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Globalization, Pan-Africanism, and the African Business Climate

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Forward

On behalf of the Africa Academy of Management (AFAM), I share with you some of the best papers of our 5th Biennial Conference held at Lagos Business School, Pan-Atlantic University. The theme of the 2020 Biennial Conference is *Globalization, Pan-Africanism, and the African Business Climate*. Consistent with our mission of advancing management scholarship and practice in Africa, we have resolved to host our biennial conference on the continent so as to exchange ideas and disseminate knowledge via the studies presented at the conference. The best studies are selected for these proceedings. They are available to members and the global economy via our website as a means of sharing the ideas.

Even though globalization seems to be in a decline given the nationalistic and ethnic clamors across the globe, it is important to Africa which has some of its sons and daughters across the world – Americas, Europe, and Asia – through colonialism and the slave trade. Reaching out to all academics of African descent across the globe is a way of not only uniting Africa's descendants as advocated by Pan-Africanists such as Marcus Garvey, George Padmore, Amicar Cabral, and Frantz Fanon but also heeding the plea of modern leaders such as Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana for African unity. That global approach is important if we want to improve African economies. We believe management knowledge can help improve the business climate in Africa and contribute to improving not only economic outcomes but also flourishing of the societies. This is particularly significant given the formation of the Africa Continental Free Trade Area (AfCFTA).

The flourishing of Africa is envisaged in the African Union Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want, and manifested in the AfCFTA. One major aspiration of the Agenda is "*A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development*." This aspiration can be realized through harnessing of ideas from Africans across the globe through scholarly activities such as the biennial conferences. We hope that our efforts will inspire actions and practices of business that transform African societies to reflect positively on the world. In this era of positive organizational scholarship, making a difference by improving the African business climate is significant for us. And, it can be achieved through mobilization of intellectual capital. AFAM is committed to spearheading that course.

I believe the papers that presented at the conference and those selected for the proceedings address various aspects of the theme from the many sub-disciplines – organizational behavior, human resources, entrepreneurship, international business/management, strategy, public policy, operations, social issues – of management. We are so pleased to have participants from several countries around the world.

In conclusion, let me express my profound gratitude to the proceedings editor, Professor Samuel Aryee of Surrey University, United Kingdom for the tremendous effort in the publication of these proceedings. I also thank our longest continuing conference sponsor, Emerald Group Publishing, Ltd. for their continued support for our activities, and Taylor & Francis for our journal, *Africa Journal of Management*.

Sincerely,

Baniyelme D. Zoogah

Baniyelme D. Zoogah, PhD
President, Africa Academy of Management

The Africa Academy of Management (AFAM)

The Africa Academy of Management (AFAM) is a professional membership organization that was formed in 2011. AFAM believes that management knowledge can make a significant contribution to the productivity and prosperity of a nation. Yet, there is a dearth of knowledge about management in Africa and several studies have identified the inadequate state of management research and scholarship about Africa relative to other regions of the world. AFAM's mission is to help close this gap by promoting research and education about management and organizations in Africa. Specifically, the objectives of AFAM are two-fold: (1) foster the general advancement of knowledge and scholarship in the theory and practice of management among African scholars and/or academics interested in management and organization issues in Africa. Africa is defined broadly to include all of Africa and individuals of African descent in the Diaspora (i.e., The Caribbean, South America, Europe, Asia, Oceania, Middle East, and North America); and (2) perform and support educational activities that contribute to intellectual and operational leadership in the field of management within the African context.

AFAM focuses on building and strengthening research capacity and education about management in Africa. This includes the mentoring of doctoral students, guiding and developing junior faculty, building collaborative networks among scholars, and advancing research about management in Africa. We launched our Africa Faculty Development (AFD) Workshop initiative, which is week-long intensive residential research training, in 2011 in partnership with the Academy of Management. Since 2011, we have held five (5) AFD Workshops for doctoral students and junior faculty from African Businesses Schools in Ghana (at Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA); and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KUNUST)), Rwanda (at University of Rwanda), and South Africa (at Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS); and the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, both at the University of Pretoria). The recent AFD workshop that was held at KNUST in Ghana was partly sponsored by the ECOWAS Bank for Investment and Development (EBID). The organization works closely with other academic associations and our sponsors in executing our mission. With a membership base of about 400 academics and practitioners from around the world, we work closely with other academic associations and our sponsors in executing our mission. Visit our website at www.africaacademyofmanagement.org to learn more about the organization's current activities.

