# UNIVERSITY OF ILORIN

**THE TWO HUNDRED ANDTWENTY-SEVEN (227TH) INAUGURAL LECTURE**

# "WHAT MATTERS NOW: CHANGE MASTERS"

**By**


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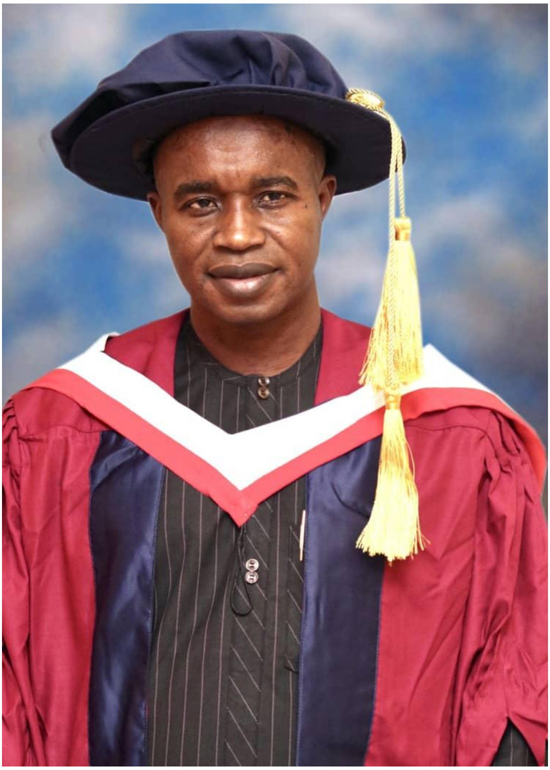

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Students of this Great University,
Gentlemen of the Print and Electronic Media,
Distinguished invited Guests, ladies and gentlemen.

## Preamble

All praise is due to Allah, the Lord of the worlds- the Entirely Merciful, Especially Merciful and Sovereign of the Day of Recompense. It is You we worship and You we ask for help. Guide us to the straight path- The path of those upon whom You have bestowed favour, not of those who have evoked Your anger or of those who are astray. So, which of the favours of your Lord would you deny? And your Lord is going to give you, and you will be satisfied. I give glory to Almighty Allah for sparing my life to witness this special day, and for making today's epoch event in my life a reality. I also thank the Almighty Allah for making it possible for me to attain the pinnacle of my career – professorship.

Today's inaugural lecture entitled: "**What Matters Now: Change Masters"** is the second in the Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Ilorin, since its establishment as an independent Department in 1982. The first inaugural lecture in the Department was delivered on 4th December, 1989 by the pioneer Head of the Department, Professor E. O. Lambo entitled: **"Health for All in Nigeria: Some Revolutionary Management Dimensions."** In the former Faculty of Business and Social Sciences, eleven inaugural lectures were delivered before the creation of Faculty of Management Sciences in the year 2013. Today's lecture is the first in the new Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Ilorin. The glory and adoration goes to Almighty Allah. I thank the Vice Chancellor, Prof. W. O. Egbewole SAN, for approving my presentation of the 227th Inaugural Lecture and the 1st in the Faculty of Management Sciences.

## Introduction

Management has been largely responsible for the development of the pattern of industry as we know it today. Management has facilitated the co-ordination of people with different skills and knowledge to achieve organisational goals.

Management is the process of achieving desired results through an efficient utilization of human and material resources. Managers are individuals within organisations who are responsible for the process of management.

Management typically has five main functions which logically follow on from one another: planning involves establishing what needs to be done; organizing establishes how tasks should be completed; staffing and personnel ensures the availability of human resources to achieve such tasks; leading involves directing and motivating employees toward the attainment of organisational goals; and control involves measuring actual performance against desired performance and taking corrective action.

Managers perform ten key managerial roles which include Interpersonal (Figurehead, Leader, Liaison); Informational (Monitor, Disseminator, Spokesperson); and Decisional (Entrepreneur, Disturbance Handler, Resource Allocator, Negotiator).

The earliest contributions to management thought can be traced back to the Sumerians, the ancient Egyptians and the Romans. One of the most enduring examples of early management practice is the Catholic Church.

The Industrial Revolution marked a watershed in the development of management thought. As industries expanded to take advantage of new markets and technological innovations, organisations became larger and more complex. This led to the development of new management techniques to cope with the issues presented by industrialisation, namely, production, efficiency and cost savings.

In response to the managerial challenges posed by industrialisation, the 'classical' approach to management emerged at the turn of the century. The major schools of thought associated with the classical approach are scientific management, bureaucracy, administrative management and human relations.

Scientific management emphasised the development of one best way of performing a task through the application of scientific methods. The birth of scientific management is attributed to Taylor and his pioneering work in the Bethlehem Steel Works. His contributions include the application of scientific principles to the study of work through work studies and incentives. The main limitation is its simplistic view of motivation and that it ignores the role of the external environment.

Max Weber concentrated on how organisations should be structured to ensure efficiency. He developed what he perceived to be the ideal form of structure and called it bureaucracy. The bureaucratic structure emphasised detailed rules and procedures, hierarchy and impersonal relationships between organisational members. Bureaucratic structure therefore emphasises efficiency and stability. Its main limitation is its discountenance for human element and the role of the external environment.

Administrative management is concerned with the personal experiences of its key proponents and focuses on senior managers and the policy issues they face. The father of administrative management is Henri Fayol, who identified management as a separate business activity with five functions. Fayol also developed fourteen principles of management. Universal principles of management for senior executives ignore environmental differences.

The human relations movement concentrated on the human side of management and tried to understand how social and psychological factors influence performance. Mayo and his associates conducted the Hawthorne Studies which proved that social needs, too, have precedence over economic needs and that the informal work group exerts control over employee performance. The contribution of the human relations emphasises the importance of social and psychological factors in influencing work performance. Its main limitation is in the way it ignores the role of the formal work group and worker rationality.

The contemporary approaches to management have developed from the 1950s and include quantitative management, organizational behaviour, systems theory, contingency theory, total quality management and organizational culture.

Quantitative management emerged in the 1940s from Second World War military planners. It applied quantitative mathematical techniques to managerial problem solving. However, non-quantifiable factors are not included; it cannot take account of individual behaviours and attitudes, nor make predictions about human behaviour within the organization. It is unsuitable for non-routine or unprogrammed management decisions. Contributions of the quantitative management include application of quantitative mathematical techniques to managerial problem solving.

Organisational behaviour was developed in the 1950s. It focuses on management activities that encourage employee effectiveness by understanding and exploring individual, group and organisational processes. However, it ignores situational factors. Organisational behaviour focuses on management activities that encourage employee effectiveness by understanding and exploring individual, group and organizational processes. Its main limitation is that it ignores situational factors.

Systems theory argues that organisations should be viewed as systems that transform inputs into outputs to the environment. Consequently, the organisation constantly interacts with its environment. Key advocates of this approach include Barnard and Katz and Kahn. Organisation is seen as an open system interacting with the environment; thus, organization is both a system and a sub system. Thus, the main limitation of system theory is that it has no specific guidelines on the functions and duties of managers.

Contingency theory argues that there is no one best way of managing due to the different situations or contingencies facing organisations. The most common contingencies are the external environment, technology, internal strengths and weaknesses of the organisation and the values and skills of the workforce. Burns and Stalker (1961) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) examined the contingencies affecting structure. Appropriate managerial action depends on situational contingencies; no one best ways for managing an organisation. The main limitation of this theory is that it is not possible to identify all contingencies, and that the theory may not apply to all managerial issues

Total quality management was pioneered by Juran and Deming working in Japan. They argued that quality was the key to organizational success. The TQM approach they developed emphasise prevention rather than the correction of mistakes. In order to achieve this, responsibility for quality shifted from the quality control department to all members of the organisation. Quality is an important means of achieving competitive advantage. TQM emphasises total quality management throughout the organisation and on doing things right first time. TQM ignores other issues such as structure and strategy.

