MANAGERS' PERCEPTION OF STRATEGIC CHANGE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES BY THE KENYA NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

ZAKAYO MOGERE

A MANAGEMENT RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTERS IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION (MBA), SCHOOL OF BUSINESS, UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

OCTOBER 2009

DECLARATION PAGE

I declare that this dissertation is the result of my own independent investigation, it has not been presented for a degree award in any other institution and all sources are duly acknowledged in the bibliography.

Signed .... Date...... 12.11.2009 ....

Zakayo Mogere

D61/8391/2006

This management project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University Supervisor.

Signed.................... Date...... 12. 11. 2009 ....

Jeremiah Kagwe

Department of Business Administration

School of Business

University of Nairobi.

DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to my family and colleagues.

AKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I am most grateful for the grace of God that has enabled me to successfully complete my MBA and this research paper. Secondly, I will always be indebted to my family for their unconditional support and finally, many thanks to my supervisor for his guidance and patience during the research study.

ACRONYMS

BPR	-	Business Process Re-engineering
FM	-	Financial Management
GOK	-	Government of Kenya
HRM	-	Human Resource Management
ICT	-	Information Communication Technology
KNA	-	Kenya National Assembly
LEGCO	-	Legislative Council
MP	-	Member of Parliament
OD	-	Organizational Development
PSC	-	Parliamentary Service Commission
SCM	-	Strategic Change Management
TQM	-	Total Quality Management

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

ABSTRACT

Strategic Change means changing the organizational Vision, Mission, Objectives and of course the adopted strategy to achieve those objectives (Jeff, 2007). Because the performance of firms might dependent on the fit between firms and their external environments, the appearances of novel opportunities and threats in the external environments, in other words, the change of external environments, require firms to adapt to the external environments again; as a result, firms would change their strategy in response to the environmental changes. The states of firms will also affect the occurrence of strategic change. For example, firms tend to adopt new strategies in the face of financial distress for the purpose of breaking the critical situations. Additionally, organizations would possess structural inertia that they tend to keep their previous structure and strategy (Jeff, 2007). This paper undertook a survey of managers' perception on SCM practices at the Kenya National Assembly.

The study consequently addressed the following research question: "What are the managers' perceptions of the strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly?" A survey was undertaken targeting thirty (30) managers' at the KNA. The study utilized questionnaires to collect primary data from the managers, however, only twenty eight (28) questionnaires were collected from the respondents. The data was then analyzed using MS-Excel 2007 and the findings presented using tables and graphs giving descriptive statistics including frequencies, mean and percentages.

The research findings illustrates that the mangers' perceived KNA's mission, vision, objectives and strategic plan as being aligned with the role of the Kenya National Assembly. Moreover, majority of the managers' found SCM to be practical and that majority of the manager's strongly agreed that the changes at KNA were necessary. However, the managers were of the opinion that SCM was facing challenges and that Total Quality Management (TQM) and

Financial Management (FM) were very important in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA. Business Process Re-engineering (BPR), Information Communication Technology (ICT) and Human Resource Management (HRM) were perceived as being important in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA. The study therefore drew out several recommendations based on the research findings and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

One widespread and widely acknowledged typology of strategic change categorizes forms of organizational change according to different dimensions. A first dimension is the intensity of change, ranging from no change required to radical renewal of the company (Fopp and Schiessl, 1999). In this context, Nadler (2004) differentiates between incremental and radical change. The second dimension is the chronological positioning of the change. Here, a difference is made between anticipative and reactive change processes. Using these two dimensions, Nadler draws up a matrix in which he positions the basic types of change of company strategy. In so-called tuning, future environmental developments are anticipated to increase company efficiency. In contrast to this, adaption means the adaptation of the company to the environmental changes. What tuning and adaption have in common is that the change is evolutionary, and starts off in subsections of the company (Nadler, 2004).

In spite of the attention that the management of change has received, organizations continue to have problems in managing organizational change and "the search for generalized laws of change still pervades the discipline" (Wilson, 1992). There is a gap between what the rational-linear change management approach prescribes and what change agents do. It is suggested in this paper that one possible source of this gap can be revealed by the way change agents perceive and interpret the issue. Change has become a way of life for organizations, as the business environment has become increasingly competitive. Workplace redesign and relocation have been used as catalysts by many organizations to introduce many elements of organizational change. However, it can have a significant negative effect on performance and can cause long-term damage to work relations, if little thought is given to the ways such changes may be viewed by the managers, and the consequences of such changes (Mazumdar, 1992). Hence, close attention will be paid to managers

perceptions on the nature of the strategic change process by the parliamentary service commission at the Kenya National Assembly.

1.1.1 Concept of Strategic Change Management

According to Dunphy and Stace (1993), what faces those charged with bringing about changes in organizations is much more of a mess than a difficulty. There is evidence to suggest that the universal, prescriptive model of change management is inadequate to describe the diversity of approaches actually used by organizations. Some seek to restrict the meaning of change management to the felt need to improve organizational performance and members' own position within the organization (e.g. Goodstein and Burke, 1991). Dawson (1996) has discussed the limitations of adopting such a simple definition of change. She sees conflicting interests and resistance as some of the barriers to achieving the desired results in the felt need for change. Other researchers (e.g. Tichy, 1983) acknowledge the frustration that manager's feel when their organizations do not respond to elaborately analyzed plans, where there is a lack of interaction between decision and action.

Strategic Change means changing the organizational Vision, Mission, Objectives and of course the adopted strategy to achieve those objectives (Jeff, 2007). Because the performance of firms might dependent on the fit between firms and their external environments, the appearances of novel opportunities and threats in the external environments, in other words, the change of external environments, require firms to adapt to the external environments again; as a result, firms would change their strategy in response to the environmental changes. The states of firms will also affect the occurrence of strategic change. For example, firms tend to adopt new strategies in the face of financial distress for the purpose of breaking the critical situations. Additionally, organizations would possess structural inertia that they tend to keep their previous structure and strategy (Jeff, 2007).

2

According to Crnkovic, Asklund & Persson-Dahlqvist, (2003), strategic change management is a structured approach to change in individuals, teams, organizations and societies that enables the transition from a current state to a desired future state. Organizational change management includes processes and tools for managing the people side of the change at an organizational level. These tools include a structured approach that can be used to effectively manage transition groups or organizations through change. When combined with an understanding of individual change management, these tools provide a framework for managing the people side of change. Change management encompasses the requesting, determining attainability, planning, implementing and evaluation of changes to a system. It has two main goals: supporting the processing of changes and enabling traceability of changes, which should be possible through proper execution of the change process.

The success of implementing change is generally associated with those who facilitate the change process. The change agent is defined here as a manager who seeks "to reconfigure an organization's roles, responsibilities, structures, outputs, processes, systems, technology or other resources" (Buchanan and Badham, 1999, p. 610) in the light of improving organizational effectiveness. The role of change agents as facilitators is extensively discussed within a rational framework. For example, Buchanan and Boddy (1992) list competencies of effective change agents as clarity of specifying goals, team building activities, communication skills, negotiation skills and "influencing skills" to gain commitment to goals. It can be deduced from these arguments that limitations in change management are associated with the managerial perceptions of the need for change, the opportunity to change and about the way to change. This renders perceptions, beliefs and assumptions of change agents as vital aspects to be understood.

1.1.2 Managers' Perception in Public Sector Organizations

Perception is defined as "a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment" (Robbins, 2005). Perception is a very subjective and complex process. It can cause disagreements among people, because each person sees things differently. So, it is not unusual, for two people to see something and perceive it differently. It covers a gamut of external and internal factors affecting it. Some of the external forces that influence perception include the individual's current surroundings, such as other human beings, and various factors like interface, ergonomics and other inanimate things. Internally, perception can be affected by the person's upbringing, intellect, state of mind, attitude, culture and health. Quality is often a difficult issue to measure. One has to have parameters that can assess quality in either quantitative or qualitative ways. It involves the process of perception when analyzing and interpreting quality. Perception is the selection and organization of stimuli, and processing these to make them meaningful. A good definition for perception is one's ability to go beyond recognition to include an active gathering together of details and scattered particulars into an experienced whole for the purpose of seeing what is there (Koohang, 1989).

Research studies indicate (Baldwin, 1984; Perry and Wise, 1990; Perry, 1996, 1997; Crewson, 1997) that public sector organizations are more likely to employ individuals whose values and needs are compatible with the public service mission of the organization. Wright (2003) argues that the composition of the workforce has been expected to reflect the nature of the work in the respective sector by attracting employees who desire greater opportunities to fulfill higher-order needs and altruistic motives by performing exemplarily. Furthermore, Wright (2003) posits that it is these individual attributes that are often viewed as the key to motivating public sector employee behaviour because as Wittmer (1991) suggests: Understanding the values and reward preferences of public managers is essential in structuring organizational environments and incentive systems to satisfy those preferences.

Houston (2000) concludes that managers are more likely to place a higher value on the intrinsic reward of work that is important and provides a feeling of accomplishment, and are less likely to place a high value on such extrinsic reward motivators as high income and short work hours. It is known that despite the best efforts of managers, one-third of major change initiatives fail because of the managers' perception to change (Strebel, 1998). Manager's perception and resistance can pose significant obstacles to the planning and development of strategic change management, particularly for projects that attempt to change the way people work. However, many organizations are acutely aware of the costs associated with not overcoming such managers' perceptions and the resistance to change. The cost of not overcoming both managers' perception on strategic change management and the resistance to change can be enormous. Attwood (1996) suggests that the potential impacts include: increased absenteeism; substantial reductions in productivity; low morale and a poor attitude towards the organization that may persist for months and years; an increase in work errors; the loss of experienced, hardworking people; and attempts to sabotage the move, in this case, strategic change.

1.1.3 The Kenya National Assembly

According to the Kenya National Assembly Strategic Plan (2008-2018), the Kenya Parliament is modeled along the Westminster Parliamentary system with exception of an Executive President. It is a mixture of both presidential and parliamentary systems of government. The modern parliament in Kenya began with the agitation by white settlers who, in 1906, petitioned the Secretary of State for Colonies demanding to be represented in the administration of Kenya. The British government responded by issuing an Order in Council in 1906 that established an Executive Council chaired by the Governor and later the setting up of a Legislative Council (LEGCO). The LEGCO was reconstituted in 1958 to comprise thirty-six constituency elected Members of whom fourteen were Africans, fourteen were Europeans, six

Asians, one Arab and such number of nominated Members to maintain Government majority. In the previous year (1957) the election of the first African Members of the LEGCO had taken place. Kenya attained independence in 1963 with a Bicameral Legislature, consisting of the House of Representatives with 129 Members and the Senate with 41 Members. In 1964 it became a Republic with Mzee Jomo Kenyatta as the first president. A constitutional amendment effected in 1967 saw the amalgamation of the two Houses to form the National Assembly of Kenya.

