 01 2022	The Spanish Review of Financial Economics SRFE

www.srfe.journals.es

STRATEGIC PLANNING AS A TOOL FOR ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN KENYAN UNIVERSITIES A CASE STUDY OF MOI UNIVERSITY, ELDORET, KENYA

RUTH TUBEY^a, KIPKEMBOI JACOB ROTICH^b and

STANLEY KIPSANG KIPKELWON^c

^aMoi University, School of Human Resource DevelopmentDepartment of Entrepreneurship Studies, Eldoret, Kenya. ^bMoi University, School of Human Resource DevelopmentDepartment of Development Studies, Eldoret, Kenya. ^cMoi University, School of Human Resource DevelopmentDepartment of Development Studies, Eldoret, Kenya.

Abstract

This study investigated the use of strategic planning as one way of addressing the numerous challenges that affect organizational development of institutions of higher learning in Kenya. Thestudy was conducted in Moi University, Kenya through the survey research design. Stratified sampling and purposive sampling methods were used in identifying a total of 180 middle andtop level university administrators who participated in the study. Data collection methods included questionnaires and structured interviews. It was found that a majority of respondents (52.2%) believed that the current strategic plan is not likely to influence university organizational development to any significant extent. This was attributed to factors such as weak policy framework, corruption, inadequate finances and lack of goodwill and cooperation from quarters likely to be affected by strategic plan. The researchers hope that the findings will form a basis for sound strategic planning in Moi University and other institutions of higher learning in Kenya.

Keywords: Strategic Planning (SP)/Organizational Development (OD)

INTRODUCTION

The global and competitive market environments have led to new challenges for both organizations and individuals in them (Iversen, 2000). These are, among others, the internationalization of the economy, the changing workforce demography, the density and wider use of information technology and the continuous and rapid scientific and technological change. Kenyan institutions of higher learning face similar challenges. They range from increasing global competition for higher education, decreasing government funding, brain drain, limited access to and use of Information Communication Technology (ICT), inadequate and poorly maintained infrastructure, rigid administrative structures and HIV/AIDS among others.

These powerful forces are associated with advancing technology, international economic integration, the maturing of domestic markets, and the shift to capitalism in formerly communist regions which have brought about a globalized economy that impacts on every business, creating more opportunities and threats. According to Daft (2004), to recognize and manage such threats and take advantage of the opportunities, today"s companies must undergo dramatic changes in all their areas of operation. Kenyan universities are in a similar situation. The emerging scenario presents threats which can drive them out of business, and at the same time presents opportunities, which, if harnessed, can steer the universities to excellence.

As an attempt to address the numerous challenges in its internal and external environments, Moi



www.srfe.journals.es

University is at advanced stage in the implementation of its Strategic Plan (SP). The current SP which covers a ten year period from 2005 to 2015 has taken into consideration various broad based issues such as the millennium development goals (MDG progress report for Kenya), the Ministry of Education Master Plan (1997 — 2010), gender mainstreaming, growing student population and the need for internal organizational restructuringin order to enhance efficiency, transparency and accountability.

Statement of the problem

It has been argued that the strategic planning literature is biased towards studies focusing on industries related to manufacturing such as oil, automobile and aircraft. A few studies have examined major service sectors such as banking (Giroux and Rose, 1984), insurance (Kukalis, 1988), health care and education (Ginter 1985). In addition, planning research and wisdom come principally from industrialized countries such as the USA, UK, Canada and Japan, creating models and frameworks, which are not necessarily appropriate for the less developed countries (Haines, 1988).

Whereas a number of studies have been carried out in an attempt to explore the relationship between planning and performance, more precisely financial performance (Thune and House, 1970; Ansoff, 1970; Lindsay, 1982) and the effectiveness of planning processes (Ramanujam, 1986) the relationship between strategic planning and organizational development largely unexplored.

Arising from the synthesis of literature available, there is need to address the various loopholes that exist. Therefore, this study sought to establish the role of strategic planning process as a tool for organizational development. The study is an assessment of the strategic planning process as a tool for overall organizational development in Moi University with universal application to other similar institutions in Kenya and the developing world.

