CHANGING SCRIPTS IN NIGERIAN HIGHER EDUCATION: THE CASE OF KWARA STATE POLYTECHNIC

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to gain an understanding of the process of change in Nigerian higher education, adopting Kwara State Polytechnic as a case study. A research question was posed. How can we understand the process of change in Kwara State Polytechnic?

This thesis wishes to explore this question through the interactions of people within an organisational setting as they produce patterned relations and action. Many writers (Akpan, 1987; Nwagwu, 1997; Adeniyi, 2001; Dike, 2002) have attempted to analyse change from different perspectives. The combination of structuration theory and neoinstitutionalism is proposed here, adopting the notion of scripts as a tool of analysis in studying organisational change. Scripts as a tool of analysis have been used in the developed world, which has a different culture from the developing world. They provide a valuable opportunity for research into the complexity of change, which the traditional stage models of change cannot adequately grasp because of the magnitude and complexity of change.

I identified various scripts in admission processes in Kwara State Polytechnic. I discovered the nature of scripts used by participants in the case study during the entire period under investigation (1974-2010). While identifying eight different scripts at work, I categorised these into two: bureaucratic and flexible scripts. Through the use of scripts, several events were identified that brought about changes in scripted actions. Moreover, I identified different factors responsible for continuous change in scripts which made the scripts unpredictable. In doing so, I built on and extended the work of other authors including Barley and Tolbert (1997) and Dent and Barry (2004), who have

analysed change in organisations by studying scripts in use to explain the impact of managerialism on professionalism in higher education. This research work contributed to the study of change management by critically examining the methodology used to study the institutionalisation process. The use of scripts, as a tool of analysis, enables researchers to understand the complexity of change.

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Glossary

ANAN: Association of National Accountants of Nigeria

ASUU: Academic Staff Union of Universities

ASUP: Academic Staff Union of Polytechnics

APU: Academic Planning Unit

CIMN: Chartered Institute of Marketing of Nigeria

CSC: Certificate Screening Committee

ECOWAS: Economic Community of West African States

ELDS: Educationally Less Developed State

ETF: Education Trust Fund

HND: Higher National Diploma

HOD: Head of Department

ICAN: Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria

IGR: Internal Generated Revenue

IJMB: Interim Joint and Matriculation Board

JAMB: Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board

MPCEME: Monotechnics, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education

NABTEB: National Business and Technical Examinations Boards

NALV: Nigerian Arabic Language Village

NBTE: National Board for Technical Education

NCCE: National Commission for Colleges of Education

NCNE: National Commission for Nomadic Education

ND: National Diploma

NECO: National Examinations Council

NEP: National Education Policy

NERDC: Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council

NFLV: Nigerian French Language Board

NIEPA: National Institute for Education Planning and Administration

NIMARK: Nigerian Marketing Association

NIMN: National Institute of Marketing of Nigeria

NINLAN: National Institute for Nigerian Languages

NLC: National Library of Nigeria

NMC: National Mathematical Centre

NPM: New Public Management

NTI: National Teacher Institute

NUC: National Universities Commission

SUBEB: State Universal Basic Education Board

UME: University Matriculation Examination

UNESCO: United Nation Economic, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UTME: Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination

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Dedication

To my wife, Dr Nimah Modupe Abdulraheem and my children, Mariam, Habibah, Faiz and Mubarak,

INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

This thesis intends to develop an understanding of the process of change in Nigerian higher education, especially in the public sector. Change involves process and identity, and it evolves over time (Chiaburu, 2006). The approach to be adopted for this thesis is to focus on the interactions of people and how these lead to change. For a better understanding of the interactions of workers in a work organisation, Kwara State Polytechnic, Nigeria, was selected as a case study. The admission process was selected from the operations of the organisation. The choice of this activity was based on the premise that it affects all the stakeholders and is subjected to external influence. Moreover, most of the policy changes and reforms of the federal government in higher education revolve around the process of admission. Besides, public organisations present (Collins, 1998) an interesting paradox from the point of view of change, because the resource of the state and quality is a major problem of public service. As the resource of the government changes, all public organisations will also change to adapt to the available resources.

The priority of the Federal Government of Nigeria is to improve the quality of education at all levels. The area of concern in the implication of National Policy of Education is access to higher education (admission) (Obanya et al., 2005). I propose to adopt the notion of scripts as a tool of analysis in understanding the process of change in the admission processes of Kwara State Polytechnic. Scripts provide a valuable opportunity for research into the complexity of change, which the traditional stage models of change cannot adequately grasp because of the magnitude and complexity of

change. Lewin's work on change has been criticised for ignoring issues such as organisational conflict and politics (Burnes, 2004).

The Managerial approach to studying the process of change by categorisation into stages and with focus on leadership does not adequately grasp the complexity of the process of change in Nigerian higher education. These managerial models are highly programmed but the process of change cannot be treated as machine-like because of the effect of interactions of human agency that can produce change. Furthermore, the relationship of the focal organisation with other organisations is not given sufficient prominence in the managerial approach to change.

My argument is that an alternative tool of analysis into the study of the process of change in Nigerian higher education is desirable, and I propose the use of scripts. Scripts can be perceived as "behavioural regularities," which are "observable, recurrent activities and patterns of interaction characteristic of a particular setting". Scripts provide a means of understanding the complexity of change by focusing on the behavioural interactions of human agency and the interactions of events and scripts.

However, most of the empirical research into change using scripts as a tool of analysis has been carried out in the developed world. Dent and Barry (2004, p.18) used the notion of scripts as a means of conceptualising the way in which the new managerialist template has been iteratively encoded, enacted and revised within hospitals and universities. The cultures of these countries are different from developing countries, which renders the process of change quite distinct. There are also differences in those factors that are responsible for different behaviours of people, which results in the institutionalisation of organisations. This institutionalisation has been influenced in part

by stakeholders' interests, who have also been affected by their cultural beliefs and political power. Therefore, this research work will offer unique contribution to knowledge by looking at change in Nigeria, an area that remains underdeveloped in the study of the process of change.

Background information

One major investment in human capital necessary for industrial development and economic growth is education (Cheek, 2002; Oketch, 2005). Ranson (1994) believed that the purpose of education is to facilitate individual reasoning and independence of action, and to realise his or her potential. Besides the important role quality education plays in the economic development of a nation, the provision of education by a government is one way of facilitating the enjoyment of right to human dignity and freedom of information (Jekayinfa and Kolawole, 2003).

In order to achieve economic development and provide quality education to its citizens, the Nigerian government established some higher institutions of learning. Education in Nigeria is now regarded as the responsibility of the federal government, and they are expected to provide all levels of education for its citizens.

These higher institutions were established to achieve a set of objectives such as high quality of education, which will enhance the knowledge capacity of the students that will enable them to contribute to the development of the country. However, the Nigerian education system has been facing crisis, which is making it difficult to meet the yearnings and aspirations of Nigerians (Adeyemi, 2001). The roles of tertiary educational organisations however, have been changing from providing trained manpower and creating knowledge to supporting local, regional and national economic

development (Curri, 2008). This is because institutions are operating in a society with stakeholders exerting pressures (Harvey et al., 2006) and which is now making teaching more important as a means of achieving these objectives. Therefore, these organisations witnessed many structural and policy changes. Moreover, education planning during the military rule (the military ruled for twenty-five years) did not focus on the need of society and students, but on the mechanics and logistics of education. Nwagwu (1997) argued that the policy of the government to establish federal universities and polytechnics or colleges of education in every state of the federation was politically motivated. This decision was not economically and educationally a rational decision.

The instability in the education sector led to some crises in some organisations, inconsistencies in the measurement of standards and continuous falling in the standard of education (Nwagwu, 1997). The crisis in the educational system is viewed from different perspectives. Ocho (1995) grouped crises in the Nigerian educational system by period. Ocho (1995) identified the crisis of 1942–1954 as the crisis of irrelevance, 1955–1969 as the crisis of unequal expansion, 1970–1983 as the crisis of unplanned expansion and 1984–1994 as the crisis of financial inadequacy.

Similarly, according to Nwagwu (1997), poor and unstable leadership are the factors responsible for various crises which are plaguing the Nigerian education system. Some of the past leaders were not committed to the development of the educational system, partly because of a lack of defined mandate and duration, especially during the military rules between 1966 and 1989, leading to a lack of long-term planning. This type of operational environment makes the educational system vulnerable to crisis. However, Adeyemi (2001) also argued that the dwindling of resources available to the Nigeria

government and economic stagnation are major problems responsible for the educational crisis in Nigeria. The crisis started when the government decided to take over primary and post-primary educational organisations from religious bodies and voluntary organisations in 1967. Policy changes may be the result of crisis situations governed by a relatively loose policy network (Chaques and Palan, 2009).

Therefore, the federal government took over all state universities, polytechnics and colleges of education. However, despite this measure to maintain standards, Daramola (2003) argues that there were problems that hampered the development of education. These problems include the responsibility for and control of society's education, insufficient resources and capacity required to maintain these organisations as a result of a fast growing population, and which the federal government could not provide. There has been continuous and rapid deterioration in educational facilities, falling educational standards and low morale of educational workers at all levels.

According to Adeyemi (2001), Nigeria suffered a decline in economic growth in the mid 1970s from an average of 8% to 2% in the 1990s. This situation led to a social crisis where frustrated young people developed various social vices like cultism in many tertiary institutions of learning. Rotimi (2005) viewed cultism as an extension of the culture of violence, which is so visible and prevalent in Nigerian society. The students resorted to violence, such as killing other students, harassing and threatening members of staff and dictating to management on certain issues affecting them. In most cases, the cult activities normally led to the closure of the organisation to allow for peace.

As change in the formal system of education requires political decisions and legislation, other kinds of factors must be considered, such as the degree to which feelings of relative deprivation (Runciman, 1966) are concentrated within certain segments of the population; the degree to which people are aware of themselves as members of a potential or actual group, who have certain feelings and difficulties in common and who may be able to articulate their demands for restitution; and the degree to which those in power are responsive to this socially concentrated demand, whether potential or actual. Therefore, to understand changes in the structure of the educational system in terms of its functions of social control, it is necessary to see the development of education in terms of the legislative response of those in power to what they perceive as threats and to what they define as a stable social order (Runciman, 1966).

Reasons for this research

The Nigerian educational system has been subjected to different reform agendas. There are many educational policies in Nigeria, released in the form of decrees and edicts, which have not been implemented as a result of changes in government leadership. Continuous changes in the educational policy in the Nigerian higher education system have been a major concern for the government and other stakeholders. In 2005 the honourable minister of education asserted that there are problems that continue to keep standards and quality of education low in tertiary education. She attributed these problems to admission of candidates beyond organisational capacity, thereby neglecting quality control. Despite the concern of the federal government on the education system and subsequent reform agenda, expected results have not been achieved.

Moreover, the twofold educational reforms in the educational sector of the government's (2007–2010) seven-point agenda aimed to ensure firstly, the minimum acceptable standards of education for all citizens. Secondly, the aim is to have a strategic educational plan, which will ensure excellence in both the tutoring and learning of skills in science and technology necessary to produce the future innovators and industrialists of Nigeria.

The federal government therefore continues to initiate reforms in educational policy with the aim of bringing the educational system in line with international good practice (Saint et al., 2003). Reforms in the education system are a global trend. Although, educational reform is not peculiar to Nigeria alone and spans many countries as they borrow and exchange ideas (Spillane and Kenny, 2012), these reforms have an impact on organisational value and the quality of education in various institutions of higher learning. However, what standards ought to be in Nigerian education is controversial, and it is difficult to determine whether the standards of education are falling or rising (Nwagwu, 2007).

Many authors and writers mentioned about have attempted to analyse the process of change in Nigerian higher education system using the managerial approach and emphasising the role of leaders. Managerial approach of studying the process of change by categorisation into stages and with focus on leadership does not adequately grasp the complexity of the process of change in Nigerian higher education. These managerial models are highly programmed but the process of change cannot be treated as machine-like because of the effect of interactions of human agency that can produce change. Furthermore, the relationship of the focal organisation with other organisations is not given sufficient prominence in the managerial approach to change.

I therefore wish to research this area to identify the process for changes in the reform programmes and not achieving desired result. I will study the process of introducing reforms different from those discussed by past authors on the problems of higher education in Nigeria. If we understood the change process we might understand why reforms have not been successful. I am concerned about the effects of the reform agenda on the educational system, including an unstable academic calendar, poor educational facilities, courses failing accreditation, etc.

My argument is that alternative tool of analysis into the study of the process of change in Nigerian higher education is desirable and I propose the use of scripts. Scripts provide a means of understanding the complexity of change by focusing on the behavioural interactions of human agency and the interactions of events and scripts. The use of scripts in the process of change in Nigerian higher education was able to explain the causes, effects and implications of certain events introduced in form of reforms to the educational system.

Research objectives

- 1. To understand the process of change in Nigerian higher education;
- 2. To examine the impact of policy reforms of change through time on the organisation;
- 3. To identify, evaluate and explore different scripts in admission processes and their implications on the education system in Nigeria.

Research question: How far can the concept of 'scripts' as developed within New Institutionalist theory usefully explain the process of change within a Nigerian polytechnic?

Methodology

The approach of this work is qualitative. This research work uses multiple methods to address the research questions. The data sources in this research work include interviews with stakeholders of Kwara State Polytechnic, and documents from Kwara State Polytechnic, the regulatory body, the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), the Federal Ministry of Education, the Kwara State Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board, Kwara State University and the Federal Character Commission. Other sources of data include published texts, documents from different organisations such as textbooks and journal articles, and observations of certain events such as management meetings at Kwara State Polytechnic.

Scope

The scope of the research will be higher education in the Nigerian public sector, taking Kwara State Polytechnic as a case study. This research work will cover the period between the time when Kwara State Polytechnic was established in 1974 and 2010. The reason for the choice of this case study arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena. Kwara faced all the pressures for change from the federal government (and so is in this respect 'representative' of Nigerian HE), but also faces other forces for change at State level. Kwara State Polytechnic might be seen to be facing more pressures for change than other (federal) polytechnics. However, this does not mean it is typical of all Nigerian polytechnics. It can nevertheless be used for what Yin (2009, p.15) describes as 'analytical generalisation', not 'statistical generalisation'.

Moreover, Kwara State Polytechnic met the three conditions (Yin, 2003) for the choice of a case study: the type of research question posed, the extent of control an investigator has over actual behavioural events, and the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to historical events. The 'how' question deals with operational links that need to be traced over time, and Kwara State Polytechnic provides the opportunity to trace the changing scripts.

According to Yin (2003), case study relies on, among other things, direct observation of the events being studied and interviews of the persons involved in the events, as well as when the relevant behaviours cannot be manipulated. I would have the opportunity to carry out direct observation and interviews of the persons involved without manipulating their behaviour. The rationale for the choice of the period 1974 to 2010 is: there were planned changes that affected the main objectives of establishing Kwara State Polytechnic, and these major changes span through this period and were intended to be externally induced; internal changes also occurred at different times during this period, and these changes occurred for different reasons not limited to external influence; and the concept of scripts analysis requires the comparison of changes that have taken place, and comparing these changes will enable us to understand changes in scripts (if any).

This thesis draws insights from the following empirical and theoretical articles related to the objectives of this research work:

Barley, R. S. and Tolbert, P. S. (1997) Institutionalisation and Structuration: Studying the Links between Action and Institution; Graetz, F. and Smith, A. C. T. (2010) Managing organisational change: A philosophies of change approach; Morgan, G. and Sturdy, A. (2000) *Beyond organisational change*. *Structure, discourse and power in UK Financial Services*; Barry, J., Berg, E. and Chandler, J. (2006) Academic shape shifting: Gender, management and identities in Sweden and England. And Movement and change in the public sector. Bringing social movements into the analysis; Dent, M., Chandler, J. and Barry, J. (eds) *Questioning the New Public Management*.

2. CONTEXT AND POLICY OF NIGERIAN HIGHER EDUCATION

Introduction

The chapter will discuss the context and policy of Nigerian higher education in the public sector as the focus of the change for the empirical research investigation. The case study adopted in this thesis lies within the public sector, which has different characteristics from the private. Although there are private polytechnics in Nigeria, these are guided and regulated by the government.

The structure of the education system in Nigeria and Kwara State Polytechnic in particular and the changes arising from certain events introduced into the admission process will be examined. The aim is to analyse the important characteristics of the institution with regards to the aims, policies and styles of administration which have a direct bearing on the admission process. The account will explain the independent data of institutions and events, which will later be linked with the changing scripts at Kwara State Polytechnic. The nature of education institutions in Nigeria in relation to the development of Kwara State Polytechnic and the establishment of regulatory bodies is important in understanding the reasons behind the changing scripts in institutions.

Higher institutions in Nigeria

The federal government of Nigeria has proprietorship of over 62 tertiary education institutions in Nigeria. These include 36 universities, 21 polytechnics and 19 colleges of education, and 81 secondary institutions, comprising 67 secondary schools and 14 technical colleges. The state governments own 37 universities, 38 polytechnics and colleges of education, and about 6,000 secondary schools. There are 45 universities and 15 polytechnics in the private sector.

Any system of governance is based on institutions, within which various appropriate activities take place. The rules referred to not only apply to the specific terms of a particular interaction or exchange, but also to the relationships incorporated in contracts, common or customary laws, statutes and even constitutions. In other words, the rules that define an institution may or may not be written down, as long as it is known by those who have to operate with or within it.

Higher education could be defined in different ways depending on the context. The restrictive use of the term according to Akpan (1987) is to equate it with university education. Some view it as the award of degrees, diplomas and certificates resulting from education. It could also be regarded as tertiary level education. However, a comprehensive definition of higher education was provided in the Nigerian National Policy on Education (1981, p.72), which 'covers the post-secondary section of the national educational system which is given in Universities, Polytechnics, and Colleges of Technology, Colleges of Education and Advanced Teachers Colleges, correspondence colleges and such institutions as may be allied to them'.

Higher education in Nigeria in the eighties comprised public organisations such as University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, University of Ilorin, University of Ibadan, University of Benin, Federal College of Education, Kano, Kaduna Polytechnic and Kwara State Polytechnic. The government was responsible for funding both in terms of capital projects and recurrent expenditure. However, agitation for increase in salary from unions and the need for the government to expand and establish higher institutions of learning put pressure on government expenses in this sector.

This led to the inability of some state governments in not been able to meet the financial obligations to run these institutions. Therefore some higher institutions in Nigeria introduced tuition fees and tuition was increased in those institutions that had been paying, including for example Kwara State Polytechnic to support the inadequate funding from the government. However, the major aim of higher education in Nigeria is to be socially responsive to its citizens. The primary aim is therefore not to generate revenue but to provide essential services including education to its citizens.

The structure and effectiveness of enforcing rules are a critical aspect of an institution. Not infrequently, enforcement entails the establishment of a special agent or third party such as the police, the judicial authorities or some other type of official whose responsibility it is to ensure that the institution works, in the sense that the rules are obeyed. At the extreme, enforcement agents can include associations, communities or the state.

Enforcement (Olowu et al., 1995) is, however, typically imperfect. This is partly because the interests of principals and agents are hardly ever identical and partly because at the margin, the benefit from additional monitoring or policing has to be balanced against the incremental costs. For this reason, society invests in ideological persuasion and education to ensure that a very high proportion of its members observe certain norms of behaviour compatible with the effective functioning of its institutions.

Norms are thus constraints on behaviour that arise from the formal and informal rules that govern society. They are influenced by ideologies that derive from religious as well as from social, cultural and political values. They thus constitute codes of conduct, taboos or standards of behaviour that make it possible for society to insist on

accountability in the interactive situation encapsulated in institutions. Thus, to the extent that individuals believe in and operate within these norms, they will forego opportunities to cheat, steal or engage in opportunistic behaviour.

Admission to tertiary institutions in Nigeria

This thesis focuses on the admission system of tertiary institutions in Nigeria especially the polytechnic system. Admitting students to Nigerian higher institution at all levels, federal, state and private universities and polytechnics has been the duty of Joint Admissions ad Matriculation Board (JAMB). A candidate seeking for admission should have met certain requirements before writing JAMB examination. JAMB plays a critical role in harmonising admission the nation's tertiary institution.

The aim of establishing JAMB was to find solutions to some problems identified in the admission to higher institutions. These problems included multiple applications for admissions, multiple admissions to institutions and entrance examinations (Onwunli and Agho, 2004). When the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) was established, the Board was to conduct examinations and offer admission to successful candidates. Admission to higher institutions in Nigeria is controlled by JAMB, which is responsible for preparing and administering the admission examinations and compiling the results. JAMB gives strict guidelines to institutions on the choice of candidates to admit. It is the responsibility of JAMB to make the final decision and offer candidates admission to their institution of choice. Admission requirements were based on JAMB scores and the Board determines the cut-off points.

As a policy, the entry qualifications for a candidate seeking admissions for degree programmes, National Diploma (ND) or National Certificate on Education (NCE) is that such candidate must have passed the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) examination or the National Examination Council (NECO) with at least five credits, at one or two sittings. This must include credit pass in English Language and Mathematics.

Moreover, the candidate must write and pass Universities Matriculation Examination (UME) or Monotechnics, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education Matriculation Examination (MPCE). The two examinations are conducted by the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB). The federal government of Nigeria established JAMB in order to give every Nigerian citizen aspiring to further his/her education equal opportunity by writing a uniform examination, address the problem of multiple admissions and to ensure that the issue of federal character is properly handled in the admission process.

The next stage in the process is that JAMB will send the results to Universities or Polytechnics chosen by the candidates, so that each institution selects and recommends candidates to JAMB for admission. However, each institution is allowed to conduct tests/interview termed screening for candidates before selecting those to recommend.

Therefore JAMB admits qualified candidates by Direct Entry to Universities or Polytechnics that recommend them. The Board also collates and disseminates information on all matters relating to admissions into tertiary institutions or any other relevant to the discharge of functions of the Board.

However, the 'processes and documents of educational attainment or requirements described above that the prospective student needs to start a course at the polytechnic is different from the analytical concept of 'script' that I will set out and explain in the theory section of chapter 4.

Structure of the education system in Nigeria

The structure of the education system in Nigeria continues to change based on the aspirations of the government, the education programme and the style of administration, and is therefore not static. Maintaining a functioning structure is important not only for the education system, but also for the social and economic environment of the country. However, McCrystal and McAleer (2003) argue that the changing education structure will prepare students to meet the changing demands. The structures have pushed the education sector to deal with the continuing changes at both an individual role level and an organisational level. The structure is thus designed to prepare the students to face future changes and enhance their higher education and social status with power and responsibility.

Fasasi (2008) views structure as an arrangement of persons, programmes, positions or units in a specific manner, with a view to achieving a specific objective. It is a framework that depicts the period of schooling. The structure of education in Nigeria, like other aspects of the education system, continues to change in line with the dynamics of education itself, aspirations of the government and style of administration. According to the federal government 'Education is the most important instrument of change, any fundamental change in the intellectual and social outlook of any society has to be preceded by an educational revolution' (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2006, p.8).

The hierarchical structure of the education system in Nigeria has its base in early childhood education (0–5 years of pre-primary school), in which the government's role has been limited to setting standards, providing curriculum guidelines and training teachers within the private sector providing educational service. The basic education consists of compulsory primary and junior secondary education. The senior secondary school level includes both an academic curriculum provided in general secondary schools and other curricula provided in technical colleges and vocational centres. The tertiary level of education comprising universities, polytechnics and colleges of education is charged with responsibility for the production of different categories of high-calibre manpower required for national development.

Education in Nigeria has evolved over a long period of time, with a series of policy changes. The 1976 Universal Policy Education Programme gave every child the right to tuition-free primary education. The introduction of Universal Primary Education programmes in the Western region in 1955 and the Eastern region in 1957 led to the 6-5-4 or 6-5-2-3 system, that is, six years of primary, five years of secondary and four years of higher education, or for those who took a two-year Higher School Certificate (HSC) course after secondary education, there were three years of higher education. In the northern part of Nigeria, there was a five-year primary, three-year middle school and five-year secondary school system. After independence in 1960, a variety of structures still existed around the country.

The 6-3-3-4 system was introduced in 1977 following the introduction of the National Policy on Education. This was introduced to bring uniformity to the structure of education throughout the country. The 6-3-3-4 system stipulates six years of primary education, followed by three years of junior secondary school and three years of senior

secondary education. The last segment of four years is for university or polytechnic education. Tertiary education also includes colleges of education. The current structure of education in Nigeria based on the 6-3-3-4 system began with the implementation of the National Policy on Education (NPE) in 1977. (See appendix 1, structure of education system in Nigeria).

Policy Implementation

The educational reforms require a complex management network in order to achieve effective implementation. The implementation of these reforms and admission policies led to the introduction Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme, which is aimed in providing free and compulsory basic education for every Nigerian child of primary and junior secondary school age. The strategies employed by UBE include the conduct of the National Needs Assessment Survey, the Special Monitoring of the Utilisation of the UBE/FGN Intervention Fund, and the Financing Monitoring of the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB)'s account (Olubodun, 2008). There was also the introduction of post-UME screening exercise in the tertiary institutions of learning.

However, the major cause of failure for most of these reforms is the ineffective implementation of these policies. There were some challenges that militated against the effective implementation.

Challenges of the education system

Not all the reforms in Nigerian higher education were successful or proved beneficial to people. There were different challenges in implementing some of these reforms successfully. There have been cases where people were either afraid, or unwilling, or were not allowed to express their feelings openly on the reforms agenda. In some

cases, there might not be enthusiasm for innovation and change, partly because there were more pressing issues like poverty, limited access to education, inequality, corruption and abuse. Therefore, reforms were often considered as absurd.

Changing structures (Lawton and Rose, 1994) has often tended to be the focus of reforms in public services. Although change in the education system in Nigeria is inevitable, however, because of the inefficiency that pervades the whole system, what and how to change became a big challenge for the government (Dike, 2002). Within a country there is a constantly evolving public perception of what an education system should have as its priority. The Nigerian government failed to set its priorities and rather politicised the most important change required in this system. Employees expect certain changes, and as Chandler et al. (2002) argue, the change in the public sector has caused varying feelings among employees.

As expectations continue to change, governments have responded to these expectations with public sector reforms in order to improve performance (Blum, 2009). Although public sectors adapt in different ways, governments guide the adaptation process. Blum (2009) argues that the choice of structures is influenced by the appropriateness of a particular political organisation and customer needs. The recognition of diversity of organisational forms is linked to the implementation of reforms and its outcome. Naschold (2009) pointed out that most unsuccessful reform is because of the failure to recognise that political and administrative systems differs greatly, depending on the substantive structure and the time of introducing the reform. Their differences require different forms of process qualification in personnel, organisational and technological terms.

The state government, in an attempt to redress most of these problems and challenges, introduced the principle of making profits in the management of the organisation. This principle is to generate funds internally to meet the financial obligations of the organisation. The state government expected these education organisations to generate 'profit', and to use part of it to augment staff salaries and part for capital projects. They are also expected to reduce staff salaries, and the strategy adopted was to lay off 'top heavy' staff and recruit young graduates to replace them.

Ethical issues in policy implementation

Responses of the government and stakeholders in the education system in Nigeria have some ethical issues in addressing the challenges. Various agencies of education are actively involved in unhealthy rivalry or competition. According to Daramola (2003), the most prominent problems of education development in Nigeria are responsibility and control, as evidenced in the conflicts between the federal, state and local governments in the management and control of various levels of education in the country. Every education process has an ethical bearing, and this ethic has a strong tie with societal norms. Ethics prescribes the standard to be adopted by a given society (Amaele, 2007). It also guides people in dealing with other individuals, groups and organisations (Burnes, 2009). Therefore, the introduction of a business principle of making profits in the Nigerian education system affects the ethical concept of education.

There are also ethics in the management of public sector organisations. Gopalakrishnan et al. (2008, p.756) argues that 'Ethics has taken centre stage in the management of organisations. The underlying values of individuals, groups, and organisations have a significant impact not only on organisations but also on society

as a whole...' The level of education development in Nigeria and the objective of education do not require the principles of profit orientation in the public sector. This is because there are issues relating to strategic change or reforms and leadership of ethical policy. These issues, according to Grieves (2010), are concerned with consequences of organisational decisions for stakeholders and a clearer personal understanding of our own ethical position; such that Opio (1996, p.42) defines ethics as a 'set of principles constituting a code of behaviour which defines what is good (to be done) or bad and wrong (and thus to be avoided)'. Government is responsible for serving people without selfish interests.

However, it is not that reforms are unethical, and in fact, ethicists wish to be associated with the excitement and momentum of reform and not defending the status quo (Frederickson, 2005). Ethics is much more than an attempt to combat corruption; it is also an attempt to do well. Frederickson (2005) pointed out that the prospects for ethical government are greatest when there are rules, regulations and systems of oversight that limit and carefully manage points of interaction.

Public sector reforms

The Kwara State Polytechnic is part of the Nigerian public sector and is owned and controlled by the state government. All the fieldwork conducted for this work was in this sector. Although the government reform agenda cut across all government departments, the focus of this research is on higher education.

The Nigerian public sector is regarded as inefficient and ineffective, and so needs major changes in the structure and procedure of its services (Akpan, 1987). Although it is difficult to explain the causes of this inefficiency, Suleiman (2009) recognises

corruption, policy reversals and outdated administrative machinery as the major causes. Standards of education in Nigeria are affected by what has been termed an admission crisis. Nwagwu (1997) argued that the standard of education in Nigeria was affected by this crisis, which arose from high demand for placements with limited vacancies. One of the reasons for the falling in standards is due to a quota system, which allows unqualified candidates to be admitted at the expense of qualified candidates under the guise of place of origin and connection with important personalities in society. Another reason that was responsible for the falling in standards of education was the racketeering of admission.

The necessity to increase internally generated revenue in order to meet the financial commitment of the organisation has been identified as a major concern for management (Dike, 2002). This practice has been affecting the quality of education because the existing infrastructure could not cope with the continuous increase in students admitted. Increasing the number of students admitted was one of the major sources of improving internally generated revenue.

'Bribery, corruption and nepotism become agents that ensure admission of weak candidates and, at times, even of the bright ones lost faith in merit, fair play and justice. As a result of this situation, mediocrity and economic power take precedence over academic standards.' (Nwagwu, 1997, p.92)

Reforms are deliberate plans to bring about changes in the education system which is perceived as inefficient. Over the years, the government had introduced several changes and transformations, but these reforms (Suleiman, 2009) have been unable to achieve efficiency and effectiveness in the sector. Reforms in the education sector of

Nigeria are intended to bring about positive change in the education systems. It is the desire to change and develop educationally (Omolewa, 2008) that is responsible for these reforms. In bringing about progress, successful countries have used education reforms to introduce structural, systematic and content changes. Many attempts have been made in the past by introducing many reforms with a view to competing favourably with other developed countries. Omolewa (2008) argues that education reforms in Nigeria have always been a failure.

These reforms have not achieved their stated objectives, creating instead adverse effects on the system. Management staff were appointed based on political considerations and not necessarily on the skills required for such positions. There were resistances to the changes introduced by the government to address inefficiency in the institutions, which hinged on non-engagement of policy stakeholders in the planning process. The relevance of the reform agenda to the values and culture of the organisation was another factor in the resistance to the reform programme. The structure of the education system continues to change because of the changes in the national policies on education. The government introduced diversity management with the aim of recognising and valuing differences in the workforce.

The failure of the reforms is in part the inability of the policymakers to assess the reform agenda and continuously monitor its progress. Reforms are treated as an event rather than a continuous process which needs to be monitored. Normal practice in the public sector is for each government to have its own reform agenda without adequate assessment of the existing structure. These reforms and continuous changes in policy were aimed towards solving the problems of access and the quality of entrants into

tertiary institutions in Nigeria, and to halt the falling standards of Nigerian's tertiary institutions.

Lack of funding has been identified as one major factor responsible for the problems in the Nigerian higher education system. Government funding was cut and institutions were expected to augment the subventions from the government to pay staff salaries and fund other capital projects. This was because the government had the impression that 'public services have been traditionally characterised as wasteful and extravagant' (Morley, 1995, p.37). This change in management style of the institutions affected the basic objective of establishing public higher institutions in Nigeria, which was to provide quality education to its citizens as their civic right.

This led to inconsistency in the fee charged by various institutions of higher learning in order to generate funds locally. However, Alaneme (2009) claimed that the problem in the education system in Nigeria was not lack of funding, but the poor implementation and lack of transparency in the utilisation of money meant for the sector. Most of the vice chancellors, rectors and provosts from over 70 tertiary institutions were unable to account for the intervention funds disbursed to them.

According to Alaneme (2009), the Education Trust Fund (ETF) had published the list of affected universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, monotechnics, state ministries of education and the State Universal Basic Education Boards (SUBEBS), bringing the number of those institutions affected to about 120. These institutions could not access further funds from the ETF because they could not account for the money collected earlier, with around 6,343 billion naira of ETF funds unaccessed.

Nigerian education reforms are extremely complex and require management networks (Olubodun, 2008). The administrative structure and the nature of the reforms vary and are dependent on the intention of the leaders. Unfortunately, however, as North (1990) argues, institutional reform is often pursued not so much in the interests of efficiency, but rather to promote the interests of those with bargaining power. Olubodun (2008) posits that the interests of the leaders and policymakers are protected in the implementation process of the reform.

Change addresses itself either to a requirement to cope with and respond to a clear and present need, or to induce it when the objective is to bring about a desired future condition. When the government begins to go awry, the requirement is generally for values and institutions to be reformed and put back on course, or to give them a far-reaching shake-up (Tukur, 1999). According to Tukur (1999), Public Service Reform (PSR) is one of the major domains of the Obasanjo's government reform agenda. The purpose of PRS is to build a public service that delivers high performance and results, in which is customer-driven, investor friendly, professional, technologically sensitive and accountable, and which fosters partnerships, shows continuous improvement in government business and is involved in the enhancement of overall national productivity. The overall vision is to have a Nigerian public service that works efficiently and effectively for the people (Government publication, 1998).

However, most of these reforms were not sustained, and to sustain change in the environment requires a collective effort of all the stakeholders. Some organisations, which rely on individual leaders to drive strategic change, have difficulty in sustaining this process through time (McGee, Thomas and Wilson, 2005). The government introduced partnership of stakeholders in the education sector for development.

However, according to Fasasi (2008), partnership in the Nigerian education system is always selfish, and personal interest is the priority rather than development.

There were many management styles arising from frequent changes in the management of institutions. The appointment of the management team is political rather than based on experience and knowledge of management. Therefore, these appointees lack the required skills to understand and implement the reform agenda. Pressures were on the academic staff to implement some policies that were not properly conceived and planned. Attempts to combine this duty with academic work led to stress of the academic staff in the institution.

The management style, managerial attitudes and actions created unnecessarily high levels of stress in what was acknowledged to be an already stressful occupation (Barry, Chandler and Clark, 2001). Stresses and strains experienced by academics, according to Barry, Berg and Chandler (2006), were considerable, and arose from externally imposed sources including financial cut-backs, enhanced levels of managerial control and the surveillance of regulation audits and peer reviews. These reforms were therefore resisted by various stakeholders in the education industry. Many reforms in Nigeria were greeted with strong resistance because employees did not see the need for such reforms.

Resistance to change

Response of individuals to change is very complex. The way people act and interact is provided by the constructed realities, which establish the opportunities for how people see the world and the action they take (Erwin and Garman, 2010). Randell (2008, p.686) argues that 'while an individual may welcome the imposed changes in theory,

they find its implementation uncongenial in practice'. The interactions of these dimensions determine the nature of resistance to organisational change. Some people resist because it is often perceived as painful, threatening, dangerous and disruptive (Lawton and Rose, 1994). Moreover, resistance to change is almost inevitable if the change involves challenging the existing power arrangement.

Existing and established organisational culture is difficult to modify or change because its very reason for existence often rests on preserving stable relationships and behavioural patterns (Burack, 1999). Therefore, there will be fierce resistance if a strategy tries to change the organisational culture. People will resist change because of self-interest. They will feel that the change will affect and challenge their existing power base and practice. Other people will perceive the change as a threat and have a lack of trust, especially if the change is imposed from above and without consultation. Lawton and Rose (1994) pointed out that change is viewed in different ways and people might not understand how the change will affect their work and life positively.

