

**DETERMINANTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING IN THE KENYAN
GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS: A CASE STUDY OF NATIONAL SOCIAL
SECURITY FUND (NSSF)**

BY

JOAN CHEBET SOI

REG.NO: D53/CTY/PT/23191/2011

**A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS IN
PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE
DEGREE OF MASTERS IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION (STRATEGIC
MANAGEMENT OPTION).**

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY.

DECEMBER, 2013

DECLARATION

I declare that this is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

Signature.....

Joan C. Soi

Date

REG.NO. D53/CTY/PT/23191/2011

This research project is submitted for examination with my approval as the university supervisor.

Signature.....

PhilipWambua

Date

School of Business

Kenyatta University

For and on behalf of Kenyatta University

Signature.....

Muathe S. M. A (PhD)

Date

Chairman,

Department of Business Administration

School of Business

Kenyatta University

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late dad Mr. Samuel Soi, my mum Mrs. Bornice Soi and my daughter Britney for their perseverance, support and encouragement. They all understood and wished me well.

To my siblings and very close friends who helped me in various ways, I do also dedicate this work to you. May God bless you All.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research proposal has been accomplished through encouragement, support and contributions from a number of people to whom I am greatly indebted. Many thanks to Almighty God, My supervisors, Mr.PhilipWambua and Ms. Lucy Kavinda for their support and guidance, my family for their contributions and always being there for me and to all my classmates and friends for the teamwork and encouragements we shared.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Mentoring- is a learning partnership between employees for purpose of sharing technical information, institutional knowledge and insight with respect to a particular occupation, profession, organization or endeavor (Kram, 2007).

Organizational culture- it is the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 1992).

Organizational learning- It is a dynamic process of creation, acquisition and integration of knowledge aimed at the development of resources and capabilities that contribute to better organizational performance (Lopez, et al., 2005).

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

HRM:	Human Resource Management
ICT:	Information Communication Technology
NPM:	New Public Management
NSSF:	National Social Security Fund
OL:	Organizational learning
PDSA:	plan-do-study-action
PE:	Public Enterprises
SPC:	statistical process control
SPSS:	Scientific Package for Social Science
TQM:	Total Quality Management

ABSTRACT

Organizational learning(OL) is increasingly being adopted by many organizations in today's fast-paced, highly competitive work world to explore ways to design organizations so that they fulfill their functions effectively, encourage people to reach their full potential, and, at the same time, give their organizations the edge it needs to survive thereby keep fulfilling their purpose. The main objective of the study was to research on the determinants of organizational learning in Kenyan government institutions with specific reference to National Social Security Fund (NSSF). The study was guided by the following specific objectives; to determine the role of leaders in organizational learning in the Kenyan government institutions, to examine the effects of organizational culture on organizational learning, to find out how the management of human resources affects organizational learning and to establish the impact of politics on organizational learning in the Kenyan government institutions. The study reviewed the theories of organizational learning focusing mainly on the Greve's theory, single and double-loop learning theory, learning theories as well the empirical literature relevant to the study. Descriptive design was used in collecting the data from respondents because it ensures complete description of the situation, making sure that there is minimum bias in the collection of data. A sample of one hundred and twenty one (121) respondents consisting of senior management, departmental and operational staff of the organization from the two NSSF branches in Nairobi City was chosen. Questionnaires was used for collecting data containing mainly closed ended questions to the sample respondents thus ensuring that each respondent received the same set of questions in exactly the same way. The study used mainly primary data collected from the questionnaires. The data collected was first checked for errors, coded and then analyzed using Ms Excel and SPSS. Data collected and analyzed were presented in various formats such as charts, graphs and tables. The findings indicate that all the variables, that is, leadership, organizational culture, management of human resources and politics despite their level of influence or effect on organizational learning, are significant. It is also established that the organization does not conduct continual evaluation of knowledge and it lacks knowledge repository which are strategic resources for any organization. The study also established that mentoring programs are not fully established in the organization. Hence, it recommends that top management in NSSF and other government institutions are required to provide the right organizational environment that allows the development of individuals, groups and teams to learn. Also the organizational structure should allow systems and procedures to direct and motivate behaviour towards organizational learning. In addition, there is need to invest in knowledge management and development of mentoring programs guided by a clear vision and strategy in order to enhance organizational learning in the institution.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	v
ABSTRACT	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.1.1 Organizational Learning	2
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	5
1.3 Objectives of the Study	6
1.3.1 Specific Objectives	6
1.4 Research Questions	6
1.5 Significance of the Study	6
1.6 Scope of the Study	7
1.7 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study	7
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.1 Theoretical Review	8
2.1.1 Greve’s Theory	8
2.1.2 Single and Double-loop Learning Theory	8
2.1.3 Learning theories	10
2.2 Empirical Review.....	11
2.2.1 Management of Public enterprises in Kenya and organizational learning	11
2.2.2 Leadership and Organizational Learning	12
2.2.3 Organizational Culture and Organizational Learning	16

2.2.4	Management of human resources and organizational learning	21
2.2.5	Organizational Politics and organizational learning.....	27
2.3	Summary and Gaps to be filled by the Study	30
2.4	Conceptual Framework.....	30
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY		32
3.1	Introduction.....	32
3.2	Research Design.....	32
3.3	Target Population.....	32
3.4	Sampling and Sampling Procedures	33
3.4.1	Sample size.....	33
3.5	Data Sources and Instruments.....	34
3.5.1	Validity of research instrument	34
3.5.2	Reliability of research instrument.....	34
3.7	Data Analysis and Presentation	35
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION ...		36
4.1	Introduction	36
4.2	Reliability test	36
4.3	Demographic Information.....	36
4.3.1	Gender and age of respondents.....	36
4.3.2	Level of education.....	37
4.2.3	Years of experience.....	38
4.2.4	Respondents category positions.....	39
4.3	Analysis of organizational learning in NSSF.....	39
4.4	Objective tests and analysis	40
4.4.1	Analysis of leadership and organizational learning.....	40
4.4.2	Analysis of organizational culture and organizational learning	42
4.4.3	Analysis of management of human resources and organizational learning	43
4.4.4	Analysis of organizational politics and organizational learning	44
4.5	Regression analysis	45
4.5.2	Coefficients of determination	46

CHAPTER FIVE:SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	48
5.1 Introduction	48
5.2 Summary of findings	48
5.3 Conclusions	50
5.4 Recommendations	51
5.5 Areas for further research.....	52
REFERENCES.....	53
APPENDIX I: INTRODUCTORY LETTER	58
APPENDIX 11: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE	59

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3. 1: Target population.....	33
Table 3. 2: Sample Size	33

Table 3.3: Cronbach’s Alpha	35
Table 4.3: Aspects of organizational learning	40
Table 4.4.1: Aspects of leadership	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Table 4.4.1.1: Leadership model summary	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Table 4.4.2: Aspects of organizational culture	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Table 4.4.2.1: Organizational culture model summary	43
Table 4.4.3: Aspects of management of human resources	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Table 4.4.3.1: Management of human resource model summary	44
Table 4.4.4: Aspects of politics	45
Table 4.4.4.1: Organizational politics model summary	45
Table 4.5.1: Model Summary	46
Table 4.5.2: Coefficients of determination	47

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework	30
Figure 4.2.1 Gender of respondents	37
Figure 4.3.2: Level of education	38
Figure 4.2.3: Years of experience	39

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study and the scope of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Huber (1991) considers four constructs that are linked integrally to organizational learning to include knowledge acquisition, information distribution, information interpretation, and organizational memory. According to him learning need not be conscious or intentional and it may not necessarily increase the learner's effectiveness, or even potential effectiveness. Furthermore, learning does not always result in observable changes in behavior. From a behavioral perspective, Huber (1991) posits that an entity learns if through its processing of information, the range of its potential behaviors is changed. Lane (2001) on the other hand, argues that “assumption of most organizational learning theory is that learning is socially constructed, that is, what is learned and how learning occurs are fundamentally connected to the context in which that learning occurs”. How the culture, or environment, of an organization functions is one of the influencing factors on the type of learning in that organization.

Likewise, Olsen and Peters (1996) point out that changing government agencies towards becoming learning organizations has long been seen as the answer to changing organizational environments, more so because of the large scale reforms in public management undertaken in advanced industrial countries from the 1980s onwards. Although, in their view the main barriers to organizational learning in public organizations still are: Resistance to change amongst public organizations; A modest capacity to alter behaviour and organizational structures; Loss of learning continuities can occur due to elections cycles and government successions; Learning tends to be done by trial and error, and yet government departments are often held harshly to account over ‘errors’ especially in the modern period. This is because governments ought to be successful in the eyes of the public, and this often changes official proclamations in favor of success despite the actual results.

Consequently, Olsen and Peters (1996) conclude that public organizations often get stuck into very incremental patterns of single loop learning, because of these types of socio-political and bureaucratic obstacles. Hence learning has oftenly been skewed towards extant organizational practices, existing tasks and processes. To offset such biasness new practices have to open up organizations to external influences and regular policy reviews, both of which can help government organizations to move towards more effective and ambitious learning. Organizations vary greatly in all aspects. Establishing an understanding of what influences organizational learning for the vast majority of organizations especially the public institutions is very important. This would allow governments and individuals in many different organizations to benefit from examining some key factors that would increase organizational learning in their setting.

1.1.1 Organizational Learning

The concept of organizational learning emerged in the 1980s, but their scientific background and principles goes back into many perspectives of management (Garratt, 1999). The idea of organizational learning is connected to the creation of the ‘action learning’ process which uses small groups, rigorous collection of statistical data, and the tapping of the group’s positive emotional energies (Garratt, 1999). This technique is also manifested in Deming and Juran’s quality control system using quality circles, SPC (statistical process control) and PDSA (plan-do-study-action).a

A number of studies which contributed positively to open up discussions and research on organizational learning and subsequently the popularity of the concept include; Argyris and Schon’s (1978) double-loop learning notion, Senge’s (1990) the ‘Fifth Discipline’ and Pedler, Burgoyne & Boydell (1991) learning company model. The canvass of organizational learning is thus a large one, but the focus of studies is restricted by the themes of looking at experience, struggling to capture and employ knowledge, so as to improve the organization’s performance. Vince and Saleem (2004) argue that: ‘Organizational learning therefore is seen as both a social and a political process. It happens with and through other people. It is relational by nature, and therefore there is a likelihood of conflict (Gherardi et al., 1998).’

Different scholars have given various definitions of organizational learning. According to Argyris (1977), organizational learning is a process of detecting and correcting error. In his view

organizations learn through individuals acting as agents for them. Probst and Büchel (1997) defined organizational learning as “the ability of the institution as a whole to discover errors and correct them and to change the organization’s knowledge base and values so as to generate new problem-solving skills and new capacity for action.” According to them, the following characteristics are performed in the process of learning: Change in organizational knowledge, increase in the range of possible actions and change in inter subjective constructions of reality. The definition of organizational learning of Fiol and Lyles (1985) means the process of improving actions through better knowledge and understanding.

DiBella and Nevis (1998) define organizational learning as the capacity or process within an organization to maintain or improve performance based on experience. In their perspective, organizational learning is a social process whereby some insight or knowledge created either by an individual working alone or by team, becomes accessible to others. Organizational learning also refers to the sum total of individual and collective learning through training programs, experience, and experimentation and work interactions within the organization. (Cook and Yanow, 1996) defines it as the acquisition, sustenance or changing of meanings shared by people through cultural devices and through the collective actions. Huysman (2000) focused it on collective knowledge construction by defining it as “the process through which an organization constructs knowledge or reconstructs existing knowledge”.

Garcia and Vano (2002) views it from individual but also stress to collective pattern, where they define organizational learning as a collective phenomenon in which new knowledge is acquired by the members of an organization with the aim of settling, as well as developing, the core competences in the firm, taking individual learning as the basic starting point. For Berends et al (2003), it is the development of knowledge held by organizational members that is being accepted as knowledge and is applicable in organizational activities, thus implying a potential change in those activities. According to Wilson F.M. (2004), organizational learning can be described as the aggregation of individual learning in an organizational context. He says organizations need to learn in order to transform in response to rapidly changing environmental conditions.

Common (2004) argues that in the public sector, organizational learning can be regarded as the ability of an organization to demonstrate that it can learn collectively by applying new knowledge to the policy process or innovation in policy implementation. Implementation also involves learning, through piloting innovative services and structures. Furthermore organizational learning can improve the policy-making capacity of government, whereas policy learning helps to explain what is learnt beyond the confines of government, and how it is learnt. It is a dynamic process of creation, acquisition and integration of knowledge aimed at the development of resources and capabilities that contribute to better organizational performance (Lopez, et al., 2005).