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Entrepreneurship and Small Business	Brett Anitra Gilbert, American University, USA
Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management	Bella Galperin, University of Florida, University of Tampa, USA
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Introduction

From its fledging beginnings, the Africa Academy of Management (AFAM) has metamorphosed into an increasingly important partner in the development and dissemination of management research and knowledge about Africa. As evident in its mission statement 'Advancing Management Scholarship and Practice in Africa,' AFAM has raised and continue to raise the profile of management scholarship in Africa. This is being accomplished through its flagship journal, Africa Journal of Management (AJOM), its biennial conferences, and the Africa Faculty Development Workshops. In this task, AFAM does not so much seek to develop a theory of African management but rather, contextualize management research and knowledge through its contributions to the global conversations about management scholarship. Tsui (2006:2) defines contextualization as 'incorporating the context in describing, understanding, and theorizing about phenomena within it.' While there is much merit in this definition, a perennial concern is the applicability of Western-inspired theories to understanding African management phenomena. This suggests, on one hand, context sensitive research that examines the impact of contextual factors on Western-inspired theories. On the other hand, it also calls for research designed to contextualize theory in the sense of theorizing about context (Acquaah, Zoogah, & Kwesiga, 2013).

It is abundantly clear that research focusing on individual African countries cannot contribute in an orderly fashion to these tasks. As in every endeavour, economies of scale are much desirable. Against this background, the formation of the Africa Continental Free Trade Area provides a uniquely important opportunity for researchers to adopt a continent-wide approach to understanding management phenomena. For this reason, the theme of the 2020 conference 'Globalization, Pan-Africanism, and the Africa Business Climate' couldn't have been more appropriate. In addition to contributing to the global scholarly conversation, management research in Africa must of necessity, evidence engaged scholarship (Van de Ven & Jing, 2011; Zoogah, Zoogah, & Dalaba-Roohi, 2015). This is particularly important if we are to develop context-specific knowledge that will provide actionable knowledge for Africa-based organizations (Nkomo, Zoogah, & Acquaah, 2015). Indeed, George, Corbishley, Khayesi, Haas, and Tihanyi (2016) noted a number of research themes including navigating institutional voids, developing capabilities, and enabling opportunities. Although these areas are not exhaustive, they point to areas where engaged scholarship with its dual mandate of developing relevant knowledge (and therefore actionable knowledge about management phenomena in an African context) as well as injecting African voices in the global scholarly management conversation (Zoogah, et al., 2015).

To some degree, these objectives are being achieved not only in the papers presented at the conference but also, published in the proceedings. Track chairs have worked assiduously to select papers for the proceedings which, not only reflect the theme of the conference but also, demonstrate the breadth of research being conducted in Africa. Of the 37 papers selected, 22 have been published in the proceedings. This discrepancy is either because authors didn't register to attend the conference or their papers are under review at a number of journals. The papers published in the proceedings cover the tracks of Entrepreneurship and Small Business; Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management; Strategy and International

Management; Public Policy, Administration of Government and Non-Governmental Organizations and, Sustainability and Green Management. A number of attributes characterize these papers. First, they are overwhelmingly multi-authored which underscores the collaborative nature of impactful research. Second, demonstrate methodological plurality attesting to the importance of matching research problem to the choice of methodology. Lastly, many of the authors are Africa-based academics attesting to the contributions of AFAM's Faculty Development Workshops to capacity building.

Many colleagues cheerfully gave of their time and expertise to review the submissions. To these colleagues, we can only note our deepest appreciation. We hope AFAM can continue to rely on them as it scales new heights. We are confident you will find the conference experience intellectually stimulating and leave Lagos with fond memories. And, equally importantly, you will leave Lagos with interesting research ideas and new collaborators with whom you can research these ideas and publish the ensuing findings in AJOM.

Samuel Aryee
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Editor, Conference Proceedings

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Part 1
Entrepreneurship and Small Business

LEGITIMACY AND DISTINCTIVENESS OF NIGERIAN-CANADIAN TRANSNATIONAL FIRMS

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ABSTRACT

Our knowledge is sparse on how transnational entrepreneurs use claims to build legitimate distinctiveness. Therefore, we analyzed 1) claims collected from 20 Nigerian-Canadian transnationals' websites, classified by argument types, and 2) survey data from a 20-member review panel that assessed legitimate distinctiveness based on those websites. We found a positive correlation between legitimacy and distinctiveness, suggesting they are crucial for transnationals. To avoid falling behind on these dimensions, transnationals should emphasize their unique qualities rather than bifocality, seek customer reviews, provide comprehensive product information, state their value proposition clearly, prefer videos and images over text, and pay attention to cybersecurity.
Keywords: Transnational; legitimacy; distinctiveness; claims; resources; Nigeria; Canada

INTRODUCTION

Transnational entrepreneurship is a growing phenomenon with enormous impact on economic, social, and political structures (Patel & Conklin, 2009). Transnationals operate in dual business contexts and are driven by entrepreneurs who migrate from their country of origin to another country while maintaining business ties with both countries (Riddle et al., 2010; Rogerson & Mushawemhuka, 2015; Moghaddam et al., 2018). Transnationals play a significant role in improving international trade. This study focuses on Canada and Nigeria. Canada has a well-established and growing trade relationship with Nigeria, the most populated country and strongest economy in Africa (Export Development Canada, 2019), and Nigeria is among the top 10 sources of immigration countries to Canada (Immigration, Refugee and Citizenship Canada, 2018).