Disruptive events (Hoffman, 1995) such as milestones, catastrophes and legal/administrative happenings can trigger change and end institutional inertia. These events can force the organisation to diverge from established practices because these events have been described as creating disruptive uncertainty. These events can also cause the organisation to restructure and adjust its bases of competition in the industry. However, Jackson et al. (1986) argue that resistance to change by an organisation may be beneficial. It will enable the organisation to weed out discrepancies, and invalid and implausible ideas from the environment, which will pave the way for new ways of doing things. Resistance to change is not an automatic reaction, but the way change is handled is sometimes seen as destabilising at an organisational level and threatening at

a personal level. Pugh (2007) argues that people resist imposed change or top-down change without the involvement of the staff. Fear of change is natural in everybody, and it may be seen as leaving some staff worse off (Williams et al., 2002).

Organisational change generates resistance, even though management might attempt to sell change by emphasising the improvement that workers will experience. During a protracted struggle, those that resisted change can become agents for the very modifications they originally resisted, and through opposition, transformations are then institutionalised (Colomy, 1998). Resistance might take less organised but individualistic forms ranging from simple to sophisticate. However, participation in decision making can reduce the level of resistance, because people will have the opportunity to ask questions in any form where information is shared (Heller et al., 2004).

Resistance to change is not only normal (Buchanan and Badham, 1999) but in some ways even desirable, otherwise the technical organisation would be perpetually fruitlessly shifting gears when there had been commitments to existing technology and to forms of social organisations associated with it. Resistance is a normal feature of organisations and occurs as part of everyday life in a society structured by antagonistic social relationships. The introductions of new patterns are resisted. Organisations are both agents of change and major sources of societal stability. Organisations (Hall, 1974) are great resisters of change. They are conservative by nature, resisting change and the introduction of new patterns because they do not act at random. All the environmental influences on organisations also serve as constraints on the people within.

Resistance in the Nigerian reforms

Reforms in Nigeria encountered criticism from different stakeholders. Resistance was pronounced even at an early stage. The process of change comes up against powerful resistance (Heller et al., 2004), and this resistance is based on the premise that people thrive on stability and continuity, and have a tendency to resist any force that will disrupt this condition. Moreover, the relevance of the reform to the education institutions, in terms of what to change and how, is a major challenge to the government and concern for the people.

Resistance to these reforms became prominent because people that would be affected by the reforms were not engaged in the planning process, and their consent with regard to the reforms was not sought. According to Kyriakidou (2011, p.584), 'employees interpreted change as non-engaging when they perceived change as not being appropriate within the institutional values and beliefs in academia'. Metcalfe and Richards (1990) argue that there is a need to increase capacities to manage large-scale structural change and establish a new political mandate for reform. Effective public management requires strong links between policymaking and implementation; therefore, management of the reform is not limited to an executive process separate from policymaking.

Imposition of rules and laws is a part of many of the changes in the public sector, and this poses problems (Isaac-Henry et al., 1994) for public sector organisations despite many initiatives on their part. Individuals within bureaucratic systems get lost in the shadow of the system, and individuals within the organisation assume a distinct and different life from that of the organisation. Organisations therefore become depersonalised and accountable to no one, and individuals become powerless.

Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) believe that mechanistic types of approach to reform mean that outsiders will be hired to find solutions to certain problems and people in the organisation are told to implement the reform agenda. There will be no commitment from the organisational members because they were not part of the planning to find solutions to the problem. Change is inevitable in organisations, and is either welcomed or resisted. In order to understand the complexity of change, Machiavelli warns that:

'It must be borne in mind that there is nothing more difficult to arrange, more doubtful of success, and more dangerous to carry through than initiating changes in a state's constitution. The innovator makes enemies of all those who prospered under the old order, and only lukewarm support are forthcoming from those who would prosper under the new.' (Machiavelli, 1469–1527, p.51)

Dealing with resistance

Dealing with resistance is an indication that real change is happening and not evidence of failure (Plowman, 2000). The formal ways of dealing with resistance include communicating information, training, etc., but it is difficult to deal with emotional responses to change directly, for example fear of risk taking, and anxiety about loss of status, influence and power. However, organisations (Tidd et al., 2005) can deal with this by addressing issues and conflicts, which will give individuals reassurance. Organisations have traditionally dealt with externally induced change by combining the individualisation of lifestyles and consumption patterns to redefine established methods (Kallinikos, 2006). Organisations have different ways of adjusting to the trends of social, cultural and economic change.

Resistance could be reduced by adopting an empirical rational strategy. This strategy, according to Fox et al. (2007), regards people as rational beings who will adopt change when the benefits and incentives for doing so are perceived as advantageous and are effectively communicated. Emphasis is placed on the benefits of the change to those whom it will impact. However, for this strategy to be effective in reducing resistance, it needs to influence the way the organisation considers and weighs opinions and changes in its environment and itself. People tend to accommodate change that supports their culture, vision, norms and values (Curri, 2008). Moreover, there will be a positive outcome for the organisation if, during the change process, staff are allowed to have contribution and investment (Watson and West, 2001). A cooperative environment must be encouraged, and rather than perceiving change as an event, it should be perceived as a process that needs to be encouraged and worked on if it is to have meaning for those involved.

Hage (1980) suggested three strategies for overcoming resistance: evolutionary, revolutionary and the creation of a new organisational unit. These strategies are ideal in certain situations. Similarly, Smyth (2003) suggested vision building, evolutionary planning, leadership and engaging staff intellectually and emotionally as strategies for successful change. Managers need to develop (Pugh, 2007) not only new roles, but more importantly new attitudes to issues, such as the capacity and willingness of managers to work more closely with operational staff where they have an impact on users, shared inputs in strategies, the innovative use of organisational structures, the sophisticated personal development necessary for effective working in hybrid environments and sensitive imaginative use of communication systems. According to this view, it is desirable for managers to show understanding of the new environment and the change forces within it.

In practice, it is appropriate for managers to focus on factors that might cause resistance, such as situational and environmental factors (Judson, 1991). Management can use its power to directly control or influence many of these factors, and certain levers could be used to modify or shape these factors. This will have an effect on the behaviour of people when these contextual factors are modified. These levers are compulsion, persuasion, security, understanding, time, involvement, criticism and flexibility.

The government introduced a style of management that has some elements of business principles of making profit, with the belief that it will encourage efficiency and discourage wastage. Government funding was cut and institutions were expected to augment the subventions from the government to pay staff salaries and fund other capital projects, because the government had the impression that 'public services have been traditionally characterised as wasteful and extravagant' (Morley, 1995, p.37). This change in the management style of institutions affected the basic objectives of establishing public higher institutions in Nigeria, which was to provide quality education to its citizens as their civic right. It also affected ethical practices of the government functionaries and the management staff of the institution. Therefore, there seems to be a contradiction between the achievement of quality education and 'privatising' the institution.

The characteristics of the public sector are different from the private sector and adopting the same type of management seems likely to lead to different results. Most of the universities and polytechnics are within the public sector, which has these main characteristics within the Nigerian context. New Public Management emerged as a

reform to deal with the problems of bureaucracy inherent in the public sector (Du Gay, 2000). This shift is what is referred to as New Public Management (NPM).

Educational goals and objectives

The broad objectives of education as a basis for mapping out appropriate new strategies and programmes are to provide functional literacy for school-age children as basic education and provision of a conducive school environment, adequate equipment and facilities, relevant curricula and an effective tutorial delivery system. Qualitative education is a key factor in preparing students for a rewarding labour market experience. Other objectives include providing education that will enable students to acquire vocational and employable skills for self-reliance, and the provision of adequate physical facilities and institution materials and equipment for laboratories and workshops, in order to give the right exposure to students and to make the school environment conducive for learning at all levels. This also demands appropriate conditions of service for teachers and other categories of educational personnel in order to guarantee the effective delivery of instruction at all levels.

Over the years, education objectives have continued to change with the introduction of different policies on education. New higher education policies have been initiated in Nigeria, which respond to long-fostering problems of access, quality financing, governance and management within the nation's federal universities, and seek to make them more in line with global good practices (Saint, Hartnet and Strassner, 2003). However, these laudable policies have not achieved their objectives, because the stakeholders generally do not appreciate the need for such changes, being relatively cut off from the currents of higher education change worldwide.

Development of Polytechnics education in Nigeria

The polytechnic system of education was formally and legally introduced into the education system of the country through Decree 33 of 1979, which set up six federal polytechnics in the various parts of the country. This brought the total number of polytechnics and colleges of technology established by the federal government to seven. Thus, in the decade of 1971 to 1980, nineteen polytechnics were established, mainly by state governments, and by 1988 the number had grown to twenty-seven.

Kwara State Polytechnic was one of the second-generation polytechnics established in 1974. Today, Nigeria can boast of 55 (17 Federal, 31 state and 7 private) polytechnics. The first purely technical institution of higher learning was the Yaba Technical Institute, established in 1948. The institution was renamed Yaba College of Technology in 1963. Similarly, the regional governments also established post-secondary institutions patterned after the Yaba Technical Institute. These included the Technical Institute, Kaduna, established in 1958 and renamed the College of Technology in 1973; the Technical College, Ibadan, established in 1960, which was renamed the Polytechnic, Ibadan in 1970; and the Midwest Technical College (later christened Auchi Polytechnic, and which opened in 1964).

Furthermore, during the second National Development Plan 1970–4, four technological institutions were established. These were the Rivers State College of Science and Technology in 1970 (became Rivers State University of Science and Technology in 1980); the College of Technology, Calabar (became Polytechnic Calabar in 1973); the Katsina College of Arts, Science and Technology (became Usman Katsina Polytechnic in 1973); and the Kwara State College of Technology, Ilorin, established in 1972 (later

renamed Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin in 1987). By the third National Development Plan in 1975, there were a total of nine polytechnics/colleges of technology in Nigeria.

Kwara State Polytechnic

Kwara State Polytechnic was chosen as a site to evaluate the impacts of these events on institutional outcomes, being one of the higher institutions of learning in Nigeria. This case study approach has the capacity for understanding complexity in a particular context because of the in-depth studies combined with participant observation, interview, reflexivity and documentary evidence.

Kwara State Polytechnic witnessed many transitions. It would be practically impossible to analyse every change that has taken place in the institution (Kwara State Polytechnic) since its inception in 1974. This is because the change is routine. However, in order to understand the process of change, certain changes must be analysed. In order to identify the major changes that occurred in the polytechnic, a preliminary investigation was carried out first by interview and then by checking relevant documents relating to the history of the polytechnic.

It was originally established as Kwara State College of Technology following the promulgation of Kwara State Edict No. 4 of 1972 (now overtaken by Edict No. 21 of 1984 and again by Edict No. 13 of 1987) as a corporate body empowered by statute to carry out the following vital functions: to provide for studies, training, research and development of techniques in arts and language, applied science, engineering, management and commercial education, as well as in other spheres of learning.

The Kwara State Edict No. 4 of 1972 signed by the then military Governor Col David L. Bangboye, established the Kwara State Polytechnic (formerly Kwara State College of Technology), Ilorin. Subsequent Edicts No. 21 of 1984 and of 1987, which came into effect on 26h November 1987, redefined certain aspects of the original Edict.

The polytechnic started in 1973 with a School of Basic Studies running courses in the basic sciences. In 1974 it set up new courses leading to Diploma Certificates in science, technology and management, and other areas relevant to the manpower needs of Kwara State in particular and Nigeria in general. The polytechnic is one of the second-generation polytechnics in Nigeria with a proven record in technological innovation. It won the government Award of Excellence in 1988 for manufacturing of agricultural equipment, including the Integrated 'Gari' plant, Groundnut shelter, etc. Kwara State Polytechnic is categorised as a higher educational institution along with universities and colleges of education. It is a public educational institution owned and managed by the Kwara State Government in the same way as other public organisations in the state.

According to the report of the steering committee on the proposed university of Kwara State (1991), Kwara State Polytechnic was the first organisation to build tricycles and sidecars in Nigeria using local raw materials, and was commissioned in 1988 by the Minister for Industry. The Polytechnic also built the Wood Turning Lathe, Bench Drilling Machine, Rod Cutter Pipe Bender and Commercial Battery Charger. Therefore, for all these achievements and many others, the Polytechnic won the State's Merit Award in 1988 and the exhibition of many of its products on every graduation day. This positive image is a strategic and managerial issue (Stensaker, 2007), as students and staff try to maintain goodwill so as to attract resources and funding from stakeholders.

However, management is being resisted any time it tries to initiate change that would ensure maintaining the standard, because according to Harvey et al. (2006), members of the organisation will not understand how the change will enhance the achievement of its objectives. They are content with the standard, but fear that any change might affect them negatively or even lower the standard. Moreover, the initiative will be pursued under external pressure and they are biased towards the status quo.

The structure of Kwara State Polytechnic

The functions and activities of Kwara State Polytechnic, as well as the procedures for appointment and promotion of staff are set out in the Edict or law establishing it. The operational structure of the polytechnic is hierarchical. The visitor (Chief Executive of the state) is the head of the institution, below which is the Chairman of the Governing Council. It is the Governing Council that has the responsibility for the general supervision and control of the polytechnic, including control of its property and finances. The appointment, promotion and discipline of staff are also under the control of the Council, usually based on the recommendations of its Committees.

The Academic Board comprises the Rector, the Deputy Rector, all Directors, all Heads of Academic Departments, the Librarian and two members of the academic staff elected from the Academic Staff Union of the Polytechnic (ASUP). It is the Academic Board that advises the Rector and Council on all academic matters, such as procedures or guidelines for admission, awards of certificates and diplomas, scholarships, prizes and maintenance of high academic standards in the institution. The Rector is the chairman, while the Registrar serves the Academic Board and Council as Secretary.

The Board of Examiners consists of the Rector (as Chairman), the Deputy Rector, Directors, Heads of Departments, the Examination Officers of the Institutes and the External Examiners. It is the Board that draws up the rules for the award of certificates and for the proper conduct of examinations and consideration of results by the Academic Board. Other unit heads also contribute to the day-to-day running of each institution. The institution formally commenced operation in January 1973, with administrative machinery patterned closely after the existing universities in the country. It has as its motto: Technology, Innovation and Service. It is a polytechnic with a rich tradition of academic and cultural excellence. Between 1972 and 1975, five schools were established in the college: School of Basic Studies (SBS), School of Management and Vocations (SM & V), School of Education (SOE), School of Technology (SOT) and School of Mines (SOM).

The polytechnic was organised into six institutes in 2007. The directors are the head of the institutes and are responsible to the rector. Each institute is organised into departments, and these institutes and their various departments are concerned with the teaching/dissemination of knowledge, research and public service. The institutes are: The Institute of Basic and Applied Science (IBAS), Institute of Finance and Management Studies (IFMS), Institute of Administration (IOA), Institute of Environmental Studies (IES), Institute of General Studies (IGS) and Institute of Technology (IOT).

Philosophy and objectives of Kwara State Polytechnic

According to the original document (1971) containing the proposal for the establishment of the college, the philosophy of the college was to combine commercial production of goods and services with training, and to train a new generation of

technicians and technologists whose distinctive attributes would be self-reliance and preparedness to set up their own business, either individually or in cooperative ventures. Furthermore, it was expected that the production units of the college must be self-supporting. The document on the establishment of the college also divided its objectives into general and specific, as follows:

General objectives

The general objectives of the polytechnic include promoting the acceleration of economic development of Kwara State as a component of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, and ensuring adequate representation for Kwara in the Nigerian institutions of higher learning by providing cheaply and efficiently a centre where students can be given the best pre-university preparation.

Specific objectives

The specific objectives relate to producing self-employable technicians with proper work orientation, who will in turn assist in accelerating the industrial, agricultural and commercial development of the state and the country. The aim was to centralise Advance 'A' level works in Kwara State so as to produce better results, while making the maximum use of resources, as well as to establish at the appropriate stage in the development of the institution a programme for the pre-service and in-service training of science teachers. Furthermore, as contained in the Kwara State Polytechnic Condition of Service of both Senior and Junior Staff published in 1989, the above objectives were further divided into Social, Economic, Political, Technological and Educational.

The original mandate of the polytechnics places greater emphasis on engineering and technical education to meet the engineering and technical manpower needs of the economy. The universities are generally geared towards producing high-level manpower and provide skills-based education – oriented science and technology – that addresses the demands of a dynamic and developing economy. However, polytechnics produce basically intermediate-level personnel. The enrolment in polytechnics compared with university enrolment is almost in the order of ratio 1 to 2. The higher education in Nigeria aims to meet the manpower demands of a dynamic economy that is seeking to take its place in the community of developed nations.

The main programme objective of the polytechnics is to produce intermediate-level technological skills to meet the critical manpower shortages of the economy at this level. However, as at 1997, only 46 per cent (Adeyemi, 2001) of the total enrolment in the polytechnics was in engineering and science-based disciplines; most enrolled in the liberal arts and social science disciplines. The objective of the National Policy on Education in training schools and technical colleges was predicated on the provision of facilities for vocational and technical education for the large number of school leavers that were expected to terminate their school career at the end of junior secondary school.

Although there are private higher institutions in Nigeria, the analysis will focus on the education system in the public sector. Higher education differs between societies in its organisation. While universities and colleges in some countries are public agencies, other countries have a high proportion in the private sector (Giddens, 2001).

Diversity management in Nigeria

There is the problem of diversification with the multiple versions of the education system in Nigeria. Efforts are diversified leading to misunderstanding and conflict. In some cases, the interest of local government, state and federal, might be different on the objectives of Nigerian higher education. According to Daramola (2003), there are thirty-seven different versions of the education system in Nigeria: the federal government version and the thirty-six state versions.

In order to solve this problem the federal government introduced diversity management. This management of cultural diversity adopted in Nigerian public organisations emanated from the system of government in Nigeria. Diversity is one of the major factors responsible for the continuous reform programmes in Nigeria with achieving their stated objectives. Diversity management was entrenched in the 1999 constitution of Nigeria. Therefore, the understanding of management of cultural difference at national level is important because it determines the approaches adopted by the organisation under study. Moreover, the literature examines the relationship between cultural diversity and employees' performance. This determines the sensitivity of employees to cultural diversity and will affect how it is managed.

Workforce diversity is increasing as a result of globalisation. Mobility of people continues to grow across nation states, boundaries and cultures (Barbosa and Cabral-Cardoso, 2010). Qualified workers move freely from one job to well-paid jobs abroad. According to Barbosa and Cabral-Cardoso (2010), the approach to diversity in the late 1980s regarded diversity of workforce as an asset worth valuing rather than a threat. Preventing discrimination based on features that were not related to performance and qualifications is the framework of equal opportunity.

Managing diversity is not entirely a different approach, but builds on the framework of equal opportunities (Gardiner and Tomlinson, 2009). Diversity is about valuing

differences and inclusion. This has been identified by Lynette and Foster (2010) as strategically imperative because of the changing demographics of the workforce, shortage of skills, pursuit of the work–life balance and its greater diversity. However, diversity strategies and structure vary between organisations even within the same industry. Lynette and Foster (2010) argue that this approach will contract the notion of judging people on their merits rather than social group membership, the principle of individualism. It may also lead to detriment of moving to more flexible, proactive approaches aimed at promoting diversity.

Kwara State is a multicultural state with different dialects. This diversity is reflected in the employment of staff in the institution as well as student enrolment. In addition, there is the issue of minority groups in the state that must be represented in the affairs of the polytechnic and hence the adoption of a quota system. The composition and location of Kwara State Polytechnic make it diverse for both staff and students. The polytechnic is located in the state capital, Ilorin. The city is a confluence of cultures, populated by Yoruba, Hausa, Fulani, Nupe, Baruba, Igbo, other Nigerians and foreign nationals, but its native cultures are struggling to survive with Christianity and Islam in the driving seat. The polytechnic is state owned and all the cultural groupings in the state must be represented in the affairs of the institution. This has led to the necessity to manage cultural diversity in the institution.

Culture, according to DeWit and Meyer (2004), can act as part of the organisational system, as a strong integration mechanism controlling and coordinating people's behaviour by getting them to abide by the way the organisation does things. Moreover, Graham and Bernnet (1998) explain that culture involves common assumptions about how work should be performed, and about appropriate objectives for the organisation

and for individual employees. They therefore suggested that it is necessary to manage culture so as to develop employees' attitude, values and benefits congruent with an organisation's goals and strategies. One of the most important factors that influence human resources management in Nigeria, according to Ovadje and Ankomeh (2004), is cultural values. They argue that power and authority at the organisational level are considerably shaped by cultural values. Cultural diversity has a very strong influence on people and is important in shaping the behaviour of people in society.

According to Cummings and Worley (2005) different cultures represent a variety of values, work ethics and norms of correct behaviour. Not all cultures want the same things from work, and simple, piecemeal changes in specific organisational practices will be inadequate if the workforce is culturally diverse because not all cultures want the same things from work. Management practices will have to be aligned with cultural values and support both career and family orientations (Cummings and Worley, 2005). Cultural diversity has broad organisational implications. Schein (1992) pointed out that a deeper understanding of cultural issues in groups and organisations is necessary to decipher what goes wrong, but even more importantly to identify what may be the priority issues for leaders and leadership.

Approach to managing change in Nigerian higher education

Educational institutions in Nigeria adopt policies of selective admissions because of increasing demand for education. These policies are prompted by various criteria based on either the desire to maintain educational standards or political motives. These criteria include academic performance in entrance exterminations; state of origin, whether a person was born in a particular place or state; or where the most influential

member of the management team was born. These policies and practices always result into crisis leading to introduction of many reform agenda.

In addressing these issues many authors have emphasised the importance of the leaders in managing the reforms in the education system in Nigeria. For example, Clark (2000) pointed out that where there have been policy changes in education system, the focus has been on political rather than technical objectives in developing countries like Zimbabwe, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique

Africans believes in the skills and knowledge of their leaders in initiating change process. Howard and Coombe (2006) used the case of Mandela of South Africa and King of America to suggest that great leaders should articulate a shared ideal or national vision at the times of profound social change.

However, this approach to analysing the problems inherent in the admission process cannot explain the cultural differences and other issues like the educational need of a particular place and the structure of the organisation. Structure differs depending among other things on the organisational objectives, size, the nature of its functions or technology, management style, and on the availability, quality and attitudes of the employees in the organisation. Therefore another approach is required.

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The structure of this chapter is to briefly mention some different classifications of change based on the focus of the authors. This will be followed by a review of two classifications of change: the first of these is by Morgan and Sturdy (2000), the second by Graetz and Smith (2010), whose work was comprehensive and offered insights into the study of organisational change. This chapter also explains the theoretical framework underpinning this research work. It critically examines the relevance of the combination of structuration and neoinstitutionalism theories to Nigerian higher education and identifies the gaps in these theories in relation to the Nigerian situation. It also discusses the importance of these theories as complementary in understanding the change process in Nigerian higher education and justifies the rationale for the adoption of script as a tool of analysis.

There is a very large and growing amount of literature on change. Research on organisational change is continuous, as organisations continue to innovate or adapt to dynamic, volatile and competitive environments. This dynamism determines how change is perceived at a particular time. Therefore, the approaches to understanding change also continue to change over time. These approaches are sometimes complementary and sometimes contradictory.

The theme of 'change management' is of increasing significance not only to academics, but also to practitioners. There are two main approaches to the study of change management. The first is found in descriptive texts, which offers guiding principles and checklists on how to manage a change programme. The second,

academic studies (Storey, 1992), seek to understand how change has occurred in particular cases.

Morgan and Sturdy's classification was threefold in an attempt to simplify the complexity of change: these were managerial, political and social. However, in the classification, some approaches were interwoven with others in such a way that there are no clear-cut distinctions between them. This led to a search for a different classification to organisational change. The classification of Graetz and Smith (2010) based on the philosophy of change was identified. This classification, which used philosophies, provided a logical progression of thinking on change and depicted relationships among the philosophies, as well as clearly showing the contributions of each philosophy to an understanding of change. This thesis adopts the classification of Graetz and Smith (2010) because of its clarity in showing the relationships among these philosophies, albeit with modifications.

Paradox of change

Fernandez-Alles and Valle-Cabrera (2006) selected some paradoxes from several articles that proposed the integration of neoinstitutionalism with other theories. For example, the first paradox of conformity versus differentiation is related to competitive advantage and triggered by the resource-based view of the organisation. The second paradox is on isomorphism versus differentiation. The third, related to stakeholders/institutional embeddedness and triggered by the transactional cost theory, is on legitimacy and efficiency. The fourth paradox, change versus inertia, is triggered by the ecological school and resource dependence theory. The fifth paradox is on institution versus organisation and is related to organisational behaviour. This paradox of change makes any discussion on the topic extremely complex, because contributors

to the literature think independently, defend their positions and react when they encounter disagreement (Pasmore, 1994), and use different words to describe change.

These authors explain change based on their views and objectives, and the context in which they write. This makes the definitions of change problematic, because they are based on different assumptions and typologies (Young, 2009) that we can differentiate between states of change and stability. Moreover, defining change becomes even more complicated, as different words such as approaches, perspectives, models, philosophies, assumptions, views or focus are used by different authors to describe change. In fact, some authors like Morgan and Sturdy (2000) classify change in order to reduce the complexity and to group those that have similar views.

The focus of the authors determines how change is defined. According to Schreyogg and Sydow (2011), stability and change are usually viewed in the literature as separate, antithetical and paradoxical. For example, we could compare and contrast change based upon types and forms (Cunnen, 2008); ideological and historical management (Collins, 1998); nature of event sequence (Mangham, 1979; Van de Ven and Poole, 1995); theoretical foundation (Burns, 2000); size and speed (Dunphy and Stace, 1988; Nadler and Tushman, 1990); degree of complexity and uniformity (Higgs and Rowlands, 2005); and continuity (Romanelli and Tushman, 1994; Orlikowski, 1996; Weick and Quinn, 1999). For example, Cunnen's (2008) analysis is based on a notion of change that is seen as a broad and generic construct. This classification of change is based on different types and forms of organisational change. Cunnen (2008), therefore, classified change as an incremental process that is transformational or radical.

Ideological orientations and contributions to the analysis of change are the focus of Collins (1998). He regarded change as an ideological and historical management rather than the traditional and simple narrative of change. He classified change into four headings: hero-manager reflections and biographies, Guru works, student-orientated texts, and critical monographs and research studies. The work of Mangham (1979) is on the forces that underpin behaviour in organisations, and he distinguishes between two types of change: the gradual and the discontinuous. He further distinguished between planned and unplanned change. The basis of these classifications was on the nature of the change. The classification of change by Burns (2000) is on theoretical foundations of three schools of thought: the individual focus, the group dynamics and the open systems school. Although these schools are different in terms of their focus, they are not in conflict but rather complement each other. The three theoretical approaches on change focus on different aspects of organisational change.

The classification of Newman and Nollen (1998) on organisational change is on the change inside firms, and they identified five classifications: transaction costs, contingency, resource dependency, life cycle and strategic choice. Grieves (2010) proposes four classifications to understanding organisational change: structural functional focusing on systems and structure; multiple constituencies focusing on governance; organisational developments and creativity focusing on behavioural improvement; and volition, a critical theory of change focusing on constant critique. Driving forces is the basis of Levy and Merry's (1986) classifications of change, which include management, innovation and creativity, political, natural selection, organisation and environment interaction, developmental stages, learning and phenomenological.

Therefore, discussion on change has many facets (Pettigrew, 1990), although most of these classifications are interwoven and related. Change can be viewed in terms of speed, quantity of service, quality of service or the process of change experienced in an organisation. Pettigrew (1987) argues that some classifications range from incrementation to garbage can, and others to political and cultural views of change process. In order to avoid confusion of the terms used by different authors, approaches to organisational change will be used in this thesis and these approaches will be explained along with their assumptions.

Classifications of approaches to organisational change

The first classification of approaches to change that will be reviewed is that of Morgan and Sturdy. Each of the classifications will be reviewed in relation to other views that are complementary or contradictory to the classification, as well as their weaknesses. Morgan and Sturdy (2000) classified approaches to change into three: managerial, political and social. Their classifications are very useful in understanding organisational change. Kyriakidou (2011, p. 588) argues that 'this variation has created a theoretical pluralism that has provided a more comprehensive understanding of organisational life and has uncovered novel ways to explain some organisational change processes'.

Managerial

This classification of organisational change is synonymous with the traditional views of organisational change, which posit that change in organisations can be controlled in an orderly manner and assume that organisational actors will respond to change programmes put in place by the leader. The emphasis in this conventional organisational change was to describe, classify and prescribe change. However, change

is part of organisational everyday life (Cunliff, 2008), and a contemporary classification of change does not view it as something that happens to disrupt the normal way of working in the organisation. Morgan and Sturdy (2000) referred to the traditional view as the managerial view to organisational change. The managerial view is based on how management can best move from the present position to a new position (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000). Therefore, change is the outcome of managerial choice or a consequence of external drivers. The management first assess the situation and take action that will enable them to achieve the set objectives. Examples of traditional views include Kotter's (1995) eight steps to transforming organisations, and Lewin's (1951) unfreezing-moving-refreezing model. The unfreezing, moving and refreezing of Lewin (1951) depict the route map of where you want to be in relation to where you are at present.

Kotter (1995) argues that the requirement of change is to create a new system, and this will invariably demand leadership. The model recognises that the change process involves a series of phases. These phases can last for some time and mistakes in each phase can affect the change process. The eight steps to transform the organisation, according to Kotter (1995), are: establishing a sense of urgency, forming a powerful guiding coalition, creating a vision, communicating the vision, empowering others to act on the vision, planning for and creating short-term wins, consolidating improvements and producing still more change, and institutionalising new approaches.

Kurt Lewin (1951) used a three-stage model to analyse the change process. These stages are unfreezing, moving and refreezing. Force field analysis provides an initial view of change problems that need to be addressed, by identifying forces for and against change (Johnson and Scholes, 2002). This three-step model can be applied to

continuous change process, according to Hannagan (2008). The first process of unfreezing is to allow staff to think through the impending change. The management attempt to make it obvious so that individuals and teams can easily recognise and accept it. According to Hunt (1992), the unfreeze phase of learning is overcoming people's insecurities and apprehensions.

The second phase of learning occurs when the insecurities have been reduced; people relax and become hooked on the learning experience. Here, changes in attitude or behaviours are much easier, as people move with the learning experience rather than resist it (Hunt, 1992). The third phase, refreezing, is when the new practices are locked in place by supporting and reinforcing mechanisms so that they become the new norm. Hunt believes that the learning phase has limits. People cannot absorb more than a small amount of information at a time, so the re-freeze phase is recognition of that truism. He went further to state that the learning should be consolidated through summaries, questions or structural devices (new job descriptions, new manuals, etc.), and that there should be breaks in the learning curve by ending the training or information session with a coffee break or a return to normal work. He is of the opinion that most failure occurs in the unfreeze phase. This is when managers try to convince others that they need to change their attitudes, behaviour, structures or systems.

Although this approach is simple and still relevant as a leader-centred model of organisational change (Graetz and Smith, 2010), the classification failed, however, to consider the human side of the organisation, whereby people cannot be treated as machines. The traditional view of organisational change in the organisational world, which considers it as the product of economic environment acting upon organisation

structure, fails to take into consideration the important role played by social constructionism (Webb and Cleary, 1994). It also fails to take into consideration the relationships of the organisation with other organisations, such as regulatory bodies, industry associations and public sector organisations. The substance, context and process of change in the organisation provide an understanding of change. It is this that shapes the process of organisational change.

However, many efforts of transformational change, as proposed by Lewin (1951) in the three-step process of unfreezing, change or transformation and refreezing, fail and Curri (2008) argues that it should be replaced with an emergent view of change. Moreover, changes are becoming complex because organisations and their environments are becoming more complex. Therefore (Almaraz, 1994), change rarely occurs in stable, slow-moving environments, as suggested by Lewin. Organisations are now facing major changes that are completely different from the old ways of doing things. Nelson (2003) contends that there might be problems with unfreezing because people might still complain about a lack of explanation of the need to change, even if the organisation desires to move forward and accept the government agenda. He therefore suggests that Lewin's (1951) model of change might work at a micro level, but might be difficult in a situation where the whole organisation will be affected by massive transformation.

Political

This classification seeks to provide a framework for a better understanding of the change process rather than simply aiming to present a list of prescriptions about how to achieve change. Pettigrew (1987) developed the most prominent framework within this classification and presented a distinctive view of managing change. He maintains that

three aspects must be managed successfully in order to achieve major organisational change.

The external and internal environment is the first aspect where all change programmes exist. The second aspect is concerned with the change process itself. Need for change must be recognised by the leaders, who must also be consistent and coherent in introducing and managing change with the goals and culture of the organisation. The third aspect is concerned with the direction of the change, which requires some content, a programme or vision. Political bargaining and negotiation are other views in political classification to the change process. A political skill is the focus of prescription for the management. A political view recognises the multiplicity of groups involved in the change process, and the complexity and contextually bounded nature of change.

The political office holders in the public education sector formulate policies, and agents are expected to implement and perform the work. The problems of dichotomy between the politicians and public officials for public service administration pervades the sector, and this results in frequent change in policy formulation arising from the different views of the politicians who might not know the requirements to achieve quality education. Munduate and Gravenhorst (2003) focused on the relationship between power dynamics and organisational change, with particular interest in continuous change and the social processes that are responsible for this change. Their analysis of the three properties of power dynamics with respect to the roles they play in organisational change is a comprehensive way of discussing episodic and continuous change, as Weick and Quinn pointed out. Munduate and Gravenhorst (2003) argued that the rate of change differs in organisations, and considered the episodic change as

dramatic and intentional since it is related to radical innovation, which has an impact on organisations. They coherently linked social power and change processes, and as most political office holders possess some of the six bases of power, they serve as agents of change.

Social processes are identified by Munduate and Gravenhorst (2003) as facilitators of continuous change. The two types of organisational change processes are first, the change that is continuous, evolving and incremental, and second, the change that is episodic, discontinuous and intermittent. This classification is not a critical framework for understanding change, and uses the same approach as managerial in examining the politics of the change process. It draws from a managerial frame of reference and does not change the management role in managing change.

Social

The construction of bodies of knowledge is important in the social view of change. Languages, concepts and categories, and their associated practices which are referred to as discourses, are necessary in understanding change processes. These bodies of knowledge, which become language, are transmitted and translated by organisational participants into routines and procedures, which, in turn, constitute or contribute towards the construction of new practices (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000). Morgan and Sturdy (2000) identified five streams of understanding the way in which management knowledge and practices are generated, reproduced, transformed and resisted. These streams might sometimes conflict or sometimes complement, because they deal in varying ways with issues of why and how managers take up certain modes of understanding their own position and practices. The five streams are Marxist;

Psychodynamic; Organisational culture, meaning and identity; Institutional theory; and Genealogy, discourse and change.

The central theme in Marxist's view has been the reproduction of power and inequality, and the managerial prerogative to organise, lead and control the labour process (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000). The Marxist theory approach to change presents conflict as irreconcilable within existing social relations. The Marxist theory (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000) also provides an insightful account of change by regarding change as the product of internal tensions between opposites. According to Whittington (1992), managers gain their agency through active exploitation of the tensions between divergent structural principles. The structural relations of Marx exhibit the capitalist system of constituting labour power as a commodity and the production of a surplus value and profit (Willmott, 1992).

The psychodynamic focused on the proliferation and apparent transience of management ideas (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000). The psychodynamic also recognised the anxiety of the managers, and economic and organisational structures. Huczynski (1993) discussed the management ideas as they continue to change. The reason for the changing preferences in human resource management ideas, according to Huczynski (1993), is the ascendance of professional management, which presumed that management everywhere is underpinned by a set of generic concepts.

The organisational culture, meaning and identity stream was on organisational meanings and identity. Ackroyd and Crowdy (1990) argued that members of a team might develop an inclusive occupational subculture, which has little to do with technological factors. Attention is therefore given to pre-existing cultures within and

beyond the organisation (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000). Parker (1995) argued that an organisation is a unique 'family', but in many contexts, the 'togetherness' is divided and managers have a series of conflictual orientations that make management culture be seen as a map of oppositions and communalities that reflect the wider culture of which the organisation is a part.