Today the National Assembly comprises 210 constituency elected MPs, 12 nominated and two *ex officio* Members, who are the Speaker, and the Attorney-General. The banning of Kenya People's Union (KPU) in 1969 turned the country into a *de facto* one-party state but a constitutional amendment in 1982 saw Kenya become a *de jure* one-party state. The country saw reintroduction of multiparty politics in 1991 following a constitutional amendment that resulted from a clamour for increased democratic space. Ever since the re-introduction of multipartyism, the National Assembly has remained a vibrant institution and has reclaimed its rightful place in the governance of the country (Kenya National Assembly Strategic Plan, 2008-2018).

Pursuant to Section 30 of the Constitution of Kenya, the legislative power of the Republic is vested in Parliament, which consists of the President and the National Assembly. The Kenya Parliament plays three key roles, namely: (1) Representation of the people; (2) Legislation; and (3) Oversight over the Executive. Members of Parliament are facilitated to discharge their mandates by staff employed by the Parliamentary Service Commission (PSC). PSC was established through the Constitution of Kenya (Amendment) Act, No. 3 of 1999, and the Parliamentary Service Act of 2000.

The vision of Parliament is: "*To be a supreme, effective, efficient and self-sustaining Parliament as a major participant in the process of good governance.*" Its mission is: "*To facilitate the Members of Parliament to efficiently and effectively fulfill their constitutional mandate in a representative system of*

Government by upholding and ensuring the autonomy of Parliament in its corporate relationship with other arms of Government." The Parliamentary Service is committed to upholding the following core values: Professionalism and Teamwork; Objectivity and Impartiality; Accountability, Transparency and Integrity; Courtesy; and Efficiency and Responsiveness, (Kenya National Assembly Strategic Plan, 2008-2018).

According to the Kenya National Assembly Strategic Plan (2008-2018), shortly after its inception in the year 2000, the Parliamentary Service Commission took the bold step of planning for the National Assembly for a period of 12 years through the strategic plan covering the period 2000 – 2012. For the first three years or so of the life of the Eighth Parliament, the commission concentrated on improving the organizational structure and providing a good working environment for Members of Parliament and staff. The renovation of Continental House to provide office space for Members of Parliament was a major achievement of the first commission. The second commission (2003 - 2007) put considerable effort in establishing a sound organizational structure for the Parliamentary Service, leading to the creation of directorates as centers of excellence in service delivery. The Second Commission was also able to recruit highly competent staff for the Parliamentary Service, acquire computer facilities and provided additional office space for both Members and staff. The Tenth Parliament was inaugurated on January 2008 and thereafter, the Third Commission was formed. The Third Commission is faced with the challenges of a highly informed public that demands a much higher level of service delivery. This is in addition to new members who are young, highly professional and eager to serve the public more efficiently and effectively. It is against this background that the Commission has had to rethink its strategic direction (Kenya National Assembly Strategic Plan, 2008-2018).

The last Strategic Plan for PSC covered the period 2000 to 2012. It was divided into three phases of which Phase 1 covered the period 2000 to 2002; Phase 2 covered the period 2002 to 2007; and; Phase 3 covered the period 2007 to 2012. Upon a mid-term review of the previous Strategic Plan, it was found necessary to develop a long-term plan to both implement the activities envisioned in the Third Phase of this previous Plan and develop a framework for Parliament's response to the increased demand for improved governance and development of the country up to 2018, hence the 2008 to 2018 Strategic Plan. This study therefore, seeks to investigate the managers' perception on strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Strategic change management has gotten increasing coverage in recent time. Fowler (1998) believed that operations were increasing in importance in terms of influencing strategic management, especially as resources became more constrained and difficult choices over priorities arose. Whittington (2002) for further exploration of the micro-levels involved in strategic change management, such as behavioural issues, activities and managerial techniques, drew an evolution in this field in relation to the target levels, organizations or managers on one hand and the dominant concern where strategies should go or how they are developed on the other hand. Fopp and Schiessl (1999), looked at a first dimension is the intensity of change, ranging from no change required to radical renewal of the company while Nadler (2004), differentiates between incremental and radical change.

Managing change in organizations is a highly researched topic in business management studies. Although much has been written about the effects of organizational change on organizations and aspects of individuals' behaviour, the management's perception on strategic change management is a grey area. While managing change studies provide insights into the effective management of organizational change, they contribute very little to an understanding of the relationship between managers' perception and strategic change management.

Moreover, the very nature of public organizations reflects on management and leadership of such organizations during strategic change management.

Jreisat (1997) has named three broad sets of factors that have been brought out when comparing public and private organizations when undertaking change management. Firstly, differences in environmental factors, which refers to the degree of market exposure as well as legal and political constraints. The second essential element is the nature of public service. In many activities, such as control and regulatory functions, public organizations have characteristics that are not exactly applicable to the activities of a business organization. In executing public policy, public organizations exercise a broad and significant impact on society. In addition, the nature of public service has an influence on the expectations of civil servants. Citizens demand that goods and services produced by the public sector maintain a certain quality and that they are not priced according to market mechanisms. The last factor relates to internal structures and processes. Public organizations have bigger multiplicity and diversity and their objectives are more vague and their goals are more likely to be in conflict. Furthermore, managers have less authority and less flexibility in decision-making than their peers in the private sector. These broad sets of factors that have been brought out when comparing public and private organizations when undertaking change management make it necessary to undertake research within the public sector in order to investigate managers' perception on strategic change management practices by the Kenya National Assembly in this study.

In Kenya, previous researches relating to the Kenya National Assembly have been undertaken. For instance, Ngome (1998) undertook a study on the potential impact of Public Accounts Committee (PAC) and Public Investments Committee (PIC) on national accountability and transparency under the new changes on the Standing Orders. Mbabu (2004) undertook a survey of Parliamentary Commission employees' attitude towards promotion on merit. However, a study by Kisinguh (2006) investigated stakeholders involvement in the strategic change management process in public organizations: The case of

9

Parliamentary Service Commission (PSC), and concluded that The PSC has to date not realized its stated mission mainly due to the fact that it did not during its inception identify stakeholders' expectations and power in their change programmes formulation and implementation. Hence, there was a need to investigate parliamentary managers' perception on strategic change management practices from the inception of the Bicameral Legislature of 1963 to the current KNA in order to fill this research gap. Consequently, this study answered the following research question: "What are the managers' perceptions of the strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly?"

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were:

i.   To determine strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly.
ii. To determine managers' perception on strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study was significant to the Parliamentary Service Commission (PSC) and parliamentary staff by providing information regarding to strategic change management practices and managers' perception of strategic change management practices at the Kenyan National Assembly.

The study was also to be of great value to members of the public and other stakeholders who are affected by the legislative and oversight role of the Kenyan National Assembly.

Academic institutions were also to benefit from this research as it will provide information relating to strategic change management practices and managers' perception on SCM practices at the Kenya National Assembly. Moreover, the

study will form a reference point for PSC in matters relating to managers' perception on strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Strategic Management and Change

Although strategic management integrates functional areas in the pursuit of sustainable competitive advantage in the marketplace, it is not fully integral. Strategic management sets goals, determines a strategic approach, examines the company, its competitors and the environment, and covers the appropriate integration of organizational behavior, organizational theory, finance, marketing, accounting and other functions in the pursuit of sustainable competitive advantage in the marketplace. Specific approaches in strategy which seek to be all-inclusive would include future search (Weisbord, 1993), search conference (Cabanna et al., 1995; Emery and Purser, 1996), stakeholder analysis (Freeman, 1984).

Future searches (Weisbord, 1993) and search conferences (Cabanna et al., 1995; Emery and Purser, 1996) are similar in that they seek to incorporate all employees in the strategic management process. Employees representing all levels within the organization are asked to participate in the planning process. They seek to identify their visions for the future of the organization and then identify the path to achieve that vision. Since those most affected by strategic change are involved in the planning process, employee commitment and involvement can be increased. Additionally, employees who work directly with customers can bring new insight to the planning process. These approaches pride themselves on participative democracy.

Another approach, stakeholder analysis (Freeman, 1984), involves identifying key stakeholders for an organization, identifying their degree of power or influence over the organization, determining their current stand or position toward the organization, and using strategies to manage those with the most influence. This approach seeks to identify the needs of all stakeholder groups in strategic planning. Although the aforementioned approaches try to consider employees, customers, and other stakeholders, current strategic approaches fail to be integral in nature (Cacioppe, 2000). There is not a unified theory

which encompasses all quadrants into the organization's strategic change process. An integral theory of strategic change must incorporate all four quadrants. The two individual-oriented quadrants must involve the consciousness (inner) of the individuals as well as their observable behaviors (outer). The two collective-oriented quadrants must involve the cultural and industry views (inner) as well business views worldwide (outer).

2.1.1 Organizational Change

According to Nadler (2004), today's business environment produces change in the workplace more suddenly and frequently than ever before. Mergers, acquisitions, new technology, restructuring and downsizing are all factors that contribute to a growing climate of uncertainty. Jobs, health, even marriages can be placed at risk, jeopardizing productivity and profitability. People have deep attachments to their organization, work group, and way of working. The ability to adapt to changing work conditions is key for individual and organizational survival. Change will be ever present and learning to manage and lead change includes not only understanding human factors but also skill to manage and lead change effectively.

Change is a phenomenon of time, involving both identity and process. A perennial polarity in our culture is between a traditional position suggesting a serene acceptance of what is and, a modern abhorrence of submission to the same. The ambition of modern times is, indeed, to understand and control change. Organizational change involves identity and process too, shaped by time. In their effort to capture the principles of organizational change, scientists and practitioners alike build explanatory models, and to the already numerous factors influencing organizational change, and by extension the complexity of the models, history added another one: the transition from one economic, political and social to another

One widespread and widely acknowledged typology of strategic change categorizes forms of organizational change according to different dimensions.

A first dimension is the intensity of change, ranging from no change required to radical renewal of the company (Fopp and Schiessl, 1999). In this context, Nadler differentiates between incremental and radical change. The second dimension is the chronological positioning of the change. Here, a difference is made between anticipative and reactive change processes. Using these two dimensions, Nadler draws up a matrix in which he positions the basic types of change of company strategy. In so-called tuning, future environmental developments are anticipated to increase company efficiency. In contrast to this, adaption means the adaptation of the company to the environmental changes. What tuning and adaption have in common is that the change is evolutionary, and starts off in subsections of the company. If the whole company is restructured anticipatively through fundamental transformation, we speak of a reorientation. The alternative to this is reactive redesign, in which environmental changes are reacted to which have already taken place (Nadler, 1994).

