and whether it has succeeded or needs replacement by a new strategy to meet changed circumstances, new technology, new competitors, a new economic environment., or a new social, financial, or political environment (Lamb, 1984).

2.1.2 Resource Allocation

Funding is perhaps the most powerful and pervasive policy steering change instruments available to any government or organization. In fact, the resource dependency perspective of organizations explains that organizations, such as universities, must actively re-organize their activities and structures in order to ensure a continuous flow of various resources that are critical to their survival and to the change process (Oliver, 2001). It is hardly surprising therefore that the largest majority of the literature on policy development and policy restructuring within higher education worldwide tend to focus almost entirely on the economic and social efficiency of different funding regimes and patterns of resource allocation (Johnstone, 1986; Woodhall, 2008).

Johnstone, (1986) argues that, regardless of all social and economic characteristics of any given country, all the costs of higher education must ultimately be paid by a combination of four basic sources of finance: taxpayers, students, and donor agencies. The higher education funding calculus is such that "any cost shifted from one source must be shifted to another source" (Woodhall, 2008,); given that higher education costs are by their nature unavoidable, irreducible, and continually escalating. The high costs are related to the natural economic character of the tertiary education function that is characterized as "both labor and capital intensive and has proven throughout the world to be especially resistant to labor-saving technologies" (Johnstone, 2004). In Kenya, included in this were changes in governance structures, institutional regulatory frameworks and funding modules. The reforms have encompassed providing more opportunities for the universities for enhanced governance. Significant governance reforms include: Lessening government involvement in the management of universities, A change in the role of the president as the chancellor of the public universities (though this has not changed in legislation) with powers to appoint university senior executives; Relative autonomy and academic freedom; Institutional responsiveness; Changes in governance structures; The competitive appointment of executives, and New management ethos (Magoha, 2006).

2.1.3 Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring and evaluating the planning activities and status of implementation of the change plan is for many organizations as important as identifying strategic issues and goals. One advantage of monitoring and evaluation is to ensure that the organization is following the direction established during strategic planning to ensure that each and every step of the change process is accomplished as planned.

The above advantage is obvious. Adults tend to learn best when they are actually doing something with new information and materials and when continuing to reflect on their experiences. You can learn a great deal about your organization and how to manage it by continuing to monitor the implementation of strategic plans (Magoha 2005). Any problems in the implementation of the change process are discovered during monitoring

and evaluation and corrected so as to enable the change process to proceed as planned and achieve the desired competitiveness.

2.1.4 Employee Involvement

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) defined role involvement, also referred to as job involvement, employee engagement or work engagement, as a concept that is generally viewed as managing discretionary effort, that is, when employees have choices, they will act in a way that furthers their organization's interests. An involved employee is a one who is fully engaged in, and enthusiastic about, his or her work. Dubin (1968) indicated that involving employees at each and every stage of the change process is vital to enable then own the process and be part of it. This makes employees to accept the results and be responsible for them. Having low role involvement contributes to employees' feelings of alienation of purpose, alienation in the organization or feeling of separation between what the employees see as their "life" and the job they do. Work alienation and role involvement are negatively correlated as shown by Hirschfeld & Field, (2000) and Rabinowitz & Hall (1981).

Job characteristics most relevant to role involvement include autonomy, task identity, feedback and participation, all of which allow for satisfaction of growth needs. This was shown by Romero (1994). Robinowitz & Hull (1981) say that social factors on the job can influence role involvement. Employees who work in groups report stronger job involvement than those who work alone. Participation in decision making at the workplace increases role involvement. Employees who participate in decision making process at their work place with regard to change that affects them are more involved with their work after the change as compared to employees who do not participate in decision making regarding such change. Rabindra (2007) said that this is perhaps because these employees feel part of the decision and therefore part of the organization.