The organisational culture approach emphasises the importance of culture in influencing behaviour within the organisation. Advocates of this approach, such as Peters and Waterman (1982) and Ouchi (1981), argue that effective management should focus on culture rather than structures and systems. Thus, organization culture approach highlights the importance of organizational culture in an organisation's success. The limitation of organizational culture is that it is largely unscientific approach. Besides, culture is difficult to identify and some research within the school has been discredited

All of the issues raised by the various approaches need to be considered by managers when striving to compete in the present business environment.

What is also apparent from the various theories reviewed is the continuous introduction of new ideas by all the management scholars that point to change on how organisations should be managed efficiently and effectively for optimum performance that would ensure improvement and continuous survival of organisations. The review of evolution of management theories indicated the reoccurrence and strong emphasis on change in all the theories for improved performance.

**Change**

Change happens continually within organisations and their markets, strategy development results in some change. Change generally implies innovation, in the basic sense of introducing something new into an environment. This includes the rearrangement of jobs, roles, and structures. It also includes rearranging systems, since the process of change itself is an innovation (Gunu & Adamade, 2015). According to Kanter (1984), change can connote an abrupt disjunction, a separation of one set of organisational events and activities from others, in a way that does not match reality. The act of making changes may involve merely reconceptualising and repackaging coexisting organisational tendencies, as the balance tips from dominance of one tendency to the dominance of another. Kanter acknowledged the elusiveness of the meaning of change, so the author used a modest definition that is close to the idea of innovation. Change involves the crystallisation of new action possibilities (new policies, new behaviours, new patterns, new methodologies, new products, or new markets ideas) based on reconceptualised patterns in the organisation. The architecture of change involves the design of and construction of new pattern, or the reconceptualisation of old ones, to make new, and hopefully more productive, actions possible.

**Triggers of change**

How do managers know when their organisations need to change? Managers can get clues by monitoring the triggers of change both outside and inside the organisation. Forces **originating Outside** the Organisation or External forces consist of four types:

1. Demographic Characteristics: Nigeria has the largest population in Africa. The United Nations projected that the overall population of Nigeria will reach about 401.31 million by the end of the year 2050. By 2100, if current figures continue, the population of Nigeria will be over 728 million. According to the Census Bureau of the United States, the population of Nigeria will surpass that of the United States in 2047, when the population of Nigeria will reach 379.25 million. With those numbers, Nigeria will become the third most populated country in the world.

   The major contributors to Nigeria's population growth are early marriages, high birth rates, and a lack of family planning access. Nigeria continues to grow faster than many other countries of similar size, but the rate is predicted to slow somewhat in the coming years with the current rate of 2.62% dwindling down to 2.04% by 2050. Nigeria's population is predicted to hit 264 million by 2030 - crossing the 300 million thresholds around 2036 (Nigeria Population 2022: Demographics, Maps, Graphs) in (Worldpopulationreview.com). The work force is now more diverse, and organisations need to effectively manage this diversity if they are to receive the maximum contribution and commitment of their employees (Gunu, Omolekan, Olota & Isiaka, 2022).

2. Market Changes: Nigeria has the largest market in Africa with a population of over 200 million. It is one of Africa's key oil producers, producing high-value, low-Sulphur crude oil. The economy is heavily dependent on oil. In the first quarter of 2021, oil accounted for about 9.25% of Nigeria's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), up from 5.8% recorded in the fourth quarter 2020, and contributing approximately 85% of export earnings and around 50% of total government revenues. Nigeria's economy and commercial activities were severely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic and associated declining oil prices due to the country's heavy reliance on oil. (Nigeria – Market Overview (trade.gov). The global economy is forcing companies to change the way they do business, with companies forming new partnerships and alliances with employees, suppliers, and competitors (Gunu, 2000; Aun, Gunu, & Mustapha, 2013).

3. Technological Advancements: Information technology may be one of the greatest forces for productivity in our lifetime. But it can also create headaches. For instance, as computers change, data stored on older machines may become "just as useless as music stored on a 1970s eight track tape," as one writer put it (Kinicki & Williams, 2003). Globalisation and technology will inevitably grow. But it's not enough for organisations to simply "go international". In a global, high-tech world,

organisations need to be more fluid, inclusive, and responsive. They need to manage complex information flows, grasp new ideas quickly, and spread those ideas throughout the enterprise. What counts is whether people quickly absorb the impact of information and responds to opportunity (Kanter, 2007).

4. Social and Political Pressures: Social events can create great pressures. Political events can also create substantial change. The return to democratic system of government in middle of 1999 led to new business opportunities and challenges.

**Triggers originating inside the organisation**

Internal forces affecting organisations may be subtle, such as low job satisfaction, or more dramatic, such as constant labour-management conflict. Internal forces may be of two types:

1. Employee Problems: Is there a gap between the employees' needs and desires and the organisation's needs and desires? Job dissatisfaction-as expressed through high absenteeism and labour turnover, can be a major signal of the need for change (Tsado & Gunu, 2011). Organisations may respond by addressing job design, reducing employee’s role conflicts, and dealing with work overload, and other matters.
2. Managers' Behaviour: Excessive conflict between managers and employees may be another indicator that change is needed (Omolekan & Gunu, 2022). Perhaps there is a personality conflict, so that an employee transfer may be needed. Or perhaps some interpersonal training is required.

**Types of Change**

According to Lewin (1951), change is a function of the forces that promote change (driving forces) and the opposing forces (restraining forces) that slow or resist change. Driving forces lead to differences in the form, quality, or condition of an organisation overtime. By contrast, restraining forces support the status quo, that is, the existing state of conditions in organisations. At one extreme, when restraining forces are strong and driving forces are weak, there is no change. When restraining and driving forces are both weak, chance events can lead to sporadic change that occurs in random patterns or for accidental reasons. When driving forces are strong and restraining forces are weak, continuous change occurs, as organisations are forced to adapt to ongoing driving forces. If both driving and restraining forces are strong, and the restraining forces can no longer hold back the change forces, sudden discontinuous change can occur.

Adaptive change is reintroduction of a familiar practice, i.e., the implementation of a kind of change that has already been experienced within the same organisation. This form of change is lowest in complexity, cost, and uncertainty. Because it is familiar, it is the least threatening to employees and thus will create the least resistance. Innovative change is the introduction of a practice that is new to the organisation. This form of change involves moderate complexity, cost, and uncertainty. It is therefore apt to trigger some fear and resistance among employees. Radically innovative change, which is similar discontinuous change, involves introducing a practice that is new to the industry. Adaptive change is the most complex, costly, and uncertain; it will be felt as extremely threatening to managers' confidence and employees’ job security, and may well tear the fabrics of the organisation (Kinicki & William, 2003).

In top-down change, senior managers initiate changes with the goal of comprehensive impact on the organisation and performance changes capabilities. The most common reason why top- down change fails is poor implementation. The success of top-down change is usually determined by the willingness of middle level and lower-level workers to actively support top management initiatives. Change programmes have little chance of success without the support of those who must implement them. Any change that is driven from the top runs the risk of being perceived as insensitive to the needs of lower-level personnel. It can easily fail if implementation suffers from excessive resistance and insufficient commitments to change. Thus, it is not enough to simply mandate change from the top, action must be taken to earn the support of others throughout the organisation.

In bottom-up change, the initiatives for change come from any and all of the members of an organisation, not just top management. This type of change is essential to organisational innovation and is very useful in terms of parts adapting operations and technologies to the changing requirements of work. It is made possible by management commitments to empowerment, involvement, and participation.

Some changes occur spontaneously in organisations, largely in response to unanticipated events. These unplanned changes can be disruptive, such as a wild cat strike that results in a plant closure. But they can also be beneficial, such as an interpersonal conflict that results in a decision to try a new procedure or work process. Good managers do their best to take advantage of opportunities for such reactive change, doing a good job of responding to events as or after they occur. Managers, who are forward thinking and always alert to potential future problems and opportunities, offer their organisations proactive leadership that activates planned change-taking steps to best align the organisation with anticipated future challenges. Proactive leaders are always on the alert for performance gaps, or discrepancies between desired and actual states of affairs. Performance gaps may represent problems to be resolved or opportunities to be explored. In both cases, proactive change leaders take action in the present to deal with performance gaps in ways that improve future organisational performance (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2005).