2.1.2 Strategic Change

The early work of Quinn (1980) gave an important contribution, being one of the first attempts to analyze systematically the apparent chaotic process enacted by strategists. He observed the experiences of several companies in achieving strategic change and, going beyond the apparent chaos of events, he identified a series of incremental steps undertaken by managers in the attempt of reaching a goal. Other researchers supporting the processual perspective recognized, and have searched for, logic behind the path for strategic change. Its clarification is indeed complex and it needs the exploration of both the macro-organizational level and the micro-subsystems involved in the transformation. Quinn entailed the logical incrementalism observing strategy evolution overtime, which starts from the perception of a problem or an opportunity; managers initially react cautiously with an idea, which is further refined for identifying the goal. However the intervention is not clearly identified by time line, managers may know where to arrive but they do not know how to achieve the goal; furthermore while leading the

change, new opportunities and problems could occur and move them away from the initial idea. Revealing similarities in the case studies, he defines a dominant model based on three major stages: creating awareness and commitment; solidifying progress; integrating processes and interests. At the first stage, managers develop an informal network of relation to get information, usually bypassing formal systems and giving more prompt and focused information. The enlargement of the debate on possible solutions improves again the basis of decisions and it influences managers' behavior. Influencing behavior and searching for consensus remain basic issues at this stage. The second stage of incremental solidifying progress narrows the set of options previously considered in terms of organizational structure and human resource empowerment. The last stage entails the use of formal analytical techniques for establishing, measuring and rewarding key initiatives.

This framework presented is an interesting rationale for interpreting change in complex organizations and environments, in which two key issues clearly emerge: the stages of strategy processual development and the importance of human resources. However this processual perspective has been further developed alternatively tackling the organizations themselves, the organizational change and the formulation of strategies (Pettigrew, 1985; Mintzberg and Walters, 1985; Mintzberg, 1987; Clark, 1988; Whittington, 1996; Dawson, 1994). These studies enriched the systematic analysis of the change as a process, enhancing the idea that neither organization nor the environment are fixed entities, in which there are a variety of actors and contextual influences playing a significant role. They tended to use an organizational perspective and have not further investigated the micro-elements in reaching strategic outcomes; these elements include managerial activities, actors and activities undertaken. Recently there has been a further change of focus, claiming for investigations of how these elements can influence macro-organizational change (Whittington, 1996, 2002). This contributed to stimulating the debate and researchers have begun to address specific dimensions such as strategy creation activities and the relation

between personal strategies of managers and strategic direction (Watson, 2003; Regne´r, 2003).

In contrast to the rational-linear view embedded in the traditional approach to change, there are those who perceive change management as a systemic process incorporating systems of interpretation and meaning (e.g. Hassard, 1991; Knights and Willmott, 1995). This view is particularly important, as it emphasizes the social aspects of exchange through which the locus of knowledge and the understanding of "real" things is subjectively shared and shaped by individuals through conversation and dialogue. What is seen as real is made real through sense-making processes (Weick, 1995), and "the social world is best understood from the viewpoint of the participant-in-action" (Hassard (1991, p. 277); see also Hammond (1996) on "appreciative inquiry" where the organization is seen as a mystery to be embraced. In an empirical sense, this perception of change management reflects the management of processes through liberal exchange of knowledge, building of trust and acknowledgement of the heterogeneity in values, preferences and interests.

2.1.3 Strategic Change Management

The notion of implementing planned reforms to reorder the human and technological dimensions of the organization has been in existence since the conception of the earliest armies and bureaucracies pre-dating Christian times (Postman, 1992). In recent times the idea of planned interventions to bring about changes in individual behaviors, team and organizational performance was popularized by Kurt Lewin, Rensis Likert and other US-based figures in the organizational development movement of the 1950s to the 1970s. Strategy has been at the centre of managers and researchers debate for many decades and there are several perspectives and interpretative models proposed for investigating managerial activities and actor's behavior in building this strategy (Mintzberg, 1990). Whittington (1996) drew an evolution in this field in relation to, on one, hand the target levels – organizations or managers – and on the other hand the dominant concern - where strategies should go or how

they are developed. The initial interests of researchers were addressed at the rational deliberation of managers strategies identifying a seminal stream of studies refereed to as "planning" approach. The focus of this approach was then extended to the organization directions, exploring different policies such as diversification and acquisition. At the beginning of the 1980s there was a significant change in the field, moving from the where to the how, starting to investigate the process whereby organizations try to achieve strategic change. This different perspective highlighted the variety of elements involved and their complex relation, shaping the strategy development as a path incrementally adjusted.

As highlighted earlier n this paper, strategic Change means changing the organizational Vision, Mission, Objectives and of course the adopted strategy to achieve those objectives (Jeff, 2007). Because the performance of firms might dependent on the fit between firms and their external environments, the appearances of novel opportunities and threats in the external environments, in other words, the change of external environments, require firms to adapt to the external environments again; as a result, firms would change their strategy in response to the environmental changes. The states of firms will also affect the occurrence of strategic change. For example, firms tend to adopt new strategies in the face of financial distress for the purpose of breaking the critical situations. Additionally, organizations would possess structural inertia that they tend to keep their previous structure and strategy (Jeff, 2007).

2.2 Models of Change

Several authors have developed certain models relating to the change process in an organization. Some of the most popular change models include:

2.2.1 The Three-Step Model

Kurt Lewin (1951) introduced the force field analysis, whose underlying principle is that driving forces must outweigh resisting forces if there is to be any change. His three-step model may be described in three main phases: unfreeze, move, and refreeze. The first step, unfreezing, entails examining the status quo, encouraging change, and decreasing resistance. The second step, moving, means implementing the course of action decided upon, while the last step, refreezing, means rewarding desirable behaviour, and making the change permanent.

2.2.2 The Planned Change Model

This 1995 model, by Bullock and Batten, outlines four steps to achieving change in an organization. These are exploration, planning, action and integration. In the exploration stage, the change agents study the organization and the need for change. They then ensure the availability of the resources necessary to achieve this change. This stage is followed by planning. During this stage, the involvement of senior management and experts is important, as they specify the actions to be taken, and endorse the change plan. In the next stage, all planned actions are implemented, followed up and reviewed, and where possible, errors are corrected. Some actions may be re-evaluated in light of their relevance to the desired change. Finally, the change process is formalized and aligned to all other operational areas of the organization.

2.2.3 The Eight Step Model

Kotter's (1995) eight step model may be seen as an extension of Bullock and Batten's (1995) model in that it breaks down the four major steps into smaller, more specific landmarks. To begin the process, the change agents communicate the need for immediate change, assemble a team of people who can work together, create a vision of the way the organization should be, and communicate that vision to the organization's members. The fifth step entails getting rid of obstacles to change, followed by the public reward of the organization's members for making the desired changes. In the last two steps, change is accelerated by introducing new projects and resources, and finally, the new processes, attitudes and behaviors are consolidated.

2.2.4 The Change Formula Model

This 1987 model by Beckhard and Harris is an adaptation of work previously done by Gelicher. It captures the change process, and identifies the factors necessary for it to happen. The change formula is C = [ABD]>X

Where:

C = Change

A = Level of dissatisfaction with the status quo

B = Desirability of the proposed change or end state

D = Practicality of the change (minimal risk and disruption)

X = Cost of changing

Factors A, B, and D must outweigh the perceived cost of change (X) for any change to occur. Beckhard and Harris state that, "If any person or group whose commitment is needed is not sufficiently dissatisfied with the present state of affairs (A), eager to achieve the proposed end state (B) and convinced of the feasibility of change (D), then the cost (X) of changing is too high, and that person will resist the change."

2.2.5 The Congruence Model

This 1997 model by Nadler and Tushman, shows what happens in an organization when change is introduced. It emphasizes the assumption that all change factors are inter-related, and that their congruence is necessary if the change process is to be successful. The model breaks down the organization into four inter-dependent components or sub-systems, namely: The work: the daily activities carried out by individuals; The people: The skills and characteristics of those individuals; The formal organization: The existing structure, systems and policies; The informal organization: Activities such as power, norms and values which are neither planned nor written, and which emerge over time.

2.2.6 Managing the Transition

Bridges (1991) distinguishes between change and transition, claiming that change is more physical and can therefore be planned, while transition is psychological and therefore less easy to manage. Bridges also states that transition consists of three phases – ending, neutral zone and new beginning.

2.2.7 Change Management Model

Colin Carnal (1990) states that effective management of change depends on the level of managerial skill in managing the transitions effectively; dealing with organizational cultures; and managing organizational politics.

2.2.8 The Systemic Model

In their book *'The Dance of Change'* (1999), Senge et al, observe that most serious change initiatives are resisted because they personally affect managers. They advise that for change to occur, the change agents should: start small, grow steadily, plan the change in phases and be ready for challenges.

2.2.9 Complex Responsive Processes

Ralph Stacey (2001) and Patricia Shaw (2002) advocate firstly that change will emerge naturally from clean communication, conflict and tension; and that managers are part of the whole system in which change is being engineered.

2.3 Role of Change Agents in Change Management

The success of implementing change is generally associated with those who facilitate the change process. The change agent is defined here as a manager who seeks "to reconfigure an organization's roles, responsibilities, structures, outputs, processes, systems, technology or other resources" (Buchanan and Badham, 1999, p. 610) in the light of improving organizational effectiveness. The role of change agents as facilitators is extensively discussed within a rational framework. For example, Buchanan and Boddy (1992) list competencies of effective change agents as clarity of specifying goals, team building activities, communication skills, negotiation skills and "influencing skills" to gain commitment to goals. It can be deduced from these arguments that limitations in change management are associated with the managerial perceptions of the need for change, the opportunity to change and about the way to change. This renders perceptions, beliefs and assumptions of change agents as vital aspects to be understood.

With a few notable exceptions (e.g. Ackoff, 1993), managers are commonly projected as ignoring the complex and multivariate nature of reality. However,

as the Organizational Development (OD) researchers such as French and Bell (1990) advocate, managerial preferences, normative patterns and political contingencies can affect the process of change. The degree to which change agents can find a balance between "being the 'technical' expert – the person assumed to have the answers – and the process facilitator – the person with the techniques to allow the organization to find its own answers" (Paton and McCalman, 2000, p. 197) is questionable in the light of the following: diversity of values and interests; politicized and value-driven decision-making process; subjective interpretation of information; and the role of norms and cognitive schemes in change efforts.

In practice, most managers are problem-resolvers who do not pretend to be objective in their decision making. They justify their conclusions by citing lack of time or information or the complexity of a situation (see Senge et al., 1999). Organizational members, who are not only potential change-makers, but also recipients of organizational change, are likely to be more questioning about the value of change. Thus, it is suggested here that an exploration of social dynamics at play that reflect the constitutive and regulative rules or normative expectations from the standpoint of internal change agents is needed. The next section describes how the task of examining internal change agents' perceptions on the process of managing change was carried out. The change agents/leaders derive the strategic change process into three phases: Phase one – strategic change identification; Phase two – strategic change prioritization; Phase three – strategic change implementation.