In institutional classification, institutions are perceived as diffused and interacting social systems, domains or fields which shape and are shaped by organisations, rather than as the state, church, professions, unions, etc. (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000). The focus of institutional theory is on organisations and environments, and how ideas and practices (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000) are nurtured and developed within an organisation. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) identified three mechanisms through which institutional isomorphic change occurs: coercive isomorphism, mimetic isomorphism and normative isomorphism. Institutional isomorphisms are the ways in which actors seeking support and legitimation from different institutional sources shape the change process. They argued that the concept of institutional isomorphism is a useful tool for understanding the politics and ceremony that pervade modern organisations.

Feldman (2000) argues that organisational routines, which are hitherto perceived as unchanging, can change over time due to many factors. Feldman's (2000) performative model of organisational routines helps in exploring the internal dynamics of an organisation that can promote change. He observed that changing the nature of routines which are most often perceived as unchanging is significant because it provides an understanding of other factors that can cause change within the organisational system. His explanation of how routine is formed, as a circle of plans, actions, outcomes and ideals, is fundamental to the meaning and what led to the changing nature of routine.

Invariably, agency is an important aspect of routines. His argument is that what causes routines to change could be, for example changes in the job and the ideas and behaviours of incumbents of these jobs. Therefore, the dynamics of routine are a source of organisational learning.

Genealogy, discourse and change classification regards knowledge as something that must be learnt in order to manage/adapt to the environment, compared to the classifications of managerial and political which regard knowledge as a rational technique that may constrain or mediate by immediate organisational politics (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000). However, knowledge is perceived by the discourse classification as power, not as 'truth'. Thompson and Ackroyd (1995) contend that power is a force from which there can never be an escape, and that power is positive and productive while resistance is simply a reaction to its production.

Though the classification of Morgan and Sturdy is very useful in understanding organisational change in providing simple headings and grouping relevant ideas in the same categories, it is confusing with the use of approaches within one approach and having different streams in the other approaches. Moreover, there is no clear-cut distinction in some of the 'streams' discussed, and one tends to question some classifications. For example, the Marxist approach was classified under the social approach, but it has relevance under the political approach. Therefore, another comprehensive and clearer classification is required.

Philosophies of change

The second way of classifying approaches to change to be discussed here is that of Graetz and Smith (2010). Graetz and Smith (2010) classify organisational change into

philosophies. The word philosophy is used here as synonymous to approaches. They argue that 'a philosophy's method for change is expressed in terms of its inferences about the mechanisms through which a change intervention can be brought about' (Graetz and Smith, 2010, p.139). These philosophies are expressed as theories, which in turn generate hypotheses and predictions about organisational change. These philosophies biological, rational, institutional, resource, contingency, psychological, political, cultural, systems and postmodern. The philosophies of change reveal 'the deep suppositions that are being made about organisations and the ways that change operates within and around them' (Graetz and Smith, 2010, p.139). This classification of change explains the set of assumptions rather than explaining change according to the nature and extent of the change process. It is these philosophies that translate into theories and provide interpretations of change.

Biological philosophy

The focus of biological philosophy is on incremental change within industry and tries to determine reasons for the existence of 'many different kinds of organisations within a population when the biological imperative for efficiency and a best fit would suggest that there should be an ideal configuration that has evolved into dominance' (Graetz and Smith, 2010, p.140). According to Van den ven and Poole (1995), change proceeds through a continuous cycle of variation, selection and retention, as in biology evolution. It is similar to the phylogenetic process, which leads to the generation of originals and the emergence of new species. The problems of delimiting and identifying population are simplified with the structural invariance of species (Hannan and Freeman, 1977).

Fineman, Gabriel and Sims (2010) also share the view of biological philosophy by perceiving the change process as a circle, which could be started at any point within the circle. The steps in the circle are diagnosing, action planning, action taking, evaluating and specifying learning. Fineman, Gabriel and Sims (2010) argue that this will help all the people in the change programme to deal with the unpredictable, unplanned and uncertain nature of organisational change. Carnell (1995) also regards change as a cyclical process, and he labels the stages as beginning, focusing and inclusion.

The biological philosophy assumes that change is imminent and progressive in any social setting, because it is (Milliken and Colohan, 2000; Graetz and Smith, 2010) the only thing that is constant and permanent in society where social restructuring happens almost every day, as people are faced with the chance to progress in their activities.

Rational philosophy

Rational philosophy is concerned with the control of organisations by leaders and managers, and assumes that change is internally directed and certain. The process of change is therefore rational and linear. Gawthrop (1984) views the process of change as a rational process and thus 'change is a term that applies to the relationship of any phenomenon to any two points on the time span of its present or future existence'. Rational philosophy assumes that organisational actors will respond to the call of their leaders enthusiastically. Leadership is an important factor in accounting for changes that occur in any particular institution. When discussing transformational change (Almaraz, 1994), the issue of leadership is very important.

The importance of a leader of change is inherent in modern change theory. Organisations are political systems, and leaders are judged by their subordinates according to their skills as a player within the politics of the organisation (Fineman et al., 2010). Leadership is the fundamental factor that leads to transformation of societies, organisations and institutions. A leader is the one who interprets the contexts, discerns the moment, devises strategies and mobilises the community to move from the status quo to the desired position. The leader makes things happen by envisioning a different world, telling a different story and persuading men and women to share the vision contributed to make it come true.

Leaders in tertiary institutions of learning have realised that their role involves more than making decisions, and requires long-term commitment in effecting change in the institution. Glatter (2006) argues that education aims and purposes connect with leadership and organisations. He maintains that leadership is a quality of an organisation and that studies of leadership should have the organisation as the unit of analysis. Administrative leaders have a good deal to do with organisational performance in general and the success of change initiatives (Murphy et al., 2009). The goals and aspirations of leaders who initiate change vary in the context of the situation. It is the conscious set of plans and policies for changing a particular society which the leaders think are more appropriate for the society. If the leaders get it wrong, the whole process and outcome will fail.

The traditional model, managerial approach (Lewin, Kotter, etc.) and rational philosophy are strategic in nature. From the perspective of strategic choice, organisational change is a function of top management analysis of the opportunities and threats in the environment. In this, managers as rational actors can and do make

choices about which business to invest in, and the process of organising resources to achieve goals. Most organisations view the concept of change as a highly programmed process, which takes as its starting point the problem that needs to be rectified, breaks it down into constituent parts, analyses possible alternatives, selects the preferred solution and applies this relentlessly from problem recognition, to diagnosis and resolution. This classification is concerned with the theory and practice of change management. It is underpinned with the prescriptive and analytical streams of strategy, which seek to understand what organisations actually do to formulate strategy (Burns, 2000).

This philosophy is rather simplistic, whereas in real-life situations the organisational environment is highly unpredictable and full of surprises (Kotter, 1995). Moreover, change is an ongoing process, and not as simple and straightforward as outlined in these models (MacCalman and Paton, 1992). Even so, strategic classification fails to recognise the full potential of the individual in the organisation and their interactions, which can change the pattern of behaviour.

Institutional philosophy

The assumption of institutional philosophy is that 'organisations are coerced into change by pressures from within their institutional environment' (Graetz and Smith, 2010, p.142). Unlike rational philosophy, change is viewed as slow and encouraged by institutional pressure. Pressures from external forces such as technology, markets, economy and government may make the internal forces within the organisation (leadership, organisational structure, management culture and academic) adopt change (Curri, 2008). However, Strauss et al. (1973) posit that change can be forced not only by external factors, but also by unforeseen consequences of internal policies and

negotiations carried out within the organisations. The two types of organisational change processes, according to Munduate and Gravenhorst (2003), are the change that is continuous, evolving and incremental, and the change that is episodic, discontinuous and intermittent.

Institutional philosophy is comprehensive and some authors have proposed combinations of neoinstitutionalism which share institutional philosophy with other theories. Prior to the neoinstitutional theory in the 1970s (Fernandez-Alles and Llamas-Sanchez, 2008), many scholars and authors in the area of organisational change attempted to group and classify perspectives on change with a view to explaining their contributions to the understanding of organisational change. Fernandez-Alles and Llamas-Sanchez, (2008, p.4) argue that the importance of neoinstitutionalism as an approach to organisational change benefited from the contributions 'that have led to its more frequent utilisation in the analysis of organisation'. Several articles have proposed the combination and integration of neoinstitutionalism with others that are, in origin, divergent and contradictory. For example, Oliver (1991, 1997) suggested the combination of the resource-based view of the organisation with neoinstitutionalism.

Neoinstitutionalism arose to contribute to the theory of change based on the old institutionalism, which was criticised for ascribing a predominantly deterministic role to institutional pressure. The neoinstitutional philosophy assumes that change is a continuous, general, ongoing, historically embedded process (Barley and Tolbert, 1997) expected to bring about positive development. Morgan and Sturdy (2000) argue that where organisations are seen as adapting to ongoing change in the environment, this type of change process is perceived as continually changing, routinely, easily and

responsively. These changes (Smith, 2000) are unpredictable, continuous and could be qualitative and quantitative. Change could also be continuous, evolving and incremental (Munduate and Gravenhorst, 2003). Change is continuous, and Betts (2000) pointed out that changes are accelerating as new technologies become available. They create new skills, new methods of control and increased discretion for employees. As a result, new problems appear in many forms, typically redundancy, terminations, increased stress and empowerment difficulties.

Social processes are identified by Munduate and Gravenhorst (2003) as facilitators of continuous change. Feldman (2000) regarded change as arising from routine. Routines, according to Tidd et al. (2005), are established sequences of actions for undertaking tasks, enshrined in strategies, formal procedures, informal conventions or habits, or in a mixture of technologies. However, organisational change is 'non routine, non incremental, discontinuous change which alters the overall orientation of the organisation and/or its components' (Tichy, 1983).

Institutional philosophy undermines the importance of organisational actors and internal forces that will have an impact on the organisation. The philosophy, according to Seo and Creed (2002), has been able to explain the process of institutional stability arising from institutional pressures, which force organisations to adopt similar practices. Institutionalists focus more on how institutions constrain and condition the performance of leaders. Institutions set the stage and provide the directive principles and logic of transformation. Despite the contribution of Barley and Tolber (1997) in explaining the relationship between institutionalised scripts and local re-enactment, it is not clear 'when and how [...] actors actually decide to revise behaviour scripts

when their actions and thoughts are constantly constrained by the existing institutional system' (Seo and Creed, 2002, p.224).

Orlikowski's (1996) institutional perspective has provided further ways of understanding organisational change and transformation, by challenging the idea that radical changes always occur rapidly and that organisational change must be planned, although arguing that change should also be regarded as ongoing improvisation with focus on situated action taken by practice researchers. Orlikowski's (1996) perspectives enable us to understand the process of change through the interactions of agents and their actions, which might be unintentional or unacknowledged, to enact social change. His perspective of situated change therefore complemented other existing change perspectives. Change could be regarded as situated and not necessarily planned. He argues that variations and improvisation of everyday activity produce organisational change.

The process of institutional change can begin in two ways. First, it could occur from unintended consequences of human activity (Koene, 2006). This is the perspective of Barley and Tolbert (1997), who explain that human behaviour contributes to the emergence, sustenance and downfall of institutionalised patterns of behaviour. Second, it could be the institutional context from which it emanates. However, Koene (2006) maintains that in both approaches, it is the intention of institutionalising that is different, but the consequence of human behaviour takes place in both approaches.

Greenwood and Hinings' (1996) theoretical framework, which employs the perspective of neoinstitutionalism to understand radical organisational change, has really improved the weaknesses embedded in the characteristics of the new and old

intuitionalism by developing a model that explains radical change in organisations from the institutional context. Their explanation has been able to broaden the understanding of organisational change by bridging the gap between old and New Institutionalism using internal dynamics and external processes. Although Greenwood and Hinings (1996) have been able to explain the theory by providing a model that links organisational context and intra-organisational dynamics, they identified that the understanding of radical change requires more than an analysis of institution.

Resource philosophy

The survival and prosperity of organisations depend on the acquisition of resources, and the beginning of change is to identify the resources that are needed. Change is perceived as coming from within, and might be fast, slow, small or large. The resource-dependence theory regards resources as a threat and an obstacle to performance (Graetz and Smith, 2010), and therefore there is a link between resource and performance. Organisations respond to institutional pressures according to their resource dependencies (Seo and Creed, 2002). However, it fails to consider organisational fit with the environment, and rather concentrates on the capability of the organisation. The management structures 'include people who have the power to mobilise resources to promote change, the respect of the existing leadership and change advocates, and the interpersonal and political skills to guide the change process' (Cummings and Worley, 2005, p.969).

Contingency philosophy

Contingency philosophy is flexible and focuses on the behaviour of managers in initiating change, which depends largely on the situation. The philosophy proposes that the performance of the organisation is a consequence of the fit between such factors as

the use of technology, structure, strategy, systems, organisation's environment and style or culture (Graetz and Smith, 2010). Efficiency demand determines the practices of managers, but it is difficult to connect all of the necessary variables to achieve the best fit (Graetz and Smith, 2010). The psychodynamic approach is synonymous to the contingency approach, focusing on the proliferation and apparent transience of management ideas (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000).

Psychological philosophy

Personal and individual experience within an organisation is the psychological philosophy of change. The philosophy is concerned with the human side of change (Graetz and Smith, 2010). According to Fox (1971), attitude to work is socially and culturally moulded, and all cultural values, ideologies and attitudes capable of being expressed in the work situation are, in fact, potential influences upon orientations to work and upon the social patterns that result. In order to minimise psychological disturbance and pain, psychological debriefing is suggested (Stuart, 1995). The essence of psychological debriefing, according to Stuart (1995, p.82), 'is the explicit tracking of individuals, change journey combined with the proffering of timely and appropriate support'. However, because individuals are different, change is undirected and uncertain. Moreover, the philosophy regards personal psychological adjustment to change as an internal process, but does not take into account the effect of the environment.

Political philosophy

Conflict as a result of different and opposing ideology is assumed to be a factor that drives change by political philosophy. This conflict is an 'inherent attribute of human interaction and the most important one driving change' (Graetz and Smith, 2010,

p.144). Therefore, the interactions of people in the workplace will result in changes in their behaviour. The study of change (Holbeche, 2005) is a central feature of the approach of conflict theorists, since change or the possibility of change brings to the surface subterranean concepts and differences, which are otherwise glossed over or obscured in the daily routines of organisational life.

Political philosophy is important, as it reveals the clashing ideology inherent in organisations. Power shifts result in change, because everyone has their own ideology and philosophy that they want to introduce. However, internal power shift is emphasised and overlooks environmental factors that may drive change. This approach seeks to provide a framework for a better understanding of the change process rather than simply aiming to present a list of prescriptions about how to achieve change. Pettigrew (1987) presented a distinctive approach to managing change. He maintains that three aspects must be managed successfully in order to achieve major organisational change.

Cultural philosophy

Cultural philosophy is combined with institutional philosophy because of its importance to the change process. The notion of culture has been missing, even though it has long been a salient feature of organisations in organisational structures linked to human systems, which are in constant interaction with their environment. The response to changes in the environment is the focus of cultural philosophy. Change is regarded as normal, and is a way of doing things and considering how things should be done.

Culture is central to the change process and to the attainment of strategic objectives.

Achieving reform objectives requires an awareness of existing and current

organisational culture within public sector organisations (Parker and Bradley, 2000). Pettigrew (1979, p.573) defines culture as 'the system of such publicly and collectively accepted meanings operating for a given group at a given time'. This culture, according to Pheysey (1993), is a way of seeing those things that are common to many people. Pettigrew regarded culture as the offspring of symbol, language, ideology, belief, ritual and myth, which are interdependent. Culture is one of the ways in which groups, communities and organisations define themselves and distinguish themselves from others (Schein, 1998). Countries have different cultures that influence their way of life. Culture is a way of thinking about how things are done, and it legitimises values and habit.

Therefore, imposing change, according to Graetz and Smith (2010) means fighting entrenched sets of values and beliefs shared by organisational members. But environment can also bring about cultural change, which is less emphasised by this philosophy. Organisational culture is spread extensively in the organisational setting and organisational processes. Burack (1999) views organisational culture as the particular way things are done. This includes the organisation's shared values, routines, style, myths and symbols. Culture emerges, grows, matures and dies, but it is not static (Barnard and Walker, 1994).

Culture is subject to transformation, and in order to reshape an organisation's culture, a scheme of cultural types might be used. These cultural types are role culture, achievement culture, power culture and supportive culture. Relationships between employees are influenced by organisational culture (Bloisi, 2007). There are different interaction patterns in an organisation and openness, trust owning and risks to

experiment are factors that could be used to distinguish these patterns. People are likely to share non-work information if the culture of the organisation is sociable.

Much research on culture focuses on organisational values that are seen as being the clearest manifestation of culture. Everyone has their own values and philosophy which guide them through life. In an organisational setting, what is lacking is a shared set of values and philosophy. Philosophy and values relate to how organisations deal with their beliefs about people and work. Value, according to Keely (1971), reflects someone's arbitrary belief of what ought to be. Organisations have more to do with their values than with market forces. People respond to change differently. When values change, people often resist the change (Smollan and Sayers, 2009). Values are at the heart of an organisation's culture (Wallace et al., 1999; Padaki, 2000) and are integral elements of culture. These values can be seen as forming the core of organisational culture. Organisational strategy, leadership style and structure reflect the identifiable value system, and behavioural norms and practices of the organisation (Higgins et al., 2006).

There is a relationship between culture and organisational values. This is conceptualised (Halsall, 2008) by means of cultural dimensions of managerial values. Therefore, organisational culture is an adaptative mechanism (Whelan-Berry and Somerville, 2010) that helps organisations to adapt in a changing environment. Organisational adaptation, according to Jackson et al. (1986), can be perceived as a passive and evolutionary trend. Organisations attempt to make themselves more adaptable by changing their structures, processes and culture (Hayes, 2002). Greiner (1972) contends that organisations must meet with the environment in stormy, critical periods of growth and change. This, therefore, requires more than passive evolutionary

change because of the nature of today's organisational environment. However, organisational culture is difficult to change on the ground that culture is deeply ingrained in the underlying norms and values of an organisation, and cannot be imposed from above (Parker and Bradley, 2000).

The perspective of value, according to Amaele (2007, p.85) with regard to education in Nigeria concerns the interests and desires of those being educated. He asserts that 'values are measured relative to the individual's reactions to things and situations. They are, then, relative but change with place, time and people'. What each education institution values may therefore differ from one society to another, and it will be difficult to impose the value of one on another. However, Amaele (2007) contends that value which is relative is also objective to a certain extent, because the national education objectives must ensure the inculcation of values that will meet both national and international standards.

Systems philosophy

System philosophy views an organisation as a system with critical interrelationships between parts. It assumes that the interaction of people produces a system, or they understand their interaction as a system (Stacy, 2003). These parts affect each other and therefore change must be introduced across all the parts and units of the organisation. This can make change fast and large scale. System philosophy perceives organisational change as dramatic and discontinuous. The system approach of Choi (1995) relates continuous improvement to organisational change in organisational development, providing a more elaborate framework of organisational change. Change process could be better understood, as he argued that continuous incremental changes and dramatic and discontinuous change can coexist and interrelate (Choi, 1995).

Systems and their relationships give understanding to the nature of change, and it is important to define change in terms of its interactions with existing systems, individuals, groups, departments and an organisation as a whole. McCalman and Paton (1992, p.49) define a system from a change management perspective as 'an organised assembly of components, which are related in such a way that the behaviour of any individual component will influence the overall status of the system'. Institutional perspective, cultural perspective and biological perspective are in this category. Moreover, phenomenological explanations of change also rely on introspection, description and interpretation to understand how social actors construct their own world.

Postmodern philosophy

Postmodern philosophy perceives change as a product of discourse, where language is important in revealing social phenomenon (Graetz and Smith, 2010). Words, symbols and signs are important in the postmodern analysis of change (Fox, 1996), and are rooted based on the direct interface between human and material; symbolic meaning is similar rooted. However, this view is full of abstraction, which might make it difficult for managers to adopt it in reality. Change is possible (Burr, 1995) because human agents are capable (given the right circumstances) of critically analysing the discourses which frame their lives, and of claiming or resisting them according to the effects they wish to bring.

The classification of Graetz and Smith (2010) is not ambiguous and cumbersome like the grouping of Morgan and Sturdy (2000), as explained above. It is easy to understand different philosophies and adopt those that are relevant in the analysis. These organisational philosophies provide a frame of reference for a better understanding of the change process. Theories and models of organisational change are generated from these philosophies. However, the philosophical approach to organisational change is limited to providing metaphorical and theoretical explanations of assumptions, but fails to explain what should be done with the theories generated from these philosophies. The above approaches can be integrated into a more comprehensive and dynamic approach.

Change is a broad concept, and many authors associate it with different assumptions leading to many classifications. In this thesis, these classifications will be augmented to help strengthen the analysis. With the variety of change conceptualisations, it will be classified according to the related assumptions. Combining these complementary approaches will assist a better understanding of organisational change. The first is the traditional approach and the second is the process approach.

Traditional approach

The traditional approach posits that change can be controlled, and that leadership qualities are very important in influencing change agenda. The classification of rational philosophy, managerial approach, political approach and strategic models of change comes under this category. The basic assumptions in this classification are that leadership is central to organisational change. It prescribes and describes how management can achieve change, and how managers perceive the problems and solutions of change arising from human behaviour in an organisation. It is the competing interests of workers that result in conflict, which requires the political and organisation skills of the managers to achieve change. The central theme in this classification is that change can be controlled under a dynamic and strong leader. It

assumes that the vision of the leader is the right one and therefore, strategically, change can be planned because organisations are purposeful and adaptive.

One of the central features of organisational strategies (Stoltzfus et al., 2011) is planned organisational change effort. Organisational change is constant (Zorn et al., 2000; Whelan-Berry and Somerville, 2010) and a practical necessity that allows organisations to provide effective and efficient services in a modern environment. However, Judge and Douglas (2009) argue that 70 per cent of planned organisational change initiatives fail. Whelan-Berry and Somerville (2010) also claim that failed organisational change initiatives range from one third to as high as 80 per cent of attempted change effort. Reliable and valid diagnostic instruments used to assess and track an organisation's capacity for change have been identified as the primary cause of planned change failure (Judge and Douglas, 2009). Armenakis and Harris (2009) also argue that change programmes fail because there is insufficient planning for unfreezing.

The presence of many autonomous actors in higher education is also a complicating factor when it comes to implementing planned change (Salmi, 1992). Amaele (2007) contends that organisational change is managed in terms of identity development of organisational actors. Organisational actors therefore make sense of change and associated identity work based on their experiences and expectations for the future. Moreover, the changing nature of organisational values affects people in the organisation, as they try to understand the values of the organisation, making planned change difficult to implement (Branson, 2008).

Therefore, policymakers face some challenges in the process of planned organisational change (Stoltzfus et al., 2011). Brunton and Matheny (2000) also argue that strategic change may continue endlessly and become a ritual function if the uniqueness of the organisational context is not recognised. This may result in conflict instead of achieving the goals of the change reform. Branson (2008) argues that for an organisation to succeed, there is a need for it to clarify its values and have a comprehensive alignment process. This clarification is necessary because (Parlais, 2011) every change brings about conflict. Therefore, policymakers need to assess the degree of connectedness between divergent groups and be aware of the diversity that exists between them. Brunton and Matheny (2009, p.615) contend that 'attempts to introduce significant change must accommodate existing assumptions and values and the way they colour the interpretation and enactment of change, even when agreement on superordinate objectives exist'.

The federal government is responsible for guiding and driving the Nigerian education reform, setting standards and ensuring that implementation is adhered to at all level (Geo-Jaja, 2004). Education institutions or intermediate levels of government, however, take the blame for poor implementation or poor quality education. This will enable appropriate change strategies to be developed for organisational context. From a policy perspective, an awareness of the nature of public sector organisational culture provides a basis for both explaining and assessing the appropriateness and outcomes of the current reform process.

This approach ignores some of the processes that are important and central to strategic change. For example, it neglects the socio-cultural processes which preserve current ways of doing things, as well as the political processes and those who take and

influence decisions. Human beings are unpredictable because they can be influenced by different factors. Moreover, organisations are dynamic, and this is demonstrated by the complementary and competing change interventions offering insights into the complexity and ambiguity of organisational life. Organisations, therefore, do not respond to approaches that stipulate certainty and control of organisational change.

Process of change

There is a new development in literature on the process theory of organisation. This development includes the perspective on human psychology, which it takes as a relationship and social factor. It postulates that when people interact, they form experiences of each other (Stacy, 2003). However, the term 'process' in this study, is used to differentiate and classify the philosophies of change which have common assumptions and elements of the change process. For example, process thinking assumes that the interaction between people is understood to produce further interaction between them, and that people interacting are intrinsically social and what they produce is further interaction with widespread patterns. This approach is a broader frame of reference to understand the process of change.

The advantage of focusing on the process of organisation is that it is a focus on those characteristics that are common to all organisations, of whatever kind and whatever purpose (Schreyogg and Sydow, 2011). Organisational processes have become an inevitable feature in explaining organisational change and stability. The process approach posits that change unfolds differently over time and according to the context in which the organisation finds itself (Dawson, 2003).

The approaches in this classification are the biological approach, institutional approach, resource approach, psychological approach, contingency approach, resource dependency, population ecology, life cycle theory, cultural approach and system approach. These approaches are complementary and, in fact, some authors such as Zucker (1987) argue for a combination of resource dependency and the institutional theory because they are complementary, and will be useful for a better understanding of organisational change. They share the same assumption on organisational structure, which is viewed as an outcome of a collective adaptive process (Hannan and Freeman, 1977). They also assume that the institutionalisation process arises from normative, mimetic and coercive forces. The process of institutionalisation then leads to certain practices within an organisational field and the growth of structure by continuous addition over a long period of time. These practices are therefore legitimised in the organisation.

I therefore suggest a process approach to examine the sequences of events and actions as they unfold and are contextually embedded. Berends and Lamers (2011, p.1047) offer four frameworks of interacting processes at multiple levels – 'initiating, interpreting, integrating and institutionalising – that operate at individual, group and organisational levels'.

Therefore, 'incorporating this definition of structure from structuration theory, a definition that includes agency, into the analysis of institutionalised organisational forms in a given field provides a tool for a more sophisticated analysis of the relationship between field and form' (Cooney, 2007, p.698). However, the behaviour and actions of the agents in the institutionalised organisational form influence resistance to change. Therefore, 'change and resistance to it, is a function of the

constructed reality; it is the nature of this reality that gives resistance its particular form, mood and flavour' (Erwin and Garman, 2010, p.106). Resistance contributes to the process of change, as it can influence the success or otherwise of the change efforts (Waddell and Sohal, 1998).

4. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

The theoretical framework logically analyse the interconnections of the events involved in the changing scripts. The theoretical framework addresses the issue of direction of certain relationships among the events such as quota system, federal character and godfatherism in the admission process of Kwara State Polytechnic. According to Sekaran (1992) theoretical framework will help in understanding the nature and relationships of these events.

The theoretical framework used in this thesis is New Institutionalism. The rationale for the choice of New Institutionalism is that it proposes some useful concepts for analysing organisational dynamics. Such concepts include the formal structure as a rational myth, the decoupling as a means to avoid conflict, the logic of trust and the principle of benevolent inspection to preserve decoupling and social institution pressures lead to isomorphism (Rizzi, Ponte and Bonifacio, 2009).

New Institutionalism is also a theory of practical action and according to DiMaggio and Powell (1991; p.22) "that emphasises the cognitive dimension of action..... and also focus on pre-conscious processes and schema as they enter into routine, taken-forgranted behaviour (practical activities)".

The theory also focuses on the regulative, the normative and the cognitive and emphasises persistence. It emphasises the legitimacy, the embeddedness of organisational field and the centrality of classification, routines, scripts and schema. The New Institutionalism views organisations as loosely coupled arrays of standardised

elements (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991) so as to avoid conflicts between the technical activities and formal structure. All these principles associated with the New Institutionalism make the framework relevant to this study as the case study is within an organisational field is affected by external organisations.

Moreover, the interests of New Institutionalists have been on how changes occur which is the main objective of this thesis. The approach is useful in explaining how the changes in Nigerian higher education occurred over time. New Institutionalism will offer a framework in which to understand the changes in the admission process in relation to students, staff, management and other external stakeholders. And since this institution is within the public sector, Dent and Barry (2004; p.9) argued that New Institutionalism give the opportunity "to break out of the 'insular and parochial' boundaries of much work on public sector organisation".

I adopted scripts as the conceptual framework of analysis because it is associated with New Institutionalism and is a useful tool to understand institutional change. According to Dent and Barry (2004; p.10) [Scripts]"... form the basis of the four movements of the institutionalisation process". They outlined the four moments as encoding of institutional principles; enactment of the scripts that encode institutional principle, revising or replicating scripts and objectification and externalisation of the pattern behaviours and intentions produced during the period in question. Dent and Barry (2004; p.11) argued that "this sequence indicates how social actors construct scripts that then become institutionalised but, equally, provide the means of institutional change"

Institutions are enacted through scripts, which Barley and Tolbert (1997) referred to as behavioural regularities, Moreover, I used the notion of scripts so that it will be easy to identify different levels of interactions or behavioural regularities and which Barley and Tolbert (1997; p. 8) argued "scripts can be empirically identified regardless of the type of actor or level of analysis.

New Institutionalism has some weaknesses, for example, it ignores how institutions are created, altered and reproduced. Moreover, it did not explain the link between actions and institution. Structuration theory however, addresses this weaknesses by focusing on how institutions are enacted through 'scripts' at different stages and according to DiMaggio and Powell (1991; p.23) it "provides a cognitive theory of commitment to scripted behaviours that does not rest on norms and sanctions of the Parsonsian tradition". Many events led to the changing scripts within the case institutions.

Neoinstitutionalism and structuration theories were therefore used as lenses to examine and analyse these events. The two theories will be complementary, as each has lapses and the combination will bridge the gap. The two theories agreed that institutionalisation can be best understood when viewed as a dynamic ongoing process. According to Boyatzis, (2006, p. 607) "Theories or models of how teams, organisations, communities, countries or even global change occur are more frequent but are often a post hoc description of how the consultants or change agents went about the process".

The two theories did not emphasis the roles of power and discretion in the institutionalisation process and whereas power and discretion of the human and organisational actors in the process of institutionalisation in Nigerian higher education are major factors that influence the process of institutional change. Moreover, the two

theories believe that cultural constraint do not completely determine human action and did not emphasise the role that conflicting material interests may play in an institution's development. This thesis therefore addresses the importance of cultural constraint on human action as well as the conflicting interests of the stakeholders in the change process of the institution.

New Institutional theory is important in this analysis because it views change as a relatively continuous, converging process in which the drivers of change are strong norms about what constitute appropriate organisational forms that come from institutions outside the organisation (Newman and Nollen, 1998). The introduction of some examination bodies such as National Examination Council (NECO) and National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB) are forces that changed the admission process of Kwara State Polytechnic. The institution had to admit prospective candidates with results from these bodies and who have met the minimum requirements for the admission. Organisational change is a dynamic, systemic process that consists of elements affecting each other in multidirectional ways. Levy and Merry (1986) argue that driving forces change the organisation, as well as external forces, internal forces and the fit between external and internal forces. Therefore, with the introduction of these examination bodies, the admission structure of the Polytechnic changed in order to align the admission process with the existing recognised examination body (West Africa Examination Council, WAEC).

In old institutionalism, the emphasis was on inertia and persistence, and the idea of change and adaptation was not included; however, New Institutionalism analyses adaptation processes and emphasises the legitimacy, the embeddedness of organisational fields and the centrality of classification, routine, scripts and schema

(Fernandez-Alles and Valle-Cabrera, 2006). However, the growing research into change has led to the development of the neoinstitutionalism theory, which focuses on the 'sources of institutional change, the factors that influence the way organisations respond, and the processes of institutional change' (Fernandez-Alles and Valle-Cabrera, 2006, p.508). Cultural problems were one of the factors that triggered the introduction of equal opportunity and management of diversity in Nigeria. With the introduction of diversity management, the structure of the institution changed to reflect different cultures within the state, both in recruitment and admissions.

In the change process, the scope of human agency is important and includes the complex social structure and rules, and their multiplicity, interpretation and tension. This is not properly addressed in the institutional theory, and to overcome this problem, an integration with the structuration theory is needed so that 'agency is derived from human reflexivity combined with conflicts, contradictions and complexity within and between a growing plurality of overlapping social structures/systems' (Morgan and Sturdy, 2000, p.27). The structure of the polytechnic became complex as responsibilities, duties and functions of the staff continue to increase. In fact, the sources of institutionalisation, according to Zucker (1987), are the wider institutional environment, other organisations and internal organisational structure. The governing council is responsible for the general management of the affairs and the finances of the polytechnic, and shall also has the power to do anything which, in its option, is calculated to facilitate the carrying out of the purpose of the polytechnic and to promote its best interest.

The Nigerian higher education system has undergone a considerable amount of growth and diversification over the years, which has affected its structure. Structures can be reproduced only through the actions of agents, and agents come into existence only within a structured environment (Farjoun, 2010, p.204). Giddens (1984) contends that structure and agency are interdependent – they both constitute and are constituted by the other. Structures are created and recreated by social actors through the very means that they express themselves as actors. Jarzabkowski (2008, p.622) argues that 'actors produce and reproduce the institutionalised social structure that persist over time and space and provide guidelines for actions'. The structure of higher education in Nigeria continues to change through various reforms agenda.

Therefore, organisations, institutions and patterns of interaction (structure) are neither external to the individual nor brought into being by social actors. The structure of the polytechnic changed when some institutes were established, including the Institute of Finance and Management Studies (IFMS) and the Centre for Continuing Education (CCE). The structure came about from the interactions of the management, students and staff of the polytechnic on the need to meet the requirements of society. Change is the outcome of the duality of structure and agency, which form a mutually producing and reproducing duality. Change, according to Milliken and Colohan (2000), has to do with both structure and process.

Structural and organisational arrangements are instantiations of, or at least expressions of, institutions and the codification of social experience and structures that institutions embody (Kallinikos, 2006) Kwara State Polytechnic has hierarchical structure that placed a premium on human will and agency where each layer of the hierarchy has its own rights and responsibilities. There is division of labour and is coordinated by the management because the functions are interconnected. Staffs understand their roles and the relationship of their roles to others. The institution responds to internal and external

changes depend on the members' interpretations of these changes and their decisions about how to deal with them. Formal organisations are not limited to structural arrangement for the accomplishment of goals and the production of goods and services. Formal organisations are complex imbrications of structural–functional and institutional elements. This institutional reformation is complex process that involves the renegotiation of an established order.

It is the structuration theory that provides the explanation of structure to include agency and as comprising rules and resources. Moreover, structure could be transformed through the enactment of structure by agents, and this signifies that different actors are involved in the institutionalisation process (Cooney, 2007). These are the limitations of neoinstitutionalism, which ignores the roles played by different interests in the institutionalisation process and invariably does not pay attention to the relationship between the organisational structures, practice and forms and variations in actors' strategies and practices. The structuration theory provides an explanation for the duality of structure: as a product and platform of social action (Koene, 2006).

One of the main propositions of the structuration theory, according to Giddens (1999), is that rules are resources drawn upon in the production and reproduction of social action and, at the same time, are the means of system reproduction. Giddens refers to this as duality of structure. Crucial to the idea of structuration is the theorem of duality of structure (Walton, 1998) are very important in managing change, as they are regarded as organisational architecture.

Mcphee (2004) justifies using the structuration theory of Giddens to analyse organisations, while arguing that text and symbols are important to organisational

analysis given the features of organisations. He claimed that organisations are made up of people who relate and interact among themselves. Therefore, texts can be used as a guide to their actions. He relates stability, artificially constructed and power-laden properties of organisational memberships and relations to a hierarchical organisational chart, which posits the organisation as a system of relations among its members. If all agents disappeared, societies would cease to exist, despite the fact that continued existence of societies does not depend on the activities of any particular individual.

Neoinstitutional/structuration theories

The two theories postulate that institution can be deliberately modified or eliminated through choice and action of individuals and organisations. Kwara State Polytechnic was modified through the action of the government in many ways. The name of the institution was change from Kwara State College of Technology to Kwara State Polytechnic thereby changing the focus of the institution and new objectives had to be defined.