There are two major types of planned organisational change. Radical or frame-breaking transformational change-that which results in a major and comprehensive redirection of the organisation. Transformational change is led from the top and designed to change the basic character of the organisation. It results in fundamental shifts in strategies, culture, structures, and even the underlying sense of purpose or mission. The second type of planned change in organisations is incremental change. This type of change bends and nudges existing systems and practices to better align them with emerging problems and opportunities. Leadership of incremental change focuses on building up on existing ways of doing things with the goal of improvement, doing them better in the future. Common incremental changes in organisations involve new products, new processes, new technologies, and new work systems. The quality concept of continuous improvement is closely linked with this notion of incremental change (Abdulkadir, Gunu, & Yusuf, 2012).

Change can involve any part of the organisation. However, the four areas in which change is most apt to be needed are people, technology, structure and strategy.

People changes are required in any organisation no matter the size of the organisation. People changes may take the following forms: Perceptions; attitudes; culture; and performance (Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005). Changing people involves changing attitudes, expectations, perceptions, and behaviours, something that is not easy to do. Organisational Development (OD) is the term used to describe change methods that focus on people and the nature and quality of interpersonal work relationships. The most popular OD techniques are: sensitivity training, team building, intergroup development, process consultation, and survey feedback. Each seeks to bring about changes in the organisation's people and make them work together better.

Managers can also change the technology used to convert inputs into outputs. Today, technological changes usually involve the introduction of new equipment, tools, or methods: automation; or computerisation. Competitive factors or new innovations within an industry often require managers to introduce new equipment, tools, or operating methods. Automation is a technological change that replaces certain tasks done by people with tasks done by machines. The most visible technological changes have come from computerisation. Most organisations have sophisticated information systems. (Williams, Kondra & Vibert, 2004). Changes in technology can enable companies provide better products or produce their products more efficiently.

Changes in the external environment or in organisational strategies often lead to changes in the organisational structure. Because an organisation's structure is defined by how work gets done and who does it, managers can alter one or both of these structural components (Robbins & Coulter, 2013). When one organisation acquires another, the structure often changes-perhaps from a divisional structure, say to a matrix structure The recent trend is toward “flattening the hierarchy" eliminating several middle layers of management, and to using work teams linked by electronic networks.

Shifts in the market place often may lead organisations to change their strategy. Industry consolidation - banking industry consolidation story of 2004 – 2005 (Gunu, 2009), has a less certain future. But even if that trend abates, the impact of mergers, acquisitions (Gunu & Olabisi, 2011), and strategic alliances will be felt for years (Gunu, Aun, & Abdul, 2012; Aun, Gunu, & Mustapha, 2013). Mergers and acquisitions bring both dangers and benefits to organisations. Partnerships, joint ventures, and strategic alliances can be a less dramatic but more highly evolved vehicle for innovation. Managers have to make sure that the goals of people at many levels of the organisations are aligned, and that people get to know each other, before the company can expect them to build trust (Omolekan & Gunu, 2022).

**Lewin's Change Model and Kotter's Eight Steps for Leading Organizational Change**

The theories of organizational change originated with the work of Lewin, (1951). Lewin, (1951) developed a model with three stages of unfreezing, changing, and refreezing to initiate, manage, and stabilize planned change. Kotter, (1995, 1996) believes that, to be successful, organizational change needs to follow eight steps to avoid the eight common errors senior management usually commits. These correspond with Lewin's unfreezing-changing-refreezing stages.

"Unfreezing": Creating the Motivation to Change, in the unfreezing stage, managers try to instil in employees the motivation to change, encouraging them to let go of attitudes and behaviours that are resistant to innovation. For "unfreezing" to take place, employees need to become dissatisfied with the old way of doing things. Managers also need to reduce the barriers to change during this stage. One technique that used to help unfreeze organizations, is bench marking, a process by which a company compares its performance with that of high-performing organizations. Professional sports teams do this all the time, but so do other kinds of organizations, including non-profit ones.

The first four of Kotter's steps represent unfreezing: Establish a Sense of Urgency, top managers often fail to establish a sense of urgency about the need for change. The first step should be to "unfreeze" the organization by showing a compelling reason why change is needed. Create the Guiding Coalition, senior management needs to create a powerful enough guiding coalition that spans both the functions and the levels of the organization with the authority to lead the change. Develop a Vision and a Strategy, top management must create a vision and a strategic plan to guide the change process. Communicate the Change Vision, senior management must create and implement a communication strategy that consistently communicates the new vision and strategic plan.

"Changing": Learning New Ways of Doing Things, in the changing stage, employees need to be given the tools for change: new information, new perspectives, and new models of behaviour. Managers can help by providing bench marking results, role models, mentors, experts, and training. It is advisable, experts say, to convey the idea that change is a continuous learning process, not just a one-time event.

Kotter, (1995, 1996) next three steps of leading organizational change represent the changing stage of Lewin, (1951). Empower Broad-Based Action, managers must eliminate barriers to change, and they must encourage risk taking and creative problem solving. Managers must identify the components of an organization that may be changed, known as the target elements of change. Generate Short-Term Wins, "Short-term wins" represent the achievement of important results or goals. It's important for managers to recognize and reward people who contribute to the wins. Consolidate Gains and Produce More Change, sometimes managers declare victory too soon, derailing the long-term changes needed (Lawal & Gunu, 2020). Managers can use the credibility achieved by short term wins to create more change. For example, more people may be brought in as change cascades throughout the organization.

"Refreezing": Making the New Ways Normal, in the refreezing stage, employees need to be helped to integrate the changed attitudes and behaviours into their normal ways of doing things. Managers can assist by encouraging employees to exhibit the new change and then, through additional coaching and modelling, by reinforcing the employees in the desired change. Kotter's, (1995, 1996) last step corresponds to Lewin's refreezing stage. Anchor New Approaches in the Culture, it takes years for long-term changes to become embedded in the organization's culture. To achieve this, managers must reinforce changes by highlighting connections between new behaviours and processes and organizational success. Managers must also develop methods for developing change leaders and their successors.

**Resistance and Barriers to change**

Resistance to change is the reluctance of adapting to change when it is presented. Employees can be either overt or covert about their unwillingness to adapt to organisational changes. This can range from expressing their resistance publicly to unknowingly resisting change through their language or generalactions. Resistance to change by employees is manifested by the following:

**Mistrust and Lack of Confidence**: When employees do not trust or feel confident in the person making the change, their resistance to it can be a huge barrier (Omolekan & Gunu, 2022). In fact, Maurer (2010) believed that lack of confidence in change-makers is a cause of resistance to change in organisations that are most often overlooked. Maurer's (2010) three Levels of Resistance to Change are: I do not get it, I do not like it, and I do not like you. That is right — people may not resist the change itself but rather the person making it. Of course, "you" does not always refer to the change-maker specifically. It could also be someone the change-maker represents, such as corporate headquarters or a faceless chief executive officer.

**Everything seems different:** Change is meant to bring something different, but how different? We are creatures of habit. Routines become automatic, but change jolts us into consciousness, sometimes in uncomfortable ways. Too many differences can be distracting or confusing. Leaders should try to minimise the number of unrelated differences introduced by a central change. Wherever possible, keep things familiar. Remain focused on the important things; avoid change for the sake of change (Kanter, 2012).

**Emotional Responses:** Meaningful organisational change does not occur in a climate of mistrust. Trust involves faith in the intentions and behaviour of others. Mutual mistrust will doom an otherwise well-conceived change initiative to failure (Omolekan & Gunu, 2022). If an organisation tries to implement a change effort in an environment where most of the people working in the organisation mistrust each other, the organisation will have limited success. The organisation will need to spend some time rebuilding trust if it wants better results from its change effort. Trust is a fragile asset that is easily harmed.