2.4 Strategic Change Process

Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) pointed out, people do behave, and are expected to behave differently according to context. The researchers accepted Erickson's (1986) contention that assertions, based on observations and other data, are a form of generalization, and as such the case did become a point of reference for a broader critique. Chorn et al. (1990) illustrate strategic fit resting on the premise that competitive situation, strategy, culture and leadership can be described as a combination of four "logics". These "logics" are combined in various ways to produce a unique competitive situation, strategy, culture, or leadership style. In terms of the above, strategic fit is produced when the particular combination of logics, or a "logic set", is replicated in the four elements of competitive situation, strategy, organization culture and leadership style. In other words, "alignment" occurs when the logic sets in these four elements bear a close similarity to each other.

Chorn et al. (1990) assert that organization performance and effectiveness will be optimized when, for example, an organization responds to a predominantly turbulent environment with a pathfinder strategy, an entrepreneurial culture and a building and creating leadership style. It provides a framework that integrates the formulation of strategy with the human factors that both create the demand outside the organization and form the core capability inside the organization to deliver the prescribed strategy to the marketplace. The strategic alignment model brings together the external market's dynamics, the organization's strategic responses and the organization's internal capability to execute the desired alignment, through the appropriate subcultures and leadership styles built into the organization. The model seeks to improve the alignment between markets, strategy, culture and leadership, on the premise that the better the alignment, the better bottom-line performance.

The need of change mainly responds to new challenges or opportunities presented by the external environment, or in anticipation of the need to cope with potential future problems, threats, of the environment. Planned change

represents an intentional attempt to improve, in some important way, the operational effectiveness of the institution. Hence, the basic underlying objectives can be seen in general terms as an attempt to modify the behavioral patterns of members of the unit area; and to improve the ability of the subject unit to cope with changes in its environment. In other words, the institutional and unit strengths and weaknesses have to be analyzed to match with the change process. The strategic change formulation process would follow the SWOT analysis as well as being checked against alignment elements (Chorn, 1990).

SWOT analysis consists of evaluating a firm's internal strengths and weaknesses and its external opportunities and threats. It is an easy to use tool for getting a quick overview of a firm's strategic situation. It underscores the basic point that strategy must provide a good fit between a company's internal capabilities (strengths and weaknesses) and its external situation (reflected in part by its opportunities and threats). Pearce and Robinson (2003) point out that the SWOT analysis involves evaluation of a firm's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats and drawing conclusions about the attractiveness of the firm's situation and the need for strategic action. Ansoff (1987) notes that the environment is constantly changing. In such an environment, organizations have to constantly adapt their operations and internal configurations to reflect the new external realities. Firms have to constantly adjust to the ever changing business environment as no competitive position is resistant to environmental changes.

2.5 Strategic Change Management in the Public Sector

The internal and external changes that public sector organizations have faced have challenged the traditional management approach, the foundations of the conventional wisdom of public management are shattering (Jreisat, 1997; Owen, 2003). Owen (2003) has reminded that transformation in the management of the public sector is not a minor change in management style, but a fundamental shift that touches the role of government and its

24

relationship with the citizens. Leaders are realizing that the survival of their institutions often depends on understanding change drivers operating in their internal and external contexts, and adopting new methods for managing change (Jreisat, 1997). In this light, concepts like strategic management (O'Brien, 2002; Owen, 2003) and knowledge management (Wiig, 2002) have been eagerly absorbed.

The very nature of public organizations reflects on management and leadership of such organizations. Jreisat (1997) has named three broad sets of factors that have been brought out when comparing public and private organizations. Firstly, differences in environmental factors, which refers to the degree of market exposure as well as legal and political constraints. The second essential element is the nature of public service. In many activities, such as control and regulatory functions, public organizations have characteristics that are not exactly applicable to the activities of a business organization. In executing public policy, public organizations exercise a broad and significant impact on society. In addition, the nature of public service has an influence on the expectations of civil servants. Citizens demand that goods and services produced by the public sector maintain a certain quality and that they are not priced according to market mechanisms. The last factor relates to internal structures and processes.

Public organizations have bigger multiplicity and diversity and their objectives are more vague and their goals are more likely to be in conflict. Furthermore, managers have less authority and less flexibility in decision-making than their peers in the private sector. The general factors mentioned above characterize also professional organizations, although this type of organization tends to have its own substantial features (Minzberg, 1994). The management of professional organization has been culminated in the question how professionals have to be organized and managed in a productive and strategically oriented way without restricting the necessary autonomy. In ideal circumstances experts direct their own work – in the name of self-management in line with jointly approved strategies and goals. McAuley et al.

(2000) have actually found that there is a strong suggestion that professionals take little interest in the activity known as managing. Quite on the contrary, they proved in their empirical study that the research scientists interviewed were willing to adapt and absorb new approaches into their management work in order to make progress in their professional work.

2.6 Managerial Perceptions to Change

Managerial perception is the substratum that business decisions feed upon. It is not so much reality that defines firms' behaviour, but the interpretation that the firms' decision-makers – the managers – make of this reality. Some decades ago Weick (1979) argued that we should consider perceptions of the environment, rather than objective variables, when studying the strategic formulation process. One might ask, then, to what extent managerial perception reproduces the observed stimulus, and to what extent it gives rise to a distorted image that only approximates the reality that inspires it. Discrepancies between the stimulus and the image that the managers form are termed "cognitive biases". In business, the manager is the receiver of information signals sent out by both the competitive environment and their own firm. However, that information does not reach the managers in a pure form, but rather through the filter of their perception. Thus, one can say that the raw material of business decisions is no longer real events: rather, it is now managerial perceptions. But human systems are not perfect, they suffer from "cognitive biases", and hence perception provides a more or less imperfect reflection of the stimulus (Mezias and Starbuck, 2003). This means that different individuals' perceptions may diverge significantly when witnessing the same event.

The cognitive approach, which focuses on individuals' mental processes, recognizes that firms – or rather, their managers – perceive the environment differently and imperfectly (Fahey and Narayanan, 1989). Every person has built up in his or her mind certain usually subconscious assumptions, expectations, and hypotheses about the world in which he or she lives, which

26

profoundly influence how the person perceives events. These expectations, assumptions, and hypotheses do not spring up in isolation but derive from the same set of influences leading to spontaneous behaviours, namely previous life experiences and ongoing encounters with the environment including culture, education, biases, and motivations. They also may derive from the same sets of influences leading to reflective behaviours, namely the more recent sets of expectations from the many relationships one may have and from one's self concept including norms from the organizations, departments and groups with whom one interacts and the ethical, legal and cultural factors in one's value system. These expectations, assumptions, and hypotheses define what our senses lead us to perceive or not perceive in the environment. We see what we expect or want to see. All perception occurs in a rich, dynamic, ongoing context, and a thorough understanding of the perceptual process demands that we understand the roles of expectations, assumptions, and hypotheses, which taken together, constitute what may be called a person's assumptive world (Leavitt 1964). Consequently, this approach emphasizes the need to deepen our understanding of managers' mental schemes if we are to understand corporate behaviour and firms' strategic processes more fully.

The cognitive approach, centering on the knowledge possessed by the firm's decision-maker, has stressed the limitations of managerial perception, and hence warns us, at least implicitly, of the existence of biases or "distortions" in managerial perception. But few studies have centered specifically on analyzing "cognitive biases". Indeed, research on this question is very scarce (Hodgkinson et al., 1999; Sutcliffe, 1994; Kuvaas and Kaufman, 2004), perhaps due to the difficulty of comparing managers' perceptions with the perception of other external observers. This has not prevented some researchers from examining the effects that cognitive biases have on decisions, and consequently on corporate behavior. For example, cognitive biases in managerial perception have been found to harm organizational performance (Bourgeois, 1985; Dess and Keats, 1987; Voyer, 1993; Boyd et al., 1993; Barr and Huff, 1997).

Cognitive biases have also been blamed for some firms' delayed response to changes in their environmental conditions and/or perceived threats (Starbuck, 1985, 1992; Barr et al., 1992; Waarts and Wierenga, 2000), and even for the rhythm of export activities (Hurtado, 2003). We might also mention the work of Starbuck (1983) and Starbuck et al. (1978), who demonstrate that the managers of firms in crisis often have a very different view of reality than external observers do. Research in this field has progressed along two branches that often appear entwined. First, researchers have amply demonstrated the existence of differences between "objective" reality and "perceived" reality (Downey et al., 1975; Tosi et al., 1973; Boyd et al., 1993). In other words, cognitive biases do exist (Barnes, 1984; Schwenk, 1984; Starbuck, 1985, 1992; Bateman and Zeithmal, 1989; Wright and Goodwing, 2002), and they limit both the quality of business decisions (Hodgkinson et al., 1999) and managers' reliability as informants in research (Winter, 2003; Ketokivi and Schroeder, 2004). At the same time research has found various factors affecting the degree of accuracy of managerial perceptions: the subject observed (Kahneman and Tversky, 1972; Arnols et al., 1998) and the manager.

With regards the subject that the perception deals with, some researchers have argued that managerial perception is more accurate when it involves subjects that are closer to the manager's domain of activity, those in which they are more experienced (Normann, 1971; Boland et al., 2001), while the perception is less reliable when it refers to questions at some distance from the manager's scope of activities. In the same line, Bowman and Daniels (1995) find that the functional area the perception deals with affects the degree of accuracy of managerial perception. Researchers have also found that managerial perception is more easily distorted when managers are asked about past rather than recent events (Kahneman and Tversky, 1972; Arnols et al., 1998). With regards the influence of the manager's characteristics, the literature points out that experienced managers perceive reality differently from their inexperienced colleagues (Mezias and Starbuck, 2003).

In other words, experience makes managers more prone to perceive some stimuli and ignore others (Kagel and Levin, 1986). In this line, we can find numerous studies using demographic categories to define managers' profiles and hence explain cognitive biases (Wiersema and Bantel, 1992, p. 112). From this perspective, the demographic variables of the individuals analyzed are used to approximate the individual's cognitive process (Kilduff et al., 2000, p. 22). This approach assumes that demographic variables can predict and explain the existing variation in the cognitive variables that intervene in the perception process (Hambrick and Mason, 1984). In the present research, our study managerial perception is not concerned so much with the managers' demographic characteristics but rather with their beliefs. In this respect, we should mention the work of Schwenk (1984), who finds that beliefs or preconceived hypotheses have more weight in managers' decisions than the evidence itself, i.e. the perception of the reality is distorted by the effect of the manager's preconceived images. In other words, managers paint their perceptions the same color as their beliefs.

In conclusion, we can hence deduce that managerial perception diverges from the stimulus for various and different reasons that we can summarize as follows: the cognitive complexity managers face when trying to grasp the reality that surrounds them; and the managers' beliefs, which predispose them to adjust the observed stimulus to their preconceived ideas. Thus, when we ask a manager questions about abstract issues (e.g. factors influencing the success of performance contracting), at some distance from their current domain of activities and in which they have little experience, these questions will conceivably involve significant cognitive complexity, and consequently the manager's mind will store a simplified image (Dutton and Jackson, 1987; Wright and Goodwing, 2002). The manager's perception in this case will surely be inaccurate, i.e. the perception will suffer from cognitive biases. This effect is similar to what is termed the "cognitive halo" in marketing. This refers, for example, to those situations in which managers are asked about abstract concepts such as the complexity of their business environment or the repercussions of events in the future competitive situation of the sector to

which they belong, etc. In this line, we should mention the work of Downey et al. (1975) and Tosi et al. (1973), who find that managerial perception with regards environmental uncertainty diverges significantly from the values provided by objective measures.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

In order to investigate change management practices and managers' perception on strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly, the researcher adopted a survey research design. This design was appropriate because of the cross-sectional nature of the data to be collected and analyzed in relation to manager's perception and strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly.