Objectives of the study

- 1. To establish the role of Strategic Planning in Organizational Development.
- 2. To find out the extent to which the current Strategic Plan has contributed toOrganizational Development in Moi University.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The essence of planning

According to Bracker (1980), the origin of the concept of strategy is said to be from the Greek word "strartegus" meaning "to plan the destruction of one"s enemies through effective use of resources". This concept was developed purely on the basis of war. It remained a military concept until the 19th century when it began to be employed in the business world. In the management context, the word "strategy" has now replaced the more traditional "long term" planto denote a specific pattern of decisions and actions undertaken by the upper echelon of the organization in order to accomplish performance. Though there is no single universally accepteddefinition of strategy, there are several definitions from different authors that capture the meaning of the concept.

According to Aosa (1988), strategy refers to "creating a fit between the external characteristics



www.srfe.journals.es

and the internal conditions of an organization, to solve a strategic problem. The strategic problem is a mismatch between the internal characteristics of an organization and its external environment. Michael Potter (1996) asserts that strategy is creating a fit among a company's activities. The success of strategy depends on doing many things well, not just a few, while integrating them. If there's no fit among activities, there's no distinctive strategy hence little sustainability. The company's activities include its effective interaction with the environment in that these activities are geared towards external environment.

Pearce and Robinson (1997) define strategy as large-scale future oriented plans for interacting with competitive environments to achieve company objectives. In other words, it is the company''s game plan. In the last 40 years, companies world-wide have embarked on the adoption, development and increased sophistication of long range and thereafter strategic planning processes (Leontiades, 1980). Strategic planning has been seen as an important mechanism facilitating organizational adaptation and integration. Regarding adaptation, the fit between the external and internal environment has been the primary concern for researchers (Bourgeois, 1980). As far as integration is concerned, (Armstrong, 1982) it has been emphasized that planning can ensure that "the various bits and pieces fit together". Consequently, academics and practitioners devoted special attention to the "pay-offs" of planning and as a result, a substantial number of studies have been carried out attempting to explore the relationship between planning and performance, more precisely financial performance (Thune and House, 1970; Ansoff, 1970; Lindsay, 1982). Positive, negative and neutral relations were found and this research domain has been criticised as both conceptually (King, 1983) and methodologically (Miller and Cardinal, 1994) inadequate.

At the same time there has been a shift from a unidimensional to a multidimensional perspective towards the conceptualization and the measurement of the planning process (Grinyer, 1986; Ramajunam, 1986; Ramajunam and Venkatraman, 1987; Veliyath and Shortell, 1993). As a result, a diverse view of the major dimensions or elements of strategic planning has become evident. For example, while Ramajunam and Venkatraman (1987) proposed six dimensions (functional coverage, use of techniques, attention to internal and external facets, resources provided and finally resistance to planning), Veliyath and Shortell (1993) used market research, planning implementation, key personnel involvement, staff planning assistance and innovativeness of strategies as the dimensions capturing the essence of strategic planning.

In a study on planning practices in the Greek shipping industry, Koufopoulos (2005) employed six dimensions that literature has suggested as adequate for capturing the essence of strategic planning (SP). These are planning formality, completeness, the internal and external orientation, the chief executive officer"s (CEO) involvement, centralization of the process, time horizon of planning and the frequency of reviewing the plans. For the purpose of this study, a detailed description of these dimensions is presented below:

Formality

Planning formality has been proposed as one of the most prominent characteristics of planning activity. Pearce (1987) notes that it involves explicit systematic procedures used to gain the involvement and commitment of those principal stakeholders affected by the plan. Various authors have conducted considerable research into the contextual factors that either favour or obstruct the development or adoption of formal planning. For example Caeldries and Van



www.srfe.journals.es

Dierdonck (1988) said that the two basic reasons that drive firms to employ a formal strategic planning system are those related to the problem of growth and of coordination. Grinyer (1986) found out that the employed strategy (diversification) and the internal organizational arrangements (divisionalization) are associated with planning formality.

Completeness

This dimension of planning concerns with the five steps of strategic management and planning that have been supported by descriptive literature (Montanari, 1990; Ginter, 1985). These steps are related to the existence of mission statements, the extent the company engages in a thorough internal and external analysis, the emphasis given to the establishment of objectives and strategies as well as on a number of implementation issues such as the establishment of performance measures and the existence of corrective procedures. Although several authors have used the word sophistication for describing the above steps or stages, Koufopoulos (2005) uses completeness as a terminology that is believed to be more representative and accurate.