**Changing the status quo is difficult**, and many people will have emotional reactions to anything that upsets their routine. This is a natural and inevitable response. Brushing it off will only lead to stronger resistance. The Kübler-Ross (1969)

Change Curve, also known as the Kübler-Ross Model, is an effective tool business owners and managers can use to understand these natural reactions to change. The model recognises that change sometimes leads to feelings of loss and grief. As such, change-makers must be prepared to manage these emotions and move people towards acceptance of the change.

**Fear of Failure:** People will not support a change if they are not confident in their own abilities to adapt to it. When people feel threatened by their own shortcomings (real or imagined), they protect themselves from failure by resisting the change. The ADKAR Model by Hiatt (2006) has two goals that address the fear of failure: knowledge and ability. Concerns about competence, can I, do it? Change is resisted when it makes people feel stupid. They might express skepticism about whether a new software version will work or whether digital journalism is really an improvement, but down deep they are worried that their skills will be obsolete. Leaders should over-invest in structural reassurance, providing abundant information, education, training, mentors, and support systems. A period of overlap, running two systems simultaneously, helps ease transitions (Kanter, 2012).

**Poor Communication:** Communication is the key to great change management. Communication is to create an active conversation. When a company talks at people as opposed to with people, the company is bound to get resistance to change. The organisation should start by making a change management plan. Before the company can initiate change, the company should have several communication actions planned, such as the announcement of the change, small group discussions, one-on-one meetings, and methods for gathering feedback. When a company is talking with employees about change, the company should answer the questions, “What’s in it for me?” (WIIFM) and “What does it mean to me?” (WDIMTM). When a company appeals to individual concerns, the company should increase its engagement. People want to know how the change will benefit them specifically and what they will need to do to implement and solidify the change. Furthermore, providing continuous motivation throughout the change process is essential. Kotter's 8 – step change theory highlights the importance of focusing on short-term wins in step six of the eight-step change process. When employees are recognised for their efforts, it builds their enthusiasm as well as their desire to support the change.

**Unrealistic Timelines:** The company should find a balance between creating a sense of urgency and allowing time to transition. The organisation should not change too quickly. When the organisation pushes too hard for a change to happen, it's easy to get tunnel vision and neglect important elements of the company's change plan. The company should begin with a change implementation timeline. The company has to map out every action and set deadlines so that it has a general idea of how long the entire transformation will take. Often, designing the path between the current state and change adoption helps the company identify additional steps that are needed to facilitate the transition. Of course, the organisation should not be afraid to make adjustments. If the company's team needs more time to understand the change from additional training — the company should make it happen (Strebel, 1994).

**Loss of status or job security in the organisation:** It is not in the nature of people to make changes that they view as harmful to their current situation. In an organisational setting, this means employees, peers, and managers will resist administrative and technological changes that result in their role being eliminated or reduced (Gunu, 2006). From employees' perspective, the company's change is harmful to their place in the organisation. Forcing a change on employees has its place. Over time, however, when this is the only approach that the company uses to make change, the company will find that its change results suffer. If the company overuses this approach, it will harm its effectiveness over the long term as employees will find direct and indirect ways to resist the change. Without a thoughtful change strategy to address resistance to change, the company will trigger strong resistance and organisational turnover.

**Poorly aligned (non-reinforcing) reward systems**: There is a common business saying that managers get what they reward (Gunu, 2010). Organisational stakeholders will resist change when they do not see any rewards. Without a reward, there is no motivation for the team to support the company's change over the long term. This often means that organisational reward systems must be altered in some way to support the change that the company wants to implement. The change does not have to always be major or costly. Intrinsic rewards are very powerful motivators in the workplace that are non-monetary.

**Organisational politics:** Some employees resist change as a political strategy to "prove" that the decision is wrong. They may also resist to show that the person leading the change is not up to the task. Others may resist because they will lose some power in the organisational. In these instances, these individuals are committed to seeing the change effort fail. Managers sometimes become frustrated with the political resistance that they encounter from others. Political obstacles are frustrating when a company is trying to implement needed change. Managers should acknowledge what they are feeling and then take positive steps to counter the organisational resistance they are facing.

**Change Masters**

A change agent is an individual or a group that undertakes the task of initiating and managing a change in an organisation. Change agents can be internal, such as managers or employees who are appointed to oversee the change process. In many innovative-driven companies, managers and employees alike are being trained to develop the needed skills to oversee change (Tschirky, 2011). Change agents also can be external, such as consultants from outside the firm.

A change master does not just manage a change, but he/she does whatever it takes to solve a specific problem or achieve a clearly defined goal. The most complex role of a change master is getting others to 'buy in' to the change process. A change manager is anyone who helps a team or organisation to achieve a specific goal and is involved in change management (Abdulkadir, Gunu, & Yusuf, 2012). A change manager may be a full-time internal change consultant, an organisational development professional, a leader of a division, a middle manager charged with the responsibility of bringing about a change in his/her area or a team leader who gets employees excited about a change (Tearle, 2020).

Change masters are literally the right people in the right place at the right time. The right people are the ones with the ideas that move beyond the organisation's established practices, ideas they can form into visions. The right places are the integrative environments that support innovation, encourage the building of coalitions and teams to support and implement vision. The right times are those moments in the flow of organisational history when it is possible to reconstruct reality on the basis of accumulated innovations to shape a more productive and successful future (Kanter, 1984).

A change leader is a change agent who takes leadership responsibility for changing the existing pattern of behaviour of another person or social system. Change agents make things happen, and part of every manager's job is to act as a change leader in the work setting. This requires being alert to situations or to people needing change, being open to good ideas and opportunities, and being ready and able to support the implementation of new ideas in actual practice (Gunu & Tsado, 2017). A true "change leader" is forward-looking, proactive, and embraces new ideas. Obviously, the new work placed demands change leadership at all levels of management. Change leaders are confident of their ability, willing to take risk, seizes opportunities, expect surprise and makes things happen. Change leaders promotes and actively supports creativity and innovation (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2005).

The terms change master, change manager, change leader and change agent are all involved in organisational change process. Change master, change manager, and change leader are all change agents, but the most encompassing of all of them is change master.

The most important things a leader can bring to a changing organisation are passion, conviction, and confidence. Too often, managers announce a plan, launch a task force, and then simply hope that people find the answers - instead of offering a dream, stretching their horizons, and encouraging people to do the same. That is why it is said, "leaders go first" (Kanter, 2007)." However, change leaders can use several techniques to take charge of change rather than simply react to it. Jick and Maury, (2011) opined that the people who know how to conceive and lead productive and effective projects, initiatives, or ventures that bring new ideas into use are change masters. Not everyone can be a change master but those who possess few characters that are described by Kanter (2007) can become change master. It can be said that being a change master is not a unique quality that has to be present at one's birth time, but this is a behaviour that can be learned which requires a sense of seriousness. Employees can become good managers and leaders if they can learn to change themselves before trying to change others (Tsado & Gunu, 2016). Kanter (2007) used the term change masters to describe managers who are at the forefront of change within their organisations and suggested that they all share the same seven key abilities such as

- Tuning in to the Environment
- Challenging the Prevailing Organisational Wisdom
- Communicating a Compelling Aspiration
- Building Coalitions
- Transferring Ownership to a Working Team
- Learning to Persevere
- Making Everyone a Hero

**Roles of Change Masters**

Depending on the type of change a change master is saddled with, a change manager or change agent may perform some of the following roles (Tearle, 2020). However, a change master is able to perform all of such roles as being the:

- Diagnostician and developer of clear change goals
- The Facilitator
- The Designer
- The Project Manager
- The Educator
- The Marketer
- The Inspiration agent
- System Integrator and Coordinator
- Monitor

**What Matters Now: Change Masters**

Like any other institution, businesses have several rather than a single objective. Objectives of business are multi-dimensional in nature. Businesses are established and they exist to achieve these multiple objectives (Gunu, 2004). Generally, profit objective is considered to be the primary objective of business. But profit-making is not the only objective of a business. Every business enterprise has multiple objectives to justify its existence.