Transnational firms have ushered in new opportunities. Bifocality, i.e., the ability to function in two different business environments provides a competitive advantage to promote their business practices (Chen & Tan, 2009). Beyond this, new transnationals struggle to access needed resources such as financial and human resources, particularly since they operate in different regions (Santamaria-Alvarez et al., 2018). These resources come from stakeholders who might also operate in diverse countries. However, these stakeholders are hesitant to commit to new transnationals because transnationals are characterized by the liability of newness (Singh et al., 1986) and foreignness (Zaheer, 1995). Simply stated, new transnationals are considered high risk.

Building legitimacy to overcome the liability of newness and foreignness is one of the main challenges to transnationals. Legitimacy is symbolic capital that refers to credibility held by the transnational entrepreneur (Terjesen & Elam, 2009). To win the approval of multiple stakeholders and access required resources to grow, new transnationals must provide convincing evidence that they are both legitimate and distinct (Navis & Glynn, 2011). Hence, legitimacy is linked to firm survival and growth (Aldrich & Fiol, 1994). Legitimacy formation can not only be gained through relationships, credentialing and recognition (Terjesen & Elam, 2009), but influenced by building the right narratives that align with the novelty of a firm's business concept; this business concept could either be radical or incremental (van Werven et al., 2015). Transnational entrepreneurs must build multimodal images and narratives using logical arguments to support their firm's legitimating claims (Bouwmeester, 2013; Zamparini & Lurati, 2017). These arguments could produce either strong or weak warrants to convince stakeholders. The narratives are based on six defining argument types: argument by analogy, generalization, classification, cause, sign, and arguments from authority (van Werven et al., 2015).

Previous research suggests that through persuasive arguments, new transnational firms may gain legitimate distinctiveness needed to overcome their newness, foreignness and growth challenges (van Werven et al., 2015). Legitimate distinctiveness describes how an organization can fit into an institutional category yet concurrently stand out within the same category (van Werven et al., 2015). However, since legitimacy is not static, it must be well managed as firms evolve and grow. Thus, transnational firms must be prepared to meet the criteria for legitimacy evaluation at every stage of their organizational lifecycle (Kazanjian, 1988).

The objectives of our research are to contribute to the legitimate distinctiveness literature through a linguistic focus, and to the transnational entrepreneurship literature by examining arguments that new transnationals use to become legitimate in the eyes of different stakeholders. So doing, we investigate claims published on selected websites of Nigerian-Canadian transnationals drawing from the typology of van Werven et al. (2015). We conclude with research propositions to advance this field of inquiry along with managerial recommendations to transnational entrepreneurs to consider the concept of legitimate distinctiveness as a strategy to overcome challenges of newness and foreignness.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Legitimacy and distinctiveness

Suchman (1995) defines legitimacy as a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definition. Legitimacy influences organizational behavior and affect organizational performance and survival (Pollock & Rindova, 2003). Deephouse and Suchman (2008) assert that legitimacy can be evaluated for a broad range of subjects including organizational forms, structures, routines, practices, governance mechanisms, categories, company founders, and top management teams. Legitimacy is also known to be a survival-enhancing phenomenon that can result from conformity with both general social norms and formal laws (Deephouse & Suchman, 2008). Legitimacy evaluation of new ventures is based on an in between-category comparison, which assesses if a firm can be considered a member of a particular category (van Werven et al., 2015).

Conversely, distinctiveness, derived from the entrepreneurship literature, stresses the importance of uniqueness, distinctiveness, and nonconformity (Ireland, Hitt & Sirmon, 2003). Distinctiveness is evaluated based on a within-category comparison, which assesses the extent to which a new firm stands out from members of the same category (King & Whetten, 2008). Distinctiveness would then appear in paradoxical contradiction with legitimacy. However, this tension between conformity and differentiation can be overcome through legitimate distinctiveness, or 'claims of homogeneity (with other members of the category) with claims of heterogeneity (of differentiation from other members of the category)' (Navis & Glynn, 2011, p. 482).

New ventures often experience difficulty convincing stakeholders of their legitimate distinctiveness (van Werven et al., 2015). Further, attaining an optimal distinctiveness, that is 'positive stakeholder perceptions about a firm's strategic position that reconciles competing demands for differentiation and

conformity' (Zhao et al., 2017; p 93) can be challenging for any new venture (McKnight & Zietsma, 2018). In particular, ventures with radically novel business concepts face more hurdles persuading stakeholders of their legitimate distinctiveness than ventures with incrementally novel business concepts (van Werven, 2015). However, prior research emphasizes the important role of communication in overcoming the liability of newness, and the incorporation of a linguistic focus or narrative approaches to effectively communicate legitimacy and distinctiveness and help achieve the goal of obtaining stakeholder support (Martens et al., 2007).