The quality of institutions in the public sector is influenced by various factors considering that public institutions are tasked with coordinating action and behaviour for the public interest, hence it is crucial to ensure that human resource capacities are properly aligned with the strategic objectives of government. The development of staff competencies is an essential part of a strategy to upgrade these capacities and consequently the quality of the public service (Shipton et.al, 2002). Suh (2002) concurs with the importance of managerial encouragement for the innovative thinking of the worker in the areas of planning, learning, and production

The National Social Security Fund (NSSF) was established in 1965 through an Act of Parliament Cap 258 of the Laws of Kenya. The Fund initially operated as a Department of the Ministry of Labour until 1987 when the NSSF Act was amended transforming the Fund into a State Corporation under the Management of a Board of Trustees. The National Social Security Fund is a friendly service organization which exists for the public good. It offers social protection to all Kenyan workers both in the formal and informal sectors.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Organizational learning and knowledge management are important to public sector organizations, which share complex external challenges with private organizations, but have different drivers and goals for knowledge. Organizational learning has been a long-running area of concern in the study of private sector firms; hence most of the defining concepts of the literature have been adopted from here (Easterby-Smith et al., 2000). Some of the factors that have been identified as influencing organizational learning include personal initiatives, positive personality traits, commitment to professional development; interest in the profession one is undertaking, self-efficacy. Other factors identified include love of learning, organization re-structures, and job redesign enhances the motivation for organizational learning (Lohman, 2005).

Shipton et al. (2002) investigated a private manufacturing company and found a positive relationship between organizational learning and approach to human capital and quality orientation. A European study by Sambrook and Stewart (2000) also showed that lack of motivation, extra work, unclear roles, lack of confidence, perception of role, insufficient learning culture, lack of innovation, lack of time, and lack of resources negatively impacted organizational learning. Rashman and Hartley (2002) in their review relating to public sector note that there is a considerable degree of consensus from the various authors that, ‘reviews of the literature, despite differences in approach, find four identifiable strands, that is, the problematic nature of defining and measuring organizational learning; the barriers to and enablers of such learning; the multi-level nature of organizational learning; and the nature of knowledge creation.’

The empirical studies show that the concepts of organizational learning and knowledge management are under-researched in relation to the public sector organizations. The studies also fail to show that there is a relationship between leadership, organizational culture, management of human resources and politics and organizational learning especially in public institutions. This study, therefore, aims to research on the determinants of organizational learning in the Kenyan Government institutions.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study was to establish the determinants of organizational learning in the Kenyan government institutions with specific reference to the National Social Security Fund (NSSF) two branches situated and operating in Nairobi.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives

- i. To determine how leadership affect organizational learning in the National Social Security Fund.
- ii. To examine the effects of organizational culture on organizational learning in the National Social Security Fund.
- iii. To find out how the management of human resources affect organizational learning in the National Social Security Fund.
- iv. To establish the impact of politics on organizational learning in the National Social Security Fund.

1.4 Research Questions

- i. To what extent do leaders affect organizational learning in National Social Security Fund?
- ii. What are the effects of organizational culture on organizational learning in National Social Security Fund?
- iii. How does management of human resources affect organizational learning in National Social Security Fund?
- iv. What is the impact of politics on organizational learning in National Social Security Fund?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The government as the regulator of the public sector and other policy makers within the public sector would greatly benefit with the findings of this study as they would be enlightened on the various aspects of organizational learning that influence the performance of the public or government institutions.

The study highlighted other important relationships that require further research; this would be in the areas of organizational learning and their impact on the performance of not only government institutions but also any other organization.

The results of this study are also valuable to other researchers and scholars, as it would form a basis for further research.

The study will be a source of reference material for future researchers on other related topics, that is, it would help other academicians who undertake the same topic in their studies as it will provide them a reference material.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study covered two National Social Security Fund offices within Nairobi City because of easy accessibility and easy data gathering in the area. The targeted population constituted the senior management, functional/departmental staff and operational staff.

1.7 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

Reluctance of respondents to provide information was a major challenge despite their assurance that their information will be treated with discrete and is entirely for educational purpose.

Time constraint was a major factor to the researcher, as the study required enough time in distribution, collection and analysis of questionnaires

Another major challenge was inadequate finances which the researcher tried to minimize costs by ensuring that there was proper budgeting in place and misappropriation of money was minimized.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the theoretical review of the study focusing on the Greve's theory, learning theories, single and double-loop learning theory as well the empirical literature relevant to the study. This is based on the four variables of the study namely leadership, organizational culture, management of human resources and organizational politics and their influence on organizational learning. Lastly, it presents the research gap and the conceptual framework for the study.

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.1 Greve's Theory

In Greve's model the key things that will influence organizational learning and other risk-taking activities like spending more on research and development, shifting business models, adopting new organizational structures and constantly seeking product innovations, will be the determinants of the organization's aspiration level and its performance (Greve, 2003). Various kinds of adaptive responses are feasible here that may offset organizational learning, especially in a situation where an organization continuously adjusts its aspiration level downwards in response to poor performance, rather than incurring the costs and risks of looking for new ways of carrying out its role. Greve points out that there are strong pressures on firms from simple organizational survival that may make them choose adaptive reductions of aspiration levels as a response to new environmental pressures (Greve, 2003).

2.1.2 Single and Double-loop Learning Theory

Organizational learning (OL), according to Argyris & Schon (1996) is a product of organizational inquiry. According to this theory, it means that whenever expected outcome and the actual outcome are not consistent, an individual or group will engage in inquiry to understand and, if necessary, solve this difference. The individual will interact with other members of the organization in the process of inquiry hence learning will take place. Learning is therefore a

direct product of this interaction. Argyris and Schon emphasize that this interaction frequently goes well beyond defined organizational rules and procedures. They have taken a technical view which assumes that organizational learning is about the effective processing, interpretation of, and response to, information both inside and outside the organization. This information may be quantitative or qualitative, but is generally explicit and in the public domain.

Three types of learning loops have been identified, that is, the single-loop learning, double loop and triple loop or strategic learning. Single loop learning is the most basic learning loop, and it occurs when organizations evaluate their processes to find out their performance level and then they search for ways of improving them (Argyris & Schon 1996). It often involves doing things right and frequently inquiring if they can be done in more productive ways, in a less expensive, and using alternative methods or approaches for the same objectives. Greve (2003) stresses that organizations will normally look for ways of solving a problem either in context of the problem itself, or by referring to the solution of a previous similar problem and find ways of applying to the problem at hand. This approach also stresses the importance of involving other staff within the organization, to look for solution to a problem, as there could be some with interest who have done some research and could be able to solve that problem.

Double loop learning focuses more on doing things better and goes beyond process monitoring of errors to ensure that the organization adopt new ways to improve their processes. In traditional government, it can be termed to be more of effectiveness, as it involves inquiring about whether outputs are well-directed towards achieving desired outcomes (Argyris & Schon 1996). The OL perspective has given this approach a distinct way, concentrating mostly on errors or the previous problems that have occurred and taking an appropriate action and making sure that this kind of error will not be experienced in the future again. Again the emphasis here will be on problemistic search; however the organization searches in a wider environment for solutions as they concentrate on understanding the sources of error or under-performance. In government organizations some authors have postulated that this type of OL could be restricted due to the influence of political class (Ranson and Stewart, 1994).

Triple loop learning focuses on defining or finding a strategic vision for an organization. The assumption in this approach is that people can only change their perception of their roles and activities by questioning underlying assumptions, principles, fundamental objectives and organizational beliefs. For instance, this might be the level where an organization more self-consciously chooses its aspiration level rather than simply operating with one that has been historically or conventionally accepted which is usually very hard in government parastatals because of this type of reflexive learning based on past experiences (Argrys & Schon, 1996).

According to Blank(2000), the idea of setting up infrastructures for learning in the departments and public sector agencies has been greatly embraced by most political parties, and there is no doubt that government sector organizations can be aware of previous learning strategies used and their influence on performance, as a result use this to come up with new strategies that will improve learning and knowledge in the future. However some authors assert that public sector organizations can only be single loop learners because the double and triple loops go beyond the control of one political leadership (Common, 2004).

2.1.3 Learning theories

According to these theories the process of individual learning has a significant impact on the concept and practices of organisational learning. The most widely recognized approaches to individual learning are the behavioral theory, cognitive theory, social cognitive theory, and Gestalt theory, purporting to a wide range of learning modes (Lipshirtz, 2000). In spite of their different approaches, the learning theories all stress the same principle of learning, that is, consequences, which is reward or punishment. It is widely accepted that reward is the single most important principle of learning (Luthans, 1998). The behavioral theory addresses consequences as a conditioned response of reinforcer, which presents a very high degree of reactivity in human learning. Cognitive and social cognitive theories stress the preparedness and anticipation of consequences, and forecast of consequences can change the pattern of behaviour and therefore impact the learning process (Lipshirtz, 2000). This shows a higher degree of activeness and even proactiveness in the learning process and reflects a large percent of the learning process in the organizational context. Programs, particularly in the early stage of

organizational development, were designed to strengthen the link between performance and reward. Reward affects learning and is linked to organizational performance. In the organizational context, a critical task to implement organizational learning is the enhancement of organizational absorptive capability, that is, the organizational memory, problem-solving and information-processing capability. Current organizational learning has incorporated diversified perspectives of people management, including motivation and empowerment, aiming at stimulating the enthusiastic participation and contribution of individuals, that is, it greatly values employee participation and involvement in decision making in organizations (DeNisi, 2000).

The learning theories address the environment as an important aspect in the learning process. In organizational environments, the learning context for instance, the structures, processes, and culture, among others has significant impact on the organizational learning process (Huber, 1996). It is commonly believed that internal factors such as a flat, teamwork structure, a bottom-up feedback system, a cross-functional team, flexible working processes, employee overall involvement and external factors such as networking and alliances contribute to the organizational learning process (Argyris and Schon, 1996). Hence, the study will be based on this theory.

2.2 Empirical Review

2.2.1 Management of Public enterprises in Kenya and organizational learning

Grosh (1996) examined the public enterprise system in Kenya and showed that, while average performance has indeed been poor, there has been a broad range of results, from excellent to very poor performances, and majority of the firms have managed to do well for long periods. Grosh uses four indicators, that is, profitability, efficiency, prices paid to suppliers, and consumer prices, to assess which firms performed well, which had problems, and when and why those problems developed. The study covered 1963-1988 where data is provided for seventeen firms in the agricultural sector, four in finance, seven in transport and communications, and five in development finance. In addition, thirty publicly owned manufacturing firms were compared with forty private ones. She concludes that neither privatization nor policies designed to bring firms and their managers under control, approaches gaining popularity with African

policymakers, is likely to solve the problems but adoption of modern strategic management techniques is the ultimate solution. However, she posits that most of the problems are susceptible to limited and feasible reforms, and that public enterprise performance can be improved (Grosh, 1996).

According to Gichunge (2006) on his study on the adoption of organizational learning and strategic management by medium enterprises in Kenya, found out that organizations with formal strategic management perform better than those without formal strategic management. The top management support and involvement is also very important in OL and implementation of formal strategic management in small and medium enterprises.

Nzuve (2012) on his study on Kenyan commercial banks established that development of information systems designed to inform and empower, formative accounting control, learning approach to strategy development, participative policy making, reward, flexibility and supportive leadership enhanced organizational learning and performance if it is adopted by many organizations. In conclusion, the study established that two thirds of the Kenyan banks had adopted the practices of the learning institution. The study also indicates that “there is a tendency for Kenyan commercial banks to focus on certain aspects of the learning organization instead of seeing the whole picture and focusing on the organization as a dynamic entity”. Interest in the organization learning has been stimulated by the need to attain sustainable competitive advantage and efficiency in the organizations (Nzuve, 2012).

2.2.2 Leadership and Organizational Learning

Many analysts and researchers have pointed out leaders’ essential role in fostering productive organizational learning. Levy (1990) contends that “leaders’ acquiring new information, ideas, understanding, values, beliefs and paradigms is the most methodologically satisfactory definition for organizational learning”. Argyris (2000) points out the essence of being practical by leadership to productive organizational learning when he wrote that ‘if leaders do not implement new learning systems and behaviors, it is doubtful that personnel below will possess the ability to

do so.' Marcus (2002) discusses a model of leader as teacher within an organization where he posits that some individuals are particularly productive learners because of their intelligence, unique past experiences, and/or privileged access to information due to their prominent role in the organization. They may be able to teach others and transform organizational routines, procedures and policies as a consequence of the usefulness and persuasiveness of their ideas, personal charisma, communicative abilities, and abilities to foster a cooperative and learning culture. Hence, it is clear that causal influences become much intertwined. Even when an organization manages to acquire and circulate useful information and knowledge, and its information processing systems provide unambiguous interpretations with clear behavior prescriptions for decision-makers, this knowledge may fail to influence organizational behavior in useful ways (Marcus, 2002).

Structural rigidities and inertia may prevent the organization from adopting new routines, procedures and policies that could improve the achievement of goals which has always been associated with government institutions. Organizations have significant costs in existing procedures, policies, technologies and personnel, and as Garvin (1993) observes, change usually has no constituency. Established procedures and policies reflect the interests of and are the product of, and, thus, are supported by powerful actors and coalitions. If organizational leaders perceive their interests threatened by new procedures and policies, they are less likely to be embraced (Yuki, 2002). When this occurs, some personnel and sub-divisions may acquire new information and understanding, but procedural, policy and paradigmatic change will not occur on the organizational level.