The objectives of businesses are: Economic Objectives; Social Objectives; Human Objectives; Multiple Objectives; Organic Objectives; Micro Level Objectives; National Level Objectives; and Global Objectives. Business Objectives may be broadly classified into three categories: Economic Objectives; Social Objectives; and Human or Individual Objectives (Gunu, 2003).

Our focus is on economic objectives that comprise of profit earning, growth, creation of customers, innovation and optimum utilisation of resources. Survival as a major objective of business is only possible if businesses successfully adapt to change because change is inevitable in the dynamic environment. Businesses use innovation as another economic objective to adapt to change in order to survive perpetually.

Change generally implies innovation, in the basic sense of introducing something new into an environment. This includes the rearrangement of jobs, roles, and structures. It also includes rearranging systems, since the process of change itself is an innovation (Cole, 1997). According to Kanter (1984), change can connote an abrupt disjunction, a separation of one set of organisational events and activities from others, in a way that does not match reality. The act of making changes may involve merely reconceptualising and repackaging coexisting organisational tendencies, as the balance tips from dominance of one tendency to the dominance of another.

Businesses should have the capability to survive markets jolts or shocks - change. A business should have a vision of long-term existence. Every business aims to ensure that it continues to survive and exist in the future. Survival is possible only when an organisation is able to earn enough revenue to cover its costs (Gunu, Omolekan, & Abdulrahman, 2022). Innovation as another economic objective refers to introduction of new ideas or new methods of production. Innovation plays a crucial role in increasing the competitive strength and improving the image of business enterprise in the mind of customers (Gunu, Omolekan, Olota, & Isiaka, 2022).

This brings to fore the inevitability of change masters who champion innovation in organisations to ensure continuous survival of businesses in the dynamic environment that is ever changing. Who are change masters? Change masters are literally the right people in the right place at the right time. The right people are the ones with the ideas that move beyond the organisation's established practices, ideas they can form into visions. The right places are the integrative environments that support innovation, encourage the building of coalitions and teams to support and implement vision. The right times are those moments in the flow of organisational history when it is possible to reconstruct reality on the basis of accumulated innovations to shape a more productive and successful future (Kanter, 1984).

**My contribution to knowledge**

Mr. Vice Chancellor Sir, in this research, **Managers' Perception of Internal Factors and their Effect on Corporate Entrepreneurship: The Case of Nigerian Manufacturing Industry - Tsado, E., and Gunu, U. (2016) published in OECONOMICA, 12(4): 241-254,**we investigated the specific internal factors that influence Corporate Entrepreneurship in Nigerian manufacturing industry as a result of inconsistences in the findings of previous studies regarding internal factors and Corporate Entrepreneurship. Corporate Entrepreneurship is a strategy devised by companies to cope with challenges of environmental uncertainties because companies need to keep improving their products or services and introducing new ones through constant innovations which can be achieved through Corporate Entrepreneurship.

Our findings indicated that factors in the internal environment, namely organisational boundary, management support, reward/re-enforcement, work discretion and time availability influence CE activities in a business organisation. It was reported in our research that all these five factors showed significant effect on CE. The findings supported existing theory and literatures on CE, especially on the application of Corporate Entrepreneurship Assessment Instrument (CEAI). Relationship, organisational boundary showed the strongest statistical relationship with CE. This was followed by reward- re enforcement and job discretion.

Corporate Entrepreneurship (CE) is recognised as an effective strategy that helps business organisations to cope with the uncertainties of the business environments. A number of factors in external environment have been identified as antecedent to CE but the relationship between those factors in the changing external environment and CE has not been adequately investigated. So, in a study **Relationship between Factors in the External Environment and Corporate Entrepreneurship: Evidence from Nigerian Manufacturing Industry - Gunu, U., and Tsado, E. (2017) published in**

**Amity Journal of Management, 5(2),** we examined the relationship between factors in the external environment of Business Organisations and CE in Nigerian manufacturing industry.

The broad objective of the study was to examine the relationship between factors in the external environment and CE in Nigerian manufacturing industry.

Our findings show the relationship between factors in the external environment and CE

It was revealed that only three factors in the external environment have significant positive relationship with CE in Nigerian manufacturing companies. The result indicated that Environmental Hostility and Socio – Cultural Effect correlates positively with CE with significant values less than the threshold. Equally, political-regulatory effect has positive but weak relationship with CE. However, the result shows that market dynamism has no significant relationship with CE. The results further revealed that environmental hostility showed the strongest relationship with CE followed by socio-cultural effects.

Our study reported that there was no significant relationship between dynamism and CE. This finding contradicts the position of existing literature (Alarape, 2006) on how continuous change in the business environment as a result of dynamism may be a source of abundant opportunities for industrial growth, new technology, and demand for new products which will trigger CE. However, some reasons for this finding may be as a result of the economic recession in Nigeria as at that time which has led to low demand for goods. In addition, other factors such as inability of managers of business organisations to perceive such opportunities and their level of entrepreneurial orientation may be responsible for this finding.

The result for the third objective indicated a positive significant relationship between socio – cultural variables and CE. This finding is not surprising as most Nigerians have negative attitude toward made in Nigeria products, as a result, this will force most manufacturing companies to be creative in response to such social attitude. The result for objective four showed a positive significant relationship between political/ regulatory variables and CE. The reason for this finding may be as a result of level of political development of Nigeria, and high level of corruption in the system, for example there is always inconsistency in government policies, most especially with the change in government that may trigger companies to develop innovative strategies in response to inconsistent government policies.

There is considerable research on psychological factors that influence entrepreneurial behaviour However, most of these researches focused on the psychological variables of independent entrepreneurs at the expense of corporate entrepreneurs. Even the available research on Corporate Entrepreneurship has concentrated on other factors such as internal and external factors of CE at the expense of personal factors of employees who are central focus for new ideal generation.

Generally, from the perspective of behavioural theory, entrepreneurial behaviour is largely influenced by some innate factors such as need for achievement, risk taking, tolerance for ambiguity and creativity. These factors are called psychological factors. According to existing literatures, these are qualities that distinguish entrepreneurs from other people. In addition, research has also identified some employees' non -psychological factors that are capable of influencing a person's entrepreneurial behaviour. Thus, it is imperative to identify any of the employees' traits and non -psychological variables in Nigerian manufacturing industry that have relationship with CE because employees are the main source of innovative ideas for CE. Therefore, our study on **Employees' Psychological and Non-Psychological Variables: Do they have Relationship with Corporate Entrepreneurship? Gunu, U. and Tsado, E. (2017), in Misra, S., Shukla, S., and Batthini, G. (Ed), published as part of the Proceedings of Twelfth Biennial Conference on Entrepreneurship, (vol. I: 418 -427),**

**Entrepreneurship Development Institute of India** examined the relationship between employees' personal characteristics and CE.

The study found that there is a significant positive relationship between need for achievement and CE with zero-order. Similarly, risk-taking propensity was also found to have significant positive relationship with CE. Creativity/innovativeness was also shown to have a significant positive but moderate relationship with CE. Self-confidence on the other hand was found to have a significant negative but weak relationship with CE. All the correlations were significant at 0.05 significance level. Furthermore, need for achievement was found to have the strongest relationship with CE, this was followed by risk-taking propensity.

Age and marital status correlate positively with CE, but the correlation relationships were weak. Similarly, academic qualification was found to have significant positive, but moderate relationship with CE. These correlations were significant at 0.05 significant levels. On the other hand, the result revealed that gender, work experience and functional area were also found to have positive, but weak relationship with CE. The results were however not significant at 0.05 level of significance. In addition, the result found that academic qualification has the strongest relationship with CE among the few non -psychological variables of employees that were found to have significant relationship with CE.