Van Werven et al. (2015) defined business concept as the basic capabilities and product or service offering associated with a new venture. Entrepreneurs can exploit the novelty of their business concepts to influence claims on legitimate distinctiveness. Entrepreneurs could also make use of logical arguments to present their claims. Toulmin (1994) notes that an argument can only exist with the support of data, and that the three elements that make up an argument are: grounds, claims, and warrants. Grounds are the data or supporting details that an arguer uses as support for a conclusion. Claims are the assertions that back up an argument and they follow from the grounds, while warrants present the logical relationship between grounds and claims and help justify the claims in an argument. Even though warrants do not add new contents to arguments, they are largely implicit and reinforce an argument (van Werven et al., 2015).

Van Werven et al. (2015) developed a typology of six argument types to aid entrepreneurs convince stakeholders that their ventures are legitimate and distinct: arguments by analogy, classification, generalization, cause, sign, and arguments from authority. The authors (ibid.) also argue that the novelty of business concepts has an effect on an entrepreneur's ability to convince stakeholders on their venture's legitimacy and distinctiveness. Although it is easier for ventures with radically novel business concept to establish grounds for distinctiveness claims, it is more difficult for these ventures to come up with grounds to support legitimating claims. Entrepreneurs who design radically novel business concepts have weaker warrants to convince stakeholders of their legitimate distinctiveness than entrepreneurs who commercialize an incrementally novel business concept (van Werven et al., 2015).

Table 1 (adapted from van Werven et al., 2015) shows the relation of the six types of arguments with legitimating and distinguishing effects. Prior literature on new venture legitimation has summarized an assortment of mechanisms that entrepreneurs can employ to gain and manage legitimacy; they can, e.g., improve the legitimacy of the venture by using storytelling, forging relationships, obtaining certification, impression management and constructing analogies (Fisher et al., 2017; Überbacher, 2014).

Table 1: Types of arguments in relation to legitimating and distinguishing effect

Type of Argument	Claims	Legitimating Effect	Distinguishing Effect
Analogy	Using metaphors and analogies to create similarities between an unknown situation and a familiar case (Perelman, 2008; Navis & Glynn, 2011)	Claiming legitimacy as an organization with incremental business innovation involves sharing similarities with organizations that are within same industry. To be placed in a taken-for-granted market category, organizations with radically novel business innovations must stress similarities with established organizations	Claiming distinctiveness as an organization with radical business innovation involves stressing similarities with organizations that are well-known to be distinct from others in same industry. Organizations with incremental business innovation have an easier time claiming distinctiveness within a particular market category

Classification	Applying a generalized conclusion of a known member of a class to an unexamined case (Brockriede & Ehninger, 1960)	Applying a generic conclusion of a known member of a class to a new venture in order to place new venture within a taken-for-granted market category	Applying a generic conclusion of a known member of a class to a new venture in order to position new venture within the category of distinctive organizations
Generalization	Using an inductive approach to apply results of data from samples to a wider population of the class (Brockriede & Ehninger, 1960)	Sample cases provide stronger grounds for constructing legitimacy regardless of the novelty of business concept	Sample cases emphasize distinctiveness of a radical business concept to attempt to change or create an industry category
Cause	Assertion based on affirming a causal tie between phenomena (Perelman, 2008)	New venture activities are based on expected effects. Relationship of cause and effect in novel contexts is typically unknown thus, weak warrants are produced for highly or radically novel business concept	New venture activities have distinctive effects. For radically novel concepts, distinctiveness can be claimed using a number of facts
Sign	Claims that a particular characteristic is a reflection of a broader phenomenon (Perelman, 2008)	Placing new venture within a taken-for-granted market category by providing indicators to emphasize that the new venture belongs to a certain market category	Placing new venture within a class of distinctive organizations by providing indicators to emphasize that the new venture has membership with the class
Authority	Justifying a claim because it is held by an established, credible or recognized person. Making direct credibility to oneself as an entrepreneur by referring to personal significant professional experience or diverse skillset (Rieke & Sillars, 2001)	Referring to a credible actor who recognizes new venture as being part of a taken-for-granted market category and benefitting from legitimacy spillover effects via the actor.	Referring to a credible actor who considers the new venture to be strategically distinct from other organizations.

Source: Adapted from van Werven et al. (2015).

Organizational legitimacy

Deephouse et al. (2016) defines organizational legitimacy as the perceived appropriateness of an organization to a social system in terms of rules, values, norms, and definitions. From a strategic viewpoint, Suchman (1995) considers legitimacy a tool for achieving organizational goals, which has an effect on the competition for resources. Stated differently, legitimacy refers to a venture's credibility in the eyes of external and internal stakeholders (Kuratko & Brown, 2010) that allows the exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities and acquisition of resources necessary for survival.