Internal orientation

Duncan (1972) described the internal environment as those relevant physical and social factors within the boundaries of the organization or specific decision unit that are taken directly into consideration in the decision-making behaviour of individuals in that system.

Previous studies (Ansoff, 1965; Steiner, 1979) have referred to this step as a "situation audit" or "appraisal". Ramajunam (1986) argued that for the analysis of past performance, careful examination of current strengths and weaknesses and performance shortfalls are important internal issues, which should be considered throughout any planning endeavours.

External orientation

Duncan (1972) described the external environment as those relevant physical and social factors outside the boundaries of the organization or specific decision unit that are taken directly into consideration. Bourgeois (1980) proposed that the external environment can be perceived in two layers; the task and the general environment. The task environment includes suppliers, customers and competitors, affecting the daily operations of an organization. The general environment has to do with political, economic, social and technological trends. The external environment is a vital part because it can create both opportunities and threats to an organization, and it has been shown to affect to a great extent the processes of the firm, its structure and the managerial decision making.

Chief Executive Officer's participation in planning

The relevant literature has strongly emphasized that without the active support of the chief executive, planning cannot get off the ground (Lenz and Lyles, 1985). Thus, it is of great importance for any successful planning system to have the active and much needed support of the chief executive as early as possible in order to achieve accurate and implementable plans (Vancil, 1970). Various studies conducted in the past portrayed a substantial variation regarding the CEO's involvement in the planning process (Bhatty, 1981; Boulton, 1982).

Planning responsibility and centralization

With this dimension, the level of planning responsibility of each one of the management levels is intended to be identified (board of directors, chief executive, senior executives, planning



www.srfe.journals.es

committee, middle/lower managers, external consultants) along with the centralization of the planning process around the CEO. Kukalis (1991) suggests that in a complex environment, top management takes more responsibility for strategic planning whereas in a relatively simple environment the corporate planning staff has a higher level of participation. Yasai-Ardekani and Haug (1997) concede that competitive pressures which may exist in the environment require a greater CEO involvement in the strategic planning process compared to that of top and line management. Line management involvement allows the organization to deal more efficiently with competitive pressures while CEO's and top management's involvement assures greater control over the organization's central direction (Grinyer, 1986).

Planning horizon

Ewing (1972) argued that the utterly essential dimension of planning is time, yet time is the one dimension of planning that never gets discussed. It is treated as if it were a constant that everyone understands. Das (1987) noted that the notion of planning for a specific slice of the future time zone is of course the basis for what is usually known as the planning period or planning horizon in an organization.

Planning horizon comprises the basis for allocation of corporate resources and the coordination of long-range and short-range planning. Nevertheless, considerable differences in opinion exist within the literature regarding the length indicated by long-range time horizon (Sapp and Seiler, 1981; Kudla, 1982; Denning and Lehr, 1971; Schollhammer, 1970; Lindsay and Rue, 1980). Kukalis (1991) indicate that in complex environments strategic plans should have shorter time horizons. Lindsay and Rue (1980) concede that in highly competitive environments, it is more difficult to adopt long-term planning horizons. In benign environments, it is more feasible to specify long-term horizons because both the competitors' actions and changes in market share are more predictable. At least six significant organizational factorsexist according to Harrison (1995) that determines the time horizon an organization needs to plan into the future. These are: product life cycle, technological change, lead time, presentvalue, organization life cycle, validity of planning premises.

Additionally, Harrison (1995) suggests that planning horizon is also strongly related to both the capability and the willingness of the members of the top management to establish temporal boundaries since individuals operate within a context of bounded rationality. The limiting factors that exist in this context are: cognitive limitations, risk avoidance, time and cost constraints and lack of effective communication.

Revision

Among planners it is well known that plans are not written, they are re-written (Koufopoulos and Peattie, 2000). Boulton (1982) argued in favour of this planning dimension by saying that determining the company's performance against its plan requires some form of review process which allows management to evaluate progress towards the achievement of its objectives. Plans which are not reviewed often end up dormant in the planner's file.

Organizational development (OD)

Scholars have always conceptualized organizational development in its broadest sense to include the process of change management. For instance, Beckhard (1969) defined OD as a planned change effort involving systematic diagnosis of the total organization that is managed from the top



www.srfe.journals.es

to increase organizational effectiveness and health of the overall system. This approach to managing and developing organizations is also echoed by French and Bell (1995) who advocated for empowerment through the articulation of the change agent"s values designed to facilitate visioning, organizational learning and problem solving in the interests of a collaborative management of the organization"s culture.