2.2 Indicators of competitiveness in public universities

Paul (2006) says that organizations engage in Strategic changes, Technological changes, Structural changes, Changing the attitudes and behaviours of personnel, all aimed at achieving competitiveness and viability. As a multidisciplinary practice, Organizational Change Management requires creative marketing to enable communication between change audience and a deep social understanding about leadership's styles and group dynamics. As a visible track on transformation projects, Organizational Change Management aligns groups' expectations, communicates, integrates teams and manages people training. It makes use of metrics, such as staff attraction, university rankings, number of students interested in taking up courses and the extent of satisfaction of employees to determine their relative standing compared to other institutions of higher learning in terms of service delivery and relevance to the educational requirements of the economy.

2.2.1 Staff Attraction

Webb (2008) defined staff attraction as being about finding the best of employee for the job and finding ways of keeping these employees within the organization. It involves a range of ideas and human resource practices that should all be seen as interlinked and focusing both on attracting employees to join the organization through focusing on recruitment strategies and keeping those who are already employed, especially those who possess scarce skills that are difficult to get from the labour market and are more crucial to the organization.

It is also motivating to the staff, covers both the psychological aspects of the employee (their perception, goals and behaviours) and operational aspects attached to the job or tasks for which they were appointed. It requires a management approach that takes all factors (both inside and outside the organization) into account. The work environments and the attitudes of the modern day employees have changed. Although most employees today are self-directed and willing to work hard, they want to do so on their own terms and expect development in the work environment (Webb 2008).

2.2.2 University Rankings

The Academic Ranking of World Universities (ARWU), commonly known as the Shanghai ranking, is a publication that was founded and compiled by the Shanghai Jiaotong University. The rankings have been conducted since 2003 and then updated annually (C. Liu and Y Cheng 2005). Since 2009, the rankings have been published by the Shanghai Ranking Consultancy. The ranking compared 1200 higher education institutions worldwide according to a formula that took into account alumni winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals (10 percent), staff winning Nobel Prizes and Fields Medals (20 percent), highly-cited researchers in 21 broad subject categories (20 percent), articles published in the journals of Nature and Science (20 percent), the Science Citation Index and Social Sciences Citation Index (20 percent) and the per capita academic performance (on the indicators above) of an institution (10 percent) (Marginson 2007).

The methodology is set out in an academic article by its originators, N.C. Liu and Y. Cheng. Liu and Cheng explain that the original purpose of doing the ranking was "to find out the gap between Chinese universities and world-class universities, particularly in terms of academic or research performance (Marginson, 2007).

The global competitiveness of Kenya's universities has once again come under the spotlight following a poor showing in a new ranking. None appears among the top 1,000 in a survey by the Academic Ranking of

World Universities (ARWU) conducted in February 2011, in which Africa is represented by only three universities, all of them from South Africa. They are University of Cape Town at 259, University of Witwatersrand at 393 and University of Kwazulu - Natal at 473 (Hezelkorn, 2010).

The absence of Kenyan and indeed other African universities from the list means most graduates coming from the continent are disadvantaged and less prepared to join the global labour force (Juma 2010). In its latest survey that included 12,000 institutions, Webometrics ranked only two Kenyan universities -- Nairobi and Strathmore -- among the top 50 in Africa. The University of Nairobi is at number 26, the highest ranking in Kenya, while Strathmore is at position 31. The other public universities are almost at the tail-end of the ranking with Moi coming at 74, Kenyatta at 80 and Egerton at 97. If these results are anything to go by, it means that graduates from Kenya's universities will be subjected to a judgement based on the ranking of the institution they attended, which raises questions of employability, especially in the international labour market. The situation is grave considering that local universities have been expanding at a breakneck speed with campuses and constituent colleges taking over middle-level colleges, sometimes in disregard to opposing views (Juma 2010). One of the immediate concerns would be the shortage of artisans if the colleges were taken over by universities, locking out students enrolling for the courses.