A venture must have its identity claims aligned with the institutional conventions to be considered legitimate. Whereas identity helps to interpret or make sense of action, new ventures achieve legitimacy by striving to emulate the identities of organizations in their institutional fields (Labianca et al. 2001). Organizational identity is a concept of self-definition by members of an organization to articulate who they

are as an organization to themselves as well as to the public (Gioia et al., 2000). Identity claims therefore help an organization to define itself to an external audience so that the audience can connect with the organization (Fisher et al., 2016). These claims could help establish a venture within a market category, they also could serve to distinguish an entrepreneurial venture by signifying the venture's distinctiveness from others (Navis & Glynn, 2011).

Scholars hold that legitimacy must be well managed as entrepreneurial ventures evolve and grow, because ventures experience multiple legitimacy thresholds in their life cycle, and this requires them to adapt their venture's entrepreneurial identity to appeal to diverse audiences (Garud et al., 2014). Thus, gaining legitimacy is as critical as maintaining it since organizations will experience legitimacy changes and challenges as they evolve (Suchman, 1995). A constructively toned media coverage has been found to positively impact on an organization's identity formation (Glynn &Watkiss, 2012), and organizations could use digital technology as a means to inform and persuade others on the legitimacy of their organizations and their practices (Deephouse et al., 2016).

Legitimacy and organizational lifecycle

Legitimacy is related to organizational lifecycle, i.e., the developmental stages of organizations (Chandler, 1962). Kazanjian (1988) categorized the growth of new ventures into four distinct developmental stages: conception, commercialization, growth, and stability. The criteria for evaluating legitimacy differ at each stage. These stages are further defined as:

Conception: A venture's idea is initially conceived and a working prototype is developed. New ventures are evaluated based on creation of public interests and compliance to norms (Olson & Olson, 2009).

Commercializatio*n*: The venture's idea is transformed into a product or service to be commercialized. Several factors influence the timing of market entry of transnationals such as founders' experience and diversity (Kabongo & Okpara, 2019) and cultural differences in business of the host country (Bagwell, 2015). At this point, new ventures thrive by acquiring resources from venture capitalists and angel investors (Fisher et al., 2016). Legitimacy is assessed based on tangible performance metrics in order to know the venture's market return on investment. Furthermore, as a signal for generating significant economic value, legitimacy is evaluated based on a venture's potential customer base and assessment is done based on the venture team's execution capability (Bhide, 2000).

Growth and stability: Market risks are reduced and ventures have overcome technical challenges associated with product development (Fisher et al., 2016). Product-market fit has been established and the venture is experiencing a certain level of market success. However, ventures may still require large capital investments from public funders in order to expand their market and to reach a growth rate that is consistent with market growth (Martens et al., 2007). Legitimacy assessment centers on past and expected future financial performance. Legitimacy is also assessed by the venture's ability to meet the demands of diverse stakeholder groups including employees, suppliers, customers, investors, and society as a whole (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001; Freeman, 2010). If a venture fails to satisfy the interest of a particular stakeholder group, the legitimacy of the venture can be called into question (Fisher et al., 2016). Once the venture's growth rate is consistent with market growth, it reaches stability (Fisher et al., 2016).

Social judgment and legitimacy

The social judgment theory of organization refers to the social and cognitive processes that result in the formation of legitimacy, reputation and status judgments. It is achieved by evaluating audiences including the circumstances under which these processes take place (Bitektine, 2011). The theory of judgment differentiates sociopolitical and cognitive judgment. Sociopolitical legitimacy lays emphasis on social acceptance and it justifies an organization's right to exist, whereas cognitive legitimacy is described in terms of taken-for-grantedness (Hannan & Freeman, 1989). An entrepreneur and organization are taken for granted by stakeholders if the organization is familiar and understandable and therefore, there is less uncertainty in judging the legitimacy of an organization (Shepherd & Zacharakis, 2003). In contrast, reputational judgment refers to an organization's behavioral attributes with reference to the past. Reputational judgment relates to the competitiveness of an organization and distinctiveness from similar organizations (Deephouse & Carter, 2005). Finally, status judgment refers to the act of social acceptance,

i.e., where an organization fits in the ranked order of similar organizations (Bitektine, 2011). From these comparisons, the theory of judgment suggests that in highly institutionalized environments, sociopolitical legitimacy would be the preferred form of judgment while status judgment would be preferred in highly uncertain environments (Bitektine, 2011).

Transnational entrepreneurship

Transnational entrepreneurship has become one of the pathways that immigrants use to settle and integrate into the host society's labor market, and contribute to the social, economic, cultural and institutional development of their countries of origin and residence (Nkrumah, 2018; Vereb & Ferreira, 2018). Transnational entrepreneurship is defined as immigrant or ethnic entrepreneurs who migrate from their home country to another country while maintaining business ties with both countries (Brzozowski et al., 2017; Rogerson & Mushawemhuka, 2015; Sommer & Gamper, 2018). Such migrants use their skills, professional experiences and transnational ties to start ventures, bridge resources, and be active in two or more nations, making them beneficiaries to entrepreneurship related externalities (Dheer, 2018). In particular, this form of entrepreneurship leverages the knowledge of culture, language, networks, and the ability to function in two different business environments, referred to as bifocality, as a competitive advantage (Gangadhar & Manohar, 2015; Lin & Tao, 2012).