Maxwell's (1993) as cited in Fincham et al. (2005) definition of influence substantiates the effect a leader's influence can have within an organizational structure, particularly as it relates to lower level employees affecting organizational change. Maxwell states, "Leadership is influence". Peter Drucker, as cited in Goldsmith, Morgan, and Ogg (2004), states, "'the great majority of people tend to focus downward'. They are occupied with efforts rather than results. They worry over what the organization and their superiors owe them and should do for them". Goldsmith et al. (2004), state, "Organizations in all fields suffer when key employees cannot effectively

influence upper management". This shows the great influence leaders have in the organization thus influencing their ability to learn and their performance in the institution.

The process of changing the public sector in many developing countries will require action at every level of government, that is, from leaders themselves, from politicians, from human resource managers and from all those involved in public service delivery (DESA, 2005). While the concept of leadership may be understood differently in different cultures, it is generally seen as a process, consisting of a series of ongoing interactions between a leader and others (DESA, 2005). The influence power of leadership can also be manifested by their ability to motivate other people to do things, either in groups or involving a number of individuals and with a common purpose. This makes leadership skills very crucial for public servants (Maxwell, 1993).

According to DESA (2005), leaders can further facilitate organizational learning in the public service by focusing their efforts in three important areas; first, by spearheading participatory development of a vision for public sector reform; second, by motivating and bringing out the best in staff; and third, by encouraging more direct involvement of stakeholders in the implementation of reforms and thereby promoting greater responsiveness and accountability of public servants to the needs and concerns of citizens and clients in society. It is generally acknowledged that an important element in successful leadership of reform is vision. The vision, however, cannot be the product of one person; rather, it needs to be developed in partnership with staff and key stakeholders (Sadler, 2003).

Learning by doing is one of the most effective strategies for staff development (Pearce & Robinson, 2005). A shared vision must build on the individual visions of staff in the organization. Hence it is important for the employees to have a clear view of the bigger picture both in terms of the challenges facing the organization and where it is heading. Pearce and Robinson (2005), further asserts that what characterizes a leader is the ability to facilitate the development of a common vision that expresses the aspirations of both staff and key stakeholders with regard to where the organization wants to be in the future. To be effective, the vision needs to be persuasive, attractive and optimistic for all those who are part of the organization. In addition, it must be both challenging and feasible. The development of a shared

organizational vision can help to instill a culture of trust, collaboration, equity and democracy as well as a starting point for organizational change (Fincham et al., 2005).

Another key role of a leader initiating change and learning is to motivate staff by championing the values, norms and standards of the organization (DESA, 2005). The role of leadership by example is very critical as it indicates the transformational power of leadership when employees follow the example of a leader. This requires high-level skills combined with strong commitment and determination on the part of the organizational leadership (Armstrong, 2005). The learning process to succeed in public institutions also requires that leaders “walk the talk” and demonstrate through their own actions that they are committed to the reform agenda (Yuki, 2002). Subordinates are generally very observant about the behaviour of their managers, and they tend to copy their actions and make it their culture in the organization.

Leaders can also facilitate organizational learning and reform in the public service by creating an environment where citizens and stakeholders can have a free and direct interaction as well as involvement in the transformation of the public institutions (DESA, 2005). The responsive governance model is particularly relevant in this context which emphasizes a government that is open and responsive to civil society, more accountable and better regulated by external watchdogs and the law (Gastil, 1997). Governance models thus tend to focus more on incorporating and including citizens in all their stakeholder roles rather than simply satisfying customers. It stresses the importance of multiple forms of public accountability. It depicts diverse, complex forms of 360-degree accountability in which there are multiple stakeholders in both government and society, all of whom have a claim to be heard and answered (Yuki, 2002). By making public servants more accountable to citizens and stakeholders in society, leaders can foster a more responsive and efficient public service that learns faster and delivers better results for its clients.

The other area of influence in the organization is the Board of Directors. Tainio, Lilja, and Santalainen (2003) suggest, "Boards represent the interests of the firm's shareholders because they have the power to hire, fire, and compensate senior executives and to provide high level counsel. By performing these tasks, boards can facilitate or limit organizational learning". According to them, the insurgence of shareholders involvement is mainly due to the

mismanagement of many high profile companies in the 1990s. This insurgence in board activity and influence on organizations has prompted significant changes in organizational learning. In turn, the situation has redefined the role of boards in many organizations. They suggest, "There is actually a fine line between managing a company and contributing ideas for managing a company". Boards who have become more active do not manage the nitty-gritty of daily operation; they press organizations to maintain high standards, closely watch goals and planning, and take a more active role in management succession (Tainio et al., 2003).

In both transforming leadership and servant leadership, leaders not only have values, but they help followers develop their own values, which will hopefully overlap or be compatible with those of the organization (Zimmerliet al., 2007). This raises a concern in the Kenyan context. Several cases of unethical behaviour involving Kenyan leaders have been highlighted by the media. Leadership practice in the Kenyan context seems to unduly benefit the leaders. Leaders who are politically well-connected have been accused of promoting corrupt practices, nepotism and abuse of office. Thus, leadership in Kenya must therefore rise to the occasion and promote good leadership within and outside public organizations.

2.2.3 Organizational Culture and Organizational Learning

There is no single definition for organizational culture, some authors defines it as a set of understandings or meanings shared by a group of people that are largely tacit among members and are clearly relevant and distinctive to the particular group which are also passed on to new members (Louis 1980). A system of knowledge, of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and acting that serve to relate human communities to their environmental settings (Allaire and Firsirotu 1984). Deal and Kennedy (1982) defined organization's culture as" the way we do things here"

Another definition of organizational culture by Wuthnow and Witten (1988) is any social system arising from a network of shared ideologies consisting of two components: substance-the networks of meaning associated with ideologies, norms, and values; and forms-the practices whereby the meanings are expressed, affirmed, and communicated to members. In other words, culture is comprised of distinct observable forms, for example, language, use of symbols, ceremonies, customs, methods of problem solving, use of tools or technology, and design of

work settings that groups of people create through social interaction and use to confront the broader social environment (Wuthnow and Witten, 1988). This second view of culture is most applicable to the analysis and evaluation of organizational culture and to strategies of cultural that leaders can implement to improve organizational performance.

Schein (1988) defined it as the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. He characterized culture as consisting of three levels. The most visible level is behavior and artifacts which is the observable level of culture, and consists of behavior patterns and outward manifestations of culture, for instance, the perquisites provided to executives, dress codes, level of technology utilized, and the physical layout of work spaces. All may be visible indicators of culture, but difficult to interpret (Schein, 1988).

At the next level of culture is values which underlie and to a large extent determine behavior, but they are not directly observable, as behaviors are. Oftenly, there may be a difference between stated and operating values whereby, people will usually attribute their behavior to stated values. The deepest level of culture is the level of assumptions and beliefs. Schein (1988) contends that “underlying assumptions grow out of values, until they become taken for granted and drop out of awareness”. As the definition above states, people may be unaware of or unable to explain the beliefs and assumptions forming their deepest level of culture. "The culture of an organization defines appropriate behavior, bonds and motivates individuals, and asserts solutions where there is ambiguity. Culture influences and determines the way a company processes information, its internal relations, and its values. It functions at all levels from subconscious to visible "(Hampden-Turner, 1992).

Organizational cultures are usually created, maintained, or transformed by people and/ or organization's leadership (Moorhead & Griffin, 1995). They further asserts that leaders at the executive level are the principle source for the generation and re-infusion of an organization's ideology, articulation of core values and specification of norms. Organizational values express preferences for certain behaviors or certain outcomes, that is, the aspirations. Organizational norms express the culturally acceptable behaviors, for instance, ways of pursuing goals. Values and norms, once transmitted through the organization, establish the permanence of the

organization's culture. Value systems tends to be reinforcing, once they are in place, to change them is very difficult hence requires a lot of effort and time (Barney, 2000). According to Armstrong (2005), organizational culture is the pattern of values, norms beliefs, attitudes and assumptions that may not have been articulated but shape the ways in which people behave and things get done in an organization.

It has been established that the quality of the organizational culture matters greatly for institutional performance and organizational learning (Schein, 1992). Yet with culture influenced by many factors, including social values and norms, the leadership qualities of senior public officials and more generally the HRM policies that have been put in place in the public service, the answers as to how to improve the quality of the organizational culture are numerous (DESA, 2005).

Learning does not necessarily take place only in the minds of individuals, but rather “stems from the participation of individuals in social activities” (Gherardi and Nicolini, 2001). The central concept of research into organizational learning is the concept of ‘organizational culture’, because it highlights the context within which learning occurs, and it provides the framework for understanding how the outcomes of past learning become ingrained in organizational norms and routines (Common, 2004). It has been stated that creating lasting organizational change is inextricably linked with culture change (Manring, 2003). According to social scientists, behaviour is a function of the meaning of a given situation. Participants in social events bring to them preconceived meanings and stereotypes, which can be understood only in a historical and cultural context. Organizational climate and culture scholars have been concerned with how the sense-making process, the filtration, processing and attachment of meaning in organizations occurs (Schneider, 2000). Sense-making is an emerging process which to some extent institutionalised. Shared cognition has been argued to play an important role in understanding organizational issues (Weick, 2001).

Organizational culture holds intense implications upon the organizations who wish to increase their effectiveness through organizational learning. Burke (1985) quotes Schein who theorizes that organizational culture is the "basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic 'taken for granted' fashion an

organization's view of it and its environment". These assumptions and beliefs are learned responses to a group's problems of internal integration. They come to be taken for granted because they solve those problems repeatedly and reliably. "This deeper level of assumptions is to be distinguished for the 'artifacts' and 'values' that are manifestations or surface levels of culture, but not the essence of the culture" (Burke, 1992).

Robbins et al. (2009) gives a number of functions of culture in organizations. First, it creates distinction between one organization and others. Second, it conveys a sense of identity for organization members. Third, culture facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than one's individual self-interest. Fourth, it enhances the stability of the social system, that is, culture is the social 'glue' that helps hold the organization together by providing appropriate standards for what employees are expected say and do. Finally, it serves as a sense making and control mechanism that guides and shapes the attitudes and behaviors of employees.

Developing organizational culture that values learning, growth, and knowledge sharing must be properly established in order to promote organizational learning (Goldsmith et al, 2004).An organization that desires to foster creativity and innovation should instill a work culture that encourages learning hence be able produce new ideas or products (Thompson, 2003).Subtle and undermining forces in an organizational culture can sabotage attempts at improving organizational learning, and/ or be a barrier to organizational culture change (Goldsmith et al, 2004).

A dominant characteristic of organizational culture in a traditional public service is authority vested in hierarchy and bureaucracy.Initially, this form of public administration was intended to ensure clear accountability of staff for the completion of tasks. However, the downside of strict adherence to hierarchical authority is that it tends to evoke compliance in government bureaucracies rather than commitment to the work at hand (Olsen and Peters, 1996). The more strongly hierarchical power is exerted, the more results are generally focused on compliance. Yet the genuine commitment of staff is usually an essential factor in fostering meaningful change in any organization (Common, 2004).

A compliance culture also tends to stifle staff initiative and communications which are both critical attributes of organizational learning and performance improvements (Armstrong, 2005). If staffs are expected only to comply with rules and regulations, little or no incentive will exist for “thinking out of the box” or taking action when it comes to improvements to organizational processes or products hence inhibiting employees’ innovation and creativity at work place. This represents a one-dimensional perception of accountability and a highly negative view of experimentation and mistakes. Traditionally, the virtue of a public servant has been a careful pursuit of assigned tasks according to the systems and procedures in place. However, the “assigned tasks” must be the right ones and the “systems and procedures” in place must be in a position to accommodate change (Common, 2004).

An organizational culture that is over powered by rigid adherence to rules and regulations rarely encourages staff to ask challenging questions and to alter the status quo. In many public institutions, in fact, the practice of questioning the status quo is not in accord with conventions, and in some instances, the practice is even actively discouraged. Therefore, the challenge for many reform-minded governments is often to radically change the mindsets of both leaders and public servants in order to allow for new forms of communication, initiative-taking and learning to emerge in the government institutions. A bureaucracy that operates in a traditional and hierarchical way is not well suited to achieve this goal. The leaders becoming aware of these hindrances in the public sector, is a positive step towards enhancing organizational (Common, 2004).

The OL concept advocates for the involvement of people and supports a bottom-up approach in the public sector thus enhancing the performance in public institutions (DESA, 2005). This will be manifested in the provision of quality services, improvement in policy analysis hence increasing efficiency in public administration. A crucial cultural characteristic of an institution intending to promote organizational learning is that it aims at balancing action, communication and reflection in the organizational culture (Furnham and Gunter, 1993). These organizational competencies complement each other, therefore, it is essential for the governments to conduct frequent reviews and evaluations of their performance to make sure that problems are pointed out and proper action is taken early.