The emergence of private institutions is gradually but significantly altering the terrain of higher education in Nigeria. Public higher institutions could not cope with the growing applicants and religious organisations accounted for the pressure to have private higher institutions in Nigeria. Neoinstitutionalism recognises the importance of meaning systems, symbolic elements, regulatory processes and governance systems in organisations. The theory explains the responses of individual organisations' pressure in the institutional field as a function of their internal dynamics. It focuses on the category or network of organisations, and although early empirical work was based upon individual organisations or case studies, they treat organisations as a population within an organisational field.

The overall structure of governance of the higher education system in Nigeria is affected by the changes that are occurring both within and outside Nigeria. Neoinstitutionalism theory is therefore very important in this analysis because organisational structures reflect institutional understanding (Barley and Tolbert, 1997), and the theory provides the knowledge of investigating how institutions are produced and reproduced in everyday action. The theory, however, ignores how institutions are created, altered and reproduced. It also neglects the link between actions and institutions. Institutionalisation theory alone might not be able to explain how political struggle for organisational power arises (DiMaggio. and Powell, 1983). Moreover, neoinstitutionalism has been criticised for its neglect of power (Colomy, 1998). Although structuration of organisational fields might help, it has also been criticised as conflating structure with action (Barley and Tolbert, 1997). It is difficult to distinguish institutions and actions with the structuration theory, making it difficult to understand how one can affect the other. However, structuration theory could be adopted to bridge the gaps created by neoinstitutionalism in terms of neglect of power and position operating within an institutionalised system.

Structuration theory, on the other hand, emphasises the two realms of social organisations by explaining the relationship between action and institution, and explains how these institutions are enacted (Perlow et al., 2004). Giddens' structuration theory postulates that organisations have rules and resources, and that individuals follow these rules because they are aware of them monitoring their actions. This is what Akgun *et al* (2007) refer to as routinisation of actions. They maintain that individuals have the right to act differently from the existing structure, and this is how systems are produced. This shows that there is a relationship between structure and actors. However, the structure and the way work is done will be affected by major

transitions (Feldman, 2000). Kwara State Polytechnic has witnessed many major transitions, including changing its name from Kwara State College of Technology in 1987, changing its location from a mini campus to a permanent site, and changing its focus from a polytechnic to a university.

Perlow et al. (2004, p.525) pointed out the importance of structuration theory, in that it will lead to better understanding and managing of the way group members interact when working in teams. They acknowledge the uniqueness of the theory, as it treats workplace interactions 'as a distinct organisational component in need of fit and the process of mutual influence between workplace interactions and organisational structures as a distinct mechanism for achieving fit'.

Analysing structuration of social systems means studying the modes in which such systems grounded in the knowledgeable activities of situated actors, who draw upon rules and resources in the diversity of human action contexts, are produced and reproduced in human interaction (Barley and Tolbert, 1997). The survival of educational institutions in Nigeria is determined by its capacity to respond to pressures from different cultural groups and by the ability of its component parts to interact. The social systems in which structure is recursively implicated comprise the situated activities of human agents, reproduced across time and space. Structuration theory will serve as an important tool for understanding the dialectic between agency and structure, and will provide a way through which to examine the deeper structural constraints in model-linking social service provision of higher institutions in Nigeria to the business enterprise (Cooney, 2007).

Based on the importance of the two theories to organisational studies and the fact that they are complementary to the study of organisational change, some authors have proposed the fusion of the two theories. Barley and Tolbert (1997) suggested the combination of the two theories, neoinstitutionalism and structuration, in organisational analysis in order to provide a better understanding of the role of strategic actors within institutionalised organisational structure. Other authors such as Cooney (2007) and Fligstain (2001) also proposed the combination or fusing of the two theories in order to provide a better understanding of organisational change. For example, in Jack and Kholief (2007), the fusion of the structuration theory and neoinstitutional theory based on Barley and Tolbert (1997) was used to study the institutionalisation of farm management accounting practices in the UK in the post-war period.

Cooney (2007) maintains that Neoinstitutionalism/Stucturation (NEI/S) will provide the theoretical tools to answer questions at the micro level of analysis. Questions include, what does the process of institutionalisation look like inside an organisation from the standpoints of different groups of organisational actors? He argues that NEI/S will provide a mixed-level analysis at the level of focus and this will include the origin of institutions, their confluence with organisational structures and the agency of organisational actors. It will also highlight the potential rigidity of institutions and structure.

This will also highlight the rigidity of institutions and structures. Cooney (2007) discusses neoinstitutionalism as the societal values, norms and rules from the external environment that inform organisational rules and behaviour. Kwara State Polytechnic did not have stable values which are not aligned with those of its members, and

therefore continues to witness instability in the system. Branson (2008; p.381) argued that "when an organisation has a defined set of values that are embodied by all employees there is less need for overt management and control". Culture has an influence on behaviour, although cultural constraint does not completely determine human action.

There was external influence on the changes that took place at Kwara State Polytechnic. Neoinstitutionalism will be helpful in this analysis because it takes into consideration the importance of the external environment and the role it plays in shaping organisational life. Neoinstitutional theory is a body of knowledge that does not see organisations as closed systems, but rather recognises the effect of the macro environment on organisations. Policies from the federal government of Nigeria were formulated and should be complemented by all the institutions of higher learning, irrespective of the structure and objectives of the organisations. Moreover, these institutions have a regulatory body, the National Board for Technical Education, which regulates the activities of the polytechnic with a view to maintaining standards across the polytechnic system in Nigeria.

Structuration theory postulates that institutions are enacted through scripts, and these scripts are very useful in understanding and analysing organisational change. It takes into account external and internal sources of pressure that might influence the organisation. Scripts will therefore provide the conceptual tools for an analysis of the process of institutionalisation in action from the standpoints of different actors within the organisation.

Scripts

Although one of the stated objectives of Kwara State Polytechnic is to provide quality education, a close examination of interaction patterns within the institution reveals a different picture. The actions of the staff and other stakeholders of the institution, if scrutinised and assessed in terms of rules and standards, can produce different changes that have taken place over time. According to Lindsay (2003) change is not linear but the issue is how to conceptualise change in adapting to the effects of a dynamic environment. I use the notion of scripts in order to describe the processes that drive or guide individual choices or preference and actions. The subject of analysis is the admission process at Kwara State Polytechnic, and how these institutions are enacted in the day-to-day interactions of actors is best examined through scripts.

There are different views about scripts, and their use also differs depending on the discipline, for example psychology and sociology. Even within psychology, there is a divergence of usage of scripts between educational psychology and cognitive psychology. Scripts are viewed in cognitive psychology as 'highly specific memory structures that remain relatively fixed in situations in which the script is activated' (Kollar et al., 2006, p.161). Scripts are very useful as a tool to understand and gain insight into behaviour; Lord and Kernan (1987, p.266), for example, refer to scripts as 'cognitive knowledge structures held in memory that describe the appropriate sequencing of events in conventional or familiar situations'. According to Mitchell (1997), cognitive scripts are a type of knowledge scheme that is unique and generate purposeful behaviour in organisations. Scripts are viewed as a way of helping one to interpret the behaviour of others. Script theory is a complex body of knowledge, as it relates to goal setting and participation at both lower and higher levels of activity.

The notion of scripts has been widely applied to different situations and organisational settings. Scripts have been used extensively in the service industry. Harris et al. (2003) argue that in understanding and explaining organisational strategy, theatrical terminology is helpful. The use of the theatre metaphor abounds in service marketing literature and in some cases posits that work is theatre, not as theatre. They demonstrated how a dramatic script could be used to clarify organisational goals. They define scripts as creating procedures that will help employees to know what to do, and in what sequence, in specific situations.

Barley and Tolbert (1997) regard scripts as enacted through day-to-day interaction and perceive them as behavioural regularity. It is through scripts that institutions are being enacted. Duberly, Mallon and Cohen (2006) draw on the work of Barley and Tolbert to explain ways of behaving in an organisation in relation to scripts. They maintain that the management and bureaucracy will encode the script. This will give the career builder an opportunity to fashion out their behaviour through their career. Scripts can emanate from the organisation, from industry, from professional organisations or from the family. These scripts will structure the individual and collective action, and they can be identified in terms of who enacted them. Every organisation has its own scripts with different contents, which individuals negotiate in enacting.

Scripts serve as a way of bridging the gap between agency motivation and structural constraints. This gap could be bridged by employing the three dimensions of script as suggested by Giddens: signification, domination and legitimation (Mueller and Carter, 2005). Scripts structure interaction (Weinberger et al., 2005) in order to facilitate the programme. However, for the purpose of analysis in this thesis, scripts will simply be referred to as 'behavioural regularity'.

In modern times, the types of changes required in organisations have become complex because of the complexity of organisations and their environments (Almaraz, 1994). The interaction between the context in which institutional change takes place and the behaviour of the actors affecting the change is important for understanding the nature of the process and its outcomes (Koene, 2006). Therefore, understanding the process of change through human interaction would enable the government to understand the implications of the reforms agenda.

The complexity of change could be adequately grasped with the use of scripts, unlike with the use of traditional stage models. Change seldom occurs in stable, slow-moving environments, as depicted in Lewin's three-stage model of change. Many organisations are faced with major, core change, which represents a radical departure from the old ways of doing things (Nadler and Tushman, 1989). Organisational events are better understood by using scripts as effective tools, and they also provide a guide to appropriate behaviour (Gioia and Poole, 1984). Scripts may be used to reinforce activities based on faulty assumptions and perceptions.

According to Koene (2006, p.366), the structuration theory presents a clear understanding of institutional change and this could be through 'the enactment of the scripts that encode institutional principles'; this could either be consciously or unconsciously.

Justification for the use of scripts

In this study, the notion of scripts will be used because of the relevant theory used in this analysis and the importance of scripts in the literature with a specific case study. This is why several studies, according to Dillenbourg and Tchounikine (2007), have shown that scripts are effective in case-based environments, arguing that specific scripts with specific features have been effective. Moreover, Dany et al. (2011, p.975) argue that scripts 'enable individuals to associate a repertoire of actions with singular situations and thus provide guidelines for appropriate behaviour independent of any specific action'. The combination of the neoinstitutionalism and structuration theories recognises the importance of scripts in organisational change analysis. The focus is on organisational members' shared understanding.

Organisational scripts yield valuable insights regarding organisational structure, its activities and knowledge. Gioia and Poole (1984, p.458) argue that scripts 'provide both a framework for understanding the action, events and behaviour occurring in organisations as well as a framework for the understanding of how people understand and perform their own behaviours and action within organisations'. Scripts are also used to depict procedural knowledge structure or schema for understanding and enacting behaviours, as a basis for vicarious learning activities. However, scripts have been criticised on the basis that they could be counterproductive, especially those that have detailed guidelines (Weinberger et al., 2005).

Drori et al. (2009) perceive scripts as 'a cultural interpretive process that social actors use to construct, pursue, and advocate certain forms of legitimacy, while attempting to undermine other forms of legitimacy perceived as conflicting with their own'. Mitchell (1997) contends that scripts provide a theory of explanation encompassing people's explanations of extended sequences of behaviour which other models cannot do and which extends beyond existing inadequate theory. Scripts as a tool of analysis (Mitchell, 1997) have made it possible to provide a detailed analysis of social structure and managerial knowledge.

Scripts provide a useful means of understanding the observed interlocked behaviours of organisational members (Poole et al., 1990), and therefore provide inferences or expectations that can become guides to overt behaviour. They aid both the performance and understanding of conventional activities (Gioia and Poole, 1984).

Scripts are relevant in all types of organisations. Organisations have to deal with environments that are changing more rapidly than the organisations themselves. Both public and private sectors, and even the third sector organisations, respond to changes in their environment which affect internal interactions. Scripts are useful in understanding the process of change in these organisations.

Conclusion

This chapter has examined the approaches and classifications to the study of organisational change and various attempts to simplify the concept. It was discovered that there are different classifications of approaches to change because of the different views of authors and the contexts in which they write. As a result, different words such as approaches, philosophies, perspectives, streams, focus, etc. are used to describe change, which is confusing to readers. In order to have relevant classification for this empirical work, it is important to understand these classifications and augment the existing classifications so that the objectives of this thesis will be achieved.

Some views on change and their assumptions to change were examined. In particular, two comprehensive approaches were reviewed, one by Morgan and Sturdy and the other by Graetz and Smith. These approaches were compared and contrasted with other authors and their strengths and weaknesses were discussed. The numerous classifications such as managerial, social, political, biological, rational, institutional,

resource contingency, psychological cultural systems and postmodern were therefore augmented in a simple way, and portray the choice of approach in this thesis.

This thesis adopts the neoinstitutional and structuration theories because they are valuable in explaining the way in which social, economic and legal pressures influence organisational structures and practices, and how an organisation's ability to adapt to these plays a part in determining organisational survival and prosperity. The weakness of institutional theory is that it does not emphasise internal force and the impact of organisational actors. Cultural difference is important in this analysis, as the case study is in an African context where culture is pronounced in organisations because it influences their structures, and therefore a cultural philosophy is important in this analysis.

I propose to combine the culture and institutional perspectives in order to improve the understanding of institutional processes. Culture drives human action and it is their interactions that lead to changing scripts. Certain situational factors such as work group cultures, organisational culture and national culture determine the cultural environment. Culture helps to understand the institutionalisation process in different areas, especially in a distinct cultural context of this research work.

In order to understand the process of institutionalisation at both an organisational and inter-organisational level, the notion of scripts was adopted in this thesis to examine the reciprocal relationship between institutions and actions in which institutions are depicted as not only constraints on action, but also as the objects of constant maintenance or modification through action.

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Qualitative method emphasises the perceptions and meaning held by people about the activities and events in their natural settings (Pandey, 2009). I adopted qualitative methodology because the focus of the thesis is to examine the changing nature of activities and events through the interaction of people. Qualitative method is also relevant to this research because it offers compact manageable units of research (Payne and Williams, 2005), addressing the practical constraints of location and funding drive in the research process that may be inherent in quantitative method that requires larger and quasi-statistical samples in the fieldwork.

Moreover, qualitative method is a feature of the case study approach (Devine and Heath, 1999) and overlaps with ethnography and field research concerned with meaning and interpretation (Barnes, 1992). Ethnography is the fieldwork or first-hand studies of people, especially using participant observation or interview. This method is associated with in-depth interviewing of individuals and small groups, systematic observation of behaviour and analysis of documentary data (Darlinton and Scott, 2000). I used these instruments in this research process in my fieldwork in Nigeria to explain the interaction patterns that lead to changing scripts.

In order to answer the research question, I adopted ethnography, qualitative method with a single case study. Participant observation, interview and documents will be major sources of data and these will be analysed using triangulation and reflexive methods. The justification for these methods is analysed below. Moreover, ethical issues are considered.

The methods used in this analysis were developed to allow investigation of phenomena in their natural settings (Ritchie, 2003). The data were collected in their own setting, Kwara State Polytechnic, which allowed the research to have data that provided a rich picture of attitudinal behaviour. Interviews and observations used were of importance (Ritchie, 2003), as they allowed behaviour and interactions to be better understood. Documents were used because the histories of events or experience from the existing documents are needed to explain actions over time. Moreover, these documents will cover and explain the events that cannot be observed directly.

Data were generated by individual interviews which allowed an understanding of complex processes and interactions (Grix, 2004). This method provided a clear understanding of social action in the case because of the depth of focus. The choice of the methods of data collection are influenced and guided by the research questions. And the research questions are guided by ontological and epistemological positions (Grix, 2004).

Research philosophy

In this research, the research philosophy adopted is social constructionism, which views the social world as continuous interactions of human factors that determine the changes that occur in organisations. This is consistent with the research objective and questions. It is appropriate because of the importance of the human dimension and it aims to explore the problems associated with innovation. It is also relevant where qualitative data (inductive methods) are to be used with a small number of cases. The two major contrasting ontological positions are those of objectivism and subjectivism. Saunders et al. (2007) pointed out that objectivism portrays the position of social actors, and subjectivity's view is that social phenomena are created from the

perceptions and consequent actions of social actors. The latter approach is thought to be the more appropriate here, because the study is on social interaction which is a continuous process, and these social phenomena are in a constant state of revision.

Qualitative method

Qualitative research is a type of research in the socially constructed world where knowledge is usually obtained from observation and open interviews rather than experiments. Qualitative research is a term which often overlaps with ethnography, field research or case study methods, and refers to a tradition of enquiry concerned primarily with meaning and interpretation (Barnes, 1992). It will be insufficient to rely on quantitative techniques when trying to understand human affairs. Qualitative research (Holliday, 2002) examines critically the subjective qualities that govern the behaviour embedded in modern society. Qualitative research is a multi-method in focus, involving an interpretative, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. It studies things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998).

One distinguishing feature of qualitative methods, according to Alvesson and Skoldberg (2000), is that they start from the perspective and actions of the subjects studied, while quantitative studies typically proceed from the researcher's ideas about the dimensions and categories which should constitute the central focus (Bryman, 1989). They conclude, however, that the choice between quantitative and qualitative methods cannot be made in abstract, but must be related to the particular research problems and research objective.

Qualitative research is concerned with life as it is lived, things as they happen and situations as they are entrusted in the day-to-day, moment-to-moment course of events. Qualitative researchers seek lived experiences in real situations. In general, they try not to disturb the scene and to be unobstructive in their methods (Woods, 1999). It is an attempt to ensure that data and analysis will closely reflect what is happening. It seeks to discover the meaning that participants attach to their behaviour, how they interpret situations and what their perspectives are on particular issues.

According to Miller and Dingwell (1997), if the research wants to discover or is concerned with exploring people's wider perceptions or everyday behaviour, then qualitative methods may be favoured, as it seems to provide 'in-depth' material which is believed to be absent from survey research data. Gillham (2000) argued that qualitative methods rely primarily on the kind of evidence (what people tell you, what they do) that will enable you to understand the meaning of what is going on. The techniques used in qualitative method are very broad (Martin, 1990) and include participant observation, videotaping, and historical and conversational analysis.

Case study

I adopted the case study approach (Yin, 2003), which will enhance the understanding of a complex social phenomenon and enable the researcher to understand the real-life events in the organisation. Using the case study approach with this qualitative method has the potential to deal with the subtleties and intricacies of complex social situations (Denscombe, 2007). It is suitable for the single person research (Blaikie, 2000) having limited resources, and provides an opportunity for the researcher to study one aspect in some depth within a limited timescale.

Case study research, according to Gerring (2007), focuses on a single, relatively bounded unit which may incorporate several cases, that is, multiple case studies. It is important in shedding light on a larger class of cases through the intensive study of a single case. Denscombe (2007) pointed out that case study lends itself to the study of processes and relationships within a setting, and has been aligned with qualitative research far more than it has with quantitative research. As I am investigating change in an organisation which is a social grouping, Merriam (1998) pointed out that a case study is an examination of a specific phenomenon such as a programme, event, person, process, institution or social group, and cases could be selected because change is a sensitive issue that will affect organisations. Merriam (1998) also argues that case study is preferred in examining contemporary events that can attract government legislations and where the relevant behaviour cannot be manipulated.

The case study approach is appropriate because it gives the individual researcher an opportunity to study one aspect of a problem in some depth within a limited timescale. It allows me to concentrate on a specific instance or situation and to identify, or attempt to identify, the various interactive processes at work (Bell, 1999). The qualitative case studies usually begin with loosely defined research objectives and evolve according to the data that are collected. Maylor and Blackmon (2005) pointed out that they are often single case designs, involving only a single informant and methods such as ethnography, participant observation or action research.

However, the case study approach had been criticised (Bassey, 1999; Denscombe, 2007) on the ground that it lacks the rigour expected of social sciences, offers little basis for scientific generalisation made from its findings and takes too long, which results in massive, unreadable documents. Denscombe further states that the case study

approach can generate ethical problems because of confidentiality associated with access to documents, people and settings, and because the people being researched might behave differently from normal owing to the knowledge they are being researched.

Nonetheless, Bassey (1999) maintains that one of the advantages of case study research is its uniqueness and its capacity for understanding complexity in particular contexts. He explains further the four broad styles of case study – ethnographic, evaluative, educational and action research – and pointed out that in ethnographic studies, a single case is studied in depth by participant observation supported by interview.

Ethnographic method

The approach that I adopted is ethnography because the focus is on the interaction of people (Gill and Johnson, 2002), and their collaboration in an observable and regular manner. This approach enables me to understand and describe the social—cultural activities and patterns of behaviour (Burns, 2000) of people in the organisation. The ethnographic method, according to Case and Light (2011), favours long-term engagement with the social context under investigation, with the objective of generating rich descriptions of the lives of the participants in the research. Wherever people interact, the ethnographic method could be used (Angrosino, 2007), and this relies on the ability of a researcher to interact with and observe people as they essentially go about their everyday lives. Angrosino (2007) argues that ethnographic research could also be used to document a process. He defines a process as comprising numerous and ever-shifting elements, and says that life is a dynamic process as it is really lived.

Ethnography (fieldwork or first-hand studies of people, especially using participant observation or interview) is where the investigator hangs out or works or lives with a group, organisation or community and takes a direct part in their activities. According to Maylor and Blackmon (2005), ethnography is much better at finding out about meaning rather than measurement, through investigating feelings, attitudes, values, perceptions or motivations, and the state, actions and interactions of people, groups and organisations.

Giddens (2006) noted that this method would have the advantage of providing information on the behaviour of people in groups, organisations and communities. It will also enable these people to understand their behaviour. This method will not only enable us to develop a better understanding of the group under study, but also of the social processes that transcend the situation under study. This is because we would have seen how things work from inside that group. I spent more than seven months of observation in the field, sharing their way of life. This is what Travers (2001) refers to as ethnography, which includes observation and interviewing. This activity is also known as fieldwork.

Data collection

I collected data from both secondary and primary sources. I collected data directly from the organisation as a primary source by interview and observational methods. The combination of observation and in-depth interview enables both cross-validation of data and the integration of contextual and temporal observations with the more perceptional and attitudinal data gathered from interviews. However, secondary sources include books, journal articles, Internet sources, organisation's documents, records and newspapers.

Sampling technique

In order to choose a sampling technique, I considered carefully the characteristics of behaviour and social interactions that are relevant to the study population and the research questions at hand. Although there are different methods of non-random sampling in qualitative research, including convenience sampling, purposive sampling, snowballing and theoretical sampling, I used the convenience sampling. I selected from the stakeholders those respondents that were likely to respond and were reachable. This type of method according to Bowling (2002) is usually used for exploring complex issues.

I adopted the stakeholder theory in selecting those that were interviewed. This is because the relationship between behaviour patterns of organisations and the interest of some stakeholders accorded importance by managers could be understood by the use of the stakeholder analysis (Husillos and ÁLvarez-Gil, 2008). Shrivastava et al. (1987, p.90) argue that 'organisational actions are, from our perspectives, best understood in terms of a set of organisational problems of different meaning and consequences for different organisational stakeholders'.

A stakeholder is defined as 'any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement or strategic outcome of the organisation's objectives' (Harrison et al., 2010, p.13). This definition is, however, very broad and it is therefore important to classify stakeholders. It is even possible to identify different subgroups within the group of stakeholders, one of which is 'key stakeholder'. These key stakeholders are regarded as those who can significantly influence, or are important to the success of a project. Power, urgency and legitimacy are three attributes that Alpaslan, Green and

Mitroff (2009) recognised as shaping stakeholders' salience. According to Reid (2011), the entire stakeholder group continues to be part of the organisational system.

The key stakeholders of the polytechnic could be grouped into two: internal and external. The internal stakeholders of the institution are the employees. Others are the management team comprising the rector as the chief executive, deputy rector academic, deputy rector administration, director of works, the registrar and the chief librarian. Academic staff, non-academic staff and the students are also internal stakeholders. The external stakeholders are the proprietor of the institution (the state government and the supervisory ministry, ministry of education, science and technology), regulatory body, examination bodies, members of the governing council appointed by the state government, parents of the students, alumni and the members of the community where the polytechnic is situated.

The protocol followed included; sending two letters to each interviewee, one letter explaining the purpose of the interview and the second letter sought their consent to participate in the interview. Appendix 2 detailed the purpose and themes of the interview while appendix 3 contained the consent to participate and the letter also stated that they have read and agreed to the covering for the interview and agreed that their participation will remain strictly confidential.

The interviews took place in an environment and climate conducive for mutual disclosure, which made the respondents willing to share their feelings and deepest thoughts. This type of interview is what Holstain and Gubrium (2002) refer to as the creative interview. These interviews serve as a useful mode of systematic social

inquiry. Therefore, the interrelatedness of the *whats* and *hows* could be analysed from the active interview data.

The first step before the interview was to introduce myself and give them a letter of introduction from Kwara State Polytechnic which contained my duty in the institution, the place of study and the purpose of the research. Secondly, I would read the covering letters to them and give them consent letters to append their signature. I would then ask them if they have any question relating to the interview.

I interviewed forty stakeholders including the rector, the registrar and the director of works. Moreover, questions were asked on how they interact and relate on issues affecting their roles and duties in the organisation. Ten academic staff, made up of five males and five females, were interviewed. I selected them based on two factors: the number of years spent in the Polytechnic so that they would be able to give a fair account of events as they unfolded if they had stayed a long time; if they were involved in the admission exercise in the department.

The number of academic staff selected cut across all the institutes in the polytechnic. Seven academic support staff, made up of four males and three females, were also interviewed. These interviewees were selected because of their involvement in the change process, their interest in the organisation or because they are initiators of change and other interest groups external and internal to the organisation. Key informant interviewing, according to Wiersma and Jurs (2005), is a technique from anthropology. The interview was to explore how these various stakeholders relate to and interact with each other. The major themes of the interview included the types of change, the causes of the change and resistance to change. (See appendix 4).

I started with an informal interview with the purpose of finding relevant sources of materials and the contact of some stakeholders. Informal interviewing is often a part of ethnographic fieldwork and such interviews, according to Burns (2000), are conversational in style rather than based on a fixed schedule of questions, and are natural extensions of the social relationships established in the course of participant observation. Unstructured interviews (Merriam, 1997) are particularly useful when the researcher does not know enough about a phenomenon to ask relevant questions. Therefore, I also adopted the unstructured interview along with the structured interview to gain more insight into the changes that had taken place.

Moreover, Scott (1997) explains that the advantage of interview is that it allows one to have access to past events. The interviewees will give their account of what was obtainable in the past and what has changed in their effort to manage the organisation effectively. Scott also pointed out that the researcher will be able to capture the events that happened even though he might not be physically present; for example, I was not in the employment of the organisation when most policies were formulated and implemented. Merriam (1998) argues that a researcher can combine the various types of interviews so that some standardised information is obtained. This method will also make the interview information reliable. However, reliability of information could be affected by many factors including variations in the responses from interviewees based on their personal opinions and loyalty to their superior officers (Hawe and Browne, 2010).

The audio tape was listened to repeatedly so as to have the opportunity to be close to the speaker's meanings and to be able to pick up on emphases and the many other ways that people add meanings to their words. Audio tapes and personal transcription also helped me to hear what might have been missed out during the interview.

All interviews were interactional (Holstein and Gubrium, 2002), but conversations varied from highly structured, standardised, quantitatively oriented, survey interviews to semi-formal guided conversations and free-flowing informational exchange. Knowledge is transmitted through interview conversation and is created from the actions undertaken to obtain it. In collecting the interview data, I was able to crosscheck the statements of interviewees with my observation notes and document accounts. The interviews gave me the opportunity to probe deeply to uncover new clues, open up new dimensions of a problem and to secure vivid, accurate inclusive accounts based on my personal experience (Dawson, 2003).

Observational method

I adopted an observational method because I am a member of staff of the organisation under study. It is this that made me conduct some form of participant observation research within the organisation, and included some views from those whose vantage points come from outside the organisation. Angrosino (2010) identified four categories of observational research: complete observer role, observer as participant, participant as observer and complete participant. I was a participant observer because I was appointed as a member of the committee. Participant observation allows me to study phenomena as they arise and to gain additional insight into those phenomena (Ritchie, 2003). Maylor and Blackmon (2005) argue that participant observation is probably the most classic ethnographic method, which means that it is closest to the role model for qualitative research.

Sekaran (1992) explains that participant observation is where the researcher enters the organisation or the research setting and actually becomes a part of the work team. He pointed out that although this method is prone to biases, in studies of longer duration, the respondents become more relaxed and tend to behave more naturally. I took part in meetings and academic matters, and this provided me with an opportunity to have access to records of meetings and observe the participants' behaviours directly. Greenbank (2003) pointed out those researchers that use approaches such as unstructured interview and participant observation make no attempt to separate themselves from the researched in order to maintain objectivity and accept the influence of their values.

Direct observation

Direct observation is very important in gathering information about behaviour. It is a research strategy that facilitates data collection and not a research method. Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) pointed out that watching people will enable one to determine how they act and the assumptions that prompt their actions. Participant observation is a technique of generating data where one subjects himself, his personality and social situation to the set of contingencies that play upon a set of individuals so that he can physically and ecologically penetrate their circle of response to their social or work situation (Goffman, 2002).

Reflexivity

Reflexivity has been used (Ryan and Golden, 2006) primarily in relation to the collection of qualitative data, usually interviewing, and has provided fascinating insight into the experiences of doing research. It is becoming increasingly important in social research and requires self-awareness. For some researchers (Etherington, 2004),

reflexivity might be the primary methodological vehicle for their enquiry. It creates a dynamic process of interaction within and between us and our participants. Reflexivity, according to Giddens (2006), refers to the fact that we have to constantly think about or reflect upon the circumstances in which we live our lives. I tried not to be biased and be honest, and I tried to identify any biases and question them. In order to eliminate the tendency of bias, I regarded myself as a researcher rather than a member of the organisation.

Moreover, Ryan and Golden (2006) argue that reflexivity involves honesty and openness about how, where and by whom the data were collected, and locates the researcher as a participant in the dynamic interrelationship of the research process. Moreover, Gill and Johnson (2002) explain that the researcher should understand the effect his role has upon and in the research setting, and utilise this knowledge to elicit data. They argue that the social and interactive nature of ethnographic research therefore becomes clear. It enables the researcher to become agents in their own world, and to think intentionally and follow through with actions. Etherington (2004) contends that reflexivity provides information about the contexts in which data are collected, which adds to the validity and rigour of the research. Reflexivity is a necessary element in the research process. It is important (Jones et al., 2006) for the researcher to recognise himself, and his relationships with those involved in the study.

I was careful with interpretation and reflection, which are the two basic characteristics of reflexive research (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2000). I was reflexive because scholars, according to Manthner and Doncet (2003), recognise the importance of being reflexive in terms of how we interpret our data, our role in the analytic process and the preconceived ideas and assumptions we bring to our analysis.

Reflexivity is an important criterion for evaluation within the context of the participants' account and the researchers' account. It encourages people (Willing, 2009) to foreground and reflect upon the ways in which the researcher is implicated in the research and its findings. Reflexivity is a process between the researcher and the imaginary audience (Fox, et al., 2007) and is part of the dissemination process. It is a process where the practitioner researcher asks colleagues to read and comment on drafts of the report. Reflexivity is all about understanding oneself and one's impact on the research experience. It is used to understand the researcher's relationship with the research design and theory, and how this is co-constructed.

An individual has the power to create organisational change, and if this is realistic, it requires changing the customary thoughts and beliefs about organisations. It is only when people begin to act in other 'regular' ways that organisations will change. It is this assumption that underlies the people in the central concept of organisational change. The organisational status quo is considered by the individual behavioural patterns, and many organisations' problems arise because they overlook the traditionally accepted behavioural patterns or regularities.

Reflexivity helps the researcher to understand the topic under consideration and to situate the research project appropriately (Finlay, 2003). Reflexivity involves methodological thinking in qualitative research, where people describe their experience of decisions and dilemmas. In reflexivity researchers are seen as central figures that actively construct the collection, selection and interpretation of data. Finlay (2003) identifies five variants of reflexivity which overlap, but can however help researchers to choose a route. These variants are introspection, inter-subjective, reflection, mutual collaboration, social critique and ironic deconstruction.

This research work is situated within introspection reflexivity, as I started the research with data from my experience. Finlay (2003) believes that such introspection can yield insights which then form the basis of a more generalised understanding and interpretation. Self-reflections are assumed to provide data regarding the social/emotional world of participants. In order to gain in-depth understanding of a research topic, a posture of openness must be adopted within qualitative research, and the key to that posture is radical reflexivity (Leary et al., 2010).

Research analysis and identification of themes

Data analysis started after I collected some of the data which invariably shaped the next step in the data collection process. I visited Nigeria three times for data collection. I examined all the field notes that I kept during the participant observation carried out in the polytechnic.

I used the processual approach in the analysis, which, according to Dawson (2003), involves breaking down data into various constituents, then locating data under one or a number of different categories and subcategories, before building connections across the research materials as a whole. I followed certain procedures in interpreting and organising the data, and categorised and grouped the data according to class and relevance so that it would be easy to analyse. These procedures (Strauss and Corbin, 1999) usually consist of conceptualising and reducing data, elaborating categories in terms of their properties and dimensions, and relating them through a series of professional statements. Conceptualising, reducing, elaborating and relating are often referred to as coding. In reducing the volume of data generated from extensive field notes, interview transcripts and documents, I used collective analytical categorisation to subsume a wide array of this data under each category.

I categorised the structured interview into major themes: the objectives of establishing the polytechnic; who the stakeholders are and their power; the intended planned change; factors responsible for the change; initiators of change; influence of external forces; and the use of committees in the running of the polytechnic. I used a coding system. The process of coding is related to the structure and change that occurred from one stage to another. The codes separate the source of data and the theme. The codes revolve around events that took place that put the organisations at risk of changing. Responses related to government policy on education are coded 'event 1', 'event 2', etc. Within each event, stakeholders are coded as A – Alumni, G – Government officers, P – Polytechnic staff, C – Community, and S – Students.

I used the structure analysis by comparing the findings to a conceptual framework developed or found in the literature. This helps to guide the analysis and interpretation, and allowed me to identify those aspects of the evidence that differed from those found by other researchers (Maylor and Blackmon, 2005).

I used event structure analysis (Tesch, 1990), seeking the connections among all the elements in the analysis. I combined the interviews and the field data in order to make better sense of the other. I was interested in understanding how actual events takes turn every time prior event is completed, when there are actual several possibilities of events that could occur instead. I isolated each event and listed its connections to other events. That is which events have to have happened for this event to become possible, and which other events are now possible because of the occurrence of this event.

The preliminary interview conducted was based on the events that led to changes in the admission process of Kwara state polytechnic. The major events identified include the

introduction of the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB); government policy on education; changing of the institution from Technology to Polytechnic; the changing of the Polytechnic to University; the introduction of the quota system; admission committee and the introduction of post-JAMB; and the introduction of the Federal Character Commission.

I conducted another interview to explore the relationships among these events and the admission process. Moreover, I had to visit and seek documents relating to these events from relevant commission and agencies. First, I collected data from the regulatory agency of the polytechnic, National Board for Technical Education (NBTE). The data included the admission requirements to higher education and the process of admission. Major issues from the data included the JAMB and quota system.

Second, I collected data from JAMB in order to understand the reason for the establishment of this board, the conduct of its examination and other challenges in the admission process. The issue of quota system was also pronounced from the documents provided from the JAMB and its relationships with other examinations such as WAEC, NECO and NABTEB. These are examination bodies recognised by JAMB as perquisite before a prospective candidate is allowed to write its examination.

Many themes came up from the interviews and documents including admission request, visiting time, admission agents, admission representatives, indigene and non indigene, less educationally advantaged, educationally disadvantage my list, all year round admission, admission interview, local government origin, screening exercise and issuance of citizenship certificates by local governments, 'godfatherism' cultism, quota system, zoning system, federal character system, I chose these terms that capture the

essence of talk and interaction, terms that affect the admission process. These are terms that affected the admission process.

I spent several weeks trying to figure out the frequency of these themes, their relationships and implications. First, I categorised the events that led to all these themes and in reducing the massive themes to manageable size, I identified (8) eight events that were responsible for these themes. Second, I fixed all the issues into the identified events and this made it easy to recognise the scripts arising from these themes.