Transnational entrepreneurs are bicultural people (Liu, 2017) who have a set of unique skills and specific information that local entrepreneurs do not have (Vereb & Ferreira, 2018) and who leverage two or more socially embedded environments. Business activities are conducted in both home and host countries, which involves geographical focus, frequent travel abroad and a wider range of business operations (Sequeira et al., 2017). Importantly, commercialization of the business opportunity occurs across different institutional settings (Rogerson & Mushawemhuka, 2015). Transnational entrepreneurship involves internalization of more than one set of cultural schemas (Liu, 2017), openness to new opportunities in dual business contexts (Radulov & Shymanskyi, 2014), and leverage of social networks from home countries to establish ventures in host countries (Lin & Tao, 2012). Therefore, these entrepreneurs are typically better qualified, more experienced and secure immigrants (Rogerson & Mushawemhuka, 2015).

Rising political turbulence, violent internal conflicts, and economic disruptions have become a push for immigration and a driver for transnational practices. Revolutionary improvements in communication and transportation systems allow easy, affordable, and fast connectivity across geographical borders and continents to be major supporting elements for transnational growth (Radulov & Shymanskyi, 2014). Further, Lundberg and Rehnfors (2018) found that business-favorable institutional environment facilitates and encourages transnational entrepreneurship. Similarly, transnational entrepreneurship is also facilitated by favorable immigration policies of host countries. For instance, Canada has become a favorite destination for immigrants, and more importantly, transnational entrepreneurs, as its immigration policy favors the business class and the economic class that comprise skilled professionals, entrepreneurs and investors (Statistics Canada 2018; Nkrumah, 2018).

Transnationals, legitimacy and distinctiveness

Previous literature has suggested that transnationals not only face challenges in obtaining necessary resources to innovate and become distinctive, but also in establishing legitimacy in the target country (Moghaddam et al., 2018). Studies on transnationals highlight the importance of personal profiles, institutions, and networks for success (Santamaria-Alvarez et al., 2018; Sommer & Gamper, 2018), because success has been associated with the transnational entrepreneur's personal characteristics, available social support, and the quality of their products and services (Sequeira et al., 2017). Transnationals need endorsement to overcome the lack of legitimacy, and receiving endorsements from non-ethnic social networks is more instrumental than the ones from ethnic ties (Moghaddam et al., 2018). That said, transnational entrepreneurs' higher degree of embeddedness in the network and community activities of both the immigrant community and the home country will provide legitimacy for the firm (Sequeira et al., 2017). However, academic knowledge is sparse on how entrepreneurs use claims to build legitimate distinctiveness.

METHOD

Overall design

We used a two-phase research process to understand how transnationals use arguments to gain legitimacy in the eyes of stakeholders. The first phase involved the collection of claims (narratives) from the websites of 20 selected Nigerian-Canadian transnationals representing various industries. The claims were centered on who these companies say they are and do, and were classified by argument type using van Werven et al. (2015) typology to identify how firms are able to gain legitimacy and distinctiveness through a linguistic focus. The second phase involved an online survey among a panel of reviewers to gain their perspective on the legitimacy and distinctiveness of the companies. The results from the survey were compared with the argument claims, and ranking, clustering and regression analyses were performed.

The survey questions were drawn from the legitimacy and distinctiveness literature. The sampling population, selected via convenience sampling, were college or university graduates. Reviewers were selected from 10 different nationalities. The questionnaire included demographic information, i.e., age, gender, nationality, and level of education. While some of the survey questions were open-ended, others used a five-point Likert scale from 1 (Poor) to 5 (Excellent). The survey contained questions related to whether the respondent was familiar with the website; how well the website describes what the company does as a business (distinctiveness); how trusted the company is in terms of who they say they are (legitimacy). The respondents were also asked about their overall perception of the company based on the website.

Data collection

Data in the first phase comprised claims collected from the websites of 20 Nigerian-Canadian transnationals representing different industries. The selection criteria for transnationals included: 1) active business presence in Nigeria and Canada and/or firm being managed by a Nigerian entrepreneur(s); 2) live company website; 3) serving a wide range of consumers rather than a narrowly-defined group; 4) seemingly strong network in Nigeria (home country) that enables them to establish business in Canada (host country); 5) being in a developmental phase that most likely requires investor funding to grow; and 6) the transnational entrepreneur(s) reflecting professional skills in their chosen business fields.