2.2.3 Student Enrollment

Higher education institutions the world over are facing new challenges which require reforms in their management and governance styles. The rise of new stakeholders, internal factors, together with globalization and the rapid pace at which new knowledge is created and utilized are among the recent developments which challenge higher education institutions. While they have responded rather slowly in the past, to changing circumstances, there is now an urgent need for them to adjust rapidly in order to fulfill their missions and the needs of other stakeholders (Jowi, 2003). In the twenty first century, countries of the world, whether developed or developing are all aiming to become knowledge based economies (Abbas, 2005). Kenya is not an exception.

In Kenya today greater value is placed on university education. Student enrollment in public universities in the past decade has increased tremendously (Ogun 1998). This increase in enrollment has brought with it attendant challenges shared by both developing and developed countries.

Among other ways, public universities responded to this development by mounting privately sponsored Module II programs – commonly referred to as parallel degree programmes whereby apart from the regular students sponsored by the government, universities are also admitting students who are self-sponsored. These students take their lectures separately in the evening and weekends or together with the regular students.

2.2.4 Employee Satisfaction

Locke (1976) defined employee satisfaction as pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Lofquist and Davis (1991), defined job satisfaction as an individual's positive affective reaction of the target work environment as a result of the individual's appraisal of the extent to which his or her needs are fulfilled by the environment. One of the biggest preludes to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies. These studies (1924-1933), primarily credited to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School, sought to find the effects of various conditions on workers' productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase productivity (called the Hawthorne Effect). It was later found that this increase resulted, not from the new conditions, but from the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which paved the way for researchers to investigate other factors in job satisfaction.

Scientific management (aka Taylorism) also had a significant impact on the study of job satisfaction. Frederick Taylor (1911) in his book 'Principles of Scientific Management', argued that there was always a single best way to perform any given work task. This book contributed to a change in industrial production philosophies, causing a shift from skilled labor and piecework towards the more modern approach of assembly lines and hourly wages. The initial use of scientific management by industries greatly increased productivity because workers were forced to work at a faster pace.

It should also be noted that the work of W.L. Bryan, Walter Dill Scott, and Hugo Munsterberg (1907) set the tone for Taylor's work. Foddy, W. H. (1994) argues that Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, a motivation theory, laid the foundation for job satisfaction theory. This theory explains that people seek to satisfy five specific needs in life – physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization. This model served as a good basis from which early researchers could develop job satisfaction theories.

2.3 Organizational Factors

These are factors within the organization which are thought to influence the direction and strength of the change process. They include age of the university. Length of existence of an organization has been shown to influence how it manages and directs its change efforts (Kotter, 2005). A university that has been in existence for a longer period of time may handle change more comfortably and competitively that university that is considerably new.

This is perhaps because those organizations that have been in existence for a relatively longer period of time have staff that have experienced change before hence know what to do to achieve the desired direction of the change process (Kotter, 2005).

The second organizational factor is the need for change. As a multidisciplinary practice that has evolved as a result of scholarly research, Organizational Change Management should begin with a systematic diagnosis of the current situation in order to determine both the need for change and the capability to change (Kotter, 2005). The objectives, content, and process of change should all be specified as part of a Change Management plan. Change Management processes may include creative marketing to enable communication between change audiences, but also deep social understanding about leadership's styles and group dynamics. As a visible track on transformation projects, Organizational Change Management aligns groups' expectations, communicates, integrates teams and manages people training. It makes use of performance metrics, such as financial results, operational efficiency, leadership commitment, communication effectiveness, and the perceived need for change to design appropriate strategies, in order to avoid change failures or solve troubled change projects (Kotter, 2005).

Organizational structure is another organizational factor with the potential to influence management of change in public universities in Kenya. Organizational structure has the potential to speed up or slow down the decision making process of the change management process hence either slow the entire process down or accelerate it (Kotter, 2005).

Size of the organization is yet another factor with the potential to influence management of change in public universities in Kenya. To some extent size of the organization dictates the extent to which change management initiatives will go, especially organization wide change (Marginson, 2007). In such cases larger universities would experience slow change activities compared to relatively smaller universities.