Reliability and validity

Triangulation has been used in this thesis for the purposes of validity and reliability. Triangulation, according to Wiersma and Jurs (2005), is used to compare information in order to determine whether or not there is corroboration between different sources. It is a process (Grix, 2004) in which the researcher uses two or more research methods to investigate the same phenomenon. It is about observing an object of study from different angles. I compared the information received from different sources with a view to determining the similarities and differences in opinions. This was done in sequence, starting with preliminary interview and then in-depth interview. It was followed by participant observation and documentary archive.

Triangulation is used to overcome the limitations of the interview method. This style of research comprises methods that fit well together and that tend to be associated with particular theoretical approaches and philosophical assumptions. Saunders and Thornhill (2007) pointed out that the information learned at interview is reinforced and perhaps modified by observation and by study of documents, or by more interviews, and that the use of different methods among different people strengthens the account of the

research. Triangulation strengthens qualitative research findings by combining participant observation, interviewing and documentary sources (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). Triangulation (Grix, 2004) enhances the validity of the research and findings, and the conclusions are likely to be much more convincing and accurate if based on several different sources of information.

Ethical issues

Ethical issues in social science research ensure that the interests of participants in research are safeguarded. Under these interests, issues of both rights and welfare are subsumed (Hollway and Jeferson, 2000). Conducting qualitative research in an area in which the researcher works or is already known raises several issues and ethical considerations. Orb et al. (2000) pointed out that the researcher may get better results due to knowing the situation and having the trust of the participants. The nature of ethical problems in qualitative research studies is subtle and different compared to problems in quantitative research.

Organisations may have their own ethical guidelines, which may include issues such as deception, the purpose of investigations, encroachment on privacy, confidentiality, safety, moral issues, researcher's obligations to participants and disclosure requirements for public data. Ethical research involves obtaining the informed consent of those who are going to be interviewed, questioned, observed or from whom materials will be taken. It involves research agreements about the uses of this data and how its analysis will be reported and disseminated.

What guides our ethical deliberation (Flinders and Mills, 1993) is the virtue of practical wisdom and the kind of knowledge that can be acquired only through

experience. This kind of knowledge is always context bound or situated and guided by qualitative analogies rather than abstract principles. It emphasises interpretation over logical analysis. This model of an ethical deliberator — one who must actively participate in the life he or she seeks to interpret or the model of ethical reasoning — is emerging as a way of characterising the activity and purpose of the social enquirer. I have been working in the organisation for more than fifteen years and participated in activities at different levels of responsibility. I therefore have the knowledge of ethical practices in the organisation.

I sought the consent of the sample members to participate in the research. This means (Lewis, 2003) providing them with information about the purpose of the study, how the data will be collected and used, and what their participation will require of them, etc. I avoided the attribution of comments to identify participants by not mentioning their names.

The research work complied with appropriate ethical regulations, and ethical approvals were obtained. Before the fieldwork commenced, approval was granted by the institution (Kwara State Polytechnic) and subsequently the university's (University of East London) research committee (See appendix 5 and 6, letter of introduction from Kwara state polytechnic and ethics approval, UEL).

Health and safety

There are no specific hazards expected in carrying out this research work. However, I liaised with the management to identify and locate any areas where there could be a possibility of hazards with a view to avoiding these.

Conclusion

In this research, social construction as a philosophy provides a research perspective that focuses on interactions of people in various contexts. It considers the political, historical and social context, which influences interaction. The philosophy offers a broad framework for qualitative research. A social constructionist's perspective, according to Hackley (1998, p.130) 'seeks to reveal the structure of meanings as constructed by individuals engaged in social process'. It pays attention to the ongoing processes of interactions among all people involved and assumes that organisations and individuals are linked. Therefore, the interactions of individuals lead to changing scripts in the organisation under study. The theoretical perspective of neoinstitutionalism and structuration theories using scripts as a tool for analysis was adopted.

A qualitative approach was used in this research work. The approach adopted the perspective and interpretation of the meanings and perspectives of the individuals under study. The tools used for enquiry sit within the same methodological framework, and include interview, observation, narrative and ethnography. These methods were chosen in order to address the research questions. A case study approach was used to ensure the validity of findings from the single case study of Kwara State Polytechnic. Data collected included the transcription of interviews from stakeholders and participant observation. I adopted the stakeholder theory in selecting those that were interviewed.

6. ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter examines the major changes that took place at Kwara State Polytechnic for a period of thirty-five years between 1974, when the institution was established, and 2009. The chapter explores three major changes that were planned, as well as the details of the events that led to the changing in scripts, the effects and the interconnection of the scripts in the admission process.

Interviews were conducted in order to understand the various changes that had taken place and the events that led to these changes. The respondents were selected from the stakeholders of the polytechnic using the stakeholder analysis. The interviews were conducted in series. A senior member of staff in the Academic Planning Unit (APU) was interviewed first, after which he provided some documents relating to changes that had taken place. Staff in the Registry Department were also interviewed, and then an officer in the Admission Office. Some alumni members of the institution were also interviewed.

There was consensus from the interviews conducted about three changes that had occurred which affected the structure of the polytechnic. Most of them spoke of the major transitions of the institution, which included the change from Kwara State College of Technology in 1987 to Kwara State Polytechnic. Kwara State Polytechnic started as a college of Technology in 1974 on a temporary site that still housed the Institute of Technology. The institution started with a school of Basic Studies, which offered Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics, English, Religious Studies, Geography and History, and registered candidates for the 'A' Level Cambridge GCE

examinations in these subjects. General English was a compulsory minor for all students. At inception, the institution had 110 students, 11 academic staff and 3 senior administrative staff. The second change was from Kwara State Polytechnic to Kwara State University of Technology, which changed its focus of training middle-level managers to high-level managers. The third change was from Kwara State University of Technology to Kwara State Polytechnic. These changes will be the focus of analysis, and the tool of analysis will be scripts.

Barley and Tolbert (1997, p.98) perceive scripts as 'observable, recurrent activities and patterns of interaction characteristic of a particular setting'. Jarzabkowski (2008, p.624) simply refers to scripts as 'behavioural regularities that people exhibit in their day-to-day actions'. For the purpose of this thesis, Barley and Tolbert's (1997) model of scripts will be adopted to analyse the changes that took place at Kwara State Polytechnic. The notion of scripts will be used as an analytical tool, because scripts can be identified at any level of analysis.

Events that led to change in scripts

Certain events led to continuous change in scripts, including the introduction of the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB); government policy on education; changing of the institution from Technology to Polytechnic; the changing of the Polytechnic to University; the introduction of the quota system; admission committee and the introduction of post-JAMB; and the introduction of the Federal Character Commission.

The introduction of Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB)

The Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) is one of the public examination bodies for tertiary institutions in Nigeria. The other is the National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB), which was established in 1992 to domesticate craft level examinations which were hitherto conducted by City and Guilds, Pitmans and the Royal Society of Arts, all in the UK, in accordance with the provisions of the National Policy on Education. The federal military government established the Board in 1977 with the purpose of controlling the matriculation examination for admissions into all universities, polytechnics and colleges of education in Nigeria. The establishment of the Board became necessary (Jekayinfa, 2008) when the federal government discovered that many resources were being wasted in administering entrance examinations by the existing federal universities. Moreover, six universities were established in 1976 in addition to the existing seven, making the process of admission even more difficult.

Although JAMB was established by the federal government of Nigeria, from its inception it has been admitting students for the federal, state and private universities, polytechnics and colleges of education throughout the country. Students seeking admission into higher institutions in Nigeria are required to take examinations conducted by JAMB. The Board will conduct an entrance examination for candidates applying to universities, polytechnics and colleges of education, which will be conducted on a yearly basis and be open to all secondary school leavers. JAMB conducts various examinations including University JAMB, Polytechnic JAMB and Interim Joint and Matriculation Board (IJMB) (Advance Level). University JAMB is for students seeking admission into universities, while Polytechnic JAMB is for students wishing to attend polytechnics.

Change in government policy

The regulatory body for the polytechnics in Nigeria is the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE). NBTE is responsible for the implementation of government policies on education. For example, the federal government approved West African Examination Council (WAEC), National Examination Council (NECO), National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB) as examination bodies at different times. These changes affected the admission process and led to continuous change in scripts

The National Board for Technical Education (NBTE)

The working committee on Scientific and Technical Manpower and Science Education set up in 1972 recommended that a National Board for Technical Education be created which should be charged with the implementation of its recommendations. The National Board for Technical Education was subsequently established by Act 9 of January 1977 with the responsibilities, among others, of advising the federal government on and coordinating all aspects of technical and vocational education falling outside the universities; and determining, after consultation with such other bodies as it considers appropriate, the skilled manpower needs of the country in the industrial, commercial and other relevant fields for the purpose of planning training facilities and, in particular, to prepare periodic master plans for the balanced and coordinated development of polytechnics.

The NBTE plays supervisory roles in polytechnics, colleges of technology, technical colleges and other technical institutions. The body advises the federal government on all aspects of technical education falling outside the scope of universities. NBTE was charged with the responsibility of planning, development, financing and accreditation of technical education in Nigeria, and is to carry out the role of planning and development.

The NBTE reviews methods of assessment of students and trainees, and develops a scheme of national certificate for technicians, craftsmen and other skilled personnel in collaboration with ministries and organisations having technical training programmes.

West African Examination Council (WAEC)

The West African Examination Council (WAEC) provides external examinations for students in Nigeria, Liberia, Ghana, Gambia and Sierra Leone. The first office of WAEC was opened in 1952 in Ghana. The objectives of establishing WAEC, according to Dillards (2003), include the following: to conduct examinations on its own authority and to award certificates and diplomas on the results of examinations so conducted; and to accept responsibility for the conduct of examinations for the purpose of appointments or awards by government. The development of other examining bodies is making WAEC less important in the education arena in its member countries.

National Examination Council (NECO)

The decree for the creation of the National Examination Council was promulgated in 1999. The responsibilities of the National Board for Educational Management (NBEM) of conducting Senior School Certificate Examinations (SSCE) were taken over by the National Examination Council (NECO). Senior School Certificate Examinations existed before the establishment of NBEM in 1992, conducted by the West African Examination Council (WAEC).

National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB)

The National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB) was established in 1992, with the aim of conducting examinations for technical and business courses which were formerly conducted by WAEC. NABTEB's examination is based on

WAEC-modified syllabi and NBTE's modular curriculum (Oranu, 2001). The four areas in which the Board offers examinations are construction trade, business studies, engineering trade and miscellaneous trade.

The Board responded to the low esteem accorded to the graduates of technical colleges by ensuring that these graduates would obtain admission into relevant tertiary institutions. In order to encourage student enrolment, the Board lowered its examination fees. It is mandatory for all technical colleges to affiliate with NABTEB for their examinations and must pass the accreditation of the Board before approval is given to the college as an examination centre.

Changing of the institution from Technology to Polytechnic

Kwara state polytechnic was changed from Kwara state college of technology in 1987 to a polytechnic. However, the early part of 1990 witnessed a growing demand for a state university, with formal and informal requests to government to do all in its power to ensure the actualisation of the dream. For instance, in the period 1st January to 30th June 1990, there were no less than thirty newspaper publications all requesting or supporting the establishment of a state university. Therefore, Kwara State Polytechnic Law No. 13 of 1987 was repealed and replaced with a new law, and this change in status affected the admission process of the polytechnic that year.

The changing of the Polytechnic to University

Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin was upgraded to Kwara State University of Technology in October 2001 by the Provisional Council. The regulatory body for admission to the universities is quite different from the regulatory body to polytechnics. Therefore, the entry requirements are different and prospective candidates are subjected to different

qualifying examinations. Several attempts were made to convert the polytechnic to a university, but this did not materialise. However, in 2001 the president and the commander of chief of the Nigerian Armed Forces announced the take-off of Kwara State University of Technology, Ilorin. This was done at the polytechnic premises in the presence of the state governor, the visitor of the polytechnic and the new university, the management team, staff and students.

The polytechnics and other public tertiary institutions are funded by the government through the disbursement of subventions. The federal government is responsible for federal universities, polytechnics and colleges of education, while the state governments are responsible for state universities, state polytechnics and colleges of education. Yakubu and Mumah (2001) argue that although there has been a marked increase in the statutory allocations to federal polytechnics, this was mainly to finance enhanced personnel emoluments. Furthermore, the actual grants disbursed always fall short of the amounts proposed and approved, and do not bear any semblance to the actual requirements. This means there is a need for polytechnics to diversify the sources of funding and to rely less on statutory allocations.

A former rector of Kwara State Polytechnic said that statutory grants to polytechnics are often delayed, which makes project planning and financial management difficult. It should be borne in mind that similar institutions abroad are able to generate a sizeable percentage of their revenue through internally generated sources. Perhaps the main problem is that it is difficult for the management of most polytechnics in Nigeria to think of ways to generate funds internally.

In order to address the problem of funding, the federal government of Nigeria established the Education Tax Fund in 1993 as an intervention with Act No. 7. The Act was amended in 1998 with Act No. 40 to manage the improvement of the quality of education in Nigeria. The Education Trust Fund (ETF) ensures that funds generated from education tax are utilised to improve the quality of education in Nigeria.

Quota system and admission process

In the Nigerian education system, the quota system was introduced and implemented with the argument that 'Merit' is not the exclusive preserve or monopoly of any particular region of Nigeria, and that culture and environment and available opportunities and exposures have a great deal to do with what any human being attains, achieves or accomplishes in Nigeria and outside it. It is the superiority of nurture over nature (Adujie, 2009). It is important, particularly in a plural society such as Nigeria, that all citizens feel a sense of equal voice, equal representation and equal participation. No citizen or group of citizens should feel marginalised. All states, but especially those that are educationally disadvantaged, need special provisions and protection in the admission process in Nigeria's educational system, especially in higher education and the professions. Therefore, Affirmative Action Programme Policies and the Quota System and Federal Character Policies reflect the inequalities of citizens and suggest ways of bridging these gaps.

The Constitutions of Nigeria (since 1979 to the present 1999 version) have, for decades, made provisions for a quota system and the reflection of a federal character in appointments of public office holders, and this is relevant in a diverse country and society like Nigeria. Diversity needs to be actively and purposefully encouraged and

even legally enforced, and this should be provided by laws, at local, state and federal levels.

All states, but especially the educationally disadvantaged states, need special provisions and protections in the admission process in Nigeria's education system, especially in higher education. Adujie, (2009) argued that all Nigerians and Nigeria will be the beneficiaries of such good policy, that encourages the grooming and nurturing of opportunities for every Nigerian from every community in Nigeria, and particular effort should be made, in order that Nigeria does not leave anyone behind, economically, socially, educationally and developmentally.

In an interview with a member of the admission office, he clarifies:

'Quota system is still in practice in the admission but with flexibility. Although, there is a standard formula on how quota should be applied, however, there are certain instances where it might be difficult to strictly follow the formula. Adjustment might be necessary.' Administrative officer (in charge of the compilation of admission records)

Criticism of quota system

The national origins quota system was attacked as a thinly veiled policy of national and religious discrimination. The United States Congress favoured the repeal of the national origins quota system and the end of the Asia-Pacific Triangle policy (Keely, 1971). According to Cicalo (2008), in the education sector the implementation of the quota system will decrease the quality of teaching and the overall prestige of universities. This is because candidates with lower scores will be admitted, and other candidates who do

reasonably well in the examination would be excluded. Colman (2000) argues that there are lots of problems inherent in the quota system.

However, Barry et al. (2004) reported the success of the quota system in the Indian state of Karnataka, where women's representation rose from 25 to over 46 per cent. The quota system was introduced in the Indian state of Maharashtra for the 1992 local election and aimed at reserving wards for women-only candidates in the election. According to Barry et al. (2004, p.153), 'The percentages across London at around this time, achieved over a longer period in the absence of a quota, were slightly lower at 27 per cent for female politicians'. This signifies that the quota system could have a significant impact despite the problems associated with such practice, and the effects could be felt in different ways depending on how it is applied.

Post-JAMB

Kwara State Polytechnic joined the leagues of universities and polytechnics that conduct post-JAMB examinations for applicants. Post-JAMB was introduced in Kwara State Polytechnic three sessions ago by the present administration. All applicants are expected to attempt the examination and the result will be one of the criteria considered in the admission process.

Post-JAMB is an internal examination organised by various institutions to test the suitability of the prospective applicants. Candidates that have applied for National Diploma programmes must take the post-JAMB examination. It is also important that such candidates must have attempted and passed the JAMB examination in before he or she can be considered for the post-JAMB examination. According to a member of the

organising committee of post-JAMB in Kwara State Polytechnic, 'it is no longer adequate to rely on JAMB results for admission to our programmes'.

Tertiary institutions in Nigeria carried out their own admission processes prior to the introduction of JAMB. Each institution has its own unique goals, values and expectations, which are determined by society and will eventually earn the institution respect from society. These values are therefore promoted and protected (Ofoegbu, 2007). In order to move away from individualism in admission by institutions, JAMB became a unifying mechanism to emphasise the actual input and output to be achieved by institutions of higher learning.

Federal character

The Nigerian doctrine of 'federal character' emerged from the 1979 Constitution, and calls for the distribution of federal appointments to reflect equitably the different dimensions of the nation's ethnic, regional and religious heterogeneity, in order to 'promote a sense of belonging and loyalty' among the diverse peoples of Nigeria. Its forerunner is the quota system, intended to give opportunities in education and employment to disadvantaged groups and areas in the federation. The idea of the quota system persistently brought about criticism, as it was said to be a negation of quality and merit.

Federal character is essentially a product of the Constitution of the federal republic of Nigeria. The idea was derived from a search for the appropriate way to manage the issue of national unity. The 1979 and 1999 Constitutions of Nigeria defined the term federal character as 'The distinctive desire of the people of Nigeria to promote unity, foster national loyalty and give citizens of Nigeria a sense of belonging to the nation,

notwithstanding the diversities of ethnic origin, culture, language or religion which may exist and which is their desire to nourish and harness to the enrichment of the Federal Republic of Nigeria'.

Federal character principle and the quota system

Some people perceive the federal character principle as a primitive quota system, since the approach and emphasis is on enumerative representation. However, both the quota system and federal character have been accused in the same way. The quota system discourages competition and ambition, as highly qualified people are kept out of jobs or promotion while unqualified candidates acquire positions they don't truly deserve on account of the federal character principle. This principle also discourages staff morale, promotes bureaucracy, discourages personal development and is antithetical to innovation and creativity. According to Bach (1989), 'the extension of the federal character principle has become a factor of inequality and injustice owing to the narrow definition of the "nationality" and the fissiparous evolution of the Nigerian state. Naturally, the principle cannot take into account the economic condition or the social status of the individuals to which it applies'.

Educationally less developed states and quota system

Educationally less developed states are those that are perceived to be educationally backward compared to other states in Nigeria. These states have less educational facilities, and manpower that have fewer qualifications above secondary education. In implementing the federal government guidelines on admissions, the states presently categorised as educationally less developed are: Bauchi, Borno, Benue, Kebbi, Kogi, Cross River, Yobe, Nassarawa, Taraba, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Plateau, Niger, Gombe, Rivers, Sokoto, Jigawa, Kwara, Ebonyi, Bayelsa and Zamfara. If the institutions have

shortfalls for the educationally less developed quota, they can request printouts to be produced for all candidates from their catchment areas. These states were allocated certain quota in the admission of any institution on the ground that it will give the states the opportunity to develop educationally and produce manpower at various levels. However, Akpan (1990) argues that this system means that standards will be compromised if the quota system is strictly enforced.

The introduction of federal character principles in the admission process

Restructuring took place in the appointments of council members and management teams starting in 2005. The appointments took into consideration the principles of federal character, that the appointments reflect fair representation of all sixteen local governments in the state. The appointment of council members was also in line with the requirements of the institution's edict, which stated the composition of the council. Therefore, the appointments using the federal character principles were without prejudice to the institution's edict.

However, in the report of the committee on the operations of Kwara State-owned tertiary institutions (2006, p.42), it was reported that:

'our investigation revealed the following: Not all the Governing Councils have the right calibre of men and women; the conditions under which some of the Chief Executives were appointed do not accord with the provisions of the Edict/Laws establishing the Colleges, and no new ones have been promulgated to replace them. We are aware, however, that some of the Visitation Panels have made recommendations which have been accepted as reflected in the Government White Paper on the Reports'.

The committee therefore recommended that the edicts should be reviewed to reflect today's realities and happenings at the federal level, particularly with regard to the tenure of the chief executives and other principal officers. It was also recommended that the edicts should be reviewed to ensure that the right calibres of people are appointed as chairmen and members of council.

This principle was seen as a measure to ensure that appointments into public service institutions fairly reflect the linguistic, ethnic, religious and geographic diversity of the country. The principle provides that 'for every state the required representation is a minimum of 2.5% and a maximum of 3.0%' of staff.

However, the chairman of the commission clarifies that 'If within the zone one state is not represented, the neighbouring state within the zone can be asked to take the slots; the distribution can be done on a North–South basis'. Lopsidedness can take place within the same geographical zones. In this case, those areas that are overrepresented should not take part in subsequent employment when there is a balance between the underrepresented, well represented and overrepresented.

The Federal Character Commission categorically spelt out the formula for admitting new students at all levels of education in Nigeria. Although the major concern of the Commission is to determine the distribution of posts in the public service with the aim of reducing disparities in staffing levels among the geographical units in the federation, equity in staff distribution is not an end in itself, but a means to achieve an end, which is to create a balanced federation. This can be achieved by ensuring that resources of the country are distributed in a fair and equitable manner (Guidelines and Formulae of Federal Character Commission). Section 15(1) of the guidelines set out formula for

admitting students under public sector investment at the national level in tertiary institutions.

Research process

There are several different ways to conduct a research process. However, I will adopt the research process suggested by Barley and Tolbert (1997), which includes:

- 1. Defining an institution at risk of change over the term of the study and selecting sites of this definition.
- 2. Charting flow of action at the sites and extracting scripts' characteristics of particular period.
- 3. Examining scripts for evidence of change in behavioural and interaction patterns.
- 4. Linking findings from observational data to other sources on change in the institution of interest.

Stages in the research process

Defining an institution at risk of change over the term of the study and selecting sites of this definition

The first step in the analysis is to define the institution at risk of change over the time of the study and the selection of site. The research site will be the main campus (permanent site of the institution) of the polytechnic, which is located along Jebba Road, Ilorin, Kwara State of Nigeria, and is chosen for examining the process of change and behavioural regularity (script) in an organisation.

Kwara State Polytechnic is an existing institution that was established in 1974 Scripts needed to be defined because there must have been an enactment of scripts in an

existing institution before change could be assessed. The site selected was the main campus of the polytechnic where administrative operations are carried out and where the admissions office is situated. The offices of the admission officer and director of academic planning responsible for admission are also located on this campus.

Kwara State Polytechnic was selected because I have been working in the institution since 1994 as a lecturer in the department of Business Administration. It is an educational and public sector establishment in Nigeria. The education system in Nigeria has three tiers: primary, secondary and tertiary institutions. This institution falls within higher education in Nigeria, which is highly dynamic and has witnessed by several changes since independence in 1960. As a public sector organisation, it is open to forces that cause changes in the organisation.

Baseline data collection began in 1974 when the institution was established. There are historical data on the admission process in the institution, and this is useful in identifying scripts (Barley and Tolber, 1997). In addition, I also employed the interview and observation methods in assessing the continuity of scripts. The initial proposal for the establishment of the institution was to metamorphose it into a university in the future. There was an urgent need to have a higher institution in the state at that time, but the state government could not afford to establish a university because of the resources needed for such an institution.

According to a professor who was a pioneer member of staff at the polytechnic and a former sole administrator (appointed in the absence of a governing council) of the same institution:

'The establishment of the polytechnic in 1974 was because the mid west of Nigeria had no institution of higher learning. The population continued to grow and the desire to further education by the graduates of college. Moreover, there was the need to train some students as a middle level manager.' Sole Administrator.

However, the intention of the visitor of the institution was to transform the polytechnic into a university in the near future, and the professor confirmed that 'the Government's plan was to metamorphose the Polytechnic to a University'.

Empirical use of structuration theory: determining the base time

Since Kwara State Polytechnic is an existing institution, the data collection for this research started from the moment of institutionalisation (Barley and Tolbert, 1997). It is therefore important to bracket the action and institutional realms into different time periods in order to analyse sequential shifts between the two (Jarzabkowski, 2008). This will make it easier to analyse how actions reproduce or modify institutions over time. Barley and Tolbert (1997) suggested carrying out an analysis of how sequential actions constitute and transform the institutional realm over time.

Experiencing movement is one way that we can understand time (Antonacopoulou and Tsoukas, 2002), and this can be done through reflecting on processes from within. Kwara State Polytechnic changed from Kwara State College of Technology to Kwara State University of Technology and again to Kwara State Polytechnic, and these changes occurred at different times.

The times at which these changes were introduced affected the institution in different ways and produced different scripts, as they affect the nature of the change and the events themselves. Time can also affect the structure of organisational life (Standenmayer et al., 2002), since there is a relationship between time and change. Individuals or groups experience time differently, as time can trigger change or change can occur as a result of certain events.

Therefore, by examining the dynamics of change from within, I also examined the processes of admission during these four time periods: period one 1974–87 when it was Kwara State College of Technology, period two 1987–2001 when it changed to Kwara State Polytechnic, period three 2001 when it changed to Kwara State University of Technology, and period four 2001 when it changed again to Kwara State Polytechnic. There were other changes that took place during the period covered by this research, although some of the causes of these were external to the institution.

The institution was under both internal and external influence. Ideally, a viable society requires institutions of higher education to have sufficient independence so that their members feel free to comment upon, criticise and advise on a great variety of policies and practices. However, in the case of higher education in Nigeria, many changes occurred partly because of different types of government, military and civilian rule, and frequent changes in government. This made higher education in Nigeria become volatile due to each new government having different policies and practices. Therefore, higher education faces the challenge of how to address the implication of its undeniable status as a public service, which is to serve the interests of the general public.

Charting flow of action and scripts

Kwara State Polytechnic has an admission officer, whose responsibilities include all activities relating to admission, ranging from providing various departments with information on previously registered students, planning the number of students to be admitted in any calendar year, to advertisement and final registration of successful candidates. The admission officer also prepares the institution's budget.

However, in order to determine the admission requirements for various programmes, the Kwara State government needed to follow the strict regulations of the National Policy on Education, which was introduced in 1977. The state government sent representatives to various conferences on the policy in order to establish the same standards as other polytechnics in Nigeria. The standard admission requirements from these conferences formed the basis for admission, and would be approved by the academic board of the institution.

Identification of scripts in the admission process

Many changes were introduced to the management of the institution. According to the rector, who was appointed in 2009, 'Since we came on board, we have introduced many changes which you must have noticed'. All the changes introduced were management initiatives based on their experiences in managerial positions in various establishments. These initiatives may not represent the opinion of the government that appointed them or society, but they led to a change in scripts in the admission process: 'Scripts frequently evolve according to managerial aspirations and expectations that are not necessarily in consonance with environmental requirements' (Drori et al., 2009, p.717).

In an interview with the rector on how the changes were introduced, he commented:

'We (management) set up various committees which report directly to the management. Such committees include staff disciplinary committee, seminar and conference committee, admissions committee, etc. Our idea of committees is to encourage as many staff as possible to be actively participating in one activity or the other and to share their expertise in many issues.' Rector.

The management also encourages other institutes, centres and departments to emulate this strategy by funding some of the proposals submitted within the institution. The rector said:

'Proposals that will bring positive change to the polytechnic are encouraged and will have our (management) support in terms of funding.'

Rector

The rector stated that funds are required to implement these proposals and management is exploring various means of funding both internally and externally. Admission of students is one way of generating funds for these projects and legitimises their position. Creating new practices is one of the ways in which legitimacy can be obtained, and the strategic action of organisational members in pursuing strategies of action for enacting their preferred scripts depends on their position and role in the organisation (Drori et al., 2009). These interactions shape the institutional contexts of identity and legitimacy.

'We have been appointed based on our experiences gained from industries and educational establishments to "sanitise" this organisation and we have already been witnessing positive changes from our strategies.' Rector

The committees interact in such a way as to bring new ideas and propose a better way of coordinating activities. The rector went further to say:

'We are adopting an open-door policy to allow staff to express their views on matters that will be of benefit to the institution. Staff can see me without appointment.' Rector

These actions are a mechanism used by management to gain legitimacy, competence and/or power, thereby enacting scripts (Chaisson and Saunders, 2005).

A former rector explained his interaction with stakeholders of the polytechnic and expressed surprise about the amount of time spent on the admission process, which he felt was too long. However, apart from the management initiatives on the admission process being partly a new practice and a way of generating funds, other external factors such as the quota system also affected the admission process. The quota system introduced to the admission process changes in the traditional ways of admitting candidates. Based on the principle of the quota system, the term 'admission request' became prominent in the process. The admission request considered some candidates from certain geographical areas as educationally less advantaged. This practice led to an increase in the number of people involved in the admission process.

'Some people will walk into my office with an admission request without being able to justify their interests or sources of the admission list.' Rector.

The rector claimed that admission requests from some individuals are for personal gain. Despite those requesting admission being members of the community, their actions do not seem to be protecting the interest of the stakeholders, which is one of the main tenets of the quota system. The quota system in the admission process aims to provide a means of accommodating various and diverse cultural and ethnic groups within the state.

According to the rector:

'The person might be from Ilorin West Local Government but presenting an admission list comprising candidates from other local governments or candidates from other states.' Rector

The introduction of the quota system and the issue of some individuals with personal interests rather than organisational interests led to a complication in the meaning and interpretation of polytechnic stakeholders. The problem was how to categorise some individuals who were taking the advantage of the quota system to fill their own pockets or enhance their own popularity. The confusing question is whose interests are they serving?

'Someone came to my office claiming to come from one commissioner. He brought a list of some candidates for admission for various courses. I would have granted the request, but one of the candidates did not qualify for

admission based on his qualifications. I had to request for the telephone number of the commissioner and explained to him why a particular candidate will not be admitted. Surprisingly, the commissioner denied sending anybody with an admission list.' Rector

Some of the respondents argue that stakeholders must have certain interests in the success of the polytechnic. If these individuals have a stake in the polytechnic, their actions should not jeopardise the interests of the institution. However, their behaviour is tantamount to selfishness and not the progress of the institution. They claim that some of the candidates in the admission request might not be qualified for admission, but management might be under pressure to admit all the candidates on the request list.

Even in a situation where the list genuinely emanated from a political office holder, names of some candidates that were not originally included will eventually find their way onto the list. These names might be included by the person who brought the list or any other person that might have access to the list.' Rector

People that have direct interaction with the rector either officially or unofficially also have their admission request presented to him. Officially, the rector has some staff working directly with him in the rectorate (rector's office). This includes secretaries, personal assistants, typists, clerks and messengers. Some computer analysts responsible for the processing of students' results were also located in the rector's office. Although in the polytechnic organogram, the Head of Departments (HOD) and Directors of various institutes do not work directly with the rector, they do have direct access to the rector. Unofficially, there are other non-academic staff that have line

managers, but they have direct access to the rector's office at any time because of their personal relationship with him. There were some requests from friends and family members.

'I have to attend to staffs' admission requests. Each director and head of department has his own number of admission requests. The number of allocations to office holders depends on the number of applicants for the year.' Rector

The quota system also raised the issue of how powerful office holders are in respect of the number of candidates admitted through their office. Kwara State Edit No. 4 of 1972 did not stipulate that one institute or department is more powerful than another, but that the power of the institute is determined by the office holder, which depends on his proximity with the rector.

The quota system generated crisis, misunderstanding leading to mistrust and affected job performance. Equitable access to the institution increased through the quota-based admission policy, but Saint et al. (2003, p.12) claimed that 'it did not necessarily broaden the possibilities for academic success among those admitted'. Loyalty to the person in power continues to dwindle, and appointment to key positions in the institution reflected the level of loyalty shown to the management or other persons of authority. There were many suspicions about admission requests.

'A director came to me with a long list of admission requests. The director had already exhausted his quota but brought another list for consideration.

I examined the list and found that most of the candidates were from other

states (non-indigene). I declined to honour the request because this action will jeopardise the interest of other candidates whom we are representing and will increase the normal quota allocated to non-indigene. The director felt aggrieved and took it as a personal matter. This generated heated arguments between us because he claimed that the candidates were qualified but were not admitted because of the quota system.' Rector

One of the staff members interviewed claimed that citizenship is complex and should be given special attention.

Examining scripts for evidence of change in behavioural and interaction patterns

The third stage of analysis is the examination of scripts for evidence of change in behavioural and interaction patterns. There are changes in the scripts over the period of study. There were also planned changes from the inception of the polytechnic that changed the scripts, and these were referred to by Weick and Quinn (1999) as episodic changes and could be grouped into three stages. The first stage was the change that occurred in 1987 when the institution was renamed Kwara State Polytechnic, followed by another change in 2003 when it was renamed Kwara State University of Technology. It was later changed to Kwara State Polytechnic that same year. These types of changes are intentional and infrequent, and induced by external events (Weick and Quinn, 1999).

Many programmes were changed, some new programmes were introduced and the structure of the institution also changed, leading to a change in scripts. When the institution changed to Kwara State Polytechnic in 1987, some vocational programmes were introduced to reflect the nature of the institution as a polytechnic. The focus was

no longer only on technological programmes, but also included vocational and administrative programmes.

The structure also changed during this period. It is impossible to understand why the members of an organisation interact as they do without knowing their organisational chart (Argyle, 1972). The chief executive of the institution, who was known as the principal, became a rector. There was also the appointment of a deputy rector. All schools were changed to institutes, and these were headed by the directors.

Some departments do not submit their admissions quota or their breakdown, making it difficult for the admission panel to follow their recommendations. Often, recommendations do not reflect the criteria of merit, catchment and educationally less developed areas. This practice negates the writing of authentic and analytical reports at the end of the admission process.

"'Some departments do not submit their recommendations on schedule and deadlines are hardly observed, while the admissions drag on well beyond the stipulated dates. This disrupts the entire admissions exercise, especially when first choice institutions do not show up, resulting in many students not gaining admission.' (Admission officer)

Scripting of admissions

Kwara State Polytechnic has progressed through three different stages between 1974 and 2010. Every organisation has its different stages of development, and each phase results in certain strengths in the organisation that are essential for its success in the subsequent phases (Greiner, 1972).

Scripts are activity programmes (Weinberger et al., 2005) that intend to facilitate admission to the institution by specifying activities in admissions, sequencing these activities and assigning them to individual prospective candidates. Prospective candidates are able to identify and perform these specified activities using scripts, and this will guide them to avoid activities detrimental to the institution. The sequence will assist the prospective candidates to interact with the institution and the examination bodies.

The entire period of changing scripts in the institution could be categorised into two parts. The first part witnessed bureaucratic scripts and the second part, the life of the institution, reflected more flexible scripts. Although there was no clear-cut distinction between these periods, the categorisation was helpful in depicting the unpredictable nature of the changing scripts and the changing rules regarding the admission process. Interestingly, flexibility in government policy, rules and regulations results in corresponding changes in admission scripts.

Bureaucratic period

The scripts in this category are highly structured, predictable and pervasive. During this period, higher institutions were established by both the federal and state governments, which required uniformity in admission requirements to maintain the same standard in terms of quality education. The bureaucratic tendency has been promoted by the need to have a uniform education system. It is very easy for the stakeholders to understand the interaction order in the admission process. Prospective students were well informed about what to do in seeking admission to Kwara State

Polytechnic, and the staff members of the institution were also aware of their roles in the process. The scripts in this period could be referred to as conformity.

The three elements that constitute bureaucratic agency, according to Weber (1978), are the regular activities required for the purposes of the bureaucratically governed structure assigned as official duties; the authority to give the commands required for the discharge of these duties distributed in a stable way and strictly delimited by rules concerning the coercive means, physical, sacerdotal or otherwise, which may be placed at the disposal of officials; the methodical provision made for the regular and continuous fulfilment of these duties and for the exercise of the corresponding rights, and only persons who qualify under general rules are employed. These three elements are inherent in the conformity scripts.