According to Berry and Houston (1993) OD is a program of planned interventions. Specifically, OD should improve the internal operations of organizations by opening up communication, by decreasing internal destructiveness such as win — lose conflicts, and by increasing creativity in problem solving. OD includes diagnosing the organizations current functioning, planning interventions for improvements, mobilizing resources to put the plan into action and evaluating the effects.

Just as strategic planning, OD can also be traced to the Second World War. As OD developed its approaches in the 1960s, the idea of organizational health became paramount. Diagnosing the dysfunctions was the key to re-establishing equilibrium. But this meant that a problem had to be identified first by someone in a strategic position who "really feels the needfor change" and where somebody or something is "hurting" (Beckhard, 1969).

Although there were differences in style by the 1970s, it was reasonable to assume that OD represented a planned program involving a holistic, systemic approach related to the organization's mission, planned from the top downwards, representing a long-term linear effort to change the organization through behavioural science interventions and involving collective action. Thus, OD activities are distinguished from a training course or a management workshop because instead of producing knowledge, skill, or understanding to individuals, the group or team takes ownership and builds the connections and follow-up activities aimed toward action programs (Beckhard, 1969). Although processes, procedures, ways of working and so on do undergo change in organization development programs, the major targets of change are the attitudes, behaviours, and performances of people.

OD interventions have been evolving with new approaches to management. In the past, management perspectives have evolved from the classical viewpoint, to a humanistic perspective, and then subsequently to a management science perspective, systems theory, contingency views, total quality management and culminated with the learning organization paradigm (Daft, 2000). In the latest development, the learning organisations "will be led by managers who can effectively challenge conventional wisdom, manage the organization"s knowledge base, and make needed changes" (Robbins and Coulter, 2002: 47). The new management paradigm focuses on continuous improvement and innovation in the way work is done. Garvin (1993:78) declares, "Continuous improvement requires a commitment to learning". As Robbins and Coulter (2002:47) put it, "many of the past management guidelines and principles — created for a world that was more stable and predictable — no longer apply. Successful organizations of the twenty-first century must be able to learn and respond quickly". Moreover, according to Bennett and O'Brien (1994:41), "to survive and prosper on the white- water ride into the twenty-first century, we must adopt a new way of managing that is based on our organizations" capacity to learn and change — consciously, continuously and quickly.

In this regard, organizational development is no longer a preserve for top management alone. Hunger and Wheelen (2002) assert that people at all levels, not just top management need to be

 The Spanish Review of Financial Economics SRIFE
St. BREAT AFFIN

www.srfe.journals.es

involved: scanning the environment for critical information, suggesting changes to strategies and programmes to take advantage of environmental shifts and working with othersto continuously improve work methods, procedures and evaluating techniques. These are successful ingredients to any OD process.

By the 1990s, it was possible to identify the specific themes of OD as personal development and organizational learning, analyses based more on meanings informed by newer methodological approaches (such as symbolic interactionism, discourse analysis) than simply systems, concerns with ethical and green issues, and so on. Many of these haveemerged as a result of thinking and further developments in the social sciences concerned with critical analyses of culture, politics, and methodological debates with an increased focus on language. In general, successful OD interventions were said to rotate around the following:

- The need to change a managerial strategy,
- The need to change "cultural" norms,
- The need to change structure and roles,
- The need to improve intergroup collaboration,
- The need to open up the communications system,
- The need for better planning,
- The need for coping with problems of mergers,
- The need for change in motivation of the workforce, and
- The need for adaptation to a new environment.

Summary

A classical model of OD was proposed by Kurt Lewin (1951). Lewin described organizations as systems held in steady state, or "equilibrium", by equal and opposing forces. On the one hand, there exists a range of driving forces — pressures for change including for instance, competitive pressures, the dispersion of new technology, innovation and creativity from within the organization, and new legislation governing such things as business practices, environmental concerns, and employee rights at work. Counter balancing these driving forces, Lewin argued, are a number of resisting forces including established custom and practice in the enterprise, trade union agreements and the organization"s culture and climate.