3.2 Target Population

The target population of this study consisted of all the managers listed in the Parliamentary Service structure (see appendix I). According to the structure there were twenty eight (28) managers. Hence, this was a census survey.

3.3 Data Collection Techniques

For the purposes of this study, the researcher collected primary data by distributing a questionnaire to the selected respondents. The questionnaire was semi structured and contained both open ended and closed ended questions. Since the study aimed at identifying SCM practices as well as investigating managers' perception on strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly, the senior management within the parliamentary service structure as at October 2008 (see appendix I) was the target population of the study. These managers included the Speaker (Chairman of the PSC), Clerk (Chief Executive) and their Personal Assistants, the Senior Deputy Clerk; heads of the various directorates; and heads of departments of the Kenya National Assembly.

The questionnaire was dropped and picked later from the respondents and the researcher followed up in instances where further clarification was needed

from the respondent. In addition, several secondary data collection methods were utilized. The researcher gathered secondary data from the Kenya National Assembly's strategic plan(s), consultant reports, the Kenyan Constitution, Parliamentary Service Act and various legislation relevant to the study, media reports and other parliamentary literature that relate to this study.

3.4 Data Analysis

In this study, quantitative data collected was edited, coded and analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean, frequency and percentage. Content analysis was used to analyze qualitative data and the results were presented using pie-charts, graphs and tables.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Response Rate

Response rate refers to the percentage of subjects who respond to questionnaires. According to Mugenda & Mugenda (2003) a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis and reporting, whereas a rate of 60% is good and a rate of 70% and over is very good. Table 4.0 illustrates the response rate of the study at 93% (computed by actual response/study's population) which is very good for analysis and reporting and is adequately representative of the entire population.

Table 4.0: *Response Rate*

	Study's Population	Actual Response	Response Rate
Total Number of Managers	30	28	93%

Source: Research data

4.2 Quantitative Analysis of Managers' Perception on SCM at KNA

This section highlights the findings on managers' perception on strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly. Table 4.1 illustrates the alignment of organizationl factors to the role of KNA. To measure the extent to which the managers' considered the various factors to be aligned to KNA's role, the researcher coded the respondents considerations where "Very valid" was given the value five (5.0), "Valid" was given the value four (4.0), "Indifferent" was given the value three (3.0), "Invalid" was given the value two (2.0) and "Very invalid" was given the value one (1.0). According to the table, KNA's mission, vision, objectives and strategic plan were all considered to be valid with regard to their alignment with the role of the Kenya National Assembly as their means drew closer to four (4.0) at 4.39, 4.25, 4.07 and 4.07 respectvely. This research finding illustrates that manager's at KNA consider these organizational factors to be aligned to the organization's role.

Table 4.1: *Alignment of organizational factors to the role of KNA*

How would you rate the validity of the following organizational factors in relation to their alignment with the role of KNA?	Mean
Vision	4.25
Mission	4.39
Objectives	4.07
Strategic plan	4.07

Source: Research data

Figure 4.1 illustrates the percentages on the managers' response to the practicality of SCM practices at KNA. According to the figure, 75% of the managers' found SCM to be practical, another 11% perceived them to be very practical while the remaining 11% were indifferent. This research finding illustrates that majority of manager's at KNA perceived SCM practices at KNA as practical.

Figure 4.1: *Practicality of SCM at KNA*
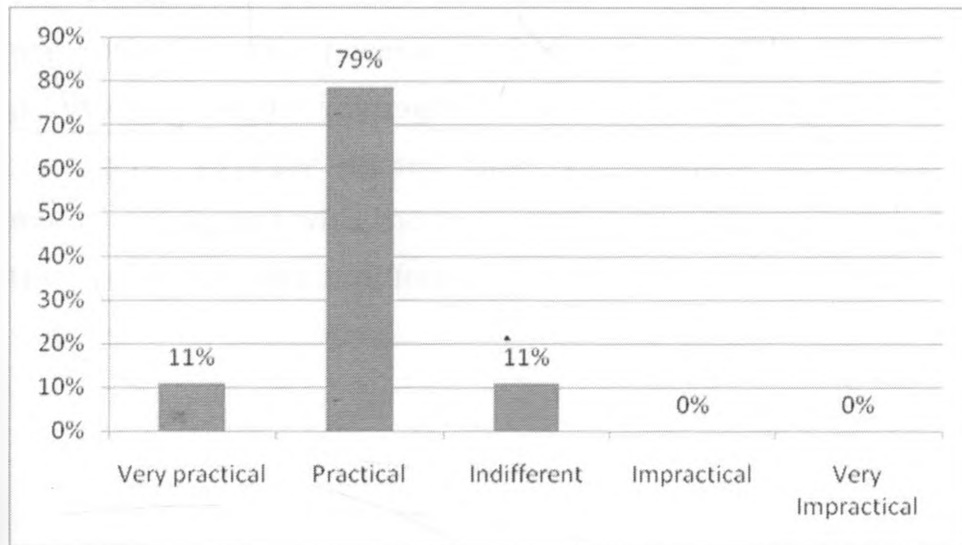
Source: Research data

Figure 4.2 illustrates the percentages on manager's awareness of changes made to KNA's strategic plan. According to the figure, majority of manager's at KNA were aware of changes in the organization's strategic plan that is 96%. The remaining 4% of the managers were not aware of such changes.

Figure 4.2: *Awareness of changes made to KNA's strategic plan*
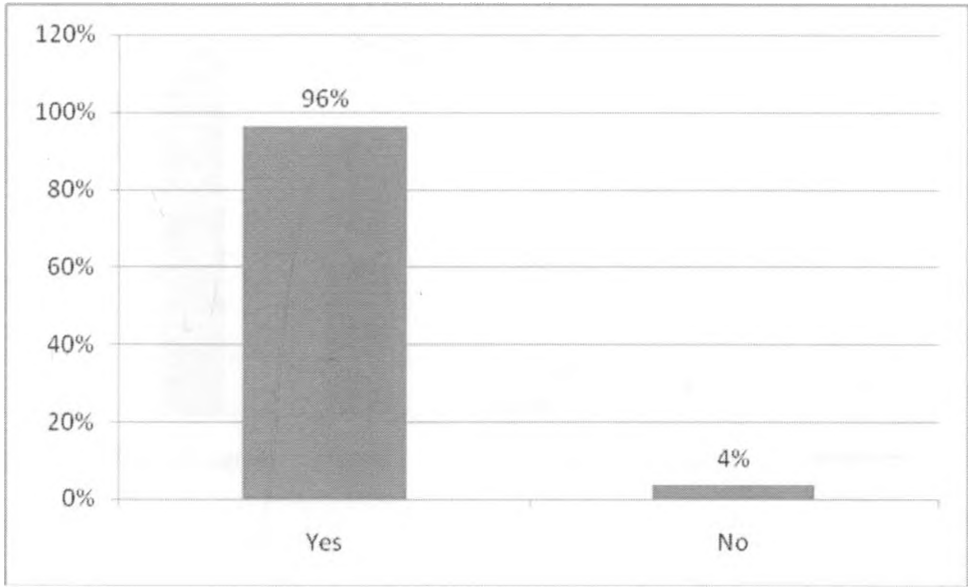
Source: Research data

The researcher was also interested in capturing information on manager's perception on the necessity of changes at KNA. Figure 4.3 illustrates the percentages of the managers' response. According to the figure, 68% of the managers' strongly agreed that the changes were necessary, 29% of the managers' agreed with the necessity of the changes, while the remaining 4% of the managers' were indifferent.

Figure 4.3: *Necessity of changes at KNA*
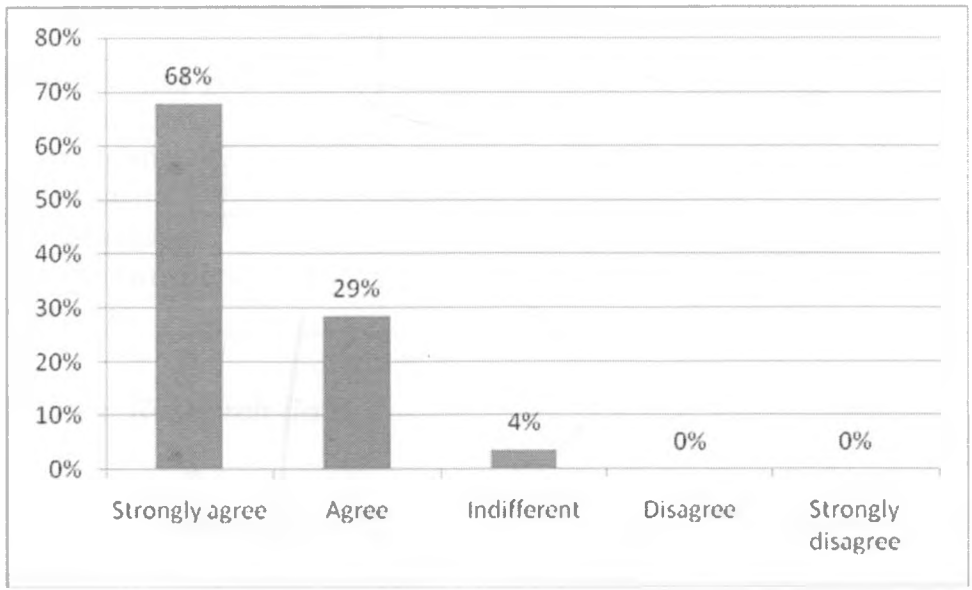
Source: Research data

Table 4.2 illustrates the importance of strategic change formulation organizationl factors to KNA's SCM. To measure the extent to which the managers' percieved the importance of these factors to KNA's SCM, the researcher coded the respondents response where "Very important" was given the value five (5.0), "Important" was given the value four (4.0), "Indifferent" was given the value three (3.0), "Unimportant" was given the value two (2.0) and "Very unimportant" was given the value one (1.0). According to the table, KNA's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats were all percieved to be important with regard to the formulation of SCM at KNA as their means drew closer to four (4.0) at 3.68, 4.14, 4.43 and 3.61 respectvely. This research finding ranked managers' perception on KNA's opportunites highest with regard to the formulation of SCM.