Conformity scripts

The pattern of admission in the institution was to conform to the established process of admission. The pattern of the script was that the student takes the West Africa School Certificate (WASC) examination or General Certificate Examination (GCE) Ordinary Level, and if he/she passes with not less than five credits, including English and Mathematics, he/she will receive and admission letter and will register with the institution of his/her choice. The conformity scripts seek uniformity and orderly procedure in the admission process, as justified by Weber:

'Educational institutions on the European continent, especially the institutions of higher learning – the universities, as well as technical academies, business colleges, gymnasia, and other secondary schools – are dominated and influenced by the need for the kind of "education" which is

bred by the system of specialised examinations or tests of expertise (Fachprufungswesen) increasingly indispensable for modern bureaucracies.' (Weber, 1978, p.956)

There were basic rules and procedures for admission into the institution since the inception of the polytechnic in 1974 to 1978 when the JAMB was introduced. Cole (2004) views Max Weber's bureaucracy as a form of organisation, where job holders are subjected to rules and not expected to behave partially. These job holders are also appointed based on merit and competence, and have definite roles within a hierarchy. This type of organisation, according to Cole (2004), is bounded with rules and decisions, and actions are formulated and recorded in writing.

Bureaucracy, however, does not represent the common interest, but a particular interest (Giddens, 1971). The interaction of the candidates with the institution was clearly spelt out in the advertisement and on the notice boards of the institution. The interactions of officers in the admission process were also contained in the admission rules and procedures of the college.

The first admission conducted by Kwara State Polytechnic was in 1974. The proprietor of the institution set up a committee to study how admissions are conducted in similar institutions in Nigeria. The script is to 'conform' to the general practice of other polytechnics relating to admissions. The practice was to follow the federal government's guidance on admissions. These policies and practices encode a particular organisational admission script that sets the rules for having an organisationally recognised admission path (Cappellen and Janssens, 2010).

The institution must comply with the institutional environment. Organisations and organisational members must respond to environmental demand that is external and clearly understood and perceived as a constraint or demand (Teresa, 1992). Bureaucratic organisations, according to Bloisi et al. (2007), typically devote attention to detailed explanations of rules and procedures.

Experienced staff from various higher institutions in Nigeria were recruited with the aim of adopting the prevalent admission policy and standard set by the federal government of Nigeria. One of the pioneer staff members of the institution, who later became an admission officer, explains:

'I was recruited by Kwara State Polytechnic in 1974 when I was working at Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. The first Admission Officer of Kwara State Polytechnic was my immediate boss at Ahmadu Bello University.' (Admission Officer)

Since it is a state-owned institution, the government justified its action to adhere strictly to the sound practice of admitting candidates from existing polytechnics. This type of script is similar to what Mueller and Carter (2005) referred to as the 'Mimetic Learning Script'. Most of the pioneer staff members of the polytechnic, especially in key and strategic positions, were experienced staff in their specialised area and were recruited from similar institutions across Nigeria. The government followed a strategy predetermining it to be one of the strongest polytechnics in the country. The major preoccupation of the state government was to obtain legitimacy in polytechnic education in Nigeria, and following government policies, this became the major action strategy.

Although Kwara State Polytechnic began as Kwara State College of Technology, the intention of the state government was always to transform the institution into a university in the future. According to a former rector of the polytechnic:

'Following the agitation for a state-owned tertiary institution, indeed a university, led to the establishment of Kwara State College of Technology, now Kwara State Polytechnic in 1973, with the hope that it would become a university.'

However, another senior member of the polytechnic responded that:

'The establishment of Kwara State College of Technology reflected the manpower needs at that time'. (Staff)

Students are expected to be trained to have up-to-date knowledge and various professional skills. Quality was the major priority of the government, although their other objectives were to establish the institution, including keeping abreast of all technological developments; to produce technicians/technologists who were able to adapt foreign imported technologies to suit local material; to promote and encourage the study of technology-based disciplines; and to emphasise self-reliance and the improvement of indigenous technology. Therefore, the government adopted the bureaucratic way in order to achieve its aim and, according to Weber (p.237), 'the stale bureaucracy is thus the administrative organ through which the sectional power of the dominant class is institutionalised'.

At inception, the institution admitted 110 students spanning across all its programmes. In admitting these candidates, the institution followed the National Policy on Education, which came into existence in 1969 prior to the establishment of the institution.

'The Higher Educational Policy concerned itself mainly with the development of "high level manpower", which was to be in the context of the "needs of the economy" perceived mainly then in the field of science and technology.' (Aladekomo, 2004)

In line with this philosophy, the first sets of students were admitted from the Technical College, Ilorin. The final-year students of the college were given priority and encouraged to proceed to the higher institution- of Kwara State College of Technology. These students were admitted based on their final-year results at the college. Similarly, mature candidates were also recruited from state ministries based on their 'O' level results. However, bureaucracy does not represent the common interest, but a particular interest. Therefore, as the desires of people continue to change, bureaucracy became irrelevant and flexibility became inevitable in order to accommodate the dynamic environment.

Flexible period

Through experience, rules are modified, which may lead to the development and change of scripts. According to Winthereik et al. (2008), scripts are flexible, as they may be circumvented. People may not adhere to scripts and hence are subjected to rewards and punishment. Therefore, Johnson et al. (2000, p.574) posits that 'explanations of how scripts change help us to build a framework for considering the

interplay between such change, the effect on institutional rules...' Strict adherence to rules and procedures prevents public sector organisations from working like commercial enterprises. Moreover, bureaucracy is criticised: 'because of its tightly integrated direction, bureaucracy is an especially irresponsible form of political administration' (Weber, 1978, p.237).

Dilienbourg and Tchounikine (2007) pointed out that some scripts' features might be modified due to the unpredictability of how scripts will be enacted, despite the fact that scripts aim at structuring group processes, which requires some rigidity. The variables that could make scripts flexible might include external or internal influences. The events that were responsible for the flexibility of the scripts include the introduction of JAMB, the quota system, federal character, examination bodies and Post-JAMB.

JAMB scripts

The script for admission encoded by the institution changed as the institution itself changed as a result of external influence. The federal government reviewed and changed the pattern of entry to higher institutions in Nigeria. The purpose was to have a unified entry examination, and hence another examination was proposed to complement WAEC. The institution must comply with the government directives on the entry requirements to higher institutions in Nigeria.

The script changed when JAMB was established. JAMB results are now part of the admission process, and candidates seeking admission to higher institutions in Nigeria must sit the entry examination conducted by JAMB. Candidates must therefore pass the JAMB examination in addition to WAEC and meet the minimum cut-off points. The JAMB admission scripts follow this pattern: candidate takes the WAEC

examination, then the JAMB examination, JAMB sends result to candidate's university of choice and an admission letter to the candidate, then the candidate registers with the institution via the offer letter from JAMB.

JAMB was established in 1978 to conduct the Matriculation Examination for entry into all universities, polytechnics and colleges of education in Nigeria. Therefore, the situation changed and the entrance qualification was no longer limited to WAEC results. Prospective students had to attempt the JAMB examination before they could be considered for admission to any tertiary institution in Nigeria. Since the introduction of JAMB is external to the polytechnic and since it was a legal instrument promulgated by the Act (No. 2 of 1978) of the federal military government, the polytechnic must comply with the government act. This change aims to bring about uniformity in the entrance examination to tertiary institutions and to improve the quality of education through the recruitment of suitable candidates. The perception of the government on this change was supported by Hotho (2008), who sees change in the public sector as 'the prerequisite for greater efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of public service'.

Success of the students is the foremost measure of the academic success of any academic institution like polytechnics, and other measures of success are derivative. The chairman, board members and management appointed by the government see the success of the students as a challenge. Their focus is on the recruitment of suitable and qualified candidates for all the programmes. Therefore, the establishment of JAMB was a welcome idea, and it was hoped that it would assist the institution to recruit credible and qualified candidates.

The interactions between individual institutions and JAMB continue to change from time to time regarding the admission process. This has led to scripts within scripts. There are instances where JAMB will request a particular institution to admit certain candidates that were not admitted to other institutions. According to one admission officer, 'JAMB representatives in the admission committee may plead for qualified candidates that could not have a place in their institution of choice to be admitted in another institution'. This indicates that another script has evolved within the JAMB script which is supposed to follow certain procedures, but requests admission on behalf of the candidates.

JAMB sometimes issues different guidelines and procedures for entrance or qualifying examinations. Some procedures might be entirely different from previous practice. For example, JAMB forms used to be obtained from JAMB offices located in every state, but are now contracted to some institutions. The implication is that prospective candidates must comply with the rules and procedure of the institutions designated to sell JAMB forms. Moreover, institutional environments are becoming more complex with the changing expectations by external agencies and government (Curri, 2008). With the introduction of JAMB, the script follows the course structure and pattern. The enactment of script in the admission process depends largely on the choice of course by the prospective candidates.

The process of admission can be broadly grouped into two: official and unofficial. The official admission process was the 'recognised' process as stipulated by the management as a legitimate way of admitting candidates to the institution. The unofficial admission process was the involvement of some individuals or groups who have no official duties in the admission process, but influenced or dictated those

candidates to be admitted. Such people include admission touts, cultists, admission agents and some staff that were not supposed to be involved in the admission process, as well as admission requests from some stakeholders such as government functionaries, friends and relatives of the management or members of the governing council of the polytechnic.

In the official script, prospective candidates were expected to respond to advertisements from the polytechnic on various courses that would be run for that academic session. Knoph and Westerdahl (2006) regarded 'official' as a statement from the institution or by an official in charge of the activities.

The official script depends on the level of programme. It is important to clarify the programmes in the polytechnic, because most of the student respondents are from different programmes. Their relationships with the institution in the admission process are quite distinct, and through different types of actors in the admission process (Barley and Tolbert, 1997), different scripts can be identified. The relevant actors are the prospective candidates seeking admission and the organisation members involved in the admission process.

Candidates seeking admission to National Diplomas (ND) follow a different pattern from those seeking admission to Higher National Diplomas (HND). Moreover, within each programme, patterns of interaction also depend on whether or not the courses are college diploma. College diplomas are courses that were introduced by the institution and are not accredited by the NBTE. These courses are at both diploma and higher diploma levels.

Holders of college diplomas will not be allowed to participate in the National Youth Service Corp (NYSC), a programme introduced by the federal government of Nigeria for all young graduates of universities and polytechnics. This programme aims at bringing unity in Nigeria by making it compulsory for young graduates not older than thirty years of age to 'serve' in any part of the country. Those that are seconded for the NYSC programme are students that have passed a recognised degree or HND, excluding other courses that are not accredited.

Holders of recognised certificates but who graduated through a part-time programme will also be excluded. The certificates of the college diploma might not be recognised in any other polytechnics in the country. For example, holders of a college diploma from Kwara State Polytechnic can only use such a certificate to seek a higher diploma in the same institution. The college diploma certificates are recognised within the state for either admission for higher diploma or for employment purposes. At diploma level, courses run by the polytechnic include social work administration, cooperative studies, diploma in accounting and auditing, and diploma in Common and Sharia law.

The polytechnic has other programmes that are independent of JAMB. These programmes are at both certificate level and postgraduate level. The entry requirements for these programmes are quite different and flexible. The polytechnic has the right to review the entry requirements from time to time, depending on the number of applications received in the previous year. The institution can waive some requirements and has the right to offer concessional admission. These two programmes are not expected to participate in the NYSC programme, but the certificates can be used for employment purposes.

Moreover, some universities in Nigeria require a postgraduate certificate from a graduate of the polytechnic as one of the entry requirements to the Master of Business Administration (MBA) programme in the universities. This is because there is discrimination between HND holders of the polytechnic and BSc holders from the universities. HND is regarded as lower in standard than BSc, and therefore a postgraduate certificate will be required if the holder wants to proceed to university for further studies. A postgraduate certificate is the highest qualification at Kwara State Polytechnic, although there are some polytechnics in Nigeria that award degrees.

The official scripts depend on the nature of the programme. In general, the polytechnic enacts the script through advertisement. Enactment is what Teresa (1992) regarded as an action, or process whereby the institution defines and creates the environment, which is perceived as organisational output. In the advertisement, the registrar normally appends his signature or it is signed on his behalf. Moreover, the advertisement will initially be in the JAMB brochure, a yearly publication that contains all the polytechnics and the courses available for the academic year.

Prospective candidates will be given a copy of the brochure when they purchase the JAMB form. This will give them the opportunity to be aware of accredited courses, the polytechnic and whether there is a new polytechnic that has just been established. In the advert, admission requirements will be categorically stated, together with methods of applying and the closing date for application. Where to obtain the relevant form and submit it will be clearly stated in the advert. The advert will be in local as well as national dailies and will run for several days.

"...I saw the advert in the Herald newspaper and I came down to the institution to obtain the part-time form for the Banking and Finance Programme". Alumni student

The prospective candidate is expected to go to the admissions office situated in the registry department at the permanent site of the institution. There were many staff members in the department with different responsibilities, and a student narrated his interactions with them:

'I specified the type of form that I required to an officer in the admission department. I paid a certain amount of money in the same room but from another officer and obtained the polytechnic receipt before I was issued the form.' Student.

Another person was responsible for the collection of the completed form in the same department. An acknowledgement card bearing the student's name and registration number was returned to the candidate. Staff in the admission department have different roles to play in the admission process.

The interaction between the prospective candidate and members of the admissions office was official, and forms could be traced in case of the candidate losing the acknowledgement card. Each officer that attends to candidates has an official title, as well as clear responsibilities and a role to be performed in the admission process. The prospective candidate has no further interaction with any members of the polytechnic until he/she is offered provisional admission.

Within the institution, the interaction was between the academic board, the admission officer, members of the admissions office, the rector, the directors, heads of departments and messengers. Through individual enactment, scripts were enduring and evolving for those seeking admission to the institution, involving a complete shift in script.

In the unofficial process of admission there were no specific patterns of interaction, and some students and staff that were interviewed explained that a loose management style was responsible for different routes to admission, which were not officially recognised by management. The unofficial scripts may result in either a genuine offer of admission to the candidate or fake admissions.

'There were many admission agents that you can find around the school premises which can process your admission for you, but at a cost which is negotiable.' A student

Some of these admission agents have connections with the right people and they will provide all the necessary documents for the admission, including, if possible, fake documents. This practice of admission was rampant between 1999 and 2003. The impression given to the prospective candidates was that admission is not possible without knowing someone that will 'follow up' your admission. Charges for the admission process vary depending on whether you require the 'full package' or just an offer of admission. The full package includes payment of tuition fees and all other administrative charges that a student must pay during registration.

Management are aware of these admission agents on campus, and have introduced the need for verification of results before a student can register on a particular programme. Most of the admissions made through the admission agents were normally presented to the admission officer as requests.

'It was difficult for the management to address the issue of admission agents because these agents are highly connected to some staff within the polytechnic and external people that are powerful.' A member of staff

Admission became uncontrollable, and the process of admission continues until the beginning of the first semester examination. Request for admission, especially from government quarters, made it difficult to have a specified calendar for admission, and the term 'all-year-round admission' was a common phrase to describe the nature of admission at that time.

Some members of staff blame the problems of uncontrollable admission on the orientation of the prospective candidates from secondary school. According to Adebunmi (2004), moral decadence, poor academic performance and examination malpractice and other forms of deviant behaviour are a regular occurrence in secondary education institutions. The achievement of educational objectives is difficult because of these impediments.

Some candidates usually succeed in receiving genuine offers of admission, while others may be offered fake admission by agents. These agents capitalise on the loopholes created by management, especially with citizenship certificates as a way of implementing the quota system principle.

There was, however, a change in policy in 2010, which meant that JAMB had to conduct one entrance examination in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. This examination was referred to as the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME), and was different to the former two examinations that distinguished universities entrance examinations (UME) from other tertiary institutions' examinations (MPCEME). This change in policy came about as a result of attempts by the federal government and all concerned stakeholders in the education sector to solve the problems of access and the quality of entrants into tertiary institutions in Nigeria. The policy also aims to achieve cost reduction, expansion of access to tertiary institutions and opportunity of choice for six institutions.

Quota script

The establishment of JAMB as an examination body to conduct entry examinations to tertiary institutions in Nigeria ushered in the principle of the quota system into the admission process. The quota system is a measure used to manage diversity and to bridge the gap in the level of educational development across the country. Its introduction into the admission process in our tertiary institution was controversial. Corrective measures such as quotas were always involved in great controversy and were gradually abandoned (Carrington et al., 2000).

For effective implementation of quota, the federal government categorised the states in Nigeria into two: educationally developed and educationally less developed. Kwara State was and still is in the less developed state category, for two reasons. First, most of the intakes were non-indigenes who have the financial resources to pay the tuition fees because their states are richer than Kwara State, and tuition fees in their state are

probably higher than those of Kwara State Polytechnic. Therefore, non-indigenes dominated the institution, which was established with the aim of providing affordable education to its citizens. Although there are differential tuition fees for indigenes and non-indigenes, Kwara indigenes are economically poor and most of their parents could not afford the higher tuition fees. Despite the inauguration of the certificate Screening Committee and interviews in the admission process, the number of graduates of Kwara State indigenes is still very low.

The second reason is the problems associated with the quota system. Admission quota is spread across all the local governments in Kwara State and non-indigenes. Strict compliance with the quota system, according to a member of the admission office, was because the institution could not accommodate all the qualified candidates since the available infrastructure could not cope with the growing demands for a place in the institution. There were fewer applicants from some local governments such as Baruteen and Kaima, while the number of applications for admission from others, such as Ilorin West and East, was very high. Therefore, not all the candidates from these local governments could be admitted as a result of the quota system, even though entry requirements in these local governments were very high. Moreover, the application of the quota system is very cumbersome, as indicated in a letter from the JAMB Registrar dated 22nd July 1999 on discretion quota.

The quota script was that the candidate takes the WAEC examination, then the JAMB examination, and then the JAMB sends the result to the candidate's university of choice and an admission letter to the candidate, the candidate obtains their birth certificate from their respective local government authority, the institution checks the

quota of the local government for availability, and then the candidate registers with the institution via the offer letter from JAMB.

The quota system was introduced in the admission process of the institution with a view to allowing and giving an opportunity to people in all the local governments in Kwara State. It was noted by the government that some areas are better developed educationally than others, and may occupy all the required numbers in any academic year. Therefore, the quota system allows the educationally less developed areas to have the opportunity to gain admission to the institution, otherwise certain areas might dominate that institution. The institution was established not for a particular area, but for the benefits of people irrespective of location within the state and throughout the country.

'We have to confirm the state of origin and the local government area of the candidate as it is part of the requirements for admission. This is a directive from the government and will be complied with to make sure that all areas within and outside the state are treated fairly.' Admission officer

This script led to the verification of state of origin and local government area. In addition to the basic requirements of admission for any programme in the institution – WAEC and JAMB – prospective candidates must also produce evidence of citizenship. The certificate will depict the state of origin as well as the local government and ward areas of the candidate.

'It was when I got to the admission office that I was informed to submit a citizenship certificate along with other documents for verification. I had to

go to our local government to obtain the certificate and thereafter submitted it to the school. 'HND student

The implication of this is that passing the JAMB and WAEC examinations is not a total guarantee of admission. If the quota for a particular area has been filled and even if the candidate passes, he/she might not have the opportunity to be offered admission in that academic year. Moreover, the concept of the quota system in the admission to tertiary institutions is ambiguous, making implementation difficult and allowing for fraud in the process. The policy guideline on the quota system stipulated that 40 per cent should be for Merit, 30 per cent on Locality/Catchment, 20 per cent on Educationally Less Developed States and 10 per cent for discretion.

According to JAMB (1999), '...discretion quota may seem ambiguous. It has been variously described as Vice-Chancellor's list, JAMB list, Ministerial list, etc.'. The Board therefore suggested a review of the policy: 40 per cent on Merit, 35 per cent on Locality, 20 per cent on Educationally Less Developed States and 5 per cent for National Interest (this involves, among others, 2 per cent foreign students and the remaining 3 per cent to be shared for disabled candidates, gender balancing and good students who may otherwise be dropped using the various guidelines). Akpan (1990) argues that sound entry is required for admission based on merit, but qualifications might need to be lowered to fill the remaining quota. This may result in denying better qualified candidates to secure admission if they are not from the catchment area or less developed states.

The prospective candidate must visit the local government authority to obtain a duly signed citizenship certificate. However, before the chairman of the local government

will sign the certificate, it must have been signed by the village head, who will confirm the compound and the parents of the candidate before signing the paper to be presented at the local government. An alumni student explains:

'I have problems signing the citizenship certificate because I was born in another state and my parents are from Kwara State. Therefore, my birth certificate was irrelevant. I had to find someone who will identify me as an indigene of the state. Fortunately, I know someone who knows the chairman of the local government and he introduced me as an indigene of the state. I was then issued the citizenship certificate.' Alumni student

The effect of the quota system was certificate forgery. Some prospective candidates from other states or within the state forged the certificate of origin of those local governments that were not adequately represented or that had not filled their quota. The management of the institution therefore established the Certificate Screening Committee to verify students' credentials submitted for admission. A member of the Certificate Screening Committee confirmed that:

'the level of forged certificates of origin was alarming. The admission officer discovered many forged certificates which necessitated the inauguration of this committee to carefully verify the authenticity of certificates of origin submitted for admission. We are actually discovering some forged certificates'.

Moreover, the management introduced an admission interview for prospective students after certifying their certificates. Through this process, candidates that forged their

certificates of origin would be discovered. The interview is usually conducted at departmental level and would comprise staff from different local governments. A Head of Department (HOD) said:

'it is easy to discover a forged certificate through the interview of the holder. Each local government has different accents and if a candidate claims a local government other than his or hers, it will reflect in his or her accent. Moreover, the candidate would not be able to describe his or her compound or family house'. Staff

Federal character scripts

Principal officers are politically appointed, and include the rector (chief executive), registrar, bursar and the director of works. The chairman of the governing council and some other members of the council are political appointees. Although there are criteria for the appointment of these officers, the decision of the government on who should be appointed supersedes any other criteria.

The leadership style of the management and council sometimes results in change in the composition of the admission committee. The structure of the institution continues to change with the appointment of new council members or management. The organisational structure determines the procedures for admission. The conduct of post-JAMB changed when the present governing council were appointed. The coordination of the examination was the prerogative decision of the governing council, and involves the appointment of a consultant for the examination, a coordinator, and the charges to be paid by the prospective students for the examination, the venue and other logistics.

Kwara State Polytechnic has changed its organisational culture over the years based on the initiatives of leadership either by the governing council or the management without carefully examining its basic organisational practice. This has resulted in unprecedented crisis, even though the idea or initiative might have been good: 'A strong and positive corporate culture cannot replace or improve poor business planning, strategies or decisions' (Burack, 1995).

'Admission in the polytechnic is highly competitive but if you know how to contact the chairman of council or any other members of the governing council, you will definitely secure admission to any programme of your choice.' A staff

Osaghae (1998) views federal character as a variant of the consociational principle of proportional representation or the quota system, where the main objective was to ensure that the kaleidoscope of the country's diversity was reflected in the composition of government at all levels.

The present management is also said to be powerful and committed to changing the institution for the better, which means different methods of admission have to be sought. Any change that does not emanate from management is resisted because of suspicion and incompetence of the organisational members by management.

According to the present rector:

'Things have started changing for the better now and we are determined to change everything that has been mishandled for the better...'

Therefore, the admission committee was reconstituted. Members of the committee now include the rector, who will serve as the chairman of the committee, the deputy rector of administration, the deputy rector of academics, the registrar, a member of the governing council, the admissions officer and the deputy registrar academic, who will serve as the secretary of the committee. Each member of this committee has a certain responsibility to perform in the admission process. The committee reports back to the governing council.

Moreover, where the government is the owner of the organisation, its participation in the strategic decisions of the organisation always affects the interests of the stakeholders. Ogbechie et al. (2009) pointed out that:

'Appointment to the board, senior management positions, and even lower cadres is often based on political connections, ethnic loyalty and/or religious faith as opposed to considerations of efficiency and professional qualifications.' Ogbechie

The chairman of the council has the right to impose any rule that suits his purpose, irrespective of whether it is in the institution's policy of operation. He dictates what must be done in order to bring about a change to the institution.

'The chairman of the council has his lists of admission which must be approved by the admission committee headed by the rector. In fact, the rector must report to the chairman of council all the admitted candidates.'

A member of the admission committee

Moreover, the appointees must serve the interests of those that appointed them including other government functionaries. Admission requests from the government functionaries, especially political office holders, must be honoured by the management and the governing council. The institution does not have complete autonomy, as there is lots of interference in the operations of the institution from stakeholders. The more complex the service that professional organisations provide, the more necessary it is to grant these organisations autonomy in producing such services (Bruijn, 2007).

Leadership and the role of leaders are very important in the change programme. Leadership style is always influenced by the interference from these stakeholders. According to a director of the Academic Planning Unit (APU), the decisions of the rector are usually influenced by his close associates. However, Cappy and Anthony (1999) believe that lack of leadership, not resistance, is most likely to derail sustained change. Change in leadership will change the operation of the institution to reflect the aspirations of those that appointed them, thereby making sustainable change difficult.

'We have our mandate and we must serve the interests of all the stakeholders in the institution. We need to take into cognisance the varying interests of these people and must let the interests reflect in our policy. We need to be flexible to achieve this...' Rector

The autonomy of the institution varies according to the extent to which the government has a vested interest in the affairs of the institution. Although Kacperczyk (2009) argues that management has discretion over corporate resources in a situation where ownership is different from control, it is difficult to separate ownership from control

because of the interests of the stakeholders. The institution will be accountable to the government not only because it receives its subvention from the government, but because key holders were appointed by that same government. However, Barry et al. (2001) argue that managerial control in universities is associated with significant changes in working conditions.

Some stakeholders are extremely powerful and are always involved in the administration of their institutions. They have influence in the admission process and are highly connected with the government. According to the former rector, some institutions refused to change their name from technology to polytechnic, despite the fact that it was a directive from the government:

Eventually, there is still an important institution of that nature — Yaba College of Technology still retains the name College of Technology because their old boys insisted that they will not change the name. And another one is the Institute of Management and Technology (IMT) in Enugu, which is in the Eastern part of the country that also refused to change. But all others, including our own, changed to polytechnic.

Yaba College of Technology happened to be the oldest tertiary institution among its peers and it has influential old boys who were in government and I think it is these old boys that refuse to allow the government to change the name because they were consulted before, and the federal government believes that before anything can be done that affects the people, they were consulted and entered into dialogue and agreed. The old boys at Yaba Technology were powerful people and they had a say in the government,

and felt that the name should not be changed. Enugu is also an old institution, one of the first-generation institutions in the country, and it is most likely that IMT insisted they did not change the name.' Rector

Some of the alumni are political godfathers and have the power to achieve and actualise their aims. Godfathers exist at all levels in the country and within organisations. A godfather is an influential person who has the power to dictate the appointment of political office holders. He might be a person with political power or religious power, or be enormously wealthy. The nature of the appointment and the person that appointed the officer will determine the power and influence of the job holder.

The patterns of admission with this type of appointment now involve the government, who can present their candidates for admission, and must be honoured by the management or council. The political appointees are also responsible for and accountable to the electorates, and will serve their interests even at the risk of dwindling the standard of education with their 'request lists'. Some prospective candidates who have relationships with the government officials can start their admission process through them by 'request' to the institution.

National Examination Council (NECO) scripts

The monopoly of WAEC as the sole examination body came to an end with the establishment of the National Examination Council (NECO) and National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB).

The intentions behind setting up these bodies are different, thereby making comparison of the grades earned by students in public and internal examinations more difficult (Shaheen, 2010). The federal government of Nigeria, through the Honourable Minister of Education, made a special announcement on the recognition of both the National Examination Council (NECO) Senior School Certificate and the National Business and Technical Examinations Board (NABTEB).

According to the Honourable Minister:

'This is to inform all tertiary institutions and the general public that the National Examinations Council (NECO) Senior School Certificate is recognised by the Federal Government. All tertiary institutions throughout the country are to note for strict compliance. Similarly, the National Business Certificate and the National Technical Certificate awarded by the National Business and Technical Examinations Boards (NABTEB) are qualifications recognised by the Federal Government for admission into Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education (Technical). The Chief Executives of National Universities Commission (NUC), JAMB, NTI, NBTE and NCCE are to note, and ensure compliance by relevant institutions.' Federal government, 2001

This script is the beginning of the conflicting crisis in the admission process. Pronouncements from different honourable ministers of education at various times seem to be contradictory, and institutions comply with directives that suit their organisational goals and objectives.

Threat scripts

Between 1999 and 2003, the process of admission followed an unusual route. Some candidates were admitted out of fear of attack by cultists. Cult activities were rampant during this period and daylight killings of students occurred both within and outside the Kwara State Polytechnic campus. Erinosho (2008) pointed out that most public institutions in Nigeria have become a haven for cultism, sexual harassment and other unsavoury practices. Rotimi (2005, p.79) stated that 'From the universities to the polytechnics, colleges of education and other tertiary institutions and some secondary schools, come stories of violence, torture and unwarranted intimidation executed by members of secret cults'.

The involvement of cultists in the admission process ushered in threat as a way of securing a place for some candidates. Candidates presented by the cultists to the admission officer were automatically admitted irrespective of their qualifications. According to one admission officer:

'There are instances that some gangs would present some candidates for admission to various departments and threaten that I would be killed if those candidates were not offered admission. I don't want to die and therefore I must comply and admit all the candidates. Some of these candidates might not even write Post JAMB, yet they would be admitted without questions from anyone.'

Some staff contended that this prevalent situation is an indication that these cultists are powerful and must achieve their wish if the person in position does not wish to risk his or her life. All of these acts undermine the quality of education in Nigeria, because the

entry requirements are compromised and the output will be poor performance. Rotimi (2008) suggested a thorough and objective examination of funding, admission policy and the general welfare of students and staff in order for the institutions to return to the past glory of a centre of academic excellence and to have credible higher institutions in Nigeria.

Some respondents who spoke on this pattern of interaction pointed out that cult members are highly connected with law enforcement agencies such as the police. Their activities are very difficult to curb and they achieve their aims through threat. During this period, clashes between different cult groups led to frequent closure of the institution. This closure made it difficult to have a regular calendar for admission. Although the WAEC and JAMB stipulate times for their examinations, prospective candidates seeking admission to Kwara State Polytechnic must wait for the resumption of the institution if it is closed to avert further killings of cult members. Therefore, the admission process would continue up until the commencement of the first semester examinations.

JAMB suggested to the federal government having an admission policy that would encourage locality. It argues, '...it may contribute to the eradication of secret cult activities on the Tertiary Institutions' campuses, as most cultists do not engage in this menace in their area of domicile'.

Conflicting scripts

There is evidence that post-JAMB examinations and screening are not approved by the federal government. Similarly, there is also evidence for the approval of post-JAMB examinations or screening. This conflict was externally induced, and the pressure to

comply with certain directives from the government was not sufficiently clear. Although both neoinstitutional perspectives and resource dependency believe that organisational action and choice are limited by various external pressures and demands, to which the organisation must respond in order to survive (Gornitzka, 1999), organisations respond to this pressure differently.

The issue of post-JAMB was supported in an address delivered by the Honourable Minister of Education, Mrs Chinwe Nora Obaji, at the Seventh Joint Consultative Meeting of the Policy Committee on Admissions into Degree Awarding Institutions held at the Abdulkadir Auditorium, National Universities Commission, Abuja on Tuesday, 13th September 2005.

'Let me reiterate that the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) has the statutory mandate to conduct matriculation examinations into Nigerian tertiary educational institutions. It is the central coordinating institution for processing applications and placement of suitable candidates. As a quality control measure and to keep to the statutes, let me restate that any candidate seeking admissions into the nation's universities undergraduate programmes must sit for the University Matriculation Examination (UME) conducted by JAMB and obtain a qualifying score before admission. Any undergraduate admission granted without a qualifying UME score or requisite direct entry qualification is against the law of the land. However, in the face of increasing reports of certificate forgeries, examination malpractices and non-correlation between UME scores and performance of admitted candidates, there is the necessity for future screening of eligible candidates. In line with our resolve of instilling

quality through quality admissions, I hereby convey approval for individual universities to further screen candidates recommended by them to JAMB based on agreed cut-off marks. Those found wanting either in learning or character should be denied admission.' (Honourable Minister)

The controversy is due to the use of the word 'screening' by the Honourable Minister for Education, which shows that there is no longer any confidence in the entry examinations conducted by JAMB. In an interview with a member of staff on the reason for post-JAMB, he stated that 'it is no longer fashionable to rely on JAMB results to determine the qualification of the prospective students.' He went further to say that the high rate of failure in the examinations and poor performances in class are attributed to those that score high marks in JAMB.

However, Dr (Mrs) Obiageli Ezekwesili, represented by the Director of Higher Education in the Federal Ministry of Education, Alhaji Ibrahim K. Zaifada, was the chairman at the Joint Consultative Meeting of the Policy Committee on Admissions into Degree Awarding Institutions for the 2006/2007 academic session held on Tuesday, 22nd August 2006 in the main hall of the ECOWAS Secretariat Abuja, where the following decisions were taken: absorption of remedial and pre-degree candidates through the relevant matriculation examination and pre-registration screening of candidates. The Committee endorsed that only candidates recommended by institutions to the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) should be screened at the point of registration, and no candidates should be subjected to any form of test or examination. The Education Minister at a later date announced that the post-JAMB screening should be at no cost to the candidates.

One of the emphases of neoinstitutionalism is that organisations must conform to the institutional environment for their survival. Whereas 'organisations operate in an environment dominated by rules, requirements, understandings and take for granted assumptions about what constitutes appropriate or acceptable organisational forms and behaviour', Kwara State Polytechnic must understand these rules and comply accordingly. Institutional contradictions are the driving force behind organisational change and these can be from the environment, other institutions or due to elementary social behaviour. Seo and Creed (2002) identified four sources of contradictions: adaptation that undermines adaptability, legitimacy that undermines functional inefficiency, isomorphism that conflicts with divergent interests and intra-institutional conformity that creates inter-institutional incompatibilities.

Some institutions comply with the directives from the Honourable Minister of Education by no longer conducting post-JAMB entry examinations. However, all the institutions are linked as a system in a symbiotic network of interaction, transaction, exchange and relationships. It is important that members of the system act in order to preserve the system if threatened (Milliken and Colohan, 2000). Kwara State Polytechnic continues the practice because some institutions are still conducting post-JAMB examinations. Double standards in the directives given by the government could be counterproductive (Cole, 2006) and pave the way for institutions to justify their actions whether or not they comply. Double standards also led to inconsistency in the admission procedure at all levels, and it was difficult for the government to enforce the right directives.

There is controversy over the use of the terms 'post-JAMB examinations' and 'post-JAMB screening'. This implies that prospective candidates must have taken these examinations and obtained minimum cut-off marks before they can be eligible to take internally arranged qualifying examinations. The reason for this exercise was that individual institutions no longer have confidence in the examinations conducted by JAMB and therefore need to further examine the applicants. However, the controversy emanated because JAMB maintains that there should be no other entry examinations after JAMB, and hence some institutions, including Kwara State Polytechnic started to adopt post-JAMB screening.

There are many directives from the JAMB office on post-JAMB. First, there was a directive that no institution should conduct any form of examination as an entry requirement to higher institutions. Some institutions therefore changed from adopting the post-JAMB examination to adopting post-JAMB screening, since they were not allowed to conduct any form of examination. However, there was another directive from the Honourable Minister of Education that gave approval to the conduct of post-JAMB but without cost to the applicants. There was partial compliance with this directive, as various institutions charge different amounts for the examinations. Later, there was another directive that stipulated the maximum amount that each institution should charge.

Another issue that seems to be vague and conflicting was the remedial programmes. Remedial programmes are designed for candidates with deficiencies in the normal requirements for admission to tertiary institutions. The programme allows these candidates to remedy their deficiencies before proceeding to National Diploma. The programme is normally for a period of one year only and the entry qualification is a minimum of two passes. Kwara State Polytechnic is one polytechnic that runs remedial courses both in science and art/management.

The students proceed to Diploma directly if they pass the course. They are expected to take an internal examination conducted by the institution but are not expected to take another examination before starting the Diploma programme.

'The remedial students are admitted based on their performance in the examination conducted to remedy their deficiencies. They will not take WAEC or NECO again and will not attempt the JAMB examination. However, the remedial certificate only qualifies the students for Diploma programmes and not for the Higher National Diploma.' Admissions officer

The students should normally re-take their 'O' level if they wish to apply for HND, as the remedial certificate will not be relevant for HND admission. All the requirements for HND admission will be applicable, including a minimum of five credits at 'O' level, including English and Mathematics, and credit at ND level. Candidates with a Pass at ND level must have spent a minimum of two years after graduation before they are qualified to apply for HND.