2.4 Theoretical Underpinnings of Change Management

It is an undisputed fact that a good research must be grounded, built and hinged on models and theoretical backgrounds. It is against this backdrop that this study has a theoretical view of change. Research and literature by various scholars indicates that change as a body of knowledge is based on various theories and models.

Chand (2008) argues that not surprisingly then in recent decades much has been written about the general field of change. The author contends that the increase in concepts, theories and models of change in the 1980s and 1990s has been almost exponential. What appears to be required is greater detailed analysis of explicit environments within which to test the relevance of specific aspects of change theory and the interrelationships of these aspects. Without such approaches, the practical relevance of change theory is not likely to advance, nor will future theoretical development be placed on a firmer pragmatic foundation (Groove 2001).

Nevertheless, when we look at the models of change especially those developed by Jick, Kotter and General Electric as advanced by Gavin and compare with the analysis made in this study, it is established that most of the steps advanced in the models are right and applicable if change managers are to succeed in their change efforts (Nilakant & Ramnarayan 2005). Nilakant and Ramnarayan (2005) believe that it is essential for those interested in change management to be equipped with the appropriate theoretical insights and relevant change models before they venture into any form of change, bearing in mind that organizational change is complex, uncertain and a difficult phenomenon that requires careful planning, thoughtful analysis, knowledge of change models and theoretical perspective. It is an asset for managers and change leaders to be able to clarify key issues in managing organizational change successfully.

2.4.1 Kotter's model of change

American John P Kotter (b 1947) is a Harvard Business School professor and leading thinker and author on organizational change management. Kotter's highly regarded books 'Leading Change' (1995) and the follow-up 'The Heart of Change' (2002) describe a helpful model for understanding and managing change. Each stage acknowledges a key principle identified by Kotter relating to people's response and approach to change, in which people see, feel and then change. Kotter's eight step change model can be summarized as:

- i. Increase urgency inspire people to move, make objectives real and relevant.
- ii. **Build the guiding team** get the right people in place with the right emotional commitment, and the right mix of skills and levels.
- iii. **Get the vision right** get the team to establish a simple vision and strategy, focus on emotional and creative aspects necessary to drive service and efficiency.
- iv. **Communicate for buy-in** Involve as many people as possible, communicate the essentials and appeal and respond to people's needs and make technology work for you rather than against.
- v. **Empowers action** Remove obstacles, enable constructive feedback and lots of support from leaders reward and recognize progress and achievements.
- vi. **Create short-term wins** Set aims that are easy to achieve in bite-size chunks. Manageable numbers of initiatives. Finish current stages before starting new ones.

- vii. **Don't let up** Foster and encourage determination and persistence ongoing change encourage ongoing progress reporting highlight achieved and future milestones.
- viii. **Make change stick** Reinforce the value of successful change via recruitment, promotion, new change leaders and then weave change into culture.

2.4.2 Jick's model of change

Jick in his 1991 paper introduced ten steps that should guide all successful change initiatives. These steps are; Analyze the organization and its need for change, Create a shared vision and common direction, Separate from the past, Create a strong sense of urgency, Support a strong leadership role, Line up political support, Craft an implementation plan, Develop enabling structures, Communicate, involve people and be honest, Reinforce and institutionalize change

As can be observed there is a clear overlap of Kotter's and Jick's critical steps to be followed if change implementation is to be a success story (Egan 2005).

2.4.3 General electronic Model (GE) of change

The GE model came from an extended large scale reorganization done at General Electric and reported by Gavin (2002) as cited from Mento et al. (2002). The seven steps are; Clear explanation for reasons for change, Establish the vision, Line up leadership, Mobilize the workforce (make them part of the planning and definition of change), measure the progress, maintain consistency/ stay on the course and change the systems and the structures. It is also clear that GE model also overlaps Kotter's and Jick's models of change management.