Table 4.2: Importance *of strategic change formulation organizational factors to KNA's SCM*

How would you rate the importance of the following strategic change formulation organizational factors to KNA's strategic change management?	Mean
Strengths	3.68
Weaknesses	4.14
Opportunities	4.43
Threats	3.61

Source: Research data

Table 4.3 illustrates the importance of change factors to SCM at KNA. To measure the extent to which the managers' percieved the importance of these factors to KNA's SCM, the researcher coded the respondents response where "Very important" was given the value five (5.0), "Important" was given the value four (4.0), "Indifferent" was given the value three (3.0), "Unimportant" was given the value two (2.0) and "Very unimportant" was given the value one (1.0). According to the table, necessity of change and the role of other parliamentary staff were percieved as very important as their means drew closer to five (5.0) at 4.64 and 4.57 respectively. Communication about the change, room for diversity, the role of senior management, role of consultants, support for the change, contribution of the change to organizational effectiveness, necessity of the change and the goals and direction of the change were all percieved as important as their means drew closer to four (4.0) at 4.25, 4.43, 4.39, 4.18, 4.0, 4.11, 3.82 and 3.89 respectively. However, managers' percieved uncertainty as unimportant on SCM at KNA as its mean drew closer to two (2.0) at 2.43.

Table 4.3: Importance *of change factors to SCM at KNA*

How would you rate the importance of the following change factors to strategic change management by KNA?	Mean
Necessity of the change	4.64
Goals and direction of the change	3.82
Information about the change	3.89
Communication about the change	4.25
Room for diversity	4.43
Role of senior management	4.39
Role of other parliamentary staff	4.57
Role of consultants	4.18
Uncertainty	2.43
Support for the change	4.00
Contribution of the change to organizational effectiveness	4.11

Source: Research data

The researcher was also interested in the managers' perception as to whether SCM at KNA was facing any challenges. Figure 4.4 illustrates the percentages of managers' that perceived SCM at KNA was facing challenges. According to the figure, 100% of the managers were of the opinion that SCM was facing challenges.

Figure 4.4: *Challenges facing SCM at KNA*
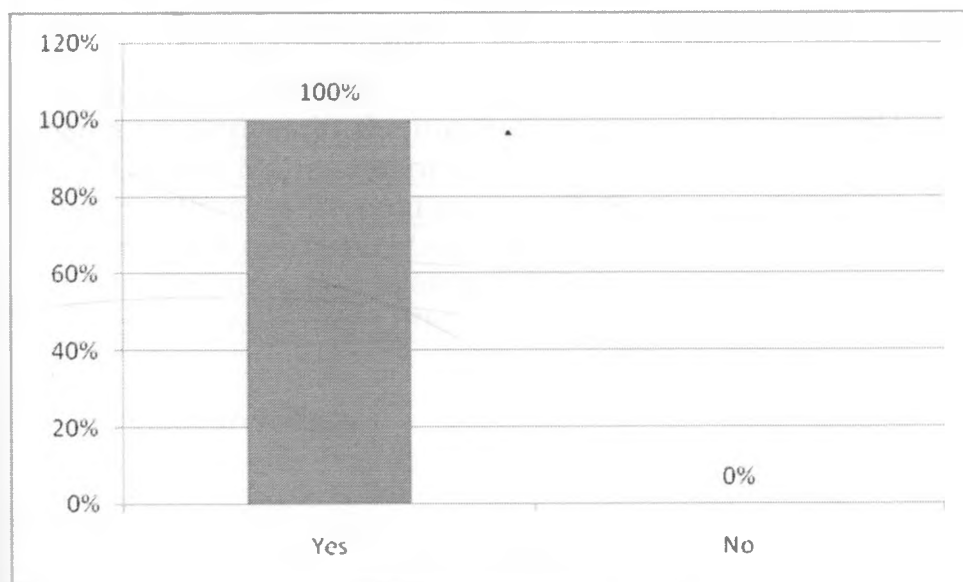
Source: Research data

According to figure 4.4, it was evident that managers' at KNA unanimously agreed that SCM was facing challenges. Consequently, the researcher was interested in identifying the major areas that were perceived to be posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA. Table 4.4 illustrates the importance of factors posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA. To measure the extent to which the managers' perceived the importance of these factors in posing challenges, the researcher coded the managers' response where "Very important" was given the value five (5.0), "Important" was given the value four (4.0), "Indifferent" was given the value three (3.0), "Unimportant" was given the value two (2.0) and "Very unimportant" was given the value one (1.0). According to the table, Total Quality Management (TQM) and Financial Management (FM) were perceived as being very important in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA as their means drew closer to five (5.0) at 4.57 and 4.61 respectively. Business Process Re-engineering (BPR), Information Communication Technology (ICT) and Human Resource Management (HRM) were perceived as being important in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA as their means drew closer to four (4.0) at 4.39, 4.36 and 4.36 respectively.

Table 4.4: Importance *of factors posing a challenge to SCM at KNA*

If yes, please rate the importance of the following factors in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM by KNA	Mean
Total Quality Management (TQM)	4.57
Business Process Re-engineering (BPR)	4.39
Information Communication Technology (ICT)	4.36
Human Resource Management (HRM)	4.36
Financial Management (FM)	4.61

Source: Research data

The researcher was also interested in information regarding the managers' perception as to existing differences between SCM at KNA and the private sector. Figure 4.6 illustrates the percentages of the managers' view as to whether SCM practices at KNA are significantly different from those within the

private sector. According to the figure, 93% of the managers' were of the opinion that SCM practices at KNA are significantly different from those applicable in the private sector, while 7% of the managers' were of the opinion that there is no significant difference between SCM practices at KNA and those applicable within the private sector.

Figure 4.6: *Difference between SCM at KNA and the private sector*
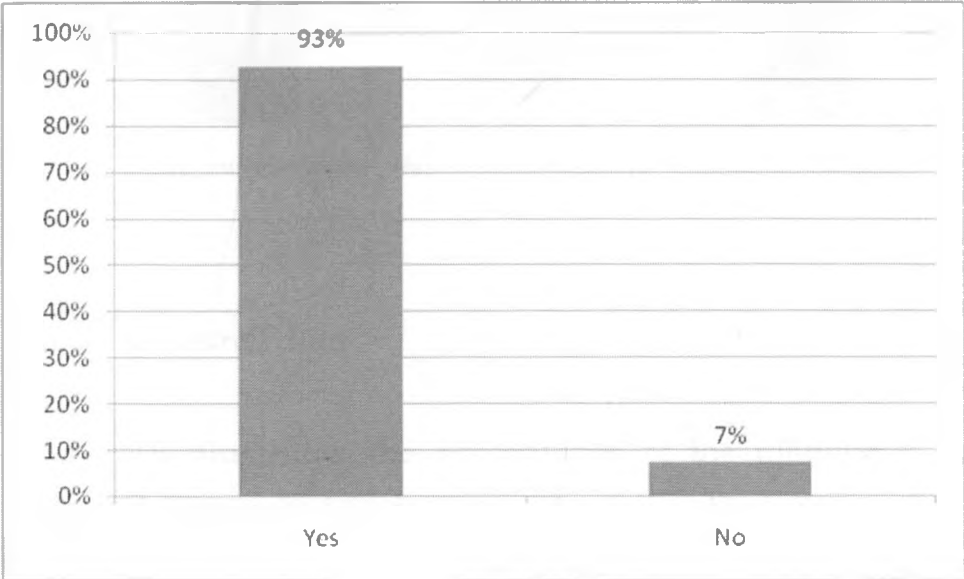
Source: Research data

Consequently, the researcher sought to find out the major areas that the managers' perceived to be significantly different between SCM practices at KNA and those within the private sector. Figure 4.7 illustrates the percentages of the managers' view on the areas of differences between SCM practices at KNA and those within the private sector. According to the figure, 38% of the managers' were of the opinion that internal structures and processes were significantly different, 35% concurred that the nature of the public service was a significant difference area, while the remaining 26% of the managers' cited environmental factors as being an area of significant difference between SCM practices at KNA and those applicable in the private sector.

Figure 4.7: *Areas of differences between SCM at KNA and the private sector*
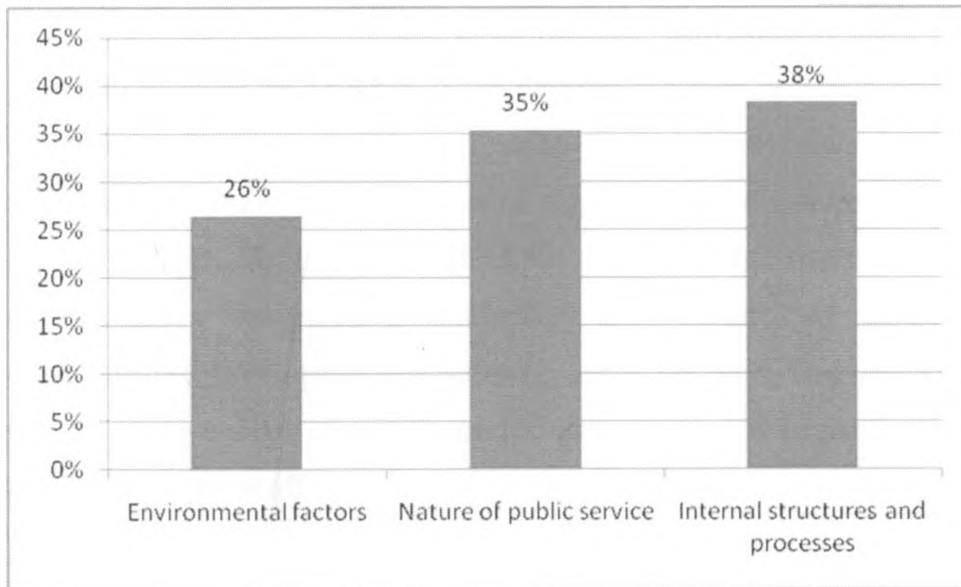
Source: Research data

Figure 4.8 illustrates the percentages of the managers' that were eager to achieve the proposed end state and convinced of the feasibility of the strategic change at KNA. According to the figure, 100% of the managers' were convicted of the feasibility of SCM at KNA. This research finding illustrates that SCM practices at KNA are positively perceived by the manager's.