In today's complex and dynamic environment, it is important for the public administration to embrace the concept of organizational learning that allows for continual development of new staff competencies and skills in order to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the public organization thus enhancing their performance in provision service to people (Olsen and Peters, 1996). Recognition of the professionalism and knowledge of staff is central to the development of organizational learning in the public service (Weber and BerthoinAntal, 2003).

In traditional government institutions, the salaries and remuneration of employees are determined solely by the position one has in the organization instead of the professionalism. This means that the employees who wish to be considered for a higher rank are usually end up becoming general managers rather than leaders who have knowledge. In contrast, institutions that upholds knowledge generation and sharing like universities and consulting firms, emphasize the creation of mechanisms that recognize and reward innovation and creativity, professionalism, productivity and knowledge leadership of staff (Weber and BerthoinAntal, 2003).

Due to the increase in pressure from the operating environment in the public sector organizations, they now tend to have some similarities with private organizations therefore they are expected to act like knowledge- and expert-based organizations hence influencing the development of staff and the management of personnel the public sector (Radebe, Thuli, 2003). It is therefore important that governments enhance organizational learning in the public sector by creating an enabling environment and an organizational culture that encourages staff to acquire, share and manage knowledge, to network and collaborate with colleagues and external partners, to have a knowledge repository, to have a vision, goals and to build up their skills in accordance with a competence-based capacity development frameworks (Common, 2004).

2.2.4 Management of human resources and organizational learning

The application of a strategic approach to HRM in the public sector is particularly aimed at creating an adaptive, flexible workforce that has the appropriate incentives to produce, acquire process and share knowledge (Armstrong, 2005). As such inclusion of all government sections is mandatory when planning, implementing and executing learning initiatives.

Kaimenyi (2010) in the study of the management of human resources in public secondary schools in Imenti Central, explains that management practices undertaken are: bottom-up management approach, consultative decision making, staff motivation with free meals and trips, recommending for staff transfer and promotion, encouraging staff training and development, using both democratic and authoritarian style of leadership, and delegation of duties among others. The study identified that hindrances to effective management of human resource were mainly due to negative attitude towards work by staff, lack of targets or goals towards performance forcing the head teacher to coerce staff to perform, lack of adequate staff support, indiscipline among some staff members, student's indiscipline/unrests and strikes, negligence of duty by some staff members, inadequate finances to motivate staff, inadequate finances to buy learning materials, political interference and poor school infrastructure among others.

The study concluded that head teachers in public secondary schools in Imenti Central used various management practices in dealing with students, teachers and support staff. The study revealed that most of the practices employed were effective and helped the schools to realize greater achievement of education goals. Some head teachers emphasized the use of both authoritarian and democratic approaches to management. The study further concluded that the head teachers were facing numerous challenges in the management of students, teachers and support staff. To deal with these challenges, different measures need to be employed, as schools do not experience the same challenges. The study recommends head teachers' training on human resource management, employment of support staff by the government and use of participatory approach to human resource management is crucial in order to improve the performance and management in public institutions (Kaimenyi, 2010).

Tushman and Nadler (1996) argue that the best companies continually innovate and change and that 'the most innovative organizations are highly effective learning systems'. In order for organizations to achieve their learning potential, managers are expected to render the right organizational environment allowing development of individuals, groups and teams to assimilate and act upon information. The organizational structure should therefore allow systems and procedures to direct and motivate behaviour towards organizational learning.

A highly professional human resource management (HRM) capacity is a characteristic of a government committed to organizational learning. If the concept of promotion of organizational learning in the public service is to motivate public servants to learn more efficiently and effectively from their own experiences so as to improve the standard of public management, it is therefore necessary for governments to provide an enabling environment that give the right incentives for staff to do so. Organizational change process is mainly depicted by the ability of staff, both individually and collectively, to learn from their own experiences, both successes and failures. This collective wisdom and knowledge of staff enhances the movement of the public service from its current condition to the desired destination (Radebe, Thuli, 2003).

Promotion of organizational learning in the public service by the governments can be undertaken through various ways. For instance they can adopt means that encourage greater sharing of both explicit and tacit knowledge among staff, and/or, they can emphasize incentives for public servants to take more direct charge of their own capacity-building needs within an overall corporate HRM strategy (Common, 2004). According to Stata (1996) the key areas that should be of concern when facilitating organizational learning and performance improvements in the public service include knowledge-sharing and management, promotion of mentoring programmes for staff, enhancing the analytical capacity of government and strengthening the career development system.

The first part is mainly concerned with the need to create measures that enhance the exchange and creation of both explicit and tacit knowledge among staff, while effective career development promotes individual excellence by creating incentives for public servants to acquire new skills and competencies. Mentoring is of great importance in the transfer of tacit knowledge from senior staff to younger colleagues in the organization. Evaluation of past experiences and development of forward-looking scenarios requires analytical capacities, that is, to create knowledge that can be used to improve the performance of the government institutions. A well-managed career development system promotes greater performance-orientation among staff, which is integral to the organizational learning concept. At the individual level, an effective career system enables staff to move from their current level of competencies towards greater professional development and growth (Stata, 1996).

2.2.4.1 Improve knowledge sharing and management

In the recent past, organizations have realized that knowledge is important as it serves as an essential strategic resource. Knowledge is gained sharing hence to achieve this, an individual should be able to share their skills, experience and knowledge with others. Organizational learning is built by having trust; communication channels and networking as a means in which staff of an organization easily share knowledge as well as enhance management in public service sector (Stata, 1996). Communication channels needed for this process is determined by the organizations structures and cultures which have been seen at times to be the root causes of problems to effective communication and knowledge transfer amongst staff. To overcome these challenges, technology adoption has been to be a solution and aids the progression of the organization in that it encourages knowledge sharing and collaboration amongst staff thus enhancing learning within the organization (Common, 2004).

In addition to knowledge sharing and networking, teamwork is an essential tool for OL. This is because it improves performance of work as well as its quality. Time management has also been made easier through implementation of systems within organizations which provide opportunities for networking, collaboration and knowledge sharing. It is seen to facilitate problem solving in a much shorter time unlike when individuals are dealing with a problem, they usually require more resources and also contribute in time wastage (Armstrong, 2005). An example of an institution which has embraced knowledge sharing is the government of South Africa. It established a learning and knowledge management unit in 2001. The role of this unit was to enhance collaboration and networking between its ministries (DESA, 2005).

As mentioned earlier, technology has been taken by some government as an incentive to foster human capacity in the public sector as it encourages knowledge sharing. It provides capabilities to create, share and apply knowledge in their day to day activities. This is done through the use of communication processes which encourage OL and as such be reflected in the positive impact in the organizations competitiveness.

Common(2004) explains that just like in any other field, challenges are faced in knowledge management especially in institutions of developing countries. The main challenges are a result

of staff, knowledge sharing is difficult due to little incentives(Financial and non-financial) needed to encourage them to do so. To resolve this, staff performance assessment should have a section dealing with knowledge sharing. Tacit knowledge of staff cannot be captured easily hence this poses another challenge. The best way to handle this is by having opportunities for mentoring programs. Another challenge in knowledge sharing is resistance to change which can only be resolved by educating and coaching on importance of knowledge sharing.Finally organizations are faced by the challenge of developing protocols needed in dealing with information which are very confidential or sensitive in nature. They are therefore required to have a knowledge management strategy in the public service (Common, 2004).

2.2.4.2 Promote mentoring programmes for staff

Mentoring is a key concept in organizational learning. According to Darwin (2000), workplace learning is best achieved if mentoring is incorporated as the main strategy. The process of mentoring enhances professional and career development through transfer of knowledge skills values and attitudes from a senior staff to a junior colleague. It is seen as learning partnership amongst staff especially those in the same organization, profession or occupation since the information shared are technical information or institutions' specific in nature(Kram, 2007). Currently the public service of most countries have not embraced this mentoring relationship and there is need for them to realize this definitely an important resource to be utilized.

Chao(2007) outlines the importance of having an effective mentoring program in a public service. To him, mentoring is of great importance to new staff that are settling and getting to know more about the organization. It is also crucial for HRM in attracting, retaining, and developing the potential of its staff. Finally, he asserts that it is beneficial to the management level in their career development.

Mentorship program of an institution can only work as expected if it is given key consideration by having a clear vision and strategy (Ragins and Verbos, 2006). It should be incorporated in HRM strategy of the public service and also be part of the core values and culture of an organization (Dougherty and Dreher, 2007). The main reasons for having mentorship programme is to foster an organization's performance as relationships created in mentorship is

much stronger than those of leader-staff relationship since a picture of role model is created in mentorship programme.

2.2.4.3 Enhance the analytical capacity of Government

As mentioned earlier, to stay relevant and effective, the public service must come up with capacity that will allow to reflect and foresee challenging. This involves developing strong capacities for policy-making and analysis and evaluation hence reducing costs that could have been incurred (DESA, 2006). Governments should therefore invest in attracting and retaining talented employees, who are the intellectual backbone, as it is essential in improving analytical policy-making capacities government institutions (Common, 2004). Their ability to prepare options, analysis, forward-looking scenarios and recommendations for decision-making is central to the effectiveness of the policy-making system as well as to organizational learning in general.

2.2.4.4 Strengthen the career development system

Lack of career development opportunities has been established as one of the key factors affecting the ability of the public service to retain high-quality staff. As a consequence, governments incur high opportunity costs due to the low level of motivation among the staff; also the employees tend to be frustrated that could lead to the loss of talented employees to other private organizations (Olsen and Peters, 1996). This leads to a great loss of tacit knowledge and institutional memory and high cost of recruiting new staff. Armstrong (2005) posits that the formulation of effective career development policies and management is important because it ensures the availability of rewarding careers which has a positive influence in the performance of public organizations and thereby improving organizational learning. Secondly, it is essential for the retention of institutional memory and knowledge base because the turnover rate will be minimized.

Armstrong (2005) further asserts that excellence in recruitment, induction and training is very crucial as it ensures that the right type of employees are chosen into the organization which are significant in ensuring a degree of stability and continuity to perform effectively in the long run. In many studies that have been conducted, a rewarding career development opportunities has been cited as a major factor affecting job satisfaction and staff retention in the government

institutions (DESA, 2005). However, it has been established that adopting the right strategies for career development, and adopting the right initiatives such as on-the-job training, job rotation and special assignments, will be able to improve.

Amabile (1998) points to six general categories of effective management practice in creating a learning culture within an organization, that is, providing employees with challenge; providing freedom to innovate; providing the resources needed to create new ideas/products; providing diversity of perspectives and backgrounds within groups; providing supervisor encouragement; and finally, providing organizational support.

2.2.5 Organizational Politics and organizational learning

According to Ingraham (1993) 'the practice of looking to the private sector for public solutions is so well established as to be nearly inviolate'. Although there are a number of challenges associated with applying initiatives developed in the corporate and commercial sectors to political institutions, the major initiative aimed at improving organizational performance favored by many public sector organizations in the 1990s was total quality management (TQM). However, TQM has largely been taken over by the concept of organizational learning, stimulated by the highly competitive business environments that evolved in the 1990s.

Organizational politics according to Rhodes (2005) can be defined as self-serving and manipulative behaviour of individuals and groups to promote their self-interests at the expense of others and sometimes organizational goals as well. This can be seen in organizations through struggle for power, leadership and tactical influence executed by individuals and groups to attain power, building personal stature, controlling access to information, not revealing real intents, building coalitions among others. Ranson and Stewart (1994) argue that many problems facing the public institutions are those that typically have no simple solutions, making learning in public organizations very important.

Governments now compete in a global market to attract investment and talent and much of the research developed in relation to private sector companies is hard to apply in political contexts. In addition governments are quite often forced to 'learn' through other channels such as at

general elections, or through the loss of power (Common, 2004). Therefore organizational learning is a very essential tool for enhancing the formulation of public policies and its delivery. Although the concept of organizational learning has not been clearly understood by many, in the public sector it can be termed as the ability of an institution to show that it can learn collectively. This will only be manifested by its application of new knowledge to the policy process also in innovation in the implementation of policies (Common, 2004). Furthermore, OL has the potential to enhance the policy-making capacity of government. Olsen and Peters (1996) observe that organizational learning implies 'the development of structures and procedures that improve the problem-solving capacity of an organization and make it better prepared for the future'.

In spite of the assurance that organizational learning has the potential of improving organizational effectiveness, much of the expectation surrounding organizational learning in the public sector is barred by a number of challenges. However, Stata (1996) asserts that 'organizations can only learn when decision-makers learn together, come to share beliefs and goals, and are committed to take the actions necessary for change'; but due to the diverse number of stakeholders in public policy in democratic systems, this premise becomes undermined. In addition, Stata (1996) notes that learning is built on organizational memory, based on 'institutional mechanisms, for instance, policies, strategies and explicit models, used to retain knowledge'. In the contrary, the public sector's capability to learn has been hindered by the increasing divisions in organizations, splitting of policy and service delivery and more focus on performance management through the delivery of quantitative targets as a result of developments such as New Public Management (NPM).