As a result, Lewin asserted that any organization change process can be conceived as affecting a move in the equilibrium position towards a desired or newly established position. He proposes a three stage process of change implementation — unfreeze, change, refreeze. It is assumed that in order to unfreeze the system one must first investigate the myriad of resisting forces. Any premature and unilateral increase in driving forces for change will meet with an equal and opposite increase in resisting forces. Once these resisting forces have been minimized, then change can be implemented and the equilibrium position modified towards the desired balance position. For the change to become routinized in the day to day practice in the organization, refreezing the organizational system is important. Here, a number of strategies for refreezing the organizational system are called for in order to reinforce the change process. Such strategies include motivation, rewards and quality working conditions among others.

Lewin"s model, however, does not hint at the underlying strategic orientation of the change process. Chin and Benne (1976) went a little further to highlight three major strategies inOD

 01 2022	The Spanish Review of Financial Economics SRFE
	SR

www.srfe.journals.es

intervention: rational-empirical, normative-reducative and power-coercive. In the first, organizational change and development are seen as a process of rational persuasion as to the benefits of the change process for those affected by it. Once these paybacks have been communicated, it is assumed that any resistance will automatically be minimized. Strategy planning in OD is therefore a process of communicating the benefits of change to rational individuals motivated primarily by self interest. The second assumes a model of rational individuals as employees but acknowledges the existence of socio-cultural norms in the organization. Here, change is about challenging established values, beliefs, attitudes and norms, and about re-educating employees into the new methods of working or techniques of production. The last strategy conceives OD as a process of imposition of legitimate authority. Here, a planned change process is stage managed and implemented by top management with a little or no participation from other organizational constituencies. Wayner and Mason (1998) summed up all the above OD interventions in their "matrix" as shown in the figure below.

Organizational Development Matrix

The matrix is a holistic change management strategy that involves all aspects of organizational life. These include:

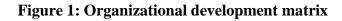
- Mission and vision statements;
- Corporate objectives, goals and aims;
- Market research;
- Audit of internal and external environments;
- Marketing objectives and strategies;
- Action plan;
- Monitoring and evaluation.

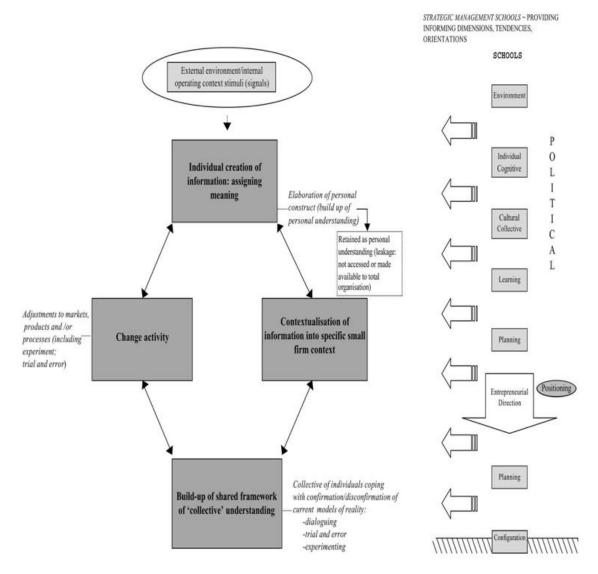
Today, much of the former environmental stability has vanished. In its wake has come a competitive and volatile global marketplace in which the duration for responding to changing customer needs and other stakeholder expectations has been radically shortened. As such, corporate entities need logical frameworks for confronting such instability. One such approach is the strategic planning process. Berry (1998) found that successful companies, even in the turbulent environment of high-tech industries, do use strategic planning to direct their long term growth and development.

Strategy planning is therefore necessary to carry out successful organizational development. It includes carrying out organizational analysis to establish areas of need that have to be changed or improved. Once this has been done, strategic objectives are formulated and the best method of implementation established. Lewin's three stage process of freeze, change and refreeze is then adopted to implement the new organizational outlook.

- 01 2022	The Spanish Review of Financial Economics SRFE
	SE SEXTAFTIN

www.srfe.journals.es





Source: Wyer and Mason (1998) METHODOLOGY

The research design for the study was the survey design. This design was deemed appropriate in that it provides accurate descriptive analysis of characteristics of a sample which can be used to make inferences about the population (Poplam, 1967; Kerlinger, 1973). Similarly, the survey method is an effective method of gathering data from a larger group of respondents and also facilitates the organization of data in an orderly way.