The table below compares the three models i.e. Kotter's, Jick's and GE models by their steps;

	Get (1991)		Similarities
Kotter (1995)	Jick (1991)	GE (Gavin 2000)	Similarities
1 Establish a sense of urgency	1. Create a strong sense of urgency	1. Explain the 1 reason for the change	. Need for change
2 Create a guiding coalition	 2 Support a strong leader role 3 Line up political support 	2 Line up leadership 2	Administration's support for the change management programme
3 Develop a vision and strategy	4 Create a shared vision and common direction	3 Establish the vision 3	During change management all players should pull in the same direction
4 Communicate the vision	5 Communicate, involve people and be honest	4	. Information flow is key during change management
5 Empower employeesfor broad based action6 Generate short term	6 Develop enabling structures 7 Craft an implementation	4 Mobilize the 5 workforce	. Resource mobilization
wins	plan	6	. The need to provide evidence of the progress
7 Consolidate gains to produce deeper change		7	
8 Anchor the change in the culture of the organization	8 Reinforce and institutionalize change.	5 Change systems and 8 structures	. Let change be seen in the way things are done within the organization.

Table 2.1: Similarities Between Change Management Theories

SOURCE: Egan W. (2005)

When comparing the three different models as summarized in table 1, one cannot fail to notice similarities in general themes between them. It is observed that there is a lot of overlap between and among the models. This means that we can assume that these models contain a certain amount of validity (Langvardt 2007). Similarly, Langvardt (2007) contends that all the three models focus on the need to have a deliberate change strategy. Each emphasizes the need to institutionalize and reinforce change in order to make it last. However each model gives different weight and importance to the other required tasks based on their particular perspectives.

Kotter's and Jick's models focus on the need to communicate the vision to ensure that people are involved and participate in the change. The GE model on the other hand places less emphasis on communication by making it just one element of the changing system's step. Similarly Jick's and GE models emphasize the need for a strong leadership role, while Jick's and Kotter's models stress the need to build a power guiding coalition to encourage teamwork. Nevertheless, each of these theories offers valuable insights into the steps requited in managing the change process and serve as useful guidelines to anyone considering to bring about transformation or change in their organizations (Langvardt 2007).

2.5 Resistance to Change

In the review of empirical research, Pederit (2000) posits that there are three different emphases in conceptualizations of resistance: as a cognitive state, as an emotional state, and as a behavior. These constructs might be well understood through the sources of change resistance, which are individual and organization levels (Hellriegel et al., 2001) as shown in Figure 2.1

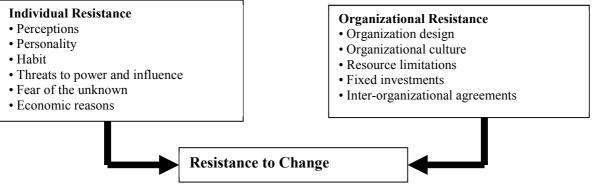


Figure 2.1: Sources of Resistance to Change

Source: Hellriegel, D., Slocum, W. & Woodman, R. (2001). "Organizational Behavior." Ninth Edition. South-Western College Publishing.

As for optimizing the change resistance, managers are required to observe employee readiness for change. Normally, their readiness emerges when the employees perceive little personal risk from change and feel highly dissatisfied with the status quo (Hellriegel et al., 2001). With this respect, resistance to change seems to be submerged. In addition, successful organizational adaptation is increasingly reliant on generating employee support and enthusiasm for proposed changes, rather than merely overcoming resistance (Pederit, 2000).

3. Research Methodology

The study employed an explanatory research design. The procedural approach that was adopted for the study comprised enabled the researcher to statistically test the relationship between management of change and competitiveness of public universities in Kenya both in the presence and in the absence of organizational factors. The study population comprised of both teaching and non-teaching staff in public universities in Kenya. A total of 381 respondents were purposively selected to participate as respondents in the study. The instruments for data collection included questionnaires and interview guides.

Data analysis was achieved through the use of both descriptive and inferential statistics with the aid of the Statistical package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0.0 for windows.