Political organizations usually have many functions hence they are oftenly required to come up with various public policies or to administer which could be ambiguous and conflicting with each other and many employees who are expected to implement may not be aware (Levin and Sanger, 1994). The goals, expectations and purposes are usually different even where single agencies of government are involved hence influencing learning in that organization and their performance (Leeuw, Rist, and Sonnichsen, 1994).

Public/political sector organizations are also greatly influenced by other organized outside groups with various interests, for instance, the mass media which are usually termed as the

representatives of the public hence expected to be vigilant on behalf of the public, which undermines the performance of these institutions therefore their leaders and managers have to continually come up with new policies to address the arising issues (Common, 2004). Government institutions are also subject to the influence of political parties which have their own agendas which are based on established standards and norms hence interfering with public policies and the efficiency of the institutions as they may cause conflict of interests (Gortner et al., 1987).

Strong institutionalism is also common in government institutions than in their private counterparts thus to change the status quo is often very difficult (Panbianco, 1988). They have rigid and strong embeddedness of values, or norms that make them extremely resistant to change therefore have a great impact on the performance of these institutions as well as in their capacity to learn (Scott, 1995).

The high expectations accredited to the adoption of organizational learning in regard to the achievement of an organization's strategic objectives has been a major challenge in public sector in a context where policy outcomes are often quite difficult to quantify. This has increased pressure on the political environment hence their main focus is to pretend to the public so as to be seen to be doing something instead of ensuring that culture of learning is instilled in the organization rather than focusing only on the outcomes (March et al., 1996).

Organizational learning often requires cultural change, for instance, changes in the way things are being done in the organization, or the questioning of values and norms. This makes public sector organizations to be resilient in regard to 'double-loop' learning advocated by Argyris and Schon (1978), mostly because of its bureaucratic characteristics and strong departmental cultures. This is because double-loop learning involves questioning why things are done in the public sector, this is deemed to take place in the political sphere, so single-loop learning is preferred as it is restricted to asking how the same things can be done better. As a result, as Olsen and Peters (1996) observe, organizational learning only occurs when 'observations and influences from experience create fairly enduring changes in organizational structures and standard operating procedures'.

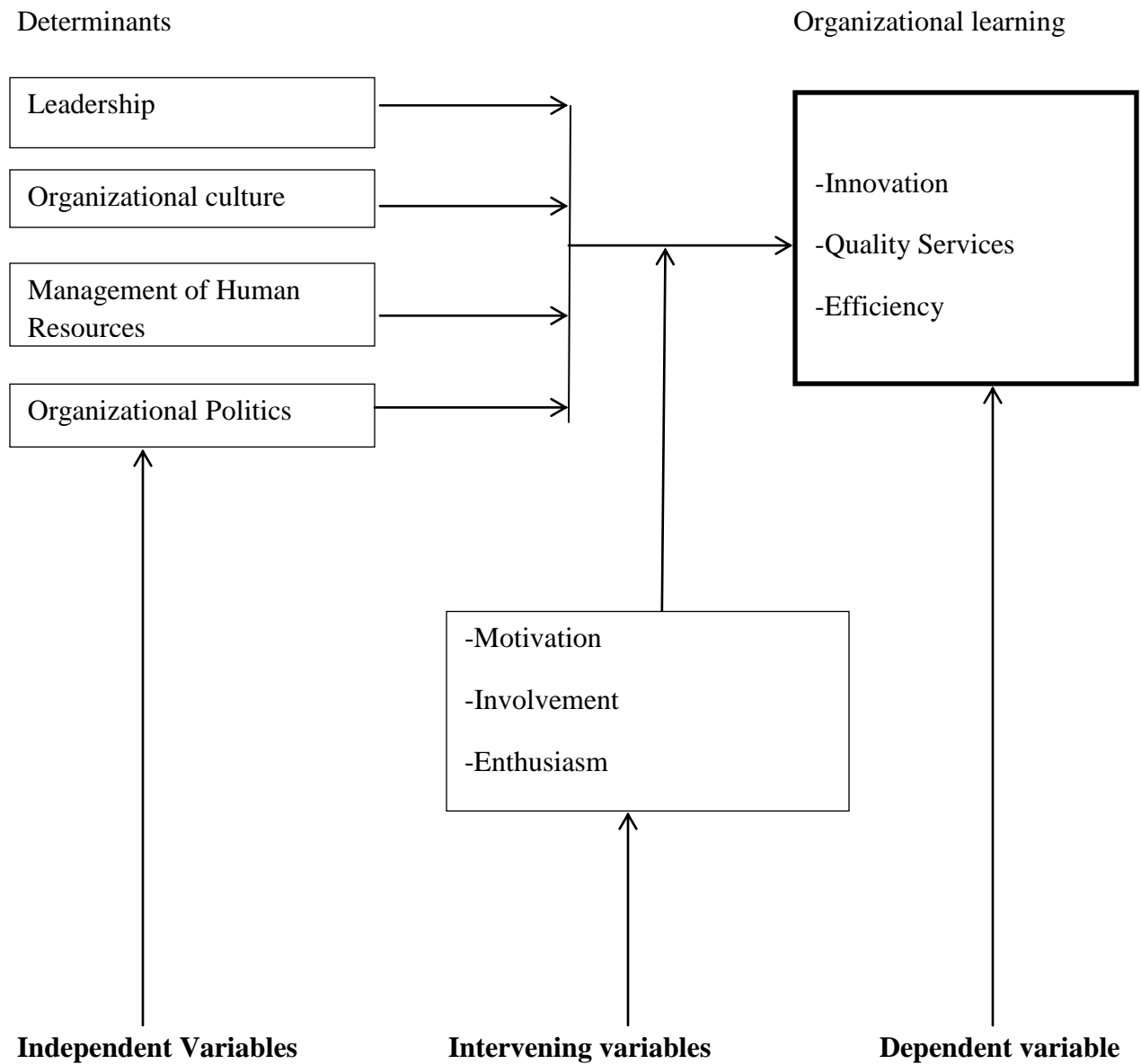
2.3 Summary and Gaps to be filled by the Study

Garvin (1993) noted that ‘most discussions of organizational learning do not get to the heart of how to make it happen in organizations especially in government institutions. Their focus is on high philosophy and grand schemes, sweeping metaphors rather than the gritty details of practice’. Ulrich et al (1993) concur that ‘to date there have been far more thought papers on why learning matters than empirical research on how managers can build learning capability’. From the studies conducted, it shows that the concepts of organizational learning is under-researched in relation to the public sector and, importantly, this raises wider questions about the extent to which the environment is taken into consideration in terms of learning and knowledge more generally across all sectors. Above statements clearly indicate the need for research in this area hence the researcher’s main purpose in this proposal will be to fill this significant gap by conducting a study that focus on the determinants of organizational learning in the Kenyagovernment institutions. Few researches have been conducted on this area and mostly have failed to show that there is a relationship between leadership, organizational culture, management of human resources and organizational politics and organizational learning, thus this motivated the researcher to fill this gap in the literature.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

In this section the conceptual framework is presented in a schematic interpretation as shown in the figure below. It identifies the variables that when put together explains the issue of concern and is formulated from the reflection of the ideas and concepts. The conceptual framework, therefore, set of broad ideas used to explain the relationship between the independent variables (factors) and the dependent variables (outcomes). The figure below shows the relationship between organizational learning (dependent variable) and the determinants of organizational learning (independent variables). The model depicts that the overall organizational learning is derived from the influence of leadership, organizational culture, the management of human resources, and organizational politics. The intervening variables below helps to explain better their relationship as being a determinant of the dependent variable. From the model, the outcome of organizational learning will be shown by the employees’ innovativeness, efficiency and the provision of quality service.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework



(Source: Researcher, 2013)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes how the study will be conducted. It explains the research design, population sample to be used and the sampling methods applied. The section also explains the data collection methods to be applied and how the data will be analyzed to produce the required information necessary for this study.

3.2 Research Design

The study used a descriptive design. Descriptive design shows an accurate profile of persons, events, or account of the characteristics, for example behaviour, opinions, abilities, beliefs, and knowledge of a particular individual, situation or group, that is, it gives a detailed description of events, situations and interactions between people and things (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). The descriptive research design was preferred because it ensures complete description of the situation, making sure that there is minimum bias in the collection of data (Kothari, 2004). The purpose of descriptive research study is normally to gather information about the present existing condition without making any amendment to the actual observations.

3.3 Target Population

Population is the entire group under study as specified by objectives of the research; it is the universe from which the sample is to be selected (Ghauri et al. 2005). The target population was one thousand one hundred (1100) employees of NSSF. The sample was one hundred and twenty one (121) which comprised the senior management, functional staff and operational employees of the organization.

Table: 3. 1 Target population

Population Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Senior management	26	2.36
Departmental staff	60	5.45
Operational	1014	92.18
Totals	1100	100%

(Source: Researcher, 2013)

3.4 Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Sampling is an important method for increasing the validity of the collected data and ensuring that the sample is the representative of population. It is the procedure that uses a small number of units of a given population as a basis for drawing conclusions about a population (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Stratified random sampling technique was adopted in sampling of the target population for the study. This ensures every important parameter is represented.

3.4.1 Sample size

A sample is a representative group of a target population. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), argues that a sample must be at least 10% of the target population. Therefore the minimum sample should be $10/100 \times 1100 = 110$. Using this as a benchmark a sample of 121 employees was used in the study. A sampling ratio was established by dividing the sample size by the population size, that is, $121/1100 = 0.11$. From each strata, 11% of the employees were selected.

Table: 3. 2 Sample Size

Population Category	Frequency	Sample ratio	Sample size
Senior management	26	0.11	3
Departmental staff	60	0.11	7
Operational staff	1014	0.11	111
Totals	1100	0.11	121

(Source: Researcher, 2013)

3.5 Data Sources and Instruments

The researcher collected data mainly from primary sources. The primary data was used due to its nearness to the truth and ease for control over errors (Copper and Schindler, 2001).

The researcher administered questionnaires containing mainly closed ended questions to the sample respondents. Hence each respondent received the same set of questions in exactly the same way. The questionnaires were prepared in line with the objectives of the study hence ensured that only relevant information was gathered.

3.5.1 Validity of research instrument

Validity refers to the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences which are based on the research results (Mugenda et al. 2003). It is the degree to which the results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. Validity therefore, has to do with how accurately the data obtained in the study represents the variables of the study. If such data is a true reflection of the variables, then inferences based on such data will be accurate and meaningful. Best and Kahn (2002) suggested that the validity of the instrument is asking the right questions which are framed in the least ambiguous way. Thus a valid measure depends on collecting accurate data. For the research instrument to be considered valid, the content selected and included in questionnaire must also be relevant to the variable being investigated. To ascertain the validity, the researcher used content validity through supervisor assistance.

3.5.2 Reliability of research instrument

According to Devellis (1991), reliability is the extent to which the measurement is random error-free and produces the same results on repeated trials. It also refers to consistency of scores obtained by the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items or under other variables examining conditions. Cronbach alpha was used to ascertain the reliability of factors extracted from the likert scale in the questionnaire because it determines the internal consistency or average correlation in a survey instrument. Cronbach alpha is a coefficient of internal consistency used as an estimate of reliability and it ranges in values from 0-1. The commonly accepted rule of thumb for describing internal consistency using Cronbach alpha is as follows:

Table 3.3: Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's alpha (α)	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$	Good
$0.6 \leq \alpha < 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.5 \leq \alpha < 0.6$	Poor
$\alpha < 0.5$	Unacceptable

(Source: Nunnally, 1978)

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

The study utilized self-administered questionnaires to collect data. The researcher delivered questionnaires to the respondents through drop and pick method to be collected later. Clarifications were also made to the respondents on the information being sought.

3.7 Data Analysis and Presentation

At the data collection stage, clear identification of the main areas to focus attention was made for the analysis process to be convenient and not time-consuming. Data collected from the questionnaires was first edited, coded to enable responses be grouped into categories. This involved giving all statements numeric codes based on meaning for ease of data capturing. The data gathered was then analyzed by use of descriptive and qualitative statistics using Ms Excel and SPSS. The descriptive statistical tools helped in describing the data and determining the respondents' degree of agreement with the various statements under each factor. The use of percentages, means, and standard deviation were employed. A linear regression model was used to indicate the extent to which each independent variable affected organizational learning in NSSF. The model is below

$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \epsilon$ Where, Y represent organizational learning the dependent variable, β_0 is a constant term, X_1 -leadership, X_2 -organizational culture, X_3 -management of human resources and X_4 - organizational politics are the independent variables and ϵ is the error term. Information was presented in the form of detailed descriptions with the use of other presentation techniques like graphs, pie charts, and tables.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents research findings, data analysis, and presentations of the results of the study. These are presented based on the objectives of the study.

4.2 Reliability test

The data was collected using questionnaires and were pretested to establish whether the proposed constructs and the items that were proposed to measure those constructs were valid and reliable. To measure their reliability, the researcher used Cronbach's alpha. Examination of this reliability test indicated the estimates as follows: $\alpha = 0.8002$, 0.6305, 0.7261 and 0.7848 for the independent variables leadership, organizational culture, management of human resources and organizational politics respectively. The dependent variable, organizational learning had an alpha of 0.8115. This shows that most of these constructs had a reliability estimate higher than 0.70 except for the independent variable of organizational culture (0.635). However, according to Hair et al., (1989), reliability estimates falling between 0.60 and 0.70 represent the lower limit of acceptability. Thus, on this basis the variable were included in the final study.