Existing literature has advocated the importance of creating a favourable internal environment for Corporate Entrepreneurship (CE) to flourish, and has identified five factors that are capable of catalysing the utilisation of CE. Corporate Entrepreneurship requires business organisations to become more flexible in their decision-making processes that concern innovations by involving their employees. This can afford companies with good opportunity of pooling different views and ideas that can boost innovation capability. For CE to flourish in any organisation, there must be a favourable internal environment (Kuratko, 2004; Kuratko et al., 2014). In this case, the upper management must be willing to support the employees and encourage them to come up with new ideas. In addition, this requires giving the employees adequate time in order to come up with new ideas and employees must be given enough freedom to take decisions with respect to their work. Furthermore, there must be a good reward system that will motivate the employees to have interest in CE, and management should be willing to remove all the bureaucratic processes in the organisation (Hornsby, Kuratko & Zahra, 2002). However, it remains unknown which of the factors in the internal environment accounts for CE. It equally remains unknown whether or not manufacturing companies in north-west Nigeria provide internal environment that can foster or hinder CE.

Thus, we carried out a study on **Determination of Critical Internal Factors for Corporate Entrepreneurship in Manufacturing Companies in North- West Nigeria, Gunu, U. and Tsado, E. (2016), published in Journal of Management Research and Development, 5(2): 27 – 42.**

The main objective of the study was to investigate the internal factors that determine CE in manufacturing companies in north - west Nigeria.

Regression Analysis indicated that the value of $R^2$ was 0.367. This means that the independent variables (Work Discretion, Reward/ Re-enforcement, Time Availability, Organisational Boundary, Management Support) explained about 36.7% of the variation in the dependent variable (Corporate Entrepreneurship).

The results indicated that four factors were significant predictors of Corporate Entrepreneurship in manufacturing companies in North – West Nigeria. These were organisational boundary, time availability, reward/ re-enforcement and work discretion,while management support was not significant. This means that these four internal factors influenced CE in manufacturing companies in north – west Nigeria.

The Nigerian socio – cultural environment does not easily make it certain which of the motivational factors: extrinsic, intrinsic or de-motivation that would lead employees to have interest in intrapreneurial activities. Fast-food firms in Nigeria seldom provide career opportunities for their employees and it is not certain whether employees in this category of firms would have intrapreneurial intention. The owners of fast-food firms do not pay their employees well, and they do not give much freedom for autonomy regarding their duties. As a result, most employees may not be willing to participate in the intrapreneurial activities. Therefore, there exist a gap in knowledge as to whether or not employees in fast-food firms in Nigeria have intrapreneurial intention, and if they have, what is the relationship between the motivating factors: extrinsic (integrated regulation, external regulation, introjected regulation and identified regulation), intrinsic and de-motivation, and interest in intrapreneurship. Thus, **Analysis of Factors that Motivate Intrapreneurial Intention of Employees in Fast Food Firms, Gunu, U. and Tsado, E., (2020), published in Advances in Management, 19(2),203 –229** study was designed to fill this gap.

The main objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between motivating factors and intrapreneurial intention of employees in fast food firms in Minna and Abuja metropolis in Nigeria.

Our study focused on the employees in fast food firms in Minna and Abuja metropolis in Nigeria. However, there were five major fast-food firms in Minna as at the time of this study and we selected only six top fast-food firms from Abuja.

From the result of the factor analysis, the total variance explained shows that a maximum of seven factors were obtained. The factors in the Rotated Component Matrix were named as follow: intrapreneurial intention, de-motivation, integrated regulation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and intrinsic motivation. These were used for the correlation analysis. The result of correlation analysis shows that there was significant relationship between intrapreneurial intention and intrinsic motivation, though, the relationship is however a negative one. Among the extrinsic motivation variables, integrated regulation has a moderate positive relationship with intrapreneurial intention, however the relationship is not significant. External regulation on the other hand correlates positively and moderately with intrapreneurial intention being significant at 5% level of significance. However, introjected regulation and identified regulation do not have significant relationship with intrapreneurial intention. The result further indicated that de-motivation correlates negatively with intrapreneurial intention and the relationship is not significant.

The paper examined the effect of each demographic variable on intrapreneurial intention of the employees. Logistic regression analysis did not however give statistically significant results. The results showed that first, intrinsic motivation and de-motivation do not influence intrapreneurial intention of the employees in fast food firms. Second, even among the categories of extrinsic motivation, only external regulation was found to serve as predictor of intrapreneurial intention of employees in fast food firms. Interestingly, it was reported that de-motivation had no significant effect on intrapreneurial intention. It was equally reported that intrinsic motivation had no significant effect on intrapreneurial intention. The reason for this finding may be as a result of the fact that most people work for these organisations like fast food firms in Nigeria in order to meet their basic needs; they feel such jobs have no security, so they may not really have interest in doing the job. In addition, as reported by Douglas and Fitzsimmons (2008), attitude towards ownership and income may be another factor limiting their motivation towards having intrapreneurial intention.

Entrepreneurial traits theory has argued that personality characteristics play a major role in one's determination to take up entrepreneurial challenges, thus not everybody can be a successful entrepreneur. However, it is believed that personality characteristic can be reshaped by education. Based on the role that education plays in reshaping one's personality characteristics, the National Universities Commission introduced entrepreneurship education in the effort to reduce massive graduates' unemployment. The Nigerian Government promoted entrepreneurial education among the undergraduates in tertiary education curricula with the aim of equipping graduates in order to serve as job creators rather than job seekers. This was followed by the establishment of entrepreneurship development centres in all Nigerian Universities to provide an avenue for practical skill acquisition. However, years after the introduction of these programs, it is not known whether or not this has improved entrepreneurial capacity of undergraduate students. Therefore, our study **on Do Nigerian Undergraduate Students has what it takes to be Successful Entrepreneurs? An Enquiry into the Entrepreneurial Capacity of Nigerian Undergraduates, Gunu, U. and Tsado, E. (2017), published in Asian Pacific Journal of Education, Arts and Sciences, 4(1): 10 -19**, was designed to determine the effect of entrepreneurship education on the capacity of Nigerian Undergraduate Students to become Successful Entrepreneurs.

The broad objective of the study was to determine whether or not Nigerian undergraduates have the ability to become successful entrepreneurs.

Our result indicated that age group of the students and entrepreneurial intentions have significant positive relationship with entrepreneurial capacity. However, the relationship between these two variables and entrepreneurial capacity is weak; they are both significant at 5% significance level. The result further shows that the relationship between students' institution and entrepreneurial capacity is not statistically significant. The results of binary logistic regression analysis show that need for achievement is substantial and positive. This is an indication that need for achievement has significant positive effects on entrepreneurial intention of students. The results on ambiguity tolerance, self-confidence and locus of control are not significant. The result also indicated that creativity and risk taking have substantial values but not significant. This means that creativity and risk taking do not have significant effects on entrepreneurial intention of students.

Secluded Muslim women are frequently perceived as holding marginal and counterproductive statuses in their societies and less productive in the economic development due to their seclusion nature (Zakariya, 2001). Hills' (1982) study of rural Hausa women in northern Nigeria described female seclusion as a terrible restriction of human liberty. In contrast, Callaway (1987) opined that female subordination is not unique to northern Nigeria but is universal to all cultures. Although seclusion may influence the form and nature of women's participation in entrepreneurship, it does not cut them off from the political, economic, religious and artistic aspects of life (Zakaria, 2001). Thus, in the study on **Analysis of Entrepreneurial Activities of the Secluded Women in Kebbi State, Nigeria, Gunu, U., Omolekan, O. J., and Galadima, H. (2017). Published in the Proceedings of 1st Covenant University International Conference on Entrepreneurship (Cu-Ice), 546 – 558, Ota, Covenant University, Nigeria, we** examined entrepreneurial activities of the secluded Muslim women in Kebbi State, Nigeria.

The main objective of our study was to critically analyse the entrepreneurship activities of the secluded Muslim women to the economic development in developing nations. Specifically, the study examined the contributions of the entrepreneurial activities of the secluded Muslim women in Nigeria; and evaluated the hurdles that limit the realisation of the entrepreneurial potentials of the secluded women.