Collection of claims was achieved by systematically reading the website texts, specifically "mission statement" and "about us" sections to identify who the companies say they are and what they say they do in terms of cross-border business opportunities. Previous research argues that mission statements help a firm present itself favorably to the public, particularly to customers as well as identify and respond to various stakeholders (Rajasekar, 2013; David et al., 2014). We then classified the discovered claims and connected them to one or more of the argument types using van Werven et al. (2015) typology.

The second phase involved a review panel. Previous research has suggested the use of review panels and simple surveys for assessing website quality (Hasan & Abuelrub, 2011; Hasan, 2014). Thus, we surveyed a panel of 20 individuals selected by convenience sampling. 45% of them were males and 55% were females. 25% were between the age of 18 – 24, 55% between 25 – 32, 10% between 33 – 40, and 10% above 40. A total of 45% had a college or undergraduate degree while 55% held a master's degree. Reviewers resided in Canada and represented 10 nationalities: 25% Canadians, 15% Indians, 25% Nigerians, 5% Jordanian, 5% Gambian, 5% Armenian, 5% Columbian, 5% Ivorian, 5% Ghanaian, and 5% Brazilian. All reviewers had sufficient English language proficiency in accordance with Canadian visa requirements, thus making them eligible to review the websites written in English.

The purpose of the survey was twofold: 1) to understand the reviewers' perception of each transnational through the firm's websites, and 2) to compare review panel's feedback with claims presented on the websites (cf. phase 1). The 20 websites were first split randomly into 5 sets of 4 firms each. Each panelist was asked to review one set (4 companies). Hence, the full data set consists of 80 reviews, as each company was reviewed by 4 individual members of the review panel. The feedback received from the website reviews helped to measure the panel's perception of the companies on two dimensions: legitimacy "who they are" and distinctiveness "what they do". The feedback also helped in ranking and clustering the companies based

on these two dimensions. Further, the results from the survey from the review panel are compared with the results from the classified claims.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data from the first phase were analyzed by categorizing the claims based on different argument types: analogy, generalization, classification, cause, sign and authority (van Werven et al., 2015). Data from the second phase was analyzed in two ways: 1) Ranking: an overall assessment of the companies based on the means of reviews, and 2) Clustering: categorization of companies based on their ranking. For ranking, the 20 companies were placed on a scale from 1(Low) to 5 (High) legitimacy and distinctiveness based on the feedback from the review panel. This quantitative analysis helped us distinguish transnationals with high legitimacy and distinctiveness from those that had medium and low levels of legitimate distinctiveness. For clustering, the means of the values generated from the review panel on legitimacy and distinctiveness were charted and subsequently clustered. A linear regression analysis was also performed to help illustrate and explain the relationship between legitimacy and distinctiveness for the investigated companies.

RESULTS

Research conducted on the primary data brought about a classification of claims made on transnational enterprises' websites in terms of "who they are" and "what they do". The classified claims were connected with the argument types described in the literature. To collect claims, company websites were perused to extract the main narratives in diverse sections of the web pages. The classified claims helped us to discuss the legitimacy and distinctiveness of each company. Table 2 gives a detailed report of this research.

Table 2. Classification of website claims by argument types

Company/Claims	Analogy	Generalization	Classification	Cause	Sign	Authority
Topron	√		√			
Zenithcleaners	√		√		√	
Newtradex	√		√			
Masgloballogistics	√		√			
Mosaic African Foods	√		√			
Iwajay Consulting	√	√	√		√	
IBH Consulting	√		√			√
Maple Education	√		√		√	
International Learning Network	√		√		√	
EECH	√		√	√		
Topaz	√		√	√		√
EWC	√		√		√	
EIC	√		√			
Morgan Consultancy	√		√		√	√
Intellipharmaceutics	√	√	√	√	√	√
Flexfinity	√		√	√		
CanadaNigeria	√		√			
Moaf Consulting	√		√			√
Jed Solicitors	√		√		√	
MyChopChop	√		√			

RESULTS

The survey data collected from the review panel members resulted in the ranking and categorization of the companies to determine 1) overall assessment of companies and 2) legitimacy and distinctiveness of companies. For the overall assessment, the values obtained from individual reviewers regarding legitimacy and distinctiveness (scale from 1 through 5) were added up and the mean of the total values was

taken to determine the ranking of each company. Seven transnationals had overall assessment ranging from 4.0 – 4.8, and we considered them as representing a high level of legitimate distinctiveness. Further, 12 companies ranked between 3.0 – 3.9, and were seen as an average level of legitimate distinctiveness. Lastly, one company was ranked at 2.4, which is clearly lower than the others and refers to a poor level of legitimate distinctiveness. The results suggest that most (14) of the reviewed 20 firms were ranked in the category of 'average' whereas only a few (5) were high and just a single company performed poorly.