Figure 4.8: *Managers' Conviction of SCM at KNA*
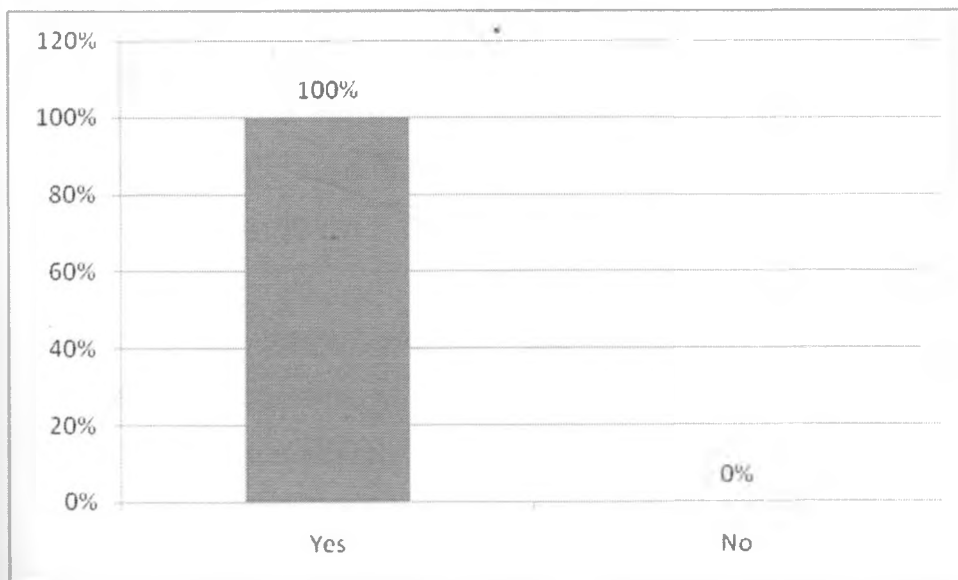
Source: Research data

4.3 Content Analysis of Managers' Perception of SCM at KNA

The researcher also gathered qualitative information with regard to managers' perception of SCM at KNA. This section utilizes content analysis to analyze the collected information. Of interest to the researcher was the managers' opinion on the stakeholders that have a significant influence on the success and/or failure of SCM process at KNA. According to the data collected, the stakeholders mentioned included the public at large/electorate, donor community/development partners, civil society, the members of parliament, the Executive arm of government, private sector organizations, the media and parliamentary staff.

With regards to the mentioned stakeholder's influence on SCM practices at KNA, the managers' were of the opinion that the public/electorate and civil society had a negative attitude towards the KNA and parliament and yet maintained high expectations from parliament hence making it difficult for managers' to successfully implement SCM. The donor community/development partners were perceived to be providing inadequate financial support and training to facilitate SCM while at the same time pressuring managers' to implement SCM practices at KNA. Members of parliament, despite them being the immediate client/recipient of SCM practices at KNA, did not feel part and parcel of the process making it challenging to successfully implement. The managers' also pointed out that the executive arm of government, especially through the treasury and ministers, posed a significant challenge to the success of SCM at KNA due to their insensitivity and lack of support both financially and operationally to SCM practices at KNA.

Private sector organizations, parliamentary staff and the media were occasionally perceived as positively contributing to SCM practices at KNA by providing the necessary financial and human resource as well as media coverage. However, the managers' noted that whenever there is a conflict of interest between private sector organizations, parliamentary staff and/or the

media and KNA, the respective stakeholder groups would choose not to support particular SCM practices to the extent of the conflict in interest.

Information regarding to the managers' suggestion and comments on SCM practices at KNA was also collected. The managers' pointed out that parliamentary staff should own the process and get rid of the notion that the whole process is driven by management. The managers' suggested that this could be achieved through training and active participation of the staff and other stakeholders on SCM practices at KNA. Secondly, managers' were concerned that the budgetary allocation to the PSC by both the Executive and donor community was insufficient and that there was a need to increase the funding to ensure that SCM practices at KNA are successfully implemented. Lastly, the managers' concurred that there was a need to put in place proper structures that will facilitate proper communication on change and support the change agents in successfully implementing SCM at KNA.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The Parliamentary Service Commission (PSC) has been undergoing different programs under different commissions. The PSC was created by the Constitution of Kenya (amendment) Act No. 3 of 1999; this amendment placed the management and administration of Kenya National Assembly under the Commission independent from the Executive. After its formation, the PSC embarked on a mission to develop a strategic plan. The first plan covered the period 2000 – 2012 however, the plan was revised in 2008 to cover the period 2008 – 2018. This was necessitated by the changes in KNA's operating environment.

From the study, it is evident that the managers' perception on the said changes was positive towards the change at KNA. However, of concern to the managers' was the stakeholders influence on SCM at KNA. The stakeholders mentioned included the public at large/electorate, donor community/development partners, civil society, the members of parliament, the Executive arm of government, private sector organizations, the media and parliamentary staff.

5.2 Conclusions

The objectives of the study were: (i) to determine strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly, and (ii) to determine managers' perception on strategic change management practices at the Kenya National Assembly. To this regard, the study collected and analyzed data relating to SCM practices at KNA with an aim of determining managers' perception of such practices. This section draws conclusions from the research findings in this study.

Research findings (in Chapter Four) illustrated that the mangers' perceived KNA's mission, vision, objectives and strategic plan as being aligned with the role of the Kenya National Assembly. Moreover, majority of the managers' found SCM to be practical and that majority of the manager's strongly agreed that the changes at KNA were necessary. It can therefore be concluded that there was a positive perception on the part of the mangers' towards strategic change management practices and their need at KNA.

According to research findings, necessity of change and the role of other parliamentary staff were perceived as very important to SCM practices at KNA. Communication about the change, room for diversity, the role of senior management, role of consultants, support for the change, contribution of the change to organizational effectiveness, necessity of the change and the goals and direction of the change were all perceived as important to the successful implementation of SCM at KNA. Consequently, it can be concluded that the outlined factors are perceived by managers' at KNA as being important in the successful implementation of SCM practices at the institution. However, managers' perceived uncertainty as unimportant on SCM at KNA.

The researcher was also interested in the managers' perception as to whether SCM at KNA was facing any challenges. According to research findings all of the managers were of the opinion that SCM was facing challenges and that Total Quality Management (TQM) and Financial Management (FM) were very important in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA. Business Process Re-engineering (BPR), Information Communication Technology (ICT) and Human Resource Management (HRM) were perceived as being important in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA.

With regard to managers' perception as to existing differences between SCM at KNA and the private sector, most managers' were of the view that SCM practices at KNA are significantly different from those within the private sector and that the main source of these differences from internal structures and processes and the nature of the public service as well as environmental. The

researcher therefore concluded that due to the perceived differences between SCM at KNA and that within the private sector, managers' at KNA do not directly adopt SCM practices that are being implemented by private sector organizations.

Research findings also illustrated that all managers' were eager to achieve the proposed end state and convinced of the feasibility of the strategic change at KNA. The managers' also outlined the stakeholders and their influence on SCM at KNA. The stakeholders mentioned included the public at large/electorate, donor community/development partners, civil society, the members of parliament, the Executive arm of government, private sector organizations, the media and parliamentary staff. It can therefore be concluded that managers' at KNA do recognize the influence of various stakeholders in the implementation of SCM practices at KNA.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the conclusion drawn in section 5.1 above, the researcher made the following recommendations: First and foremost, managers' at KNA should proceed with the SCM practices already in place as they are receiving positive perception and are deemed to be not only necessary but applicable to the institution.

Secondly, Total Quality Management (TQM) and Financial Management (FM) which were perceived as being very important in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA should be addressed more keenly by management and the y should consider involving consultants if need be. Business Process Re-engineering (BPR), Information Communication Technology (ICT) and Human Resource Management (HRM) were also perceived as being important in posing challenges in the implementation of SCM at KNA, hence, special emphasis on structures and processes relating to these areas should be strengthened to be more effective and efficient in support of SCM practices at the institution.

46

Finally, the researcher recommends that all the stakeholders including but not limited to the public at large/electorate, donor community/development partners, civil society, the members of parliament, the Executive arm of government, private sector organizations, the media and parliamentary staff should be involved in the SCM process by way of increasing awareness and the benefits of successful implementation of SCM at KNA. This can be achieved by enhancing the communication channels and increasing training on SCM practices. The managers' should also re-evaluate the interaction between KNA and the various stakeholders to avoid instances of conflict of interest during the implementation of SCM practices at KNA.

5.4 Recommendation for Further Research

The researcher recommends that future research should be undertaken in the following areas: factors affecting the successful implementation of SCM within the public sector and the role of change agents (managers') in government in ensuring that Kenyan public institutions are adopting SCM practices aimed at making the institutions more effective in service delivery to the Kenyan public.

REFERENCES

Ackoff, R.L. (1993), "*The art and science of mess management*", in Mabey, C., Mayon-White, B. (Eds), Managing Change, Paul Chapman Publishing, London, pp.47-54.

Ansoff (1987), What's your strategy for managing knowledge? *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 77 No.2, pp.106-18.

Attwood (1996), Some Principles of Knowledge Management, *McCombs Graduate School of Business*, University of Texas, Austin, TX, available at: www.mccombs.utexas.edu/ kman/kmprin.htm, .

Baldwin (1984), Organizing knowledge, *California Management Review*, Vol. 40 No.3, pp.90-111.

Buchanan, D.A. and Badham, R. (1999), Politics and organisational change: the lived experience, *Human Relations*, Vol. 52 No.5, pp.609-29.

Buchanan, D.A. and Boddy, D. (1992), *The Expertise of the Change Agent*, Prentice-Hall, London, .

Cabanna et al. (1995), "*The knowledge agenda*", in Cortada, J.W., Woods, J.A. (Eds),The Knowledge Management Yearbook 1999-2000, Butterworth-Heinemann, Boston, MA, pp.109-26.

Cacioppe (2000), "*Building a strategy on competences*", Long Range Planning, Vol. 30 No.5, pp.733-40.

Chorn, N.L. and Myres, K.L. and Gattorna, J.L. (1990), Bidding strategy formulation and implementation, paper presented at *10th Annual Internal Conference of the Strategic Management Society*, Stockholm.

Clark (1988), Knowledge-intensive firms, *Business Horizons*, No.May-June, pp.26-32.

Colorado State University (CSU) (2008), "*Writing Guides: Case Studies*" pp. 1 – 16.

Crewson (1997), "*Knowledge management as a competitive asset: a review*", Marketing   Intelligence & Planning, Vol. 18 No.4, pp.166-74.

Crnkovic, Asklund & Persson-Dahlqvist, (2003), "*Knowledge, knowledge work and organizations: an overview and interpretation*", Organization Studies, Vol. 16 No.6, pp.1021-46.

Dawson (1994), Strategic innovation, *Sloan Management Review*, No.Spring, pp.9- 23.

Dawson, S. (1996), *Analysing Organisations*, 3rd ed., Macmillan Education, London,.

Dunphy and Stace (1993), Generic knowledge strategies in the U.S. pharmaceutical industry, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 17 No.Winter, pp.123-35.

Emery and Purser (1996), *The Knowledge Advantage*, Capstone Publishing Limited. Ernst & Young LLP, Dover, NH, .

Fahey, L., Narayanan, V.K. (1989), Linking changes in revealed causal maps and environmental change: an empirical study, *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 26 No.4, pp.361-78.

Freeman (1984), The state of notion: knowledge management in practice, *California Management Review*, Vol. 4 No.3, pp.80-9.

French, W.L. and Bell, C.H. Jr (1990), *"Organisation Development: Behavioural Science Interventions for Organisation Improvement"*, 4th ed., Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ,.

French, H.P. 1989, *"Educating the nursing practitioner: An assessment of the pre- registration of nurses as an educational experience.* Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Durham. England.