The study was carried out in all the academic and non-academic departments of Moi University. Respondents comprised the administrative assistants, heads of departments, (HOD's) units and sections, administrative officers, deans and members of university management.

 The Spanish Review of Financial Economics SRFE
Sterner AFFIN

www.srfe.journals.es

The sampling techniques that were used in this study are stratified sampling, simple random sampling and purposive sampling. Stratified sampling was used to get respondents in the lower, middle and top level of university management. The simple random sampling technique was then used to select the administrative assistants, heads of departments, units, sections, administrative officers and deans to be involved in the study. Stratified sampling ensures that all subgroups are equally represented (Onen and Oso, 2005), while simple random sampling ensures that all members of a population have an equal chance of being selected for the study, Mugenda (1999). Purposive sampling was used to obtain respondents from the university management who included the vice chancellor, deputy vice chancellors, chief administrative officers and the principal, Chepkoilel Campus (now the University of Eldoret). According to Onen et al. (2005), purposive sampling allows the researcher to look for respondents that will give him particular information necessary for research. The total populationfor the study was 350 people whereas the sample size was 180 respondents as shown in table1 below.

Data analysis was done using the computer programme, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Frequencies and percentages were used to analyze the obtained information, which was then summarized and presented using tables. The tabulated results were further presented in cross-tabulated form. The purpose was to separate lower management and middle level management responses so that their distinctive attitudes could be analyzed and discussed on account of their similarities or differences.

Campus	Population	Sample
MAIN CAMPUS	•	
University Managers	6	3
H.O.D"s, Managers, Deans,	246	121
Administrative Assistants	26	15
CHEPKOLEL CAMPUS (Now UoE)		
University Managers	3	1
H.O.D"s, Managers, Deans,	24	15
Administrative Assistants	5	2
TOWN CAMPUS		
University Managers	-	-
H.O.D"s, Managers, Deans,	37	20
Administrative Assistants	3	1
ELDORET WEST CAMPUS		
University Managers	-	-
H.O.D"s, Managers, Deans,	1	1
Administrative Assistants	1	1
TOTALS	353	180

Table 1: Showing the sampling frame used in the research

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Objective 1: To establish the role of strategic planning on Organizational Development

In order to address this objective, respondents were asked to rate their responses on how strategic planning affects various "soft" aspects of Organizational Development operationalized to include enhancing efficiency and coordination, re-inventing organizational culture and change

www.srfe.journals.es



management. Responses for each element are discussed below:

Enhancing Efficiency and Coordination

In this case, 1(0.6%) rated to no extent, 32 (17.8%) rated to a low extent, 99 (55%) rated to a high extent while 48 (26.7%) rated to a very high extent. From this, there is a combined high rating of 147(81.7%). This shows that most of the respondents are of the opinion that strategic planning enhances efficiency and coordination to a high extent hence an important tool for organizational development. Table 1 shows respondents rating on enhancing efficiency & coordination.

Table 1: Ratings on	enhancing efficiency	v and	coordination
	······································	,	

		Frequency	%	Valid Percent	CumulativePercent
Valid	to no extent	1	.6	.6	.6
	to a low extent	32	17.8	17.8	18.3
	to a high extent	99	55.0	55.0	73.3
	to a very high extent	48	26.7	26.7	100.0
	Total	180	100.0	100.0	

Managing Change

Concerning management of change, 1 (0.6 %) rated to no extent, 35 (19.4%) rated to a low extent, 88 (48.9%) rated to a high extent whereas 56 (31.1%) rated to a very high extent. In this case, most of the respondents rated to a high extent. This constitutes 48.9% of all the respondents. Similarly, 31.1% of all respondents rated to a very high extent. This shows that 80% of all respondents concur that strategic planning is important in managing organizational change as shown in table 2 below.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	CumulativePercent
Valid	to no extent	1	.6	.6	.6
	to a low extent	35	19.4	19.4	20.0
	to a high extent	88	48.9	48.9	68.9
	to a very high extent	56	31.1	31.1	100.0
	Total	180	100.0	100.0	

Table 2: Ratings on Managing Change

Re-inventing Organizational Culture

For this aspect, respondents rated 9 (5.0%) to no extent, 94 (52.2%) rated to a low extent, 50 (27.8%) rated to a high extent and 27 (15.0%) rated to a very high extent. This implies that reinventing organizational culture as an aspect of organizational development may not be significantly achieved as shown in table 3 below.