4.3 Demographic Information

The demographic characteristics of sample respondents in this study were measured with respect to gender, age, level of education, training attained, working experience and the respondents' category/ position in the organization.

4.3.1 Gender and age of respondents

From the total sample of 121 respondents, the number of questionnaires returned was one hundred and (105) representing 86.8% response rate. Out of this total, 45(43%) of the participants were male while the remaining 60 (57%) were female as shown in figure 4.2.1 below. This was because most of the respondents in the operations were female. The average age of the respondents as at the time of study lay between 36 and 50 years.

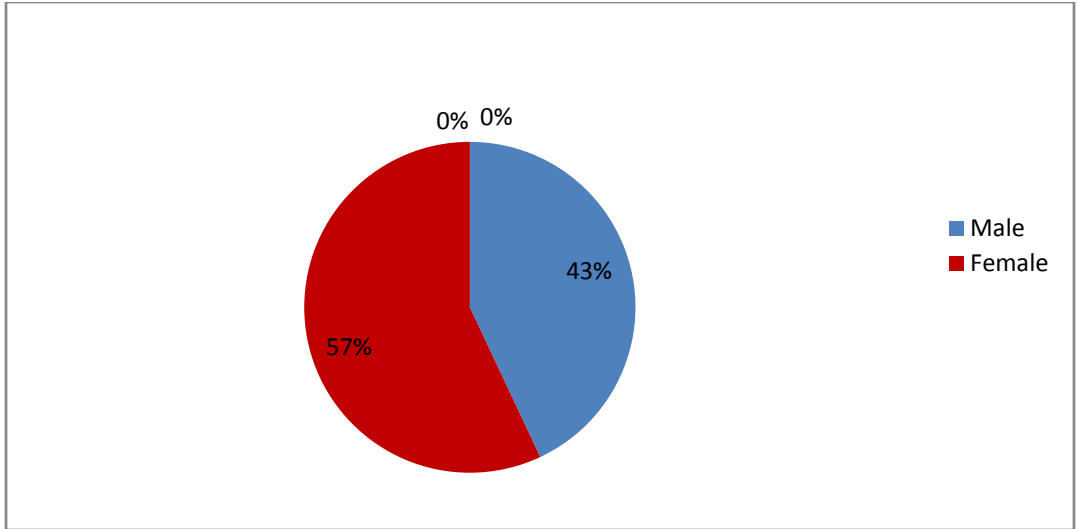


Figure4.2.1 Gender of respondents

4.3.2 Level of education

Educational background of the respondents was one of the critical demographic factors surveyed by the study. Of all the respondents, 94% have at least attained tertiary level qualifications. Of this portion, none had PhD and specifically, 16% had masters’ degree, 40% had undergraduate degree level education whereas 38% have middle level college qualifications possessing diplomas and other advanced certifications. 5% of the respondents had only secondary level education without any other form of technical training as shown in the figure below.

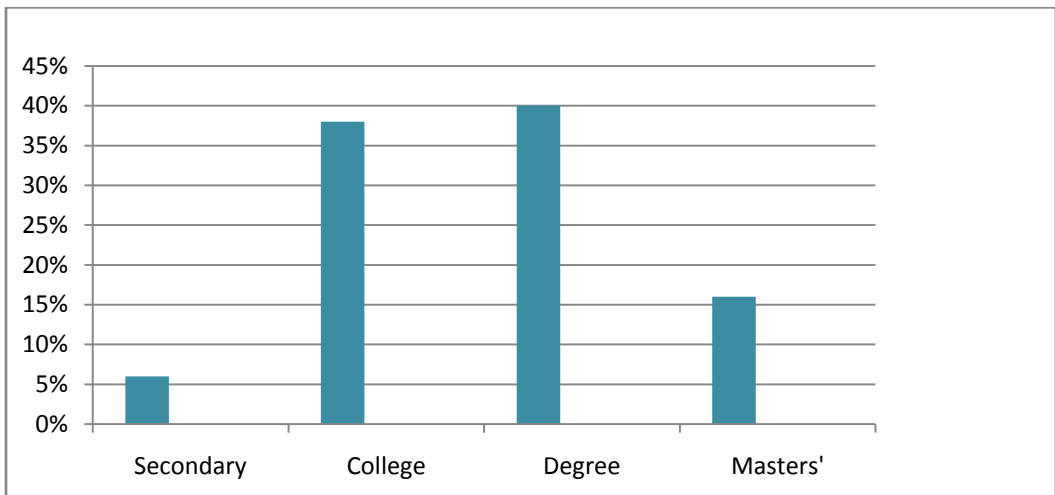


Figure 4.3.2: Level of education

4.2.3 Years of experience

The study sought to determine the experiences of the employees in the organization. Based on the responses collected on the current employees of NSSF, the following tabulation indicates the average employee work experience in the company. From the findings, it was established that most of the employees in the organization had above nine years in the organization representing 62% of the respondents which is average years for a competent employee. The below chart displays the average distribution in terms of experiences throughout the respondents sampled. The length of experience is clustered in brackets as indicated:

Category A: 1-2 years

Category B: 3-5 years

Category C: 6-8 years

Category D: 9-11 years

Category E: 12 and above

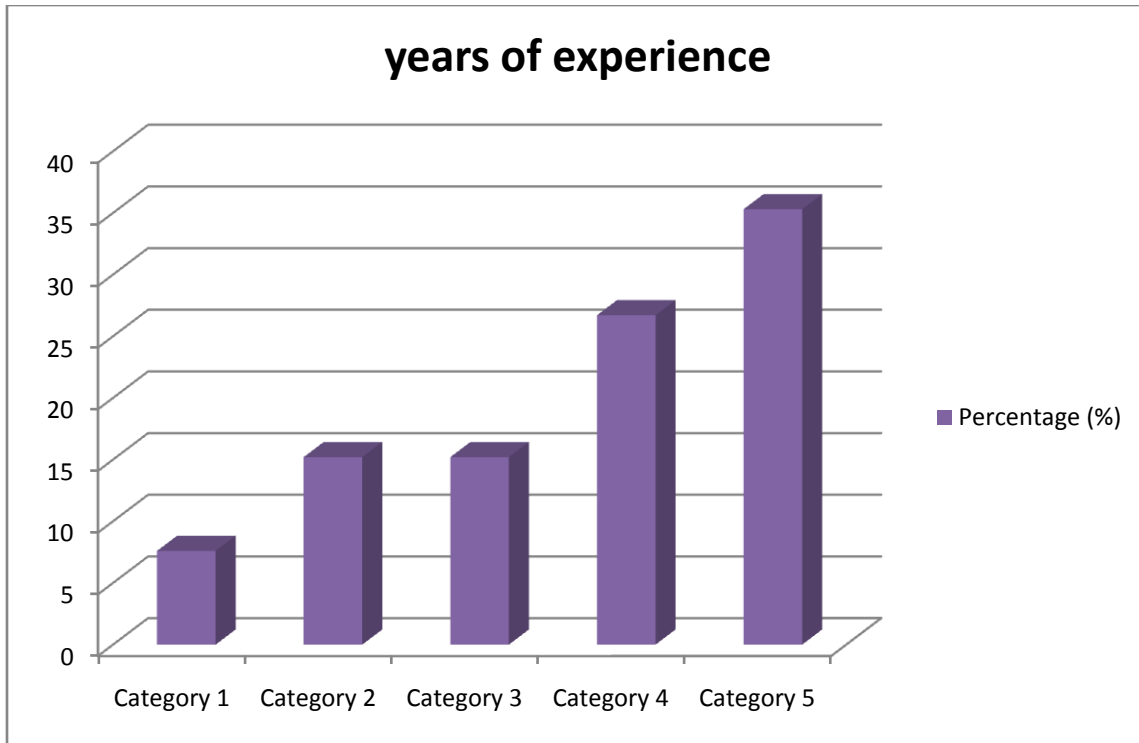


Figure 4.2.3: Years of experience

4.2.4 Respondents category positions

The study had categorized the respondents into three groups based on the positions within the organization. From the responses, 66% responded in the senior management position, 57% of the functional staff responded while 89% of the operational staff responded. This indicated that the senior management and the operational staff were the key categories in the study.

4.3 Analysis of organizational learning in NSSF

To understand whether the concept of organizational learning has been adopted in the institution, the respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with various statements. The findings according to the respondents agreed that the organization supports learning with a mean of 3.9524 and a standard deviation of .996; they neither agreed nor disagreed about knowledge sharing in the organization as seen with the mean of 3.2286 and a standard deviation of 1.094. However, they agreed that the top management supports knowledge management with a mean of 3.600 and a standard deviation of .967 and that teamwork, social groups and

networking is fully encouraged as shown by a mean of 4.152 and standard deviation of .616 hence new knowledge acquisition is encouraged as shown by a mean of 3.7463 and standard deviation of .928 and frequent internet use is also allowed as shown by the mean of 3.8143 with standard deviation of .960. However most of the respondents disagreed that the organization have a knowledge repository as shown by the mean of 2.9714 and a standard deviation of 1.023, although they agreed that there is continual mapping of organizational and technical skills as shown by mean of 3.5048 and standard deviation of 1.048; that the organization does not do continual evaluation of knowledge as shown by a mean of 2.8762 and standard deviation of .885.

Table 4.3: Aspects of organizational learning

Aspects of organizational learning	Mean	Std. Deviation
Organization supports learning	3.9524	.99640
Knowledge sharing is encouraged in the organization	3.2286	1.09419
Top management supports knowledge management	3.6000	.96676
Teamwork, social groups and networking is encouraged	4.1524	.67626
New knowledge acquisition is encouraged	3.7463	.92820
Organization allows frequent internet use	3.8143	.95983
The organization have electronic knowledge repository	2.9714	1.02335
Continual mapping of organizational and technical capabilities	3.5048	1.04811
Continual knowledge evaluation	2.8762	.88465

4.4 Objective tests and analysis

4.4.1 Analysis of leadership and organizational learning

Leadership scale consisted of seven items reflecting on leadership aspects and organizational learning in the organization. The respondents were asked to show their level of agreement with the various statements. On the basis of mean response scores, the respondents tended to agree to most of the items. They agreed that leadership is imperative for learning (M=3.9905, SD=.814), and overwhelmingly agreed also that leadership is influence (M= 4.2952, SD=.88713). However, they neither agreed nor disagreed when asked if their leaders support organizational learning

(M=3.0381, SD= 1.100), if the top management lead by example (M=2.9714, SD=1.042) and if leaders upholds employee development and involvement (M=2.9143, SD=.952), that leaders have a vision for the organization (M=3.3429, SD= .886), that there are strategies for staff development (M=3.2571, SD=.971).

Table 4.4.1: Aspects of leadership

Aspects of leadership	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation(SD)	F	Sig
Leadership is imperative for learning	3.9905	.81448	4.67	.021
Leaders support organizational learning	3.0381	1.10003	64.03	.000
Top management lead by example	2.9714	1.04198	11.40	.000
Leaders upholds employee development and involvement	2.9143	.95186	12.92	.000
Leaders have a vision	3.3429	.88610	5.09	.003
Organization have strategies for staff development	3.2571	.97101	4.50	.005
Leadership is influence	4.2952	.88713	86.74	.000

The researcher conducted multiple regression analysis so as to test the relationship between the organizational learning and the determinants. In the table below, the R is the multiple correlation coefficients that show how strongly the multiple independent variables are related to the dependent variable. R square (R^2) is the coefficient of determination which explains the extent to which changes in dependent variables can be explained by the change in the independent variables or the percentage of variation on the dependent variable (organizational learning).

Table 4.4.1.1 Leadership model summary

Model	R	R Square (R^2)	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig.
1	.858	.737	.720	.43063	13.934	.002

The regression analysis was conducted using the aspects mentioned above to establish the relationship of the independent variable (leadership) as the determinants of organizational learning in the Kenyan government institutions. As per the analysis, the study explain only

(73.3%) of this variable as shown by the R square in the regression model above. This means that the other aspects/variables not studied in this research contributed (26.7%) hence further research should be conducted to fill this gap.

4.4.2 Analysis of organizational culture and organizational learning

The organizational culture is another independent variable to determine whether it influences organizational learning in government institutions. The scale consisted of ten aspects relating to organizational learning and culture which the respondents were asked to respond to. On the overall, the employees tend to agree with most of the statements. They agreed that organizational culture governs employee behaviour (M= 3.7905, SD= .817), that employees are nurtured by culture (M= 3.3238, SD= .935), that culture also generate commitment to the organization (M= 3.9905, SD= .79051), that it greatly influences employee performance (M=4.5143, SD=.681), however, they were non-committal as regard to whether there is continual changes in organization showed by the mean of 3.3048, SD=1.048, that culture have an influence on policy decisions (M=3.2714, SD=.812), that organizational culture encourages employee participation in decision making (M=3.0286, SD=1.105), in the contrary, they disagreed to the statement that the organization is not fully committed to nurturing organizational learning (M=2.99, SD=1.205), however, they agreed that organizational culture provides the context of organizational learning (M=3.4881, SD=.940), and strongly disagreed that organizational structure does not affect organizational learning (M=2.3810, SD=1.375).