Fopp and Schiessl (1999), Strategic factor markets: expectations, luck and business strategy, *Management Science*, Vol. 32 pp.1231-41.

Fowler, A. (1998), *"A strategic and systematic paradigm for operations management"*, 5th International Conference of the European Operations Management Association, Dublin, pp.189-94.

Goodstein, L.D. and Burke, W.W. (1991), Creating successful organisation change, *Organisation Dynamics*, Vol. 19 pp.5-17.

Hammersley, M., Atkinson, P. (1983), *Ethnography Principles in Practice*, Tavistock, London, .

Hammond, S.A. (1996), *The Thin Book of Appreciative Inquiry,* The Thin Book Publishing, Plano, TX,.

Hassard, J. (1991), Multiple paradigms and organisational analysis: a case study, *Organisation Studies*, Vol. 12 No.2, pp.275-99.

Hayes, J. R. and Flower, L. (1981), Uncovering cognitive processes in writing. An introduction to protocol analysis, *P aper presented at the annual meeting of American Educational Research Association.*

Hodgkinson et al., (1999), Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 17 No.Winter, pp.109-22.

Houston (2000), A historical comparison of resource-based theory and five schools of thought within industrial organization economics: do we have a new theory of the firm?, *Journal of Management*, Vol. 17 No.1, pp.121-54.

Jeff (2007), Knowledge management: understanding theory and developing strategy, *Competitiveness Review*, Vol. 11 No.1, pp.1-11.

Jreisat (1997), Working Knowledge: How Organizations Manage What They Know, *Harvard Business School Press*, Boston, MA, .

Kenya National Assembly Strategic Plan for the period 2008 – 2018.

Kisinguh K. (2006), *Stakeholders involvement in the strategic change management process in public organizations; The case of Parliamentary Service Commission (PSC)*, Unpublished MBA Thesis, University of Nairobi.

Knights, D. and Willmott, H. (1995), "*Culture and control in a life insurance company*", Studies in Cultures, Organisations and Societies, Vol. 1 No.1, pp.29-46.

Kotter, J.P. (1995), Leading change: why transformation efforts fail, *Harvard Business Review*, No.March-April, pp.59-67.

Koohang (1989), "*The phenomenon of knowledge management: what does it mean to the information profession*", Information Outlook, Vol. 2 No.5, pp.23-31.

Leavitt, Harold J. (1964), *Managerial Psychology*, 2nd Ed., University of Chicago Press: Chicago IL

Mazumdar (1992), *A Methodology For Knowledge Management*, International Association of Science and Technology for Development AI and Soft Computing Conference: Banff, Alberta, Canada, .

Mbabu M. W. (2004), *A survey of Parliamentary Commission employees' attitude towards promotion on merit*, Unpublished MBA Thesis, University of Nairobi.

Merriam, Sharan B. and Edwin L. Simpson. (1995), *A Guide to Research for Educators and Trainers of Adults*. second edition. Malabar, Florida: Krieger Publishing Co.

Mezias, J.M., Starbuck, W.H. (2003), Studying the accuracy of managers' perceptions: a research odyssey, *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 14 No.1, pp.3-17.

Mintzberg and Walters (1985), "*A current review of knowledge management best practice*", Conference on Knowledge Management and the Transfer of Best Practices, Business Intelligence, London, .

Nadler (2004), Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage, *Journal of Management*, Vol. 17 No.1, pp.99-120.

Ngome M. M. (1998), *The potential impact of Public Accounts Committee (PAC) and Public Investments Committee (PIC) on national accountability and transparency under the new changes on the Standing Orders*, Unpublished MBA Thesis, University of Nairobi.

O'Brien (2002), Effective integration of knowledge management into the business starts with a top-down knowledge strategy, *Journal of Universal Computer Science*, Vol. 9 No.7, pp.719-28.

Owen (2003), "*Direct and moderating effects of human capital on strategy and performance in professional service firms: a resource-based perspective*", Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 44 No.1, pp.13-28.

Paton, R.A. and McCalman, J. (2000), *Change Management: A Guide to Effective Implementation*, 2nd ed., Sage Publications, London.

Pearce and Robinson (2003), Knowledge management, *Business and Economic Review*, Vol. 44 No.4, .

Perry and Wise (1990), "*An empirical study of factors affecting successful implementation of knowledge management*", Doctoral Dissertation, Graduate College at the University of Nebraska, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NB, .

Pettigrew (1985), If only we knew what we know: identification and transfer of internal best practices, *California Management Review*, Vol. 40 No.3, pp.154-74.

Postman (1992), "*Knowledge management at GE: a technology transfer case study*", working paper, .

Quinn (1980), *The Theory of the Growth of the Firm*, Wiley, New York, NY, .

Regne´r (2003), Best practice and beyond: knowledge strategies, *McKinsey Quarterly*, Vol. 1 pp.19-25.

Robbins, S. (2005) *Organizational Behavior,* 11th Ed, Prentice-Hall

Senge, P. and Kleiner, A., Roberts, C., Ross, R., Roth, G., Smith, B. (1999), *The Dance of Change: The Challenges of Sustaining Momentum in Learning Organisations*, Doubleday, New York, NY, .

Starbuck (1983) and Starbuck et al. (1978), A knowledge-based theory of inter-firm collaboration, *Academy of Management – Best Paper Proceedings*, pp.17-21.

Strebel (1998), "*Knowledge management: are we in the knowledge management business?*", Ariadne, available at: www.ariadne.ac.uk/issue18/knowledge-mgt, No.18.

Tichy, N.M. (1983), *Managing Strategic Change*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY.

Tosi et al. (1973), "*Putting knowledge into strategy*", Presentation at the Ernst & Young Managing the Knowledge of the Organization Conference, Phoenix, AZ, .

Watson (2003), The resource-based view within the conversation of strategic management, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 13 pp.363-80.

Weick, K.E. (1995), *Sensemaking in Organisations*, Sage, Newbury Park, CA.

Weisbord, 1993), "*Knowledge yields impressive returns*", Information Week, No.April, .

Wilson (1992), The resource-based theory of the firm, *Organization Science*, Vol. 7 No.5, pp.469.

Whittington (1996), *New Language For New Leverage.* T he Terminology of Knowledge Management, Corporate Education. Biz, LLC, NY, available at: www.ktic.com/topic6/ 13_term2.htm, .

Whittington (2002), Capturing value from knowledge assets: the new economy, markets for know-how, and intangible assets, *California Management Review*, Vol. 40 No.3, pp.55-79.

Wittmer (1991), Competing on resources: strategy in the 1990s, *Harvard Business Review*, No.July-August, pp.118-28.

Wright (2003), Implementing a knowledge strategy for your firm, *Research Technology Management*, Vol. 41 No.2, pp.28-31.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Parliamentary Service Structure (October 2008)

```
                          ┌──────────────────────────┐
                          │  Office of the Speaker / │
                          │       Chair, PSC         │
                          └──────────────────────────┘
```

- Office of the Senior Deputy Clerk

Directorate of Legislative and Committee Services
- Procedural Services
- Committees Services
- Hansard Department
- Legal Department

Directorate of Finance and Accounting
- Finance Department
- Accounts Department
- Supplies Department

Directorate of Administration
- Personnel Administration Department
- Human Resources Development Department
- Catering Department
- Registry Department
- Health Club

Directorate of Information and Research
- Library Department
- Research Department
- Budget Office / Office of Fiscal Analysis
- ICT Department
- Public Relations Office

- PSC Secretariat
- Sergeant-At-Arms
- Maintenance Department
- Internal Audit

Source: Kenya National Assembly Strategic Plan (2008-2018)

Appendix II: Questionnaire

1. Please comment on KNA's stated Vision and Mission statement?

....

....

2. Please comment on KNA's strategic plan?

....

....

3. In a scale of one (1) to five (5) where: *1- Very valid; 2 – Valid; 3 – Indifferent; 4 – Invalid; 5 – Very invalid;* how would you rate the validity of the following organizational factors in relation to their alignment with the role of KNA?

	1	2	3	4	5
Vision					
Mission					
Objectives					
Strategic Plan					

4. How practical is the implementation of strategic change management at KNA?

    Very practical   ( )
    Practical   ( )
    Indifferent   ( )
    Impractical   ( )
    Very Impractical   ( )
    Not Implemented ( )

5. Are you aware of any changes made to KNA's strategic plan in the last five years?

             Yes   ( )   No   ( )

6. If yes, in your opinion, did you find it necessary to make the changes?

      Strongly agree   ( )   Agree   ( )

      Indifferent   ( )   Disagree   ( )

      Strongly disagree ( )

7. In a scale of one (1) to five (5) where: *1- Very important; 2 – Important; 3 – Indifferent; 4 – Unimportant; 5 - Less important;* How would you rate the importance of the following strategic change formulation organizational factors to KNA's strategic change management?

	1	2	3	4	5
Strengths					
Weaknesses					
Opportunities					
Threats					

8. In a scale of one (1) to five (5) where: *1- Very important; 2 – Important; 3 – Indifferent; 4 – Unimportant; 5 - Less important;* How would you rate the importance of the following change factors to strategic change management by KNA?

	1	2	3	4	5
Necessity of the change					
Goals and direction of the change					
Information about the change					
Communication about the change					
Room for diversity					
Role of senior management					
Role of other parliamentary staff					
Role of consultants					
Uncertainty					
Support for the change					
Contribution of the change to organizational effectiveness					

9. In your opinion, is strategic change management by KNA facing any challenges?

      Yes ( )   No   ( )

10. If yes, what are the major sources of the challenges posed on strategic change management at KNA (*list at least five*)?

....

....

....

....

....

....

11. If yes in Q. 10 above, please rate the importance of the following organizational factors in posing a challenge to strategic change management at KNA: *(Rating Scale: 1- Very important; 2 – Important; 3 – Indifferent; 4 – Unimportant; 5 - Less important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
Total Quality Management (TQM)					
Business Process Re-engineering (BPR)					
Information Communication Technology (ICT)					
Human Resource Management (HRM)					
Financial Management (FM)					

12. In your opinion, is strategic change management in KNA significantly different from that in the private sector?

      Yes ( )   No   ( )

13. If Yes in Q. 12 above, indicate by ticking appropriately, the areas in which KNA is significantly different:

Environmental Factors   ( )

Nature of public service   ( )

Internal structures and processes   ( )

Other (please specify) _____

14. Are you eager to achieve the proposed end state and convinced of the feasibility of the strategic change at KNA?

Yes   ( )   No   ( )

15. In your opinion, what other stakeholders have a significant influence on the success and/or failure of the strategic change management process at the Kenya National Assembly?

i. ....

ii. ....

iii. ....

iv. ....

v. ....

16. Please comment on the influence of each of the mentioned stakeholders

....

....

....

17. What suggestions and comments would you offer in relation to strategic change management practices at KNA?

....

....

....

....

Thank You.