Table 3: Ratings on Re-inventing Organizational Culture

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	CumulativePercent
Valid	to no extent	9	5.0	5.0	5.0
	to a low extent	94	52.2	52.2	57.2
	to a high extent	50	27.8	27.8	85.0
	to a very high extent	27	15.0	15.0	100.0
	Total	180	100.0	100.0	

Objective 2: To find out the extent to which the current strategic plan has influenced Organizational Development in Moi University.



www.srfe.journals.es

In order to address this objective, respondents were asked to rate their responses on how strategic planning affects various "hard" aspects of Organizational Development operationalized to development of new products and services, restructuring and expansion. Responses for each element are discussed below:

Development of new products and services

For this feature of organizational development, respondents rated 2(1.1%) to no extent, 98(54.4%) to a low extent, 72(40.0%) to a high extent and 8(4.4%) to a very high extent. From these responses, most of the respondents rated to a low extent, 98(54.4%). however, this is slightly above average, meaning that the 72(40.0%) rating to a high extent is also significant. This shows that according to the respondents, development of new products, services or programmes will be achieved to a low extent as shown in table 4 below.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	CumulativePercent
Valid	to no extent	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
	to a low extent	98	54.4	54.4	55.6
	to a high extent	72	40.0	40.0	95.6
	to a very high extent	8	4.4	4.4	100.0
	Total	180	100.0	100.0	

Table 4: Ratings on development of new products, services or programmes

Restructuring

For this aspect of organizational development, respondents rated 5 (2.8%) to no extent, 90 (50.0%) to a low extent, 76 (42.2%) to a high extent and 9 (5.0%) to a very high extent. This implies that restructuring is not likely to be achieved to any significant extent as shown in table 5 below.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	CumulativePercent
Valid	to no extent	5	2.8	2.8	2.8
	to a low extent	90	50.0	50.0	52.8
	to a high extent	76	42.2	42.2	95.0
	to a very high extent	9	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	180	100.0	100.0	

Table 5: Ratings on Restructuring

Expansion

On this aspect respondents rated 10 (5.6%) to no extent, 76 (42.2%) to a low extent, 71 (39.4%) to a high extent and 23 (12.8%) to a very high extent. This implies that expansion is likely to be realized significantly. The combined high for this aspect is 94 (52.2%) as shown in table 6 below.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	CumulativePercent
Valid	to no extent	10	5.6	5.6	5.6
	to a low extent	76	42.2	42.2	47.8
	to a high extent	71	39.4	39.4	87.2
	to a very high extent	23	12.8	12.8	100.0
	Total	180	100.0	100.0	

Table 6: Ratings on expansion



Summary of Findings

In order to summarize the extent to which the current Moi university strategic plan is likely to influence organizational development, respondents were asked to rate their responses on the same. 94 (52.2%) of the respondents rated to a low extent, 1 (0.6%) was undecided, 75 (41.7%) rated to a high extent and 10 (5.6%) rated to a very high extent. The combined high in this case is 85 (47.3%). It is still way below 94 (52.2%) rating for low extent. As a result, a majority of respondents believed that the current strategic plan is not likely to influence university organizational development to any significant extent as shown in table 7 below.

Majority of the respondents attributed this level of Organizational Development to other factors such as weak policy framework, corruption, inadequate finances and lack of goodwill and cooperation from quarters likely to be affected by the strategic plan.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	CumulativePercent
Valid	to a low extent	94	52.2	52.2	52.2
	undecided	1	.6	.6	52.8
	to a high extent	75	41.7	41.7	94.4
	to a very high extent	10	5.6	5.6	100.0
	Total	180	100.0	100.0	

Table 7: Ratings on the extent of influence of current SP on University OD

Recommendations

The researcher made the following recommendations as a way of improving strategic planning and organizational development at Moi University.