Results showed that respondents engaged in series of entrepreneurial activities ranging from Agriculture, Distribution and Dealership, Business Commercial, Confectionaries, Event Management, Livestock, Laundry Services, Processing, Sale of Soft Drinks, General Merchandise, Local Sauce (Daddawa), Hair dressing and Plaiting (kitso) and Manufacturing. Majority were found in the Food and catering business followed by Agriculture and Local sauce (daddawa) business. Challenges encountered by secluded Muslim women were financial, marketing, regulatory/cultural and social problems. Their major sources of finance comes from either personal savings or support from relatives. This might have hindered their growth and expansion.

Cross tabulation revealed that all the three personal attributes of the respondents have a positive association and relationship with the entrepreneurial activities practiced by the sampled respondents for age, marital experience and family size respectively. This indicated that identified entrepreneurial potential impediments such as regulatory problem, financial problem, socio-cultural problem, marketing problem and poor governmental support, explained the variance in secluded Muslim women entrepreneurial activities.

Literature on network effects predominantly focus on commercial enterprises performance where profit, sales, and market share are some of the main drivers of success (Bernadino & Santos, 2019) whereas these drivers are not suitable for social enterprises whose focus is on social value. In addition, network studies focus on different dimensions of network analysis such as structural dimensions, relational and functional dimensions. However, studies on network appear to be skewed towards the structural and relational dimensions, whereas the functional dimension is also important. Moreover, the structural and relational perspectives fail to show the function of a network rather they describe the network. Therefore, the focus of our study on **Entrepreneurial Networks and Survival of Social Enterprises in Nigeria, Gunu, U., Omolekan, O. J., and Abdulrahman, A. S. (2022), published in Prerana Journal of Management Thought and Practice, 14(1), 34 – 50** was on the functional dimension of network analysis. In addition, it has been observed that few studies utilise a quantitative method of analysis of networks and social enterprises (Ferri, 2014). There appears to be paucity of empirical studies in Nigeria that evaluated the effect of entrepreneurial networks on the survival of social enterprises. From the foregoing, our study focused on the functional dimensions of personal network and professional network as they affect the survival of social enterprises.

The main objective of the study was to examine the effect of entrepreneurial network types on the survival of social enterprises.

The findings revealed that both personal and professional networks indices were significant in the prediction of social enterprise survival at .05 probability level. This implies that identified social enterprise networks influence social enterprise survival. The identified variables of the study were capable of predicting social enterprise survival of the selected enterprises.

The output of the analysis revealed that for the social enterprises to discharge their responsibility of solving social problems and still survive in terms of fund availability and quality of workforce which is capable of enhancing business survival and continuity, there is need for social enterprise facilitators' families to support their social entrepreneurship drive. The society should be ready to support social entrepreneurs and give them the necessary support. The enterprise survival is likely to increase if information accessibility and social needs/capital are enhanced. However, social enterprise networks metrics influence social enterprise survival in Nigeria.

The problem of Nigeria mass poverty cannot be solved by any specific top down one size fits all solution conceived by an elite expert no matter how well conceived and how experienced the experts. Rather there exist millions of micro solutions which can only be discovered and implemented by the mass poor themselves from the grassroots level. To mobilise the mass poor to increase their individual productivity requires the development of entrepreneurship in micro enterprises. The assumption is that if emphasis is placed on the promotion of micro enterprises, they will encourage and nurture self-employment. Thus, in **Entrepreneurship Development in Micro Enterprises as a Medium for Poverty Reduction in Kwara State, Nigeria, Gunu, U. (2010), published in Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in**

**Business, 2 (6); 235- 252,** we sought to(i)identify the characteristics and profile of entrepreneurs in micro enterprises; (ii) Identify the factors that promote, forester and nurture entrepreneurship in micro enterprises; (iii) Identify environmental and management constraints that hinder the growth of entrepreneurship in micro enterprises; (iv) Analyse the contribution of micro enterprises to poverty reduction through employment and income generation. The study was designed to cover five local government areas in Northern Senatorial District of Kwara state.

It was found that some factors induced the entrepreneurs to venture into owing business such as willingness to run a private business, self-employment, and source of business ideas. Other sources of ideas are domestic experience, expert advice, inheritance, and market analysis. The sources of capital used by the respondents to start their ventures vary from bank loans, personal savings and third-party sponsorship.

Our study revealed that the level of profit also varies across the respondents. The fore going shows that the operations of these micro enterprises provide income for their owners which invariably reduce their level of poverty. The opinion of the respondents regarding the use of market practice shows that 50.7% of the respondents use market practice. 38.20% of the respondents do not use market practice. The major market practice used by the respondents was personal selling (51.4%), followed by combination of market practices, and then advertising (17.4%) and sales promotion (11.1%).

The research revealed the reasons for the non-usage of market practice as high cost (14.6), poor knowledge (49.3%), inadequate information (16.7%), and nature of goods (19.4%). 50.1% of the respondents were of the opinion that market practice influences their business.

The rapid change in the external environment of businesses has increased the level of uncertainty in the business environment. These changes in external environment have also affected consumer taste, fashion and demand which invariably affected the type of product and service consumers now demand. This level of uncertainty has pushed some business organisations out of existence because they cannot cope in the business environment again either as result of non-patronage by customers, increased in overhead cost of doing business or as a result of new government legislation. Many organisations are searching for avenues to sustain their competitive advantage in the face of hyper competition that characterised every organisation's environment. This search has led most organisation to build innovation culture within the organisations but this can only be sustained through knowledge management process within the organisation.In a study on the **Relationship between Knowledge Management and Intrapreneurship Performance in Nigerian Telecommunication Industry, Gunu, U., Tsado, E., and Olota, O. O. (2018), published in Dimensions International Journal of Management 6(1): 2 - 14,** we assessed the impact of knowledge management on innovation in Nigeria Telecommunication Industry.

Twelve variables were used as elements of knowledge management in telecommunication industry and these variables were correlated among each other. The relationship between Company directory (corporate yellow page) with readily accessible information and collective learning was found to be statistically insignificant while the relationship between company directory and other elements of knowledge management were statistically significant. These may be that company directory effectiveness is determined by the availability of information in the industry which is determined by the other company's input were readily accessible information and collective learning is based on individual company practice which is internally determined.

The results of our research showed that the relationship among information that demands quick action (actionable information), search engines and intellectual property cultivation is found to be statistically insignificant while the relationship among information that demand quick action and other elements of knowledge management were statistically significant. The analysis indicated that organisation data base storage was found to be statistically insignificant with search engines and intellectual property cultivation and statistically significant with other elements. Readily accessible information has a positive correlation with all the elements of knowledge management except with company directory. From analysis, it can be concluded that only search engines and intellectual property cultivation was found mostly to be statistically insignificant with the other elements of knowledge management. Since the industry is characterise by hyper competition, there may be no need to engage in intellectual property cultivation because any product that was design in the industry will soon become obsolete.

There was a statistically significant correlation between technological based knowledge management and innovation at 1% level of significance. The relationship between technological based knowledge management and innovation was positive and this implied that as the organisation increases its technological based knowledge management activities, innovation within the organisation will also increase. This means that organisational intrapreneurship culture will be sustained.

In practice, intrapreneurship is usually introduced in business organisation as an avenue to promote innovation and strategic renewal. It is a practice in an existing organisation that seeks to grow the organisation by exploring new opportunities through new combination of existing resources (Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, 2011). In order for the existing organisations to grow in today's rapidly changing business environment, business organisations have to focus on the change that affect their target market segment by exploring a productive relationship among the various resources at their disposal. The ability of an organisation to make profit is anchored on its ability to provide goods and service that satisfy consumer needs. The process of satisfying consumer needs has become more intensive as a result of globalisation. Globalisation has made many organisations to be out of business and some are making consistent loses year-in and year-out. Organisations now have to struggle to retain their most profitable customers throughout the customer life cycle and nurture non profitable customer to profitable customers. Thus, our study **Impact of Knowledge Management on Intrapreneurship Performance in Nigerian Telecommunication Industry: A Study of MTN and GLOBACOM, Gunu, U., Tsado, E., and Olota, O. O. (2017), published in Sahel Analyst: Journal of Management Sciences, 15(2): 63 – 80,** was designed to examine the impact of knowledge management on intrapreneurship.