The controversy and conflict are twofold: what examination should the remedial students take and which polytechnics should be running the programme? Some institutions admit remedial students based on their performance in the internal examination, while others make it mandatory for them to take JAMB before they are considered for admission.

Programmes that are designed by individual institutions are not accredited by NBTE. However, the federal government in the meeting of the Federal Executive Council (2000) approved the following terms and conditions:

'Remedial Programmes are in all cases, to be aimed at remedying Registration deficiencies in respect of Degree, Diploma or NCE programmes as the case may be, especially as such deficiencies affect candidates from Educationally Less Developed States. All such programmes are to be accredited by their respective accrediting agencies, NUC, NBTE, NCCE for Universities, Polytechnics/Monotechnics, and Colleges of Education as the case may be.'

This approval signifies that all remedial programmes should be accredited by the respective agencies and in this case NBTE should accredit the programme. Similarly, the federal government allows the running of the programmes for certain categories of institutions – those that are located in state categorised as educationally less developed. The federal government justified this approval by arguing that it is a means of reducing and eliminating the current disparity or imbalance to a more tolerable minimum. However, the arrangement was not precise, as the federal government gave the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board the right to work out modalities for the admission of successful candidates and this arrangement is to continue until such time as the government is convinced that the disparity has been eliminated.

The confusion here is the yardstick used to measure when the programme will end.

Meanwhile, the Honourable Minister of Education declared in 1999 that:

"...while the need for remedial courses is acceptable ONLY in the sciences, the candidates have to be presented formally through JAMB for admission into the relevant programmes as and when due".

However, some institutions such as Kwara State Polytechnic conduct entry examinations for remedial students. After they have been admitted to the programme, they would be required to take an internal examination conducted by the institution, and if they pass the examination, they will proceed to National Diploma. The students would not be presented to JAMB or take the JAMB examination if they pass the internal examination.

Post-JAMB scripts

The introduction of the post-JAMB examination/screening changed the earlier script. Post-JAMB could be regarded as an innovation in the admission process. The idea of post-JAMB was an internal arrangement of examining prospective candidates with a view to improving the quality of education in the institution. This innovation is what Tidd et al. (2005) referred to as a process of turning opportunity into new ideas and of putting these ideas into widely used practice. Innovation is the successful exploitation of new ideas.

The issue of post-JAMB is twofold: while some respondents believe that it is necessary to conduct another entry examination for prospective candidates because of loss of confidence in the examination conducted by JAMB, others believe that post-JAMB is a source of generating funds for individual institutions. Many universities, polytechnics and colleges of education were inclined to adopt the idea of post-JAMB because of the criticism of JAMB not being effective in conducting its examination.

However, despite doubting the integrity of the JAMB examination, prospective candidates must have passed JAMB by obtaining the cut-off point before becoming eligible to take the post-JAMB examination.

The practice of post-JAMB started at various times, because some institutions doubted the legality of the examination. One admission officer claimed that there was never a document from the Federal Ministry of Education supporting any other entry examination except the one conducted by JAMB. However, some institutions requested permission to conduct another entry examination after JAMB, but the request was declined. This was reflected in the statement issued by the Federal Ministry of Education in 2004 disapproving the post-JAMB examination. The post-JAMB examination has therefore been regarded as illegal, as it was not approved by the federal government. Similarly, in October 2008 the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) reaffirmed that:

'Any post MPCE test/examination would be illegal and institutions were enjoined to adhere to the decision. The Board was requested to ensure compliance.' Seventh Joint Consultative Policy Committee Meeting, 2008

Kwara State Polytechnic started conducting post-JAMB entry examinations in 2008. Many universities and polytechnics had already started conducting post-JAMB before Kwara State joined the league of polytechnics. Many reasons were given for the conduct of the examination. One reason was that:

'JAMB results are not a true reflection of the candidates' ability and qualifications, and as such another measure must be taken to authenticate the

results. Post-JAMB is therefore inevitable.' A lecturer at the Institute of Finance and Management Studies. Staff

There were reported cases of examination malpractice in the conduct of JAMB examinations. In fact, examination malpractice is a major concern for the Board:

'The Board is worried about the alarming rate of examination malpractice and the direct involvement of examiners and agents.' JAMB report, 2007

The declaration of JAMB on the conduct of examinations led to doubt in the authenticity, creditability and reliability of the results. In some cases, results had to be cancelled.

'It is quite unfortunate that the Board had no choice but to cancel many results due to large-scale irregularities and malpractice discovered during the process of the result. The Board noted that despite its efforts to curb examination malpractice, the act, unfortunately, is still being perpetrated by candidates, examiners and agents. However, the Board will continue to derecognise examination towns and centres where massive cheating occurs. The measure has become imperative in the Board's quest to achieve zero-tolerance for examination malpractice.' JAMB report, 2007

Some respondents adduced reasons for the continuous and unabated malpractice in the JAMB examination to include the collaboration of the invigilators with the students to cheat in the examination. The various forms of examination malpractice include copying from or spying on prepared answers/swapping examination documents,

violent/unruly behaviour towards examiners, lateness to the examination hall without valid reasons, smuggling out question papers/answer sheets from the hall, collusion with other candidates/examiners/external agents, widespread/mass cheating and impersonation.

Some respondents believe that post-JAMB is a way of generating funds for the polytechnic, even if JAMB examinations are accused of malpractice. According to a senior member of management:

'We need to augment the subvention received by the government from the Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) in order to meet the financial commitments of the polytechnic. Post-JAMB is a source of income because prospective students must pay a certain amount of money before they can be allowed to sit for the examination.' Senior academic member.

Although the bulk of the income generated by the polytechnic was from subvention and capital grants, government subvention accounted for 65 per cent in 2003 and 2004, 62.6 per cent in 2005 and 56.8 per cent in 2006. The Internal Generated Revenue (IGR) accounted for 34.3 per cent of the total income in 2003, 35.1 per cent in 2004, 40.7 per cent in 2005 and 47.5 per cent in 2006. A large part of this revenue came from IJMB and other part-time programmes (Report of Committee, 2006). The polytechnic initially had some commercial ventures which served as sources of funds. These included poultry farms, food processing, a cafeteria, etc. However, Rich (2006) argues that pursuing business in an academic environment may diminish academic success, because attention could easily be diverted.

A former rector commented:

'All the commercial activities of the polytechnic are no longer functioning, including the poultry farm. The only way to generate revenue is through admissions. We must increase student intake and increase the tuition fees to meet the challenges of paying staff salary, overhead costs and other capital projects. Staff unions continue to desire for the new salary structure approved by the federal government for the federal polytechnics, which we must also comply with. Yet the state government has not increased the subvention to accommodate for the difference in the old and new salary structure. If we are to avert industrial action, we must source funds to meet these challenges.'

Post-JAMB charges vary from one polytechnic to another. There is no uniformity for the amount charged and the date on which the examination will be conducted in any polytechnic, and no agreed standard for the nature and form of the examination in the polytechnics in Nigeria. Money charged and the time of the examination will depend on the nature and location of the polytechnic. It is important to note that not all the polytechnics in Nigeria are conducting the post-JAMB entry examination.

The post-JAMB examination was regarded as illegal by JAMB. This was contained in the summary of decisions of the seventh joint consultative policy committee meeting in 2008: 'The meeting re-affirmed that any post M.P.C.E. test/examination would be illegal and institutions were enjoined to adhere to the decision. The Board was requested to ensure compliance'. This script put unnecessary pressure on the prospective students by subjecting them to many examinations. The post-JAMB

examinations conducted by various polytechnics and universities did not have government approval. They reverted to an earlier script from the 1970s when each institution conducted its own entry examination. There were lots of problems associated with this practice, including the lowering of the standard of education due to a lack of uniform examination to be used as a performance standard for all applicants.

One of the reasons for the establishment of JAMB by the federal government is to eliminate the problems of double admission for a single candidate at the expense of other qualified candidates. The practice of admitting candidates on an institution basis might make it possible (Ogonor and Olubor, 2002) to receive offers of admission into two or more universities or polytechnics. JAMB had the function of determining matriculation requirements, conducting a joint matriculation examination for candidates and placing those suitably qualified in the available places within the polytechnics or universities.

According to Ofoegbu and Ojogwu (1998):

'JAMB became a unifying mechanism to move away from individualism, self-control and quality to emphasise the actual numerical input and output to be achieved by the institutions of higher learning.'

This process centralised the key decisions on equity in the admission of candidates into the existing places in Nigerian higher institutions. However, this aim of establishing JAMB has been defeated with the introduction of post-JAMB because it subjects prospective candidates to various examinations conducted at the discretion of each polytechnic.

JAMB was established in order to standardise the entry requirements to all universities and polytechnics in Nigeria. No other body or bodies should conduct entry examinations to higher education except JAMB. This was clearly stated in the JAMB edict. Ofoegbu and Ojogwu (1998) stated that 'Decree No. 2 of 1978 established JAMB. This was amended by Decree No. 33 of 1988 which extended its jurisdiction and powers to conduct entry qualifying examinations into Nigerian Polytechnics and Colleges of Education. This in turn was subsequently amended by Decree No. 4 of 1999, which officially removed discretionary considerations from the parameters for admission'.

All prospective candidates seeking admission to Kwara State Polytechnic are subjected to a post-JAMB examination. At the institutional level, the scripts for the ND students and the HND students are the same. Both ND and HND applicants were expected to take post-JAMB as an entry requirement for their respective programme.

'Although the post-JAMB examination is supposed to be taken by prospective candidates seeking admission to National Diploma and who have taken the JAMB examination, it includes HND students as a source of generating revenue for the Polytechnic.' A senior member of the registry

An HND student responded by saying:

'We are not supposed to take the post-JAMB examination since we have taken it during our National Diploma. We have no choice but to comply with the directives of the polytechnic.'

The purpose of establishing the institution was not primarily to generate funds, because it is a public institution intended to provide quality education to its citizens using taxpayers' money to fund it. For the success of the institution in achieving its objectives (Sandbrook, 2001), it must continue to introduce measures that will truly drive the organisation towards its goal, convincing staff that these are the true measures of success.

As a result of inadequate funding and facilities, the polytechnic runs programmes which are outside its primary mandate, but are intended to generate and boost its internally generated funds. For example, Kwara State Polytechnic runs some remedial programmes which were against the directive of the Federal Ministry of Education. The directive stipulated, among other things, that it should be run on a 70:30 science/art ratio and should be accredited by relevant agencies.

However, Kwara State Polytechnic runs remedial programmes that were not accredited by the NBTE and have a higher ratio in favour of art. The polytechnic produces graduates yearly, but the quality of these graduates has for some time now come under severe scrutiny and criticism (Kwara State of Nigeria, 2007). The state government does not take full responsibility for payment of staff salaries and allowances, which has adversely affected research, publications and capacity building.

The poor state of the polytechnic as a result of inadequate funding has been attributed to turning the institution towards revenue generation rather than providing quality education. The preoccupation of the management and council has always been on how to generate funds in order to augment the salaries of the workers and to embark on capital projects.

Inadequate funding has shifted the focus of the management from the primary objective of its establishment. According to a staff member of the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE):

'Funding has always been the major constraint on the development of an effective system. Inadequate funding of polytechnics and their programmes appears to be on the increase. Inflationary trends in the economy have also contributed to institutions' inability to use the insufficient funds to provide resources for quality training.' Senior staff member of NBTE.

He further maintains that state polytechnics in particular face a peculiar problem of inconsistent funding regimes, as the appropriation of funds from state governments is epileptic in nature. The budgeted funds are irregular and as such need to be supplemented by other sources of income, such as Internal Generated Revenue (IGR).

According to Zahradeen (1990, p.3), the problems of polytechnic education could be grouped into two: the first is 'the very high cost of providing machinery and equipment needed for technical training. Most of the equipment needed is imported ... and the second major problem is the gross inadequacy of trained technical teachers to disseminate the necessary knowledge and skills to the younger generation'. Therefore, with inadequate funds, the resultant effect is that the polytechnic is unable to purchase new equipment to replace obsolete equipment, or to provide modern workshops and laboratory equipment for practical exposure and to maintain existing training

resources. Recruiting more qualified staff and improving staff remuneration and other incentives are also affected.

According to a former rector of Kwara State Polytechnic:

'Most of the equipment we have today was purchased and installed at the inception of this institution. Most of this equipment is due for replacement, but the government is not helping in providing new and modern equipment. Our IGR is not enough to purchase such equipment.'

The principle of generating profits in the public sector organisation was introduced in the institution through admitting more candidates and increasing tuition fees. This affected the values of the public organisations, which were aimed at providing essential services such as education. The level of development in Nigeria requires affordable education, otherwise the majority of people would be unable to have quality education because of their level of poverty, which would prevent them from paying the required fees. It was discovered that the increase in tuition fees to generate funds and the subsequent reduction in government subvention had a huge impact on the development of education in Kwara – a state that was categorised as one of the less disadvantaged.

First, this practice led to an increase in student intake without corresponding improvement in facilities to be able to cope with the increase in admission. Most students had no opportunity to study in an environment conducive to learning, as the classroom capacity could not accommodate all the students during a lecture, and library facilities became grossly inadequate. Staff became stressed by trying to cope with teaching and assessing the continuously growing population of students, as there was no recruitment of additional staff. Ironically, the priority of the government was to improve

the quality of education in Nigeria. Kwara State Polytechnic has therefore continued to experience problems as a result of the introduction of profit principles in institutions.

Parents were also affected because they are responsible for the tuition fees of their wards, which is part of African culture. Opio (1996, p.5) pointed out that 'African culture has several exceptional features: above all, a strong sense of belonging to a particular family, tribe, and community, which define themselves through a specific way of life, a moral, political, economic and religious system, and a weltanschauung concerning life, work, leadership and property'. For example, parents are responsible for sponsoring their wards from school through to university level. Students are not exposed to part-time work while studying, unlike in most developed countries. Therefore, any policies that affect tuition fees will affect the family, as they are fully responsible for sponsoring their wards due to limited scholarships available from the government.

Secondly, it was discovered that contrary to expectations from the stakeholders that an increase in tuition fees would lead to a reduction in student intake, this was not the case. The reason adduced for this expectation, according to some respondents, was that the higher fees might not be affordable for the indigenes of the state because of their level of poverty and hence the classification of the state as one of the less advantaged. However, the higher the tuition fees, the higher the student intake for various courses in the institution. Findings indicate that even with the increase in student intake, Kwara State indigenes are still grossly represented in the institution and the state is still classified as educationally less developed. I discovered that the real indigenes of the state were disadvantaged, as they cannot afford the high tuition fees, yet statistics showed that there was an increase in the number of indigenes admitted. However,

findings revealed that some non-indigenes either forged their citizenship certificates or obtained a genuine certificate through fraudulent practices.

The profits orientation of the institution affected the quality of education at Kwara State Polytechnic. According to Obanya (2005, p.215), 'there has been in recent years a serious concern about the quality of products from tertiary institutions, especially in the light of the sudden rise in their number as well as of the numbers of students, factors which have impacted negatively on the institutional facilities, which have become dilapidated, and on the grossly overworked academic staff'. In some departments such as Business Administration, Marketing and Accountancy, the students' intakes were above the number set by NBTE for the purpose of accreditation. One respondent spoke about the lists of students presented to NBTE and said:

'We presented lists that are not the same as the actual number admitted because we are not going to pass accreditation if the actual lists were sent. We actually exceeded the number of students allowed by NBTE for quality purposes. Our facilities are limited and we do not have classrooms that can accommodate students' intake in some departments.'

A member of staff in the Accountancy Department said a classroom with a capacity of 250 students is being used for almost 1,000 students. Most students do not have a place to sit comfortably, even when dividing the students into groups. He said, 'the number of academic staff in the department could not cope with the number of students, especially at ND level'.

However, the director of APU explained that the inconsistency in the statistics submitted to NBTE and our records on numbers of admitted candidates was due to the continuous admission process that lasted until the first semester examination. He explains that 'more candidates were admitted after the list has been sent to NBTE'.

The effect of this situation was lack of proper planning. It was asserted in a report on the conduct of the 2001/2002 admissions exercise for monotechnics, polytechnics and colleges of education that 'it has become increasingly difficult for tertiary institutions to streamline their calendars due to incessant strikes/industrial actions. As a result of this, the pattern of 2002/2003 admissions exercises cannot be predicted. This staggered nature of admissions always disorganises the schedule of activities of the departments and that of the Board" (p.20). The number of candidates that were admitted in some institutes was above the planned budget approved by the Academic Board.

A member of the Academic Board said:

'.....students dictate what we should do. We sometimes find it difficult to fix a date for the first semester examination and the deadlines for submission of marked examination papers. We normally consider the students that have just been admitted and the volume of papers that some lecturers would be marking'. Staff.

However, the federal government established the Education Trust Fund (ETF) with the aim of becoming a world-class public sector intervention agency in the education sector. The mission of ETF is to deliver competent and forward-thinking intervention programmes through providing funding to all levels of the Nigerian education system, in line with the provision of its enabling act. The Education Trust Fund therefore

provides funding for educational facilities and infrastructural development, promotes creative and innovative approaches to educational learning and services, and stimulates, supports and enhances improvement activities in the educational foundation areas, such as teacher education, teaching practice, library development and special education programmes. The fund from ETF is only for public tertiary institutions and public secondary and primary schools.

However, one admission officer maintains that the exercise conducted after JAMB as a requirement for entry to the institution is post-JAMB 'screening', not post-JAMB 'examination'. The screening exercise has more far-reaching effects in recruiting quality candidates than conducting the examination alone. Martanegara and Kleiner (2003) argue that the screening exercise is a demonstration of the reasonable steps taken in the admission process and will discourage unqualified applicants, especially those that cannot demonstrate expertise in their specialised field.

Frankenfield and Kleiner (2000) suggested that for screening to be effective, it must involve a collection of application forms, aptitude and/or honesty testing, interviews, drug testing, background checks and reference checks. This is to clarify the confusion that HND should not be subjected to another post-JAMB because they must have taken such an examination before when seeking admission to the ND programme. The exercise is justified based on the performance of some students at ND level. The same type of exercise is required before a candidate is considered for admission.

The introduction of post-JAMB added more responsibilities to the duties and functions of management and the existing structure could not cope with the rigour of conducting such an examination. In order to accommodate the growing responsibilities of

management, the position of deputy rector academic was created. This altered the structure of the institution. Change in organisational structure was responsible for change in script when the position of deputy rector academic was created. Initially, the institution had one deputy rector who was not a member of the admissions committee. As the institution became more complex in meeting its obligations and more responsibilities were created for the chief executive, the deputy rector academic assisted in specialised areas within the rectorate. According to Stummer (2010), when dealing with the complexity of the organisation, specific organisational structures, such as communication structure, roles and organisational rules, are required.

The interaction order changed and the admission committee had to restructure its mode of operation and create new responsibilities designed for each member. This sort of continuous change, according to Poocharoen (2010), will hamper the creation of a stable environment where organisations will be able to learn and grow in their capacity to perform and actualise their objectives. The academic environment became highly unstable because of resistance to the introduction of post-JAMB from various stakeholders, some of whom complained about a lack of or inadequate information on the necessity of introducing post-JAMB.

In taking the decision to introduce the post-JAMB examination, the institution authority did not inform the stakeholders of the reasons behind the examination for the prospective candidates. Sandbrook (2001) posits that in defining the true purpose of the organisation and in agreeing the ways in which this purpose should be measured, as many people as possible, including external stakeholders, should be involved to ensure the greatest success.

'There should be a stakeholders' meeting for any decision that will affect the financial expenses towards the schooling of our wards. Paying for an examination before entry adds to our financial burden and I do not see any sense in taking post-JAMB, especially for the HND candidates.' Alumni member.

Many stakeholders, including the parents, staff and students, were not involved in the decision process that led to the introduction of post-JAMB.

Scripts identified

After grouping the data, some scripts at various stages in the polytechnic were identified in the admission process. The data generated from the case study helped to identify scripts and the relationships between these scripts. These scripts are Conformity Scripts, JAMB Scripts, Quota Scripts, Federal Character Scripts, National Examination Council (NECO) Scripts, Threat Scripts, Conflicting Scripts and Post-JAMB Scripts.

Interconnectivity of the scripts

Scripts are interconnected. There are causes and effects of scripts as they continue to change over time; for example, it was found that the cause of threat scripts was the federal character scripts. Thuggery was the major characteristic in the election based on the federal character principle. Those that were used during the election as thugs must be compensated, and their demands must be met, otherwise they are capable of disturbing the peace of the state.

Invariably some of them became admission agents, because it was another source of money for them, apart from the fact that some of them were on the payroll of the government as bodyguards. Therefore, the effect of the federal character scripts was the threat scripts in 2001. However, the scripts became less pronounced shortly after the election of another government in the state. Those that were used as thugs in the previous election had no access to the government house and hence their power was reduced considerably. Moreover, some of these thugs became cultists because of the possession of firearms, which they used to threaten both staff and students of the polytechnic.

Moreover, quota scripts are also linked to conflicting scripts. The interpretation of quota became ambiguous and institutions interpreted some sections to their own advantage. It was observed that sometimes, institutions including JAMB had to seek clarification from the federal government in the implementation of the quota system. The implementation became subjective-based on the judgments of those that would implement the policy.

Ogbemudia (2004, p.2) described the quota system as being 'where eminently qualified persons are often rejected in order to take on those from other areas'. Mustapha (2006) also explains that those that oppose the quota system hinged on the argument that it is counter merit and has a negative impact on efficiency (lower standards). He said that the support for quotas has been based on the need for stability and development, as well as equity and fairness. Adamolegun, Erero and Oshionebo (1991) also agreed that the quota system has had adverse consequences for institutions in terms of discipline, morale and overall effectiveness and efficiency. Hence, it is

counterproductive (Oyovbaire, 1983), because candidates seeking particular placements have tended to manipulate their state of origin in order to gain a place.

The consequence of falsification of documents to gain admission is the pervasiveness of examination malpractice. Those that are not qualified for a particular course but were admitted, tended to employ all means necessary to graduate (Nwagwu, 1997; Oduwaiye, 2005), as they were desperate to obtain a certificate. This misconduct takes various forms, including stealing, impersonation, disorderliness, cheating, conspiracy and aiding, forgery of results and smuggling of answer scripts into the examination venue (Oduwaiye, 2005). Students' examination malpractice is likened (Oduwaiye, 2005) to the rigging of an election by politicians to enter political office. It was observed that curbing examination malpractice in our education system becomes difficult because there are many collaborators in this misconduct, including parents, teachers, school heads and examination officials (Oduwaiye, 2005).

It was also observed that scripts are pronounced in certain periods and less pronounced in other periods, or may cease completely. Quota scripts became pronounced in the admission process of Kwara State Polytechnic several years following its introduction. Similarly, threat scripts ceased or became less pronounced after the year 2001. People were conscious of the federal character principle after it was introduced and operational in some institutions' admission process. The starting points of scripts are quite distinct from the events responsible for the change in scripts.

The scripts identified above have causes and effects which make them interconnected.

The first script identified was the conformity script. The focus of the institution in this period was to have a similar admission process with other established institutions

before Kwara State Polytechnic was introduced. This system was bureaucratic, as institutions must comply with certain rules and procedures. There were many problems during the bureaucratic period, such as delay in the decision process and the procedures for admission.

Admissions in Kwara State Polytechnic that should have been completed before the start of the first semester examination always extended to the second semester. A member of staff in the admissions office said, 'We must comply with certain processes in admitting students and this has been causing delays in the process. We have limited staff in the admissions office and we have to long list, short list and check the certificates of the applicants'. This problem is inherent in bureaucratic practices of admission: 'because of its tightly integrated duration, bureaucracy is an especially irresponsible form of political administration' (Giddens, 1971, p.237).

The government introduced some policies to improve the admission process, thereby changing the conformity script to JAMB scripts. The cause of JAMB scripts was to unify the admission process throughout the country. However, there were many criticisms that JAMB was not achieving its objectives. According to Onwunli and Agho (2004, p.404), 'JAMB, however, has since experienced serious problems ranging from examination leakages, cheating, computer manipulations, and delays in placing candidates'.

Therefore, some higher institutions claimed that the results from JAMB could not be trusted and candidates needed to be re-examined to determine their suitability for the programme applied for. Similarly, the federal government of Nigeria established and recognised two other examination bodies to break the monopoly of WAEC, which was

criticised for inefficiency in releasing the results of candidates. In a special announcement from the Honourable Minister of Education in 2001, it was stated that the '...National Examinations Council (NECO) Senior School Certificate is recognised by the federal government. All tertiary institutions throughout the country are to note for strict compliance'.

The effect of JAMB was polarisation in the admission process leading to the introduction of post-JAMB. The post-JAMB scripts came about when institutions aimed at examining the authenticity of the results from these candidates and gave a thorough examination that was perceived to be credible compared with JAMB examinations. However, other institutions perceive post-JAMB as a means of generating funds to run the institution. Candidates are forced to pay money before they can be registered for the post-JAMB examination. Some respondents believe that the fees charged for post-JAMB are too high, and they are therefore suspicious of the reasons for such an examination and assume that the institution is using the examination as a source of generating revenue.

The quota system was interpreted in different ways depending on the situation of the interpreter. There are some terms that are interpreted differently by institutions. According to Smith (2000, p.36), 'Words have plural meanings and the ways in which words and ideas are expressed never belong to the speaker or writer but are open to many interpretations'. For example, the federal government could not clearly answer or define 'discretion quota'. According to a letter from the office of the registrar of JAMB to the Honourable Minister of Education on discretion quota, '...the discretion quota may seem ambiguous. It has been variously described as Vice-Chancellor's list, JAMB list, Ministerial list, etc.'

There are issues of integrating information from different inputs, which are linked to cultural diversity and influence individual ways of thinking. Therefore, different interpretations were attributed to the quota system based on the cultural backgrounds of the stakeholders. Resistance to the policy arose from different stakeholders given the ambivalence among employees and leaders (Eisenharst, 2000). Some respondents believe that the quota system in the admission process prevented qualified candidates from securing a place, and that it promoted and empowered the chief executive to admit unqualified candidates from his or her family and the local government area. This resistance led to another script in an effort to address the problems inherent in the quota system. The federal character principle was then introduced.

The introduction of federal character was intended to promote national unity, such that no ethnic group would dominate the institution. However, in the change process, small actions have a tremendous catalytic effect (Harvey-Jones, 1998), and there were problems associated with the implementation of the federal character principle. Resistance to this policy took various forms, for example, strikes and protests. Admissions to the institution took the form of 'whom you know', not necessarily based on the qualifications and requirements for various programmes. Moreover, the priority of the appointee on the federal character principle was not necessarily the quality of education, but being responsible to the influential 'godfather' that appointed them so that they would stand a better chance of being reappointed. Therefore, leaders of the institution sometimes develop or initiate ideas that will enhance their personal objectives and those of their godfathers.

In the institution, the generation of ideas by management is not a problem per se, but the relevance of such ideas and the ability to translate them into practical solutions is a real organisational problem. According to Harvey-Jones (1988, p.99), 'One's own ideas of change are not necessarily the correct ones and it is of immense help to ensure that all the people that will be affected by it are aware of the evolving external factors which are forcing you towards a certain conclusion'. The implementation can be complex and unpredictable, and can engender resistance in the institution if those that will be affected by the change do not understand the rationale for it.

Implementation of the planned change raised resistance from some staff, as there were difficulties and procedural complexity in the programme (Azzone and Palermo, 2011). Planning the admission of candidates is a major problem of the institution. There is an imbalance between the students' enrolment and available resources necessary to cope with the population increase in students. Many students were denied a comfortable academic environment, and this had the effect of them not being fully engaged in academic work.

Leaders and council members were appointed on the basis of federal character formulate policies that would be of interest to them and their godfathers. For example, if the rector is from a particular local government, student enrolments would be in favour of that local government. A change in the appointment of the rector would lead to a change in policy that will reflect the interest of the rector's place of origin. As one member of staff put it, 'this is our time and we must feel the positive impact of the rector by admitting more candidates from our local government'. Therefore, there was resistance from those staff members affected by the change in the admission process, and another script evolved.

This situation gives rise to conflicting scripts. There were different influences on the leaders of the institution to serve certain interests. The change in policies continues to be contradictory as new rectors or chairmen of council or ministers of education are appointed. A change in policies may not necessarily follow the standards or provisions of the edict or relevant rules and procedures of admissions. The director of academic planning said, 'We need to review our policies and procedures to accommodate for the realities in students' applications. However, the rector or chairman of council has the prerogative power to direct or formulate a different procedure as he or she deems it fit without consultation with relevant departments'.

Students that were not kept busy with academic work turned to social vices and formed cult groups. The activities of cultists included violence and admission racketeering. The script that evolves from these activities is called 'threat script'. The members of the cults are feared because of their violence and it is very easy for them to threaten the admissions officer or management staff to admit candidates presented to them from their lists. Although I was unable to interview any cult member because it is difficult to identify them, one admissions officer said:

'I have had some encounters with the cultists. On one occasion, they knocked on my door and aggressively identified themselves as cultists. They presented a list containing the names of some prospective candidates and their intended department, and asked me to admit them and threatened to kill me if I did otherwise. I had no choice but to admit all the candidates on the list.'

The officer said he could not report the incident to the management or the police because the cultists are highly connected and he would be risking his life, as they have killed so many people within the school in cold blood. The police could not even apprehend those responsible for the killing in daylight and these activities allow them to operate unabated. The officer claimed that all the candidates presented for admission were not qualified and their documents were forged.

The connectivity is therefore routine and this is referred to as the organisational script (Canato, 2007). Organisational response is shaped by learned behaviours, and Canato (2007, p.4) argues that 'the process of institutionalisation is thus a process of routines' change by itself, when a new course of action is learned and integrated into existing scripts, substituting or refining previous organisational responses'. I developed a chart that depicted the interconnectivity of the scripts and the changes that took place over time (see appendix 7, changing scripts chart). The chart was useful to me in my analysis to identify various changes through time and their relationships, but in explaining the interconnectivity of the scripts, I have decided that it would be better to do so in words, so I included the chart in the appendix.

Linking findings from observational data

Several scripts were identified from the period 1974 to 2010. There was evidence of institutional change independent of the data from which scripts are derived and this, according to Barley and Tolbert (1997), provided evidence of change in Kwara State Polytechnic. Certain indicators could be used to justify the change in the interaction order in the process of admission. The establishment of JAMB as an examination body responsible for conducting the entry examination to higher education completely altered the interaction order of the actors in the admission process. The admission

process now involves two institutions: Kwara State Polytechnic and the Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board, and the prospective students. Therefore, the introduction of JAMB was the starting point for the flexibility of admission scripts.

Moreover, the introduction of JAMB triggered changes in the interaction order in the admission process. Evidence also indicates that there were changes in JAMB's modalities for screening candidates recommended for admission. There was a change in the modalities in 2006, which changed the usual practice of JAMB in the admission process. The modalities now include pre-registration screening of recommended candidates, academic (learning) screening, character/personality traits screening, institutional screening, strict adherence to JAMB printouts and applicability.

The desire of people in the state to have a state university was one of the factors that triggered change in the institution. Therefore, in pursuit of the collective interests and desire of the people of Kwara State to have a university, the military governor inaugurated a 15-member steering committee on Monday, 17th September 1990 to undertake the necessary spade work for the successful establishment of a university within the shortest time possible.

Kwara State Polytechnic was considered an option to upgrade to university status. The desire for a university was based on inadequate access to university education for thousands of Kwara State students. Factors that used to assist prospective candidates to move from Kwara State into higher institutions in the past have dwindled or vanished over the years. In the past, Ahmadu Bello University (ABU), Zaria, and the University of Ilorin used to be avenues for the absorption of prospective candidates from Kwara

State. However, due to these universities being federal institutions, Kwara State quota has gradually diminished over the years, leaving many applicants stranded.

Moreover, Kwara State remains the only state out of the old twelve states in Nigeria where there is no state university. In addition, the number of Kwara indigenes seeking admission into higher institutions has risen in the last few years. From the statistics provided by JAMB, most qualified candidates from Kwara State were unable to be absorbed into higher institutions in Nigeria. The table below provides an overview of the percentage of Kwarans (2002–6) that were unable to secure a place in higher institutions of learning in Nigeria.

Year	Number of	Number	Percentage
	Applicants	Admitted	Admitted
2002	16410	8500	52
2003	17142	7829	46
2004	18561	9701	52
2005	19622	8778	45
2006	22770	8616	38

The existing university in Kwara State (University of Ilorin) could no longer cope with the teeming population of applicants seeking admission into the institution. The remedial programme of the university was also oversubscribed. The remaining applicants that were not absorbed into tertiary institutions constituted a security risk to the state and the nation, as there was no employment for them as an alternative to school.

Changing scripts at Kwara State Polytechnic are due to continuous change in government policies, including regarding entry examinations. In 1974 only the West African Examination Council (WAEC) had the responsibility of conducting 'O' Level examinations, a prerequisite for admission to higher institutions. The West African Examination Council was established in 1952 with the responsibility to determine the examinations required in the public interests in West African countries. Thus the minimum entry qualification was five credits, including English and Mathematics. The credits should be in the relevant programme for the prospective candidates.

The federal government broke the monopoly of WAEC by establishing the National Examination Council as an alternative to WAEC. Prospective students then had the opportunity to decide which examination to take. The certificates obtained from the two examinations are recognised by institutions in Nigeria. Candidates were allowed to take the two examinations in the same year and could combine the results for the purpose of admission. For example, if five credits is the minimum requirement for a particular course, the candidate will be qualified for admission if he/she has two credits from WAEC and three credits from NECO. However, the combined subjects must be relevant to the requirements of the course the candidate wishes to apply for, and the subjects must be different but make up the required five credits. Therefore, obtaining five credits is flexible with the introduction of NECO.

Government policies are sometimes vague, inconsistent, ambiguous and difficult to interpret. The quota system was controversial in the interpretation of 10 per cent discretion. The implication of this is that candidates can be admitted at the discretion of the rector with prejudice to their qualifications. Therefore, this creates an opportunity for unqualified candidates to be admitted under this category.

According to an assistant registrar, candidates can lobby to get their names on the rector's request list. He said no one can query the admission list of the rector based on the qualifications of the candidates in the list. Admission requests affect the consistency in the implementation of admission requirements and the standard of education in Nigeria. This is because those that were not qualified for a particular programme but were admitted anyway would not learn in the same way as those that were qualified. This practice of admission requests defeats the purpose of setting admission standards.

The continuous change in government policies is a reactive approach to solving immediate problems emanating from the state's agitation for representation at federal level. Mustapha (2006, p.51) argues that 'the agitation by the state is an attempt to reengineer the elite formation process through the introduction of state quota in the education system'. Nigeria is a country characterised by intense ethnic polarisation and conflict. However, although such policy might solve immediate problems, it could be source of long-term problems and conflict due to continuous agitation as a result of inconsistency.

Political appointment of the governing council and management team contributed to the changing scripts. Although the appointment of these principal officers had a specific term, they hardly complete their term before another team are appointed. This is due to the notion that other people must be given an opportunity to serve their people. In most cases, a change in government will naturally lead to a change in political appointees. Loyalists will be compensated with a political appointment as a way of saying thank you during the election.

According to the report of the technical committee on the establishment of the Kwara State University (2007), the state-owned tertiary institutions are functioning in accordance with the provisions of the respective laws establishing them, but often, the institutions were managed by governing councils which were not composed of the right calibre of members. Quite often, membership of the governing councils of the state tertiary institutions does not reflect the adequate supervision of the management of higher institutions at that level. The quality of people on the governing council determines the quality of services delivered or rendered by each tertiary institution. Accordingly, the chairman of the governing council must always be an experienced academic, serving or retired, while other members of the governing council must be professionals in relevant areas (Kwara State of Nigeria, 2007).

This type of practice promotes individual interest. The institution is managed like a private sector organisation and whereas the management of the public sector is different from private sector management (Elcock, 2006), the tradition of managing the public sector is even different from country to country. Dent (2005) argues that 'the style of management of the public sector generates different responses, because each country is shaped by its own historical and political traditions as well as providing the sources of resistance and sedimentation too'. In the public sector, public servants are required to promote four values in the collective public interest: accountability, legality, integrity and responsiveness. However, the application of principles aimed at increasing revenue in the institution increases the workload of the academics because of the increase in student admissions, leading to more stress and strain.