Table 4.4.2: Aspects of organizational culture

Aspects of organizational culture	Mean (M)	Std. Deviation(SD)
Organizational culture governs employee behaviour	3.7905	.81683
Employees are nurtured by culture	3.3238	.93537
Organizational culture generates commitment	3.9905	.79051
Organizational culture influence employee performance	4.5143	.68098
There is continuous change in organization	3.3048	1.04811
Culture influence policy decisions	3.2714	.81166
Organizational culture encourages employee participation in decision making	3.0286	1.10469
Organizational learning is not fully nurtured in their organization	2.9905	1.20492
Organizational culture provide context of learning	3.4881	.93976

Organizational structure does not affect learning	2.3810	1.37548
---	--------	---------

The organizational culture variable studied in this study covered only 70.7% as seen by the R square in the regression model below. This was analyzed based on the aspects mentioned above to determine the effect of organizational culture on organizational learning. This means that the other aspects/variables not studied in this research contributed (29.3%) hence more research needs to be conducted in order to establish other aspects of organizational culture that influence organizational learning in government institutions.

Table 4.4.2.1: Organizational culture model summary

Model	R	R Square (R ²)	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig.
1	.818	.707	.690	.41063	3.917	.001

4.4.3 Analysis of management of human resources and organizational learning

Ten aspects were used to seek the respondents' degree of agreement on issues related to management of human resources and their influence on organizational learning. On the basis of mean response scores, the respondents tended to agree that effective HRM system creates a learning culture (M=4.0952, SD=.915), that innovative organizations are effective in learning (M=3.9333, SD=1.012), that recognition of professionalism and knowledge of staff is central to the development of organizational learning (M=3.5048, SD=.936), however, they were indifferent as regard to whether they had opportunities to learn what they want (M=3.1762, SD=.997) and the item on staff training and development is encouraged in their organization (M=3.2381, SD=1.123), they disagreed that there is no opportunity for promotion (M=2.7619, SD=1.005), they were non-committal in the sense of achievement in their careers (M=3.0667, SD=.933). They also tended to disagree that the organization gives employees freedom to innovate (M=2.6190, SD=1.302), that the organization have put in place strategies that encourage knowledge sharing and management (M=2.8571, SD=.935) and that they were aware that their organization promotes mentoring programs (M=2.4476, SD=.971)

Table 4.4.3: Aspects of management of human resources

Aspects of management of human resources	Mean(M)	Std. Deviation(SD)
Effective HRM system creates learning culture	4.0952	.91488
Innovative organizations are effective in learning	3.9333	1.01211
Professionalism is imperative for development of organizational learning	3.5048	.93566
There is freedom to learn what I want	3.1762	.99707
Staff training and development is encouraged in the organization	3.2381	1.12253
No opportunity for promotion	2.7619	1.00502
Sense of achievement in one's career	3.0667	.93301
Employees are given freedom to innovate	2.6190	1.03200
Organization have put in place strategies for knowledge management	2.8571	.93468
Mentoring programs are promoted in the organization	2.4476	.97054

As per the R square in the model summary table below, the aspects of the management of human resource variable, as a determinant of organizational learning in government institutions, analyzed using regression analysis in the study was only 75.4%, thus the remaining 24.6% needs further research.

Table 4.4.3.1: Management of human resource model summary

Model	R	R Square (R²)	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig.
1	.799	.754	.692	.56280	19.980	.000

4.4.4 Analysis of organizational politics and organizational learning

Organizational politics can be described as self-serving and manipulative behaviour of individuals and groups to promote their self-interests at the expense of others and sometimes organizational goals as well. The respondents' responses to the different aspects of politics at different levels of agreement, where the mean and standard deviation were computed, are shown in the table 4.7 below. The respondents agreed that organizational politics influence decision making (M=3.6190, SD= 1.032), that they were aware of the presence organizational politics

(M=3.7100, SD=.884), that politics affect organizational learning (M=3.6000, SD=1.006). However, the respondents were non-committal as to as regard to if politicians have power or influence in their organization as shown by the (M=3.3762, SD= 1.256). There was high agreement that politics affects work relationships in organization (M=3.7429, SD=1.019)

Table 4.4.4: Aspects of politics

Aspects of politics	Mean(M)	Std. Deviation(SD)
Organizational politics influence decision making	3.6190	1.03200
Presence of organizational politics	3.7100	.88361
Organizational politics affects organizational learning	3.6000	1.00575
Influence of politicians in the organization	3.3762	1.25649
Politics affects work relationship in our organization	3.7429	1.01932

The model summary below shows the influence of politics on organizational learning obtained by doing a regression analysis of the aspects in the table 4.4.4 above. The value of R^2 is the coefficient of determination which shows the extent to which changes in dependent variables (Organizational learning) can be explained by the change in organizational politics. It shows that the study achieved 81.6% which is significant for the research to establish this variable as a determinant of organizational learning in government institutions

Table 4.4.4.1: Organizational politics model summary

Model	R	R Square (R^2)	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig.
1	.982	.816	.802	.41063	1.645	.069

4.5 Regression analysis

The researcher conducted multiple regression analysis so as to test the relationship between the variables. The researcher applied the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) to code, enter and compute the measurements of multiple regressions for the study. In the table below, the R is

the multiple correlation coefficients that show how strongly the multiple independent variables are related to the dependent variable. R square (R^2) is the coefficient of determination which explains the extent to which changes in dependent variables can be explained by the change in independent variables or the percentage of variation on the dependent variable (organizational learning) that is explained by all the four independent variables (leadership, organizational culture, management of human resources and politics).

The independent variables studied explain only (87.8%) of the determinants of organizational learning in the Kenyan government institutions. This means that the other variables not studied in this research contributed (12.2%) hence further research should be conducted to establish these other determinants of organizational learning in government institutions in Kenya.

Table 4.5.1: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square (R^2)	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.937	.878	.865		.65244

4.5.2 Coefficients of determination

As per the SPSS generated table below, the equation ($Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \epsilon$) becomes $Y = 0.843 + 0.642X_1 + 0.143X_2 + 0.467X_3 - 0.212X_4$. This regression equation shows that taking all the factors into account, that is, leadership, organizational culture, management of human resources and politics at a constant, the level of organizational learning will then be .843(84.3%). However, taking all the independent variables at zero, then an improvement in leadership will lead to 0.642 (64.2%) improvements in organizational learning, for organizational culture will lead to 0.143 (14.3%) improvement in learning within the organization, the same improvement in the management of human resources will increase the level of organizational learning by .467(46.7%), finally, an increase in organizational politics will lead to a decrease in organizational learning by -.212(21.2%). This depicts that leadership is a leading determinant in organizational learning, then management of human resources, organizational culture and politics which shows a negative relationship with organizational learning.

Table 4.5.2: Coefficients of determination

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	.843	.175		4.847	.000
	Leadership	.642	.082	.586	7.835	.000
	Organizational culture	.143	.083	.132	1.739	.034
	Management of human resources	.467	.063	.223	2.583	.011
	Politics	-.212	.082	-.246	2.806	.006

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses overall findings with the aim of answering the research questions. The chapter also presents the conclusions and recommendations from the current study based on the determinants of organizational learning in government institutions in Kenya. The specific objectives included: determining the role of leaders in organizational learning in the Kenyan government institutions, examining the effects of organizational culture on organizational learning, finding out how the management of human resources affects organizational learning and establishing the impact of politics on organizational learning in the Kenyan government institutions.

5.2 Summary of findings

The researcher sought to find out the determinants of organizational learning in Kenyan government institutions with. The specific objectives of the researcher was to determine the role of leaders in organizational learning, to examine the effects of organizational culture on organizational learning, to find out how the management of human resources affects organizational learning and to establish the impact of politics on organizational learning in the Kenyan government institutions. The study specifically focused on a target population of 1100 consisting of employees and management of NSSF. The study employed stratified random sampling technique with a sample of 121 respondents.

From the demographic data, the researcher established that most of the respondents had bachelor's degrees, followed by tertiary college diplomas and certificates, then masters' degree, the least being the secondary certificate and none with the PhD. Majority of the respondents were aged between 36 and 50 years and had worked in the organization for more than nine years which had enabled them to gain enough experience in their areas of expertise.

Regarding the aspect of leadership and organizational learning, the respondents agreed that leadership is very important for learning because leadership involves great influence. The

findings also established that the leaders in the organization partly support organizational learning and tended to be indifferent when asked if the top management lead by example. From the findings, it was also established that leaders do not quite uphold employee development and involvement despite its importance in organizational learning; however the respondents agreed that the top management have put in place some strategies for staff development. The respondents were also asked to ascertain that leaders have a vision for the organization and they had a mixed indication.

In terms of organizational learning on the overall, the employees tend to agree with most of the aspects. It was established that most of the respondents strongly agreed that organizational culture governs employee behaviour hence it influences employee performance and it generates commitment to the organization as showed by a high mean. The respondents were neutral as regard to whether there are continual changes in organization and if culture influences policy decisions showed by the mean of three. In the contrary, the findings indicate that the respondents disagreed that the organization is not fully committed to nurturing organizational learning; however, they agreed that organizational culture provides the context of organizational learning.

The study also established that more than half of the employees concur that effective HRM system creates a learning culture and that innovative organizations are effective in learning as well as recognition of professionalism and knowledge of staff is central to the development of organizational learning. The study also found out that majority of the respondents alluded that they had opportunities to learn what they want and staff training and development is encouraged in their organization. However they disagreed that there is no opportunity for promotion and that the organization gives employees freedom to innovate. The respondents had mixed indications as regard to the sense of achievement in their careers and the aspect of promotion in the organization.

The study further revealed that respondents agreed that organizational politics, which was another determinant of organizational learning, influence decision making hence affects work relationships and majority alluded that they were aware of organizational politics within the

organization. Most of the respondents also concur that politics affect organizational learning. However, the respondents had mixed reactions as regard to whether politicians have power or influence in their organization.

Regarding organizational learning in government institutions, the respondents were to indicate the extent to which they agreed with various aspects that will enable the researcher to establish whether the concept had been adopted in the organization. The findings reveal that majority of respondents agreed that the organization supports learning and that the top management supports knowledge management. This was indicated by majority agreeing that the top management allows the employees to frequently use the internet; they also encourage employees to acquire new knowledge and support for teamwork, social groups and networking which is fully encouraged as well as continual mapping of organizational and technical.

5.3 Conclusions

From the regression analysis, the study concludes that all the variables, that is, leadership, organizational culture, management of human resources and politics despite their level of influence or effect on organizational learning, are significant.

Consequently, the study revealed that leadership is a leading determinant in organizational learning despite the fact that leaders in the organization do not seem to have embraced the concept indicated by the indifference by majority of respondents. This was manifested by their non-committal if the top management is their role model and have a vision for the organization which are very crucial for organizational learning as they also form the basis of organizational culture that employees can be associate themselves with.

From the findings, it is concluded that organizational culture is very important because it shapes the perception and the behaviour of employees in the organization and that it provides the context of organizational learning. However, the organization has not fully adopted change management which is a pre requisite for organizational learning.

The management of human resources is also a very important aspect as it forms the human asset in the institution. The results of the study indicate that the organizations has invested greatly on

the management of personnel, however, employees are not satisfied with promotion opportunities and they are not given opportunity to innovate which are vital in enhancing creativity and learning. It may also reflect on improvement of organizational performance and employee commitment. The negative relationship between organizational learning and politics showed that politics impedes the development of a learning culture thus affecting work relationships despite the findings showing the presence of politics in NSSF.

It is also concluded that the organization is in the progress of adopting the concept of organizational learning indicated by the top management and leadership support for learning and knowledge management. However, the findings indicate that the organization does not conduct continual evaluation of knowledge and it lacks knowledge repository which are strategic resources for any organization. The study also established that mentoring programs are not fully established in the organization despite its importance in development of positive work place relationships and enhancing the performance of the organization.

5.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made in the light of the findings and conclusions to assist the management of NSSF. The study recommends that to effectively adopt the concept of organizational learning or any other initiative the management of any political or governmental organizations needs to make careful internal assessments to know how the employees perceive it as well as to put into consideration their organizational politics and organizational culture because it has great influence in their behaviour hence impeding their capacity to learn and change.

In order for the organization to realize its learning potential, top management is required to provide the right organizational environment to allow the development of individuals, groups and teams to assimilate and act upon information. The organizational structure should therefore allow systems and procedures to direct and motivate behaviour towards organizational learning. In addition, there is need to invest in knowledge management as a strategic asset by encouraging communication, offering opportunities to learn, and promoting the sharing and acquisition of appropriate knowledge. Hence, improving performance, creating a competitive advantage,

increase employee innovativeness; enhance integration and continuous improvement of the organization.