Relationships between and among study variables was tested using correlation at the 95% confidence level (α =0.05). The collected data was tested using Kolmogorov – Smirnov (K-S). The overall verdict of K-S test using normalized Z –statistics for all the study variables obtained at the level of significance of (.000) (2-tailed) indicated that the data for this study was normally and uniformly distributed. The reliability of the data collection instrument for this study was tested using Pearson's Correlation of reliability where a score of 0.895 was obtained indicating that the tools for data collection were significantly reliable. The Kaiser-Mayer- Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test for adequacy of respondents in a manner to enable generalization of the study findings was also run and results obtained at the level of significance of (0.000, 2-tailed) indicated that the respondents were adequate for the study.

4. Finding

The findings indicate that majority of the respondents were teaching staff comprising 228 (59.8%) of all respondents while 153 (40.2%) respondents were non-teaching staff. This is an indication that most lecturers also double up as administrators and hold other key positions of responsibility within the public universities are the ones most involved in change management activities.

Majority of respondents were holders of masters degrees comprising of 203 of the total respondents which represents 53.3%. On the other hand, 64 (16.8%) of respondents were holders of Bachelors degrees while 66 (17.3%) had completed Doctor of Philosophy programmes. This implies that at university level, employees who hold masters and Doctor of Philosophy qualifications are the ones most involved in change management issues.

The highest number of respondents had worked at their current work stations for a period below 1 year to 4 years comprising 117 (30.7%) of total respondents. Those who had worked for 10 to 14 years were 106 (27.8%) of the total respondents while those who had worked for 5 to 9 years were 86 representing 22.6% of all the respondents in the study.

The study reveal a significant positive influence of management of change on competitiveness of public universities in Kenya (r= 0.849^{**} ; P<0.05). This means that the higher the level of adherence to change management practices the higher the level of competitiveness of public universities in Kenya.

Change management was found to positively and significantly influence competitiveness of public universities in the presence of organizational factors (r=.815; P<0.05).

The presence of organizational factors was controlled to determine the direction and magnitude of change in the relationship between management of change and competitiveness of public universities. The partial correlation results were compared with those of zero order correlation coefficient in order to determine the magnitude and direction of change. The results suggested that competitiveness of public universities in Kenya increase in the absence of organizational factors from (r=.815; P<0.05) to (r=.875; P<0.05). This means that in the absence of organizational factors, the relationship between management of change and competitiveness of public universities is more positively enhanced. This is an indication that organizational factors have to be right for management of change to positively influence competitiveness of public universities in Kenya. Age of the university, need for change, organizational structure and size of the university have been shown by this study to be predictors of the way management of change influences competitiveness of public universities in Kenya.

5. Conclusions and Policy Implications

Regarding the findings of the study in relation to the objectives, Change management programmes in public universities in Kenya need to be handled in line with the various theoretical underpinnings of change management and the models of change which have been shown to work well in change management situations as discussed in this study and steps taken to ensure success of such projects since competitiveness of public universities in Kenya has been shown to be influenced by management of change.

Organizational factors i.e. Size of the university, organizational structure and the need for change should be the guiding factors to inform stakeholders if there is any need to undertake change to improve conditions at the universities and position them more competitively since they have been shown to influence the relationship between management of change and competitiveness of public universities in Kenya.

Change should be undertaken only when there is need for it and when the institution desires to achieve competitiveness and gain and/or maintain a competitive edge. Emphasis on involvement should not only be a focus for top management but also for every other employee affected by the change initiatives.

Considering the findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study, the following areas warrant further research in order to create more knowledge on change management;

- i. Further research should be conducted on the influence of management of change on competitiveness of manufacturing organizations and results compared with those of this study. This is because this study focused on management of change in public universities which are basically service organizations.
- ii. A similar study may be undertaken using comparative analysis among private universities in Kenya. This would generate wider knowledge about management of change in institutions of higher learning.

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