Barry et al. (2006, p.291) maintain that some pressures can be external, such as:

'severe financial cut-backs, increasing student numbers, technological demands from improved forms of electronic communication, pressure for research output, enhanced levels of managerial control and the surveillance of regulation, audit and peer review'.

In 2001 a law establishing a university of technology was enacted by the Kwara State House of Assembly. It was Kwara State Polytechnic that was upgraded to Kwara State University of Technology, and so the Kwara State Polytechnic Law No. 13 of 1987 was repealed. The President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria was invited to change the name of the institution.

However, it was found that even with the name change and upgrade of the polytechnic to a university, there was no change in the admission scripts. The admission that was carried out in 2001 did not reflect the change in name and the new structure. Courses that were expected to run under the new university system were not started, despite the publicity and advertisement of these courses.

The attempt to establish a university failed. The state government adopted a strategy that I have referred to as 'working from the answer', not 'working to the answer'. The interactions between the stakeholders affected the actualisation of the new university. In the admission process, the regulatory body for the university is quite different from the polytechnic and the admission requirements are distinct. The university regulatory body was not consulted about the requirements of admission before the pronouncement, and therefore, there was resistance to the establishment of Kwara State University of

Technology when the state government contacted the National University Commission (NUC) and JAMB for the purpose of admission. Moreover, there was resistance from the Academic Staff Union (ASUP) because universities have their own union named the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU). A member of the ASUP said:

'The government did not seek our opinion before the announcement of the change of the institution. It was ridiculous when we attended the ASUP national meeting and our status was not clear to other members of the union. We were challenged as to whether we are qualified to attend an ASUP meeting or Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) because of the announcement of change in our institution's name.'

The scripts therefore remained stable with the unsuccessful change in the institution's name and edicts. The admission process for the year 2001 was similar to the previous year. Even after the structure of the institution returned to status quo, the admission process also followed the previous pattern. Therefore, change in policy rather than external change was the major cause of change in scripts.

Conclusion

This chapter has analysed the processes of admission using scripts as tool of analysis. The research process involves four stages: defining an institution at risk of change over the term of the study and selecting sites of this definition; charting flow of action at the sites and extracting scripts' characteristics of that particular period; examining scripts for evidence of change in behavioural and interaction patterns; and linking findings from observational data to other sources on change in the institution of interest. The base time was 1974 and three major transitions were identified between then and 2009.

Data were grouped and coded. Seven events were identified from the data responsible for the change in scripts: the introduction of the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB); government policy on education; changing of the institution from Technology to Polytechnic; the changing of the Polytechnic to University; the introduction of the quota system; admission committee and the introduction of post-JAMB; and the introduction of the Federal Character Commission. These events were responsible for the change in scripts. The scripts in the admission process discussed include conformity script, JAMB script, quota script, federal character script, NECO/NABTEB script, threat script, conflicting script and post-JAMB script.

It was discovered that educational policy in Nigeria has neglected the realities of quality teaching and learning. The policy of the quota system in the admission process, the federal character principle and the burden on the institutions to generate funds are actually making things worse (Ball, 2010). Some respondents criticised the increase in the number of students admitted for the purpose of generating funds. This practice forms an important basis of educational performance. Efficiency of the academic staff was thus compromised, with no improvement of facilities to cope with the student population.

Moreover, contradictory policy pronouncement from the federal government was another source of continuous change in scripts. Such contradiction includes the conduct of the post-JAMB entry examination. Post-JAMB was initially declared as illegal by the Minister for Education because it was against educational policy for any institution to conduct any form of entry examination apart from the one conducted by JAMB. Only JAMB had the right to conduct an entry examination with a view to

having a uniform standard in all the tertiary institutions in Nigeria. However, there was another pronouncement credited to one minister for education granting approval for the institutions to conduct the post-JAMB examination.

I have argued that the introduction of commercial organisation principles to the management of public sector organisations will lead to a change in scripts. Public sector organisations have different roles to perform than private organisations, and therefore people are affected differently. There will be resistance because of the differing levels of acceptance and differing paces of change in which scripted behaviour is affected.

7. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

This thesis reports an empirical research investigation that provides an in-depth case study to explain the changing scripts in Kwara State Polytechnic. The objectives of this research study are to understand the changing scripts in admission processes and to explore different approaches to change in higher education institutions using Kwara State Polytechnic as a case study. The research question is: How can we understand the process of change in Kwara State Polytechnic?

The research site is located in the developing world (Nigeria), whereas most of the empirical research studies of change processes have been undertaken in the developed world. The level of development determines the priority of any change programmes. The cultures, economics and politics of the developed countries are different from developing countries, which makes the process of change quite distinct. This institutionalisation is influenced in part by stakeholders' interests, who have also been affected by their cultural beliefs and political power. It was identified that such practices affect the admission process, the quality of education and the continuous change in scripts.

It has been argued that 'Change has become one of the most studied topics in management research' (Cunha and Chuna, 2003, p.169), which makes analysis complex because of the differing views, opinions and initiatives, as well as the approaches to understanding change. I examined the approaches and classifications to the study of organisational change and various attempts to simplify the concept.

It was discovered that there are different classifications of change, and that this was because of the different views of authors and the contexts in which they write. As a result, different terms such as approaches, philosophies, perspectives, streams and focus in describing change overlap and are confusing to readers. In order to establish an appropriate classification for this empirical work, it was considered important to explore these classifications and augment them so that the objectives of this thesis could be achieved. Some views on approaches and the assumptions to change embedded within them were examined.

The classification adopted in this thesis was developed by considering the assumptions of the previous classifications and their related approaches to change. This classification would enable researchers to understand the complementary and contradictory character of these philosophies, which would assist those with an interest in organisational change to identify the scope of their study. This thesis has contributed to the debate on philosophies of change, their classifications and their relationships.

In particular, two philosophies of change were reviewed: one by Morgan and Sturdy (2000) and another by Graetz and Smith (2010). These philosophies were compared and contrasted with the framework of authors, and their strengths and weaknesses were discussed. The numerous classifications including managerial, social, political, biological, rational, institutional, resource contingency, psychological cultural systems and postmodern were therefore augmented by classifying related and complementary assumptions in a straightforward way that sought to portray the choice of approach in this thesis, which is traditional and process. With the variety of change conceptualisations, it was classified according to the related assumptions and combined complementary philosophies.

In this thesis, a case study approach was employed. I examined the changing scripts in the admission process at Kwara State Polytechnic, Nigeria, the institutionalisation process through the interaction of organisational members and the responses of stakeholders in the institution to continual changes in government policies on education. The case study approach provided the opportunity to understand the response of the institution to various government educational initiatives and programmes. Through the case study, an understanding emerged of how scripts were enacted and changed.

Many authors have attempted to discuss the problems of higher education in Nigeria from managerial perspectives, but in this thesis I adopted neoinstitutional perspectives to examine the problems of introducing different programmes in Nigerian higher education. The Nigerian educational environment is volatile and complex, and in such an environment, transformational change cannot be avoided (Chapman, 2002). The tool that was used to understand the behaviour of people in the institution was scripts. Scripts provide a valuable opportunity for research into the complexity of change, which the traditional stage models of change cannot adequately grasp because of the magnitude and complexity of change. The analysis using scripts has portrayed how the institution enacted institutional demands and how it was able to comply with or conform to the rules and regulations on admissions.

Qualitative methods were used and data collected from both primary and secondary sources. The approach adopted emphasises the interpretations of the meanings and perspectives of the individuals under study. The tools used for enquiry sit within the same methodological framework. These methods were chosen in order to address the research questions. The primary sources were interview and participant observation, while the secondary sources included journal articles, textbooks and organisation

documents. Stakeholder theory was adopted to select the interviewees, and I received cooperation from the respondents. The stakeholders were grouped into two: internal and external. The internal stakeholders were the employees, while the external stakeholders were the government, members of the governing council appointed by the state government, parents of the students, alumni and members of the community where the polytechnic is situated.

In this research, social construction as a philosophy provides a research philosophy that focuses on the interactions of people in various contexts. It considers the political, historical and social context that influences interaction. The philosophy offers a broad framework for qualitative research. A social constructionist's philosophy, according to Hackley (1998, p.130), 'seeks to reveal the structure of meanings as constructed by individuals engaged in social process'. It pays attention to the ongoing processes of interaction among all people involved, and assumes that organisations and individuals are linked. Therefore, the interactions of individuals led to the changing scripts in the organisation under study.

Neoinstitutionalism and structuration theories were adopted, using scripts as a tool for analysis. The structure of the organisation plays an important role in the change process under investigation (Jack and Kholief, 2007). Jack and Kholief (2007) argue that the purpose of structuration investigation is to elicit the knowledge of actions and structure in which agents act and the conduct that follows their actions. This thesis adopts the philosophy of neoinstitutional theory because it is valuable in explaining the way in which social, economic and legal pressures influence organisational structures and practices. Barley and Tolbert (1997), in discussing the processes of intra-organisational

processes of change, identify a weakness of institutional theory in that it does not emphasise internal forces and the impact of organisational actors.

The two philosophies are complementary. For example, neoinstitutionalism has been criticised for its neglect of power (Colomy, 1998), position and contestations of actors operating within the institutionalised system. This theory did not describe the issue of agency exercised by individuals within the organisational context. Structuration theory has also been criticised as conflating structure with action (Barley and Tolbert, 1997). The combination of the two theories, according to Barley and Tolbert, will provide a better understanding of the role of strategic actors within institutionalised organisational structures. I therefore combined the two philosophies and adapted scripts as a tool of analysis.

I analysed the processes of admissions using scripts as a tool of analysis. The research process involves four stages: defining an institution at risk of change over the term of the study and selecting sites of this definition; charting the flow of action at the sites and extracting scripts' characteristics in particular periods; examining scripts for evidence of change in behavioural and interaction patterns; and linking findings from observational data to other sources on change in the institution of interest. The base time was 1974 and three major transitions were identified between then and 2009. Kwara State Polytechnic was established in 1974 and hence the date was taken as base time. Moreover, there were planned changes that affected the main objectives of its establishment as Kwara State Polytechnic.

Data were grouped and coded. Seven events were identified in the data as responsible for the change in scripts: government policy on education; the introduction of the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB); changing the title of the institution from technology to polytechnic; the introduction of the quota system; the changing of the polytechnic to university; admission committee and the introduction of post-JAMB, an examination conducted by individual institutions to test the quality of prospective candidates; and the introduction of the federal character principle, which was aimed to reflect fair representation of candidates from all the geographical locations in Nigeria in the admission process. There were other events responsible for the change in scripts and eight scripts were identified. I have been able to establish that certain principles and events introduced to solve some problems led to other problems.

The analysis of change using the concept of scripts has so far been confined mostly to private sector organisations. Here, the analysis is in the public sector and demonstrates the usefulness of an adapted model of scripts in analysing change in public sector organisations. Moreover, the public sector in any society differs in the nature of public service activities concerning its scale, scope or means of provision. Political, cultural and economic considerations are ongoing given the dynamic nature of the external and internal environments to determine the nature of public service, and this is likely to make the change process significantly different to that in the private sector. For example, public sector organisations are not for profit, while private organisations are.

Educationally, Nigeria is divided into two: educationally advantaged states and less educationally advantaged states. Kwara State is among those categorised as less advantaged. Both the federal and state governments of the less advantaged states give priority to students applying for admission to higher institutions, and in some cases lower the admission criteria. The aim of the categorisation was to encourage prospective candidates from less advantaged states to have the opportunity of obtaining higher

qualifications, so that these states will also develop educationally alongside other states in the country.

Most of the states in the category of less advantaged are regarded as economically poor, which makes it difficult for people in these states to pay for tuition fees. Moreover, most of these states do not have higher education institutions, while some states have more than four. It was because of this that Kwara State Polytechnic was established following the agitation of people to have a state institution and then a state university. Kwara State Polytechnic could not cope with the growing admission applications, hence the need to establish a state university. Many attempts were made by the state government to establish a university, but these failed.

The analysis using scripts to examine the changing scripts in the institution provided the opportunity to understand the interconnectivity of the scripts in the admission process. The complexity of change could be analysed effectively through the use of scripts. It is the use of scripts as a tool of analysis of organisational change that could explain the interactions of various stakeholders, which explains the institutionalisation process. It will enable the researcher to understand the forces that are responsible for change in any organisation and the way these forces are interconnected. Therefore, the traditional way of using a force field analysis in analysing change would not be able to explain the reason for any change because there are many stakeholders with different characteristics.

Moreover, scripts offer a framework for the analysis of how people understand and shape their own behaviours and actions within organisations. Mitchell (1997) contends that scripts provide a theory of explanation encompassing people's explanations of

extended sequences of behaviour. The culture of interactions in education establishments is different from other public establishments. Staff in the same academic discipline often interact better with each other than with those from other disciplines. Findings show that most admission requests came from the staff of the institute to which the rector belongs. These staff also have a huge influence on the rector on matters relating to admission. In addition, according to Barnett (1999), there are disciplinary subcultures in the academic community which take different forms. He argues that the inner culture of higher institutions has some relationship with the culture of its society. Barnett (1999, p.96) also pointed out that 'each sub culture of the academic community then, declines to be a culture in the normal sense for each sub culture is potentially critical of those elements which constitute its culture'.

The changing scripts exhibited different characteristics which I categorised into two: bureaucratic and flexible. Moreover, I identified different factors responsible for the continuous change in scripts, which made the scripts unpredictable. I developed a chart that showed the nature and relationships of these scripts, and depicted events and other factors that were responsible for the changing scripts. With this chart, the pressures for change were identified through conflicting scripts derived from continual change in government policies. The research work explains the relationships between organisational change and changing scripts. It demonstrates how scripts can be interconnected while changing over time. Changes in scripts are interconnected such that one script leads to other scripts, demonstrating that scripts are linked through cause and effect relationships.

It is through the use of scripts that I have been able to identify the relationships between Kwara State Polytechnic and with the wider society. Moreover, the sub cultures in the institution are also influenced by family ties in the larger society. Family ties are very pronounced in the culture of Nigerian society. For example, admission is influenced by the family ties of the management staff, and most candidates admitted will reflect the local government area of the top management or council member.

I analysed the relationship between the regulatory body, federal and state ministries, employers of labour and the institution, and the way this relationship is coordinated. It was discovered that interactions between these institutions were responsible for the continuous changing nature of the scripts at Kwara State Polytechnic, and were a method of coordinating and implementing government policies on higher education. Such discussions are essential in coordinating information by the national regulatory body (Wilson, 1996). Most education reforms have substantial financial implications. This issue rarely seems to be given the priority it deserves.

I have been able to explain the complexity of the concept of change and have attempted to simplify it by categorising the philosophies of change into two: traditional and process. I have also been able to explain the educational situation in Nigeria with the continuous changes in policies in order to improve the quality of education, and this has led to changes in scripts at Kwara State Polytechnic. Eight scripts in admission processes were identified between 1974 and 2010.

The introduction of the principles aimed at generating funds to run the institution diverted the focus of the institution from providing quality education to becoming a business-like institution. This has also changed the focus of the government in providing quality education to its citizens as a key social responsibility of a public

educational institution. In order to generate revenue, students' intake had to be increased and as a result, the process of admission affected the quality of graduates at the institution. This is because the available resources could not cope with the increase in student population. Therefore, students were not able to study in an academic environment conducive for learning. Planning of the academic calendar also becomes difficult because of the continuous admission process, with no specific deadline for applications and admissions.

As the focus of the government continues to change, scripts in admission also continue to change, reflecting the event or reform that was introduced. Therefore, change in government policies tends to stretch the scripts in the admission process and is used to generate reactions and resistance from different stakeholders. Appointments of council chairman, rector and director of works became politicised when the federal character principle was introduced. There were no criteria for the appointment of chairman of council and other members of the governing council. This led to the concept of 'godfatherism' in the educational establishment. These appointed leaders were subjected to different influences from the godfathers, and policy formulation reflects the wishes of the godfathers. The educational establishment therefore compromised quality and standard with profit from increasing student intake without the corresponding provision of adequate facilities.

Policy implications

The government adopts the concept of quota system in addressing the issue of uneven development and inequality in education. The concepts did not however, solved the problems of inequality in Nigeria just like the case of Brazil. Cicalo (2008) pointed out that the problem of inequality in Brazil was not tackled by the introduction of the quota

system in universities. He argued that the 'quota system would potentially infringe the equality principles stated by the constitution, as well as the culturally widely accepted criterion of merit'.

The application of the quota system and federal character principle in educational institutions compromised the quality of education in Nigeria. This led to admission crisis. Nwagwu (1997) argued that this crisis arises from a high demand for placements with limited vacancies. One of the reasons for the falling standards is due to the quota system, which allows weak students to be admitted at the expense of brilliant ones under the guise of place of origin and connection with important personalities in society.

Moreover, the interpretation of the quota system and the federal character principle is complex, leading to various different interpretations by educational institutions. Some institutions usually seek clarification, but others take it for granted and implement the policies to their own advantage. The implication of this is therefore inconsistency and lack of uniformity in the application of the quota system in the admission process. This policy also led to the involvement of local government chairmen and village heads in the admission process, because they had to authenticate the state of origin of the prospective students. This also led to certificate forgery. In order to curb this incidence, the institution introduced a certificate screening committee and interviews in the admission process.

Quota system also led to admission racketeering. 'Bribery, corruption and nepotism become agents that ensure admission of weak candidates and at times, even of the bright ones who have lost faith in merit, fair play and justice. As a result of this

(Nwagwu, 1997). In order to fill certain quota, some individuals, who have no business with admissions, become admission agents. They collect bribes from prospective students and give them fake documents for the admission process. Sometimes they submit these documents on behalf of the prospective student. Federal character policy is very delicate in implementation. The policy has been breeding bitterness and rancour in many organisations. In order to comply with the policy, some officers had acceleration so as to enable them to fill a particular position based on where they come from, while others stagnate. There are situations where a junior staff member who has been paying compliments to a senior officer is promoted and suddenly becomes senior to his or her former boss, and these are not likely to promote peace in the organisation.

Essentially, positions in Nigerian public sector are filled either through merit or through patronage. In patronage, position is given on the basis of political affiliation, friendship and the emphasis is usually on loyalty. This system of appointment is to give opportunity to some people to occupy a position based on federal character principle and which those appointed might not be qualified in terms of merit. The introduction of federal character principle also led to the concept of godfatherism and conflicting statements from political office holders who must serve the interest of those that facilitated their appointment.

The characteristics of reforms and applicability of business principles seem to be an event rather than a process. The failure of the reforms is in part due to the inability of the leaders to assess the reform agenda and continuously monitor its progress. Reforms are treated as an event rather than a continuous process which needs to be monitored. Normal practice in the public sector is that each government will have its own reform

agenda, whether or not there is a need for reform. Hence Nigeria continues to experience different reforms with different governments. These reforms and continuous changes in policy were aimed towards solving the problems of access and the quality of entrants into tertiary institutions in Nigeria, and to halt the fallen standards of Nigeria's tertiary institutions.

Inadequate funding has implications on the fees charged by various institutions. The implication is the inconsistency in the fees charged by various institutions in order to generate funds locally. However, Alaneme (2009) claimed that the problem in the education system in Nigeria is not lack of funding, but poor implementation and lack of transparency in the utilisation of money meant for the sector. Most of the vice chancellors, rectors and provosts from over 70 tertiary institutions are unable to account for the intervention funds disbursed to them. According to Alaneme (2009), the Education Trust Fund (ETF) published the list of affected universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, monotechnics, states ministries of education as well as SUBEBS, bringing the number of those affected to about 120. The institutions affected could not access further funds from the ETF because they could not account for the money earlier collected, and therefore approximately 6,343 billion naira in the ETF is unaccessed.

Conflicts of interest arising from appointments of office holders are a major problem in Nigerian higher education. A potential conflict exists, which the boards of government organisations ought to resolve if they expect their performance to be measured and appraised on a valid and mutually acceptable basis. This conflict arises because there is no apparent goal congruence between government, which is primarily concerned with socio-political goals, and its organisations, which are often required to earn a satisfactory level of performance. The government should appreciate the purposes and

objectives of establishing an educational institution and provide the necessary facilities to the management to enhance its performance.

The manner in which the government appoints the boards of state-owned organisations does not appear likely to permit a resolution to this conflict. The appointment of the board members has been heavily politicised by government, with more reliance being placed on non-essential criteria such as political allegiance, ethnic balancing and old boys' sentiments than on the competence and potential contribution of the board appointees (Kwara State of Nigeria, 2007).

Furthermore, the authority of the board is frequently violated and weakened by the many directives and circulars issued to these organisations by the government, without prior consultations with the organisation, and irrespective of whether or not these directives are consistent with the express objectives of the organisations or can be accommodated by their resources (Anao, 1985). Discussions between the regulatory body, federal and state ministries, employers of labour and the institution are not well coordinated. Such discussions are essential in the coordination of information by the national regulatory body (Wilson, 1996).

Educational reforms sometimes sacrifice quantity to quality. Most educational reforms have substantial financial implications, but this issue is rarely given the priority it deserves. For example, the establishment of NECO as alternative to WAEC is not yielding the desired result. Many students in some states such as Sokoto, Kano and Kaduna were performing below expectation in the NECO examination. The delivery of quality polytechnic education in Nigeria needs effective mobilisation and efficient utilisation of resources for this purpose.

Limitations

This thesis has some limitations. The first problem I encountered during the research was the difficulty in locating the admission agents with a view to interviewing them on their involvement in the admission process, and the documents they normally use in the process. It would have been helpful to ascertain their contacts both internally and externally when they are 'packaging' their admission request to the admissions officer. This information would have enabled me to understand whom they interacted with and the reasons for such interaction. These patterns of interaction may have produced different types of scripts.

I am aware of my position as a member of staff in the polytechnic. My involvement in the interview process was significant, as there are advantages when a researcher is a member of the organisation being used as a case study. These advantages are that the researcher will have access to information that might be difficult for an outside researcher to obtain, and members of the organisations are more likely to cooperate with the researcher in terms of granting interviews and providing other supporting documents. On the other hand, I recognise the tendency to bias given my knowledge about the polytechnic. There was, for example, a tendency to take some issues for granted. However, I tried not to be biased, by seeing myself as a researcher rather than a member of staff and by playing a neutral role in the process of collecting data.

Moreover, information received from the interviews might have been different when compared with interviews conducted by an outside researcher because of sentiments arising from issues such as age, culture or gender. Interviewees may have been worried because of my position in the polytechnic, and may not have told me the truth or may have concealed some information from me for fear that they might hurt my feelings.

There was the possibility of interviewee bias and fallibility of human judgment. Caution is also needed when generalising the results from a particular case study for the whole population (Aramyan et al., 2007; Turkyilmaz et al., 2011), because higher education in Nigeria consists of three types of institutions operating at different levels – universities, polytechnics and colleges of education – each of which has a different regulatory body with different organisational culture and values.

Another criticism of single case studies (Yin, 2009) is the uniqueness of conditions surrounding the case, which might make it difficult to generalise. Stake (1995) pointed out that the case study seems a poor basis for generalisation and argued that the real purpose of a case study was particularisation, not generalisation. However, Crowe et al. (2011) argue that the case study allows theoretical (as opposed to statistical) generalisation beyond the particular cases studied. The case study is also considered equivalent to an experiment (Yin, 1999). Yin argues that generalising from experiments has the same problem as generalising with case studies. Investigators, according to Yin (1999), are driven to theory and not theory driven.

Contributions to knowledge

The contribution to knowledge has to do with the nature of the change process and the use of scripts to explain the complexity of change in Kwara State Polytechnic.

This research work contributed to the study of change management by critically examining the methodology of studying the institutionalisation process. Through the use of scripts as a tool of analysis, researchers can understand the complexity of change. Scripts are referred to as behavioural regularities and day-to-day interactions through which institutions are enacted. The changing scripts exhibited different characteristics.

This research work has extended the understanding of the nature and interconnectivity of scripts beyond the suggestion of Barley and Tolbert (1997). This is because scripts are highly unpredictable, have causes and effects and are interconnected.

It was argued by Barley and Tolbert (1997) that if scripts change, independent data on the organisation should provide evidence of that change, and if scripts remain unchanged, so should other indicators of the organisation. Data that were collected outside the organisation but related to the organisation are referred to as independent data. However, I found that where change occurred in some scripts at Kwara State Polytechnic, there was no evidence of change in the independent data. The research has also shown that change might not be linked to external institutions, yet there may be evidence of change in scripts. Therefore, this research suggests that researchers on organisational change should extend their investigation to the institution under study even if there is evidence of change at the macro level that should have been linked to the organisation. This is because there might be evidence of change in scripts within the organisation but no evidence from external institutions.

Future research

The approach in this thesis of using scripts in analysing the nature of change in educational establishments in the developing world would provoke further research in this area.

Findings from this research work indicate that change in structure does not always affect the interaction order. The administrative structure of the polytechnic changed when the state government enacted a law establishing Kwara State University of Technology to replace Kwara State Polytechnic, but there was no change in the

interaction order (scripts) of the admission process. However, Barley and Tolbert (1997) claimed that there is a gap in the literature concerning how changes in formal structures can take place without actually affecting the interaction order. They argued that this has not been seriously addressed in either social theory or research. This is, however, beyond the scope of this thesis, but does show the opportunity for future research on the circumstances under which changes in formal structures can take place without actually affecting the interaction order or behavioural regularities. Although I found evidence of change in the structure of Kwara State Polytechnic with the new admission policy and a new process of admission backed by law and edict amendment from the government, I did not explore in detail how it happened and why. The findings only revealed that certain factors, such as contradictory or unclear policies, planning to fail syndrome and political propaganda in educational institutions characteristic of Nigeria, might be responsible for change in structure without change in interaction order. It was political propaganda that changed the structure of Kwara State Polytechnic without considering the feasibility of such change. Although there was evidence of planning with the establishment of a committee to examine the conversion of the institution, the law establishing the university had been promulgated before consultation with the relevant agencies. Change in scripts might encourage other institutions to change their scripts.

Future research could look at the impact of NPM on the organisation and how it affects the change process. This area would be significant in understanding the sensitivity of cultural orientation of Nigeria towards the duties and responsibilities of the government in establishing public higher institutions of learning. This work, therefore, is not intended to be the end of the discussion on the use of scripts as a tool of analysis in change, simply because of the limitations identified during the research.

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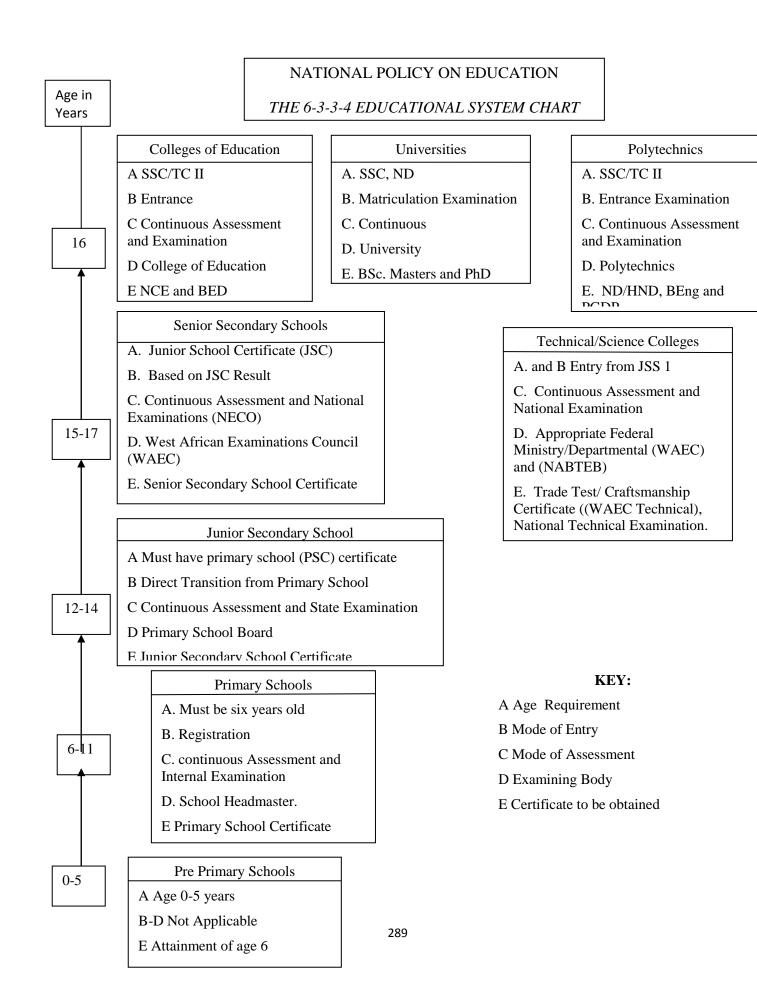
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The structure of educational system in Nigeria



Appendix 2			
Business School,			
Dockland Campus,			
University of East London.			
E16 2RD.			
10/05/2009			
INVESTIGATOR:			
Issa Abdulraheem			
Business School,			
Dockland Campus,			
University of East London.			
E16 2RD			
Email address: <u>u0824503@uel.ac.uk</u>			
Tel: +447947375651			

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

The purpose of this letter is to provide you with the information that you need to consider in deciding whether to participate in this study.

I write to seek for permission for research interview. I am a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD Business) research student at the University of East London. I am researching in to the process of change in Higher Education Institutions with particular reference to Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin.

The research work is intended to develop an understanding of the process of change in Nigerian higher education especially in the public sector. Understanding the change process will allow a better appreciation of how to manage change. The approach to be adopted in this research is to focus on the interactions of people and how these lead to change. For a better understanding of interactions of workers in a work organisation, I have selected a case study which is Kwara State Polytechnic, Nigeria. As a member of staff of the organisation, I will have the privilege to use participant observation, interviews and the organisation's documents as a means of collecting data.

Interview is one of the methods to be used in collecting data so as to know the changes that have taken place over time in the institution. Information from the interviewees will be very useful in the analysis of this research work.

The interview might take an approximate time 30 minutes. The research work is purely for academic purpose and information from you will be confidential. Brief quotations from the interview may be used in my thesis but will not be attributed to you individually and your anonymity will thus be maintained. The questions are open ended and the basic questions are:

1) What were the major changes that have taken place in the Institution since

inception?

2) What were the processes of implementing these changes?

The interview will be recorded and stored in a voice recorder. I will keep the recording

and any notes or transcript securely for five years following completion of the research

and then they will be destroyed.

You are not obliged to take part in this study, and are free to withdraw at any time.

Should you choose to withdraw from the programme you may do so without

disadvantage to yourself and without any obligation to give a reason.

Thank you for your anticipated cooperation.

Yours Faithfully,

Issa Abdulraheem

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Appendix 3

Consent to Participate in a Research Programme Involving the Use of Human

Participants

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD in Business)

I have read the information letter relating to the above programme of research in which I have

been asked to participate and have been given a copy to keep. The nature and purposes of the

research have been explained to me, and I have had the opportunity to discuss the details and

ask questions about this information. I understand what is being proposed and the procedures in

which I will be involved have been explained to me.

I understand that my involvement in this study, and particular data from this research, will

remain strictly confidential. Only the researchers involved in the study will have access to the

data. It has been explained to me what will happen to the data once the research programme has

been completed.

I hereby fully and freely consent to participate in the study which has been fully explained to

me.

Having given this consent I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the programme at

any time without disadvantage to myself and without being obliged to give any reason.

Participant's name:

Participant's signature.....

Investigator's name: Issa Abdulraheem

Investigator's signature.....

Date.....

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Appendix 4

Themes of the research questions

The major themes of the interview were the types of change, the causes of the change and resistance to change.

Research questions

What were the specific objectives of establishing the polytechnic?

Who are the stakeholders?

How strong is the power of the stakeholders?

Were there any provisions or intended plans to change the status of the polytechnic in the future?

What are the things that have changed in the institution since its establishment?

Were these changes planned or they occurred because of some circumstances?

What were the factors responsible for these changes?

What were the forms of actions individuals or groups that led to these changes?

Who were the people that initiated these changes?

Were staffs involved in any proposed change?

Were there formal committees established to implement any proposed change?

What were the methods of selecting representation to the committees?

Were there external forces that influenced the constitution and performance of the committee?

What were the processes of ratifying the committees' report?

Who was the person or organ that has the power to ratify the report of the committee?

How would you explain the relationships between the staff and management?

How would you explain the students' population as affecting the structure of the polytechnic?

What was the process of students' admission?

Were there any criteria for this process?

Are there any relationships between the quota systems, godfatherism, to the changing nature of the institution?

What is the impact of culture on this process?

Is there any pressure to comply with certain rules or proposals?

Who were the people exerting this pressure if any?

What rules or norms or requirements is the organisation being pressured to conform with?

What were the means by which institutional pressures exerted?

What factors were responsible for resistance to change?



(OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR)

ector: egistrar: Alhaji Mas'ud Elelu, B.Sc; M.Sc; PGDM; MBA; MNIFST; MNITD; MNIM; MNISP

REG/P/1721	M.A. (Unilorin), PGD Pub. Admin., PGD Pub.	Relations (Kwara Poly), AMNIM, AMIPM, JF 13 th August, 2009
		15 August, 2009

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION FOR MR. ISSA ABDULRAHEEM

Mr. Issa Abdulraheem is a Lecturer in the Department of Business Administration, Institute of Finance and Management Studies of Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin.

He is a registered student at the University of East London, U. K, currently undergoing research leading to Ph. D in Business.

The title of his research project is: Change in Higher Education: A case study of Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin. Nigeria. His methodology requires him to collect empirical material comprising interview data and observation. in the light of the above, we should be most grateful if you would please consider granting him some of your time for the purposes of an interview. Thank you for your co-operation.

AJIDE O.A For: Registrar



John Chandler Business School, Docklands

ETH/11/83 17 January 2013

Dear John,

Application to the Research Ethics Committee: A case study of Kwara State Polytechnic, Nigeria. (I Abdulraheem).

I advise that Members of the Research Ethics Committee have now approved the above application on the terms previously advised to you. The Research Ethics Committee should be informed of any significant changes that take place after approval has been given. Examples of such changes include any change to the scope, methodology or composition of investigative team. These examples are not exclusive and the person responsible for the programme must exercise proper judgement in determining what should be brought to the attention of the Committee.

In accepting the terms previously advised to you I would be grateful if you could return the declaration form below, duly signed and dated, confirming that you will inform the committee of any changes to your approved programme.

Yours sincerely

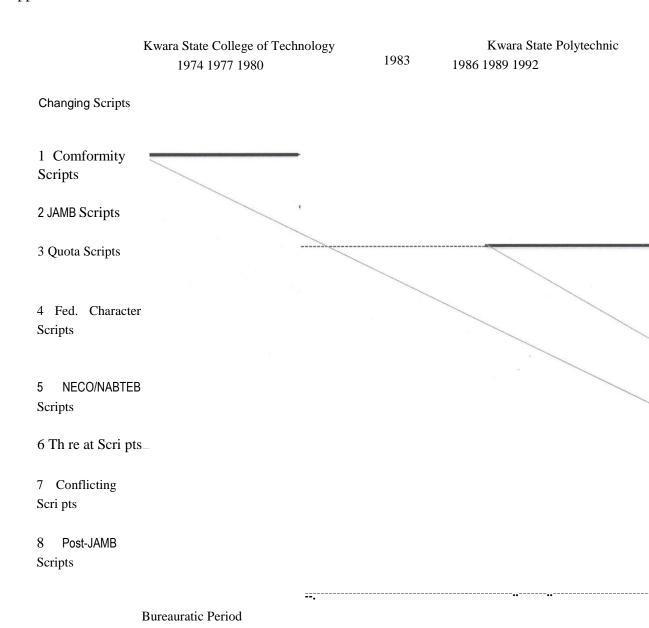
Simiso Jubane Admission and Ethics Officer s.jubane@uel.ac.uk 02082232976

Research Ethics Committee: ETH/11/83

I hereby agree to inform the Research Ethics Committee of any changes to be made to the above approved programme and any adverse incidents that arise during the conduct of the programme.

Signed: ______Date: _____

Please Print Name:



Flexible Period