Further, it is important that the organization encourage employee innovation, develop mentoring programs guided by a clear vision and strategy among staff that will foster organizational learning. Moreover, it should be congruent with the desirable values of the organization hence must be tied to the culture so as not to be resisted. This will not only improve workplace relationships but also enhance the performance of the organization and further enhance organizational learning.

5.5 Areas for further research

The same study should be carried out in other organizations especially non-governmental organizations to find out if the same results will be obtained. Organizational learning is increasingly being considered as one of the fundamental sources of competitive advantage within the context of strategic management. However, most literature has not clearly linked organizational learning with sustainable competitive advantage hence there is need for further studies in this area.

REFERENCES

- Albert, M. (2005). Managing change: Creating a learning organization focused on quality. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, Vol.1.
- Amabile, T. M. (1998). How to kill creativity. *Harvard Business Review*.
- Angel, R. (2006). Putting an innovation culture into practice. *Ivey Business Journal*, 70(3).
- Argyris, C. and Schön, D. A. (1996). *Organizational Learning: Vol. 2. Theory, Method, and Practice*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Argyris, C. and Schon, D.A. (1978). *Organizational Learning*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley
- Armstrong, M. (2005). *A Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice*. 9th ed. Kogan Page, London and Sterling, VA
- Berthoin Antal, A., Dierkes, M., Child, J., & Nonaka, I. (2003). *Handbook of organizational learning and knowledge*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Bolt, J. F., & Brassard, C. (2004). Learning at the top: how CEOs set the tone for the knowledge organization. In M. Goldsmith, H. Morgan & A. J. Ogg (Eds.). *Leading organizational learning: harnessing the power of knowledge* 1st ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bryman, A and Bell, E. (2003). *Business Research Methods*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Burke, W. W. (1992). *Organizational development: A process of learning and changing*. 2nd ed. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Burns, J. M. (1998). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Chao, G. (2007). *Mentoring and organizational socialization: Networks for work adjustment in Belle Rose Ragins and Kathy Kram, The Handbook of Mentoring at Work Sage: California*
- Common, R. (2004). 'Organizational learning in a political environment: *improving policy-making in UK government*', *Policy Studies*25 (1)
- Cooper, D and Schindler, P. (2001).*Business Research Methods*. Boston: McGraw-Hill
- Cooper, D.R., & Schindler, P.S. (2006). *Business Research Methods, empirical Investigation. Journal of service research, 1(2).108-28*
- Coopey, J. (1995). 'The Learning Organization: Power, Politics, and Ideology'. *Management Learning*.
- Daft, R. L. (2005). *The leadership experience*. 3rd ed. Mason, OH: South-Western.
- Deal & Kennedy.(1982). *Organizational culture and strategic management*.InFincham, R and Rhodes, P. (2005).*Organizational Behaviour*.4th ed. Oxford University Press Inc., New York.
- Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) (2005).*Unlocking the Human Potential for Public Sector Performance, World Public Sector Report, United Nations, New York*.
- Dierkes, M., BerthoinAntal, A., Child, J., &Nonaka, I. (Eds.).(2003). *Handbook of organizational learning & knowledge*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Dougherty, T and Dreher, G. (2007).*Mentoring and Career Outcomes: in Belle Rose Ragins and Kathy Kram, The Handbook of Mentoring at Work Sage: California*
- Easterby, M. and Lyles, M. (2003).*The Blackwell handbook of Organizational Learning and Knowledge Management, Blackwell Publishing. Oxford*
- Easterby-Smith, M. and Lyles, M. (2003). 'Organizational Learning and Knowledge BlackwellHandbook of Organizational Learning and Knowledge Management, Oxford: Blackwell

- Fincham, R and Rhodes, P. (2005).Principles of Organizational Behaviour.4th ed. Oxford University Press Inc., New York.
- Fiol, C. M. & Lyles, M. (1985).Organizational learning.*Academy of Management Review*, 10 (4).
- Galpin, T. (1996, March).Connecting culture to organizational change. HR Magazine. Retrieved June 21,2013,fromhttp://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m3495/is_n3_v41/ai_18251530.
- Garratt, B. (1999).The learning organization. London: Fontana/Collins.
- Garvin, D. A. (1993).Building a learning organization.*Harvard Business Review*, 71(4).
- Gastil, J. (1997). ‘a definition and illustration of democratic leadership’, in Fincham et al.(2005). Principles of Organizational Behaviour.4th ed. Oxford University Press Inc., New York.
- Ghauri, P and Gronhaug, K.(2005). Research Methods in Business Studies, A practical Guide.3rd ed. Pearson Education Limited, London.
- Greve, H.R. (2003). Organizational learning from performance feedback: A behavioural perspective on innovation and change. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Huber, G.P. (1991). Organizational learning: The contributing processes and the literatures. *Organization Science*, 2 (1).
- Jones, Merrick L. (2001).Sustainable organizational capacity building: is organizational learning key? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, vol. 12, issue1, Feb. 2001.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). Research Methodology.Methods and Techniques. (2nded.). New Delhi: New Age International.
- Leeuw, F. L., Rist, R. C., and Sonnichsen, R. C. (eds.) (1994).Can Governments Learn?Comparative Perspective on Evaluation and Organizational Learning. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction.
- Levitt, B. & March, J.(1996).‘Organizational learning’, in Organizational Learning, in M. Cohen & L. Sproull, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Lewis, M. & Moultrie, J. (2005).The organizational innovation laboratory.Creativity and Innovation Management, 14 (1).
- Lohman, M. C. (2005). A survey of factors influencing the engagement of two professional groups in informal workplace learning activities.*Human Resource Development Quarterly Journal*, 16(4).

- Mugenda, O. and Mugenda, A. (2003). *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative approaches*. Nairobi, Acts Press.
- Nevis, E. C., DiBella, A. J., & Gould, J. M. (1995). *Understanding Organizations as learning systems*. *Sloan Management Review*, 6(2).
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Olsen, J., G. Peters (1996). 'Learning from experience' in J. Olsen and G. Peters *Lessons from experience*, Oslo: Scandinavian University Press.
- OVP/MOF.(1992). *Policy Paper on Public Enterprise Reform and Privatization*.
- Pearce, J. and Robinson, R (2005). *Strategic Management*, 9th Edition, New York.
- Pfeffer, J. (1997). *New Directions for Organizational Theory*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Ragins, B and Kram, K. (2007). *The Hand Book of Mentoring at Work*. California, Sage.
- Robbins, S. P. (2009). *Organizational behavior*. (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Sadler, P. (2003). *Leadership and organizational learning*. In M. Dierkes, A. Berthoin Antal, J. Child & I. Nonaka (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational learning and knowledge*. Oxford University Press, Inc., New York.
- Sambrook, S. & Stewart, J. (2000). *Factors influencing learning in European learning oriented organizations: issues for management*. *Journal of European Industrial Training*.
- Senge, P.M. (1990). *The Fifth Discipline: the art and practice of the learning organization*. Doubleday, New York.
- Shipton, H., Dawson, J., West, M., & Patterson, M. (2002). *Learning in manufacturing organizations: what factors predict effectiveness?* *Human Resource Development International Journal* 5(1).
- Stata, R. (1989). *Organizational learning-the key to management innovation*. *Sloan Management Review*. Vol.30(3).
- Stata, R. (1996). 'Organizational learning: the key to management innovation', in *How Organizations Learn*, ed. K. Starkey, International Thomson Business Press, London.

- Suh, T. (2002). Encouraged, motivated and learning oriented for working creatively and successfully: A case of Korean workers in marketing communications. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 8(3).
- Tainio, R, Lilja, K., & Santalainen, T. J. (2003). In M. Dierkes, A. BerthoinAntal, J. Child & I. Nonaka (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational leadership and knowledge*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Thompson, A. and Strickland, A. (2003). *Strategic Management: Concepts and cases*, 13th edition, Tata McGraw-Hill
- Thompson, L. (2003). Improving the creativity of organizational work groups. *Academy of Management Executive Journal* 17(1).
- Tushman, M. & Nadler, D. (1996). 'Organizing for innovation', in *How Organizations Learn*, ed K. Starkey, International Thomson Business Press, London.
- Ulrich, D. (1998). A new mandate for human resources. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(1).
- Unlocking the Human Potential for Public Sector Performance report (2003). *The Devolution of the Management of State Human Resources*.
- Weber, C., & BerthoinAntal, A. (2003). The role of time in organizational learning. In M. Dierkes, A. BerthoinAntal, J. Child & I. Nonaka (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational learning and knowledge*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.
- Weick, K.E. & Westley, F. (2001). Organizational learning. In S. Clegg, C. Hardy, and W. Nord (Eds.) *Handbook of Organization Studies*. London: Sage.
- Wilson, F. M. (2004). *Organizational Behaviour and Work: A critical Introduction*, Oxford. University Press., New York
- Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in organizations*. 5th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Dear participant,

Ref: Academic research in NSSF

My name is Joan Soi. I am a post graduate student at Kenyatta University doing an academic research about “*Determinants of Organizational Learning in Kenyan Government institutions*”. The study is in partial fulfilment for the award of Master’s Degree in Business Administration (Strategic Management option).

The purpose of this letter is therefore to request that you kindly fill the attached questionnaire that provides necessary information relating to the research. The information provided in the questionnaire will solely be used for academic purposes and will be strictly confidential.

Your assistance will be highly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,

Joan Soi

Registration NO: D53/CTY/PT/23191/2011

APPENDIX 11: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: Respondents Demographic characteristics

1. Indicate your Gender?

Male [] Female []

2. What is your age?

Between 18-25 [] Between 26-35 [] Between 36-40 []

Between 41-44 [] Between 45-50 [] 50 and above []

3. How long have you worked with NSSF?

1-2 Years [] 3-5 Years [] 6-8 Years [] 9-11 Years []

12 and above []

4. In which respondent category are you?

Senior Management staff [] Functional management [] Operational staff []

5. What is your highest level of education and training attained?

Secondary certificate [] College certificate [] Diploma []

Bachelor's Degree [] Masters [] Doctorate degree []

SECTION B: Organizational learning

Mark with a tick (√) for each question

To what extend do you agree with the following statements: Where,

1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neither disagree nor agree 4= Agree

5= Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Our organization supports learning					
2. Knowledge sharing is encouraged in our organization					
3. Top management supports knowledge management					
4. Our organization encourages team work, social groups and networking					
5. New knowledge acquisition is encouraged in our organization					
6. Frequent internet use is discouraged in the					

organization					
7. Our organization have an electronic knowledge repository					
8. There is continual mapping of the firm's organizational and technical capabilities					
9. Knowledge is continually evaluated in our organization					
10. Information is easy to access, retrieved and exchanged in our organization					

SECTION C

PART 1: Leadership and organizational learning

Mark with a tick (√) for each question

To what extend do you agree with the following statements: Where,

1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neither disagree nor agree 4= Agree

5=Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am aware that leadership is imperative for productive learning in organization					
2. Leaders in our organization encourage organizational learning					
3. Top management lead by example in our organization					
4. Our leaders upholds participatory development and employee involvement					
5. Our leaders have a vision for the organization					

6. I am fully aware that our leaders have strategies for staff development					
7. I know that leadership involves influence					

PART 11: Organizational Culture and organizational learning

To what extent do you agree with the following statements: where,

1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neither disagree nor agree 4= Agree
5=Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
8. Organizational culture governs employee behaviour					
9. Employees are nurtured from our organizational culture					
10. I believe that organizational culture generates commitment to an organization					
11. Quality of organizational culture is important for organizational performance and learning					
12. Our organization embraces change from time to time					
13. I am fully aware that organizational culture helps in guiding policy making					
14. Our culture encourages employee participation in decision making					
15. Our organization is not fully committed to nurturing organizational learning					
16. Organizational culture provides the context of learning					
17. Organizational structure does not affect learning in the organization					

PART 111: Management of Human Resources and organizational learning

To what extend do you agree with the following statements: where,

1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neither disagree nor agree 4= Agree
5=Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
18.I am aware that an effective human resource management system creates a learning culture					
19. Innovative organizations are highly effective learning systems					
20. Recognition of professionalism and knowledge of staff is central to the development of organizational learning					
21. I have opportunities to learn what I want to learn					
22. Staff training and career development is encouraged in our organization					
23. There is no opportunity of promotion in my organization					
24. I feel a sense of achievement in my career					
25. Our organization gives employees freedom to innovate					
26. Our organization have put in place strategies that encourages knowledge sharing and management					
27. I am aware that our organization promotes mentoring programs					

PART 1V: Politics and Organizational Learning

To what extend do you agree with the following statements: where,

1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neither disagree nor agree 4= Agree
5=Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
28. I am fully aware that organizational politics influences decision making in my organization					
29. I am fully aware of organizational politics in our organization					
30. Organizational politics affects organizational learning					
31. Politicians have power in our organization					
32. Politics affects work relationship in our organization					

THANK YOU.