- 1. The university should adopt the decentralized approach to strategic planning. This will give the departments and schools an opportunity to utilize the expertise and experience that they have to effectively address the many challenges facing them.
- 2. The strategic planning process should involve all principal stakeholders who will be affected by the plan. In this case, the process should be an all-inclusive exercise. This will create awareness of the existence of the plan among the members of Moi university fraternity and this will translate into a sense of ownership and support for the plan during its implementation.
- 3. Strategic plans covering shorter durations are more result oriented than plans covering longer periods of time. This is because such plans tend to be more detailed and focused and do not require very huge finances. They are also flexible and can be revised from time to time in response to emerging issues.
- 4. There is need to harmonize departmental and school strategic plans with the overall university strategic plan. This will produce a comprehensive master plan devoid of areas of conflict. This will result in a common vision that will drive all the organs of the university in a common direction.
- 5. There is need to enhance the quality assurance department to help in the continuous improvement of products, services and programmes to enable the university to compete effectively in a liberalized education sector.
- 6. More collaboration need to be forged with other institutions of higher learning, private



www.srfe.journals.es

organizations, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO"s), international funding institutions and the government on areas of common interest in order to better the image of the university regionally and internationally.

7. The curriculum need to be reviewed to ensure that the courses being offered in all schools are relevant in order for the university to produce graduates who are not onlyself-reliant but are also capable of competing favourably in the domestic and international job market.

References

- 1. Armstrong, M. (2003) Human Resource Management Practice, Kogan Page Limited, LondonBenet, R. (1997) Organizational Behaviour, Pearson Professional Limited, London.
- 2. Black, S.A., Porter, L.J. (1996), Identification of the critical factors of TQM, Decision Sciences, Vol. 27 No.1, pp.1-21.
- 3. Brown, J. (1997), Achieving peak-to-peak performance using QS-9000, IIE Solutions, Vol. 29 No.1, pp.34-9.
- 4. Burke, W.W. (1994), Diagnosis for Organizational Change, Guidford Press, New York.
- 5. Cressey, P, Jones, B (1995), Work and Employment in Europe: A New Convergence, Routledge, and London. Desler, G. (2003) Human Resource Management, Pearson Education Inc, New Jersey
- 6. Flamholtz, E., Geis, G. (1984), The Development and Implementation of a Replacement cost Model for Measuring Human Capital: a Field Study, Personnel Review (UK), Vol. 13 No.2, pp.25-35.
- 7. Greenley, E.G. (1989) Strategic Management, Prentice Hall International UK Ltd, Hertfordshire
- 8. Hansson, B. (1997), Personnel investments and abnormal return: knowledge-based firms and humanresource accounting, The Journal of Human Resource Costing and Accounting, Vol. 2 No.2, pp.9-29.
- 9. Hermanson. R.H. (1986), Accounting for human assets, Business Publishing Division, College of Business Administration, Georgia State University, Atlanta.
- 10. Institute of Personnel, Development (1995), People make the difference, IPD position paper, IPD,London.
- 11. Kirrane, E.D (1994), wanted: Flexible Work Arrangements, Association Management, Vol. 46 No.11, pp.38.
- 12. Koch, M.J, McGrath, R.G (1996), Improving labor productivity: human resource management policies do matter, Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 17 pp.335-54.
- 13. Legge, K. (1995), Human Resource Management: Rhetoric and Realities, Macmillan, London.
- 14. Lei, D, Slocum, J.W, Pitts, R.A (1999), Designing organizations for competitive advantage: the power of unlearning and learning, Organizational Dynamics, pp.24-9.
- 15. Moi University Strategic Plan 2005 2015
- 16. Mugenda M. and Mugenda G. (1999) Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approach, ActsPress, Nairobi.
- 17. Mullins, J.L. (1985) Management and Organizational Behaviour, Pitman Publishing, London
- 18. Myers, M.S., Flowers, 1974), A framework for measuring human assets, California Management Review, Vol. 16 pp.5-16.
- 19. Pollard, S. (1965), the Genesis of Modern Management, Edward Arnold, London. Porter, M.E (1980)), Competitive Strategy, Free Press, New York.
- 20. Roberts, S (1996), Employers see value in work/family benefits, Business Insurance, Vol. 30 No.27, pp.3. Sagimo, P.O. (2002) Management Dynamics, East Africa Educational Publishers, Nairobi

01 2022	The Spanish Review of Financial Economics SRFE
	SR

www.srfe.journals.es

- 21. Sisson, K. (1995), Personnel management: paradigms, practice and prospects, in Sisson, K. (Eds), Personnel Management, Blackwell, Oxford.
- 22. Tokesky, G.C., Kornides, J.F (1994), Strategic HR management is vital, Personnel Journal, Vol. 73No.12, pp.115-18.
- 23. Ulrich, D, Lake, D. (1990), Organizational Capability: Competing from the Inside out, Wiley, New York.