The main objective of the study was to determine the impact of knowledge management on intraprenuership performance in Nigeria's Telecommunication Industry.

It was found that open communication which is one of the internal drives is the most important factors among factor influencing intrapreneurship. This is followed by quick reaction by competitors and the third in the hierarchy is technological change both are the external drives. According to the respondent's perception, government regulation and formal control system were the 11th and 12th position on the ranking which are the least in the table. The implication of this result is that most of the respondent agreed that intraprenuership factors are practiced in Nigeria Telecommunication Industry and those organisations characteristics (internal drives) and environment characteristics (external drives) are factors that influence intrapreneurship in Nigeria Telecommunication industry. The result shows that knowledge management practice in an organisation will affect intrapreneurship performance.

One of the forces in Nigerian business today is the Entrepreneur. Today, entrepreneurs are seen at work in many different areas. The most peculiar of these might be called the "classic" small business, a company with relatively small volume of sales and few employees (Rachman & Mescon, 1985). The main emphasis of the study was small-scale business. This is justified not only because small-scale business provides the logical starting point for big businesses, but because they also serve as the springboard and training ground for the latter. It is also the small business, which primarily carries the entrepreneurial thrust. In addition, it is now generally agreed that the strengths of an economy depend on the strengths of its small business (Birley, 1979). In our study, **Small Scale Businesses in Nigeria: Their start-up, Characteristics, Financing and Importance, Gunu, U. (2004), published in Ilorin Journal of Business and Social Sciences, 9(I&2); 36-43,**

We sought to examine (i) the nature of start-up of small-scale enterprises; (ii) the characteristics of the small-scale enterprises; (iii) the mode of financing small-scale enterprises; (iv) the importance of small-scale enterprises to the individual and the nation as a whole.

As it was revealed, the most frequent variable was new business, family businesses, inherited businesses, and businesses that were purchased from their original owners and restart. Restart businesses are businesses that were in problem of survival and new set of management came in to resuscitate the dying businesses. This requires entrepreneurial ability to restart the venture all over again.

The study has shown that most of the small-scale businesses are between the ages 1-10 years, about 58.33 percent of the operators of small-scale business had secondary school education. The number of employees of small-scale varies from those employing less than ten people (66.67%). Other characteristics of small-scale business are previous working experience of the owners. 11.11 percent of the respondent conducted feasibility study before they started their business but 88.89% did not conduct feasibility studies before they started their businesses. The type of business of the respondents ranges from service (22.22%), production [36.11%), retail (27.78%), to wholesale (13.89). The small-scale business with less than ₦200,000 capital base had 30.35 percent. Those with capital base of between ₦200,000 - ₦500,000 were 15[41.67%). These businesses have the highest percent. 19.44 percent of the businesses had their capital base between ₦600,000 -

₦1,000,000 and 8.33% had a capital bate of between ₦1.100,000- ₦2,000,000. None of the sampled small-scale enterprises had more than ₦2,000,000 capital base.

It is shown that 52.78 percent of small-scale business owners used personal saving to start their businesses. This research result confirms earlier research findings that a major source of finance for small-scale business is through the personal saving of the entrepreneur (Adeyemi & Badmus 2001; Ojo, 1984; Osoba, 1987). Results indicated further that 11.11 percent of respondents used bank loans to start their small-scale business. Also, the findings revealed that an insignificant percent (2.78%) used NERFUND as the source of their start-up capital. This might not be unconnected with the restrictive eligibility problem for enterprises wishing to benefit from NERFUND. Our results further revealed that 8.33 percent of the respondents secured start-up capital from their family and 5.56 percent of the respondents secured start – up capital from friends. Some respondents (2.78%) obtained venture capital from Esusu and 2.78% of the respondent also obtained start-up capital from money lenders. Lastly, 13.39 percent of the respondents obtained start-up capital from co-operative societies.

**Recommendations**

Mr. Vice Chancellor Sir, I wish to make the following submissions as recommendations to the University, Students and Government

i. The University should set up Creativity Isolation Centre. Creativity Isolation Centres are designated conducive places where individuals can turn new and imaginative ideas into reality. These centres are meant to increase the number of new ideas into fruition.
ii. Equally, the University should also establish Business Incubators. Business Incubators are specialised programmes structured as spaces for new businesses to learn and grow. The programme would offer services for entrepreneurs and start-ups while giving reduced rates for supplies and work space. Usually, young business

must apply for a position and commit to a certain amount of time in the programme

iii. The University also needs to establish Entrepreneurship Clinic. Entrepreneurship Clinic's objective is to develop the highest quality, entrepreneurial-minded students with the skills to make a significant impact. Students would be made to form diverse teams, based on the best mix of strengths, and act as consultants to partner companies. Partner companies, from early-stage start-ups to scaling businesses, apply to the clinic with specific business issues and needs. Student clinicians meet with company applicants, assess their weaknesses, develop and implement a strategic action plan to help early-stage start-ups and scaling businesses to solve a specific business need.
iv. The University and Government can initiate and sustain biannual/annual Business Plan Competition. Business Plan Completion stimulates entrepreneurship among students. Students' teams are challenged to improve an existing service, or product, or to conceive of a new service or product offering during the competition. Teams of students are encouraged to create a business plan and concept pitch video that is aimed at convincing potential investors to finance the business.
v. Business Ideas Exhibition is another recommendation. Business Ideas Exhibition is a competitive arena for showcasing one's ideas for products and services. Participants from all walks of life can literally see all other competitors in the exhibition and make instinctive, emotion-based decisions on which business idea they prefer. The exhibition could be a balanced blend of physical and online display.
vi. Government and rich individuals can provide seed capital for promising start-ups. Seed capital is the money raised to begin developing an idea for a business or a new product. This type of financing is used in the

formation of start-up. Funding is sometimes provided by a private investor in exchange for an equity stake in the company or for a share in the profits of the business. Endowments contribute tremendously to availability of seed capital.

vii. Commercialisation of Research Outputs/ Patents: Research Outputs/ Patents owned by researchers can be commercialised to willing buyers who will transform them into profitable business units.

viii. Collaboration between the Universities and the Industry should be encouraged to engender the development of entrepreneurs through exchange of talents and internship.

ix. Inclusion of Design Thinking in Business Administration Curriculum: The current review of curricula by National Universities Commission is an opportunity to include design thinking in the curriculum in order to enhance creativity among business administration students.

x. Crowdfunding is the utilisation of small amounts of seed capital from a vast array of individuals to finance a new business venture. Crowdfunding uses the easy accessibility of vast networks of people through social media and crowdfunding websites to connect investors and entrepreneurs together, with the likelihood increasing entrepreneurship by expanding the collection of investors beyond the traditional circle of owners, relatives, and venture capitalists.

xi. Crowd sourcing is the practice of obtaining information or input into a task or project by enlisting the services of a large number of people, either paid or unpaid, typically via the internet. Business ventures tune to volunteers to spark innovation through crowdsourcing.

xii. Industrial Parks: Both Federal and state governments can establish industrial parks to encourage initiation of new ventures and reduce start-up cost. An Industrial Park is a portion of a city that is zoned for industrial use rather than residential or commercial needs. Industrial Parks may contain oil refineries, ports, warehouses, distribution centre, factories and many businesses infrastructure.

xiii. Infrastructural development is the improvement in physical and non-physical components of the quality of the various components of infrastructure that is germane to the economic development of a nation, such as roads, power, ICT, water and sanitation in order to reduce the cost of doing business in Nigeria.

xiv. Re-enforcement of Credit Availability and Accessibility to Credit Finance. Interest free loans or single digit interest rates loans can be made available for start-ups to finance working capital needs.

xv. Cooperatives and informal finance are major sources of finance for start-ups. Cooperatives can establish business incubators for their members to patronise to stabilise their business start-ups. Equally, cooperatives can stage business plan competition and business ideas exhibition for their members on continuous basis. The entrepreneurs' informal network friends and family members are equally handy in providing support and seed capital.

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