Thereafter, the values obtained from individual reviewers on legitimacy were added up separately from the values obtained from distinctiveness (See Table 3). The mean of each of the total values was taken and used as co-ordinates in a chart to categorize the companies on legitimacy and distinctiveness dimensions. This effort was performed to illustrate the relationship of legitimacy and distinctiveness in the legitimate distinctiveness of each transnational. In other words, we investigated whether legitimacy and distinctiveness were correlated as expected on the basis of the literature, and if there were any companies that ranked high only on one dimension, i.e. reflecting only legitimacy or distinctiveness but not the other.

Table 3. Legitimacy and distinctiveness means

Companies	Legitimacy	Distinctiveness	Compagnies	Legitimacy	Distinctiveness
Topron	2.8	3.5	EEII	4.5	4.5
Zenithcleaners	4	4	Moaf Consulting	3.8	4
Mosaicafrican	2	2.8	IBH Consulting	3.8	4.5
Morgan Consulting	4	4	NewTradex	3.5	3.8
Masgloballogistics	3.5	4	Intellipharmaceutics	4.3	4.5
Iwajay	3	3.5	EIC	3	4.5
Jed Solicitors	3.3	3.5	ILN	3.3	3.8
Mychopchop	4.5	4.8	CanadaNigeria	2.8	3.5
Maple Education	3.3	3.5	EWC	3.8	3.8
Topaz Consulting	3.3	3.3	Flexfinity	4.8	4.8

Next, we used the values in Table 3 to illustrate correlations between legitimacy and distinctiveness. Figure 1 reveals different categories of legitimate distinctiveness among the investigated companies.

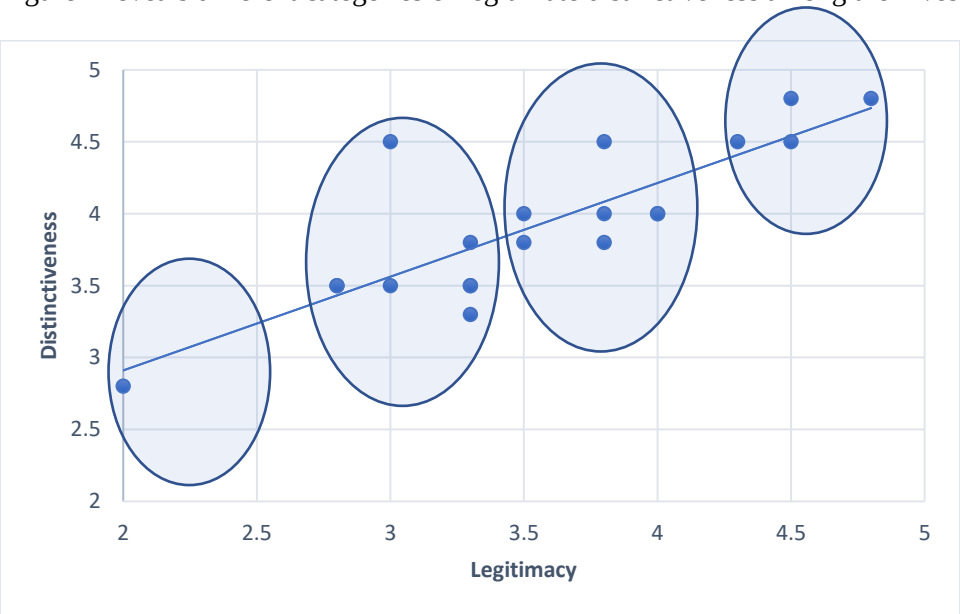

Figure 1. Categorization of companies using means as coordinates

A clustering method was used in Figure 1 to categorize the 20 companies into 4 clusters. Cluster 1 is grouped as a single firm on the far left of the chart. Cluster 2 follows immediately after cluster 1 and is represented by a group of firms indicating legitimacy values from 2.8 to 3.3. Cluster 3 includes firms with legitimacy values from 3.3 to 4, and Cluster 4 comprises values from 3.8 to 4.8. The characteristics of the transnational within each cluster can be explained using the textual feedback from our review panel.

Cluster 1

The only company in this cluster is MosaicAfricanFoods. Reviewers found this website look dated and raised cybersecurity concerns. The website was considered poor in describing the company's products, and it lacked customer reviews and social media links. This company lacks credibility with reviewers.

Cluster 2

Companies in this cluster include Topron, Jed Solicitors, Iwajay Consulting, Maple Education, Topaz Consulting, Newtradex, ILN, and CanadaNigeria. They were considered low in credibility and inadequately legitimate because 1) websites appeared basic and unprofessional with poor user interface; 2) information on many of the websites was quite dense and unappealing; 3) there was a lack of images and videos to substitute for the wordiness on the websites; 4) reviewers attributed the lack of credibility of the companies to the weakness or absence of endorsements and testimonials that could support the claims; 5) there was a need for better affiliations for some of the companies.

Cluster 3

Companies in this cluster are: Zenithcleaners, Morgan consulting, Masgloballogistics, Moaf Consulting, and EWC. They were regarded as credible because of their professional website design and their ability to succinctly describe the products and services. Further, the companies were applauded for their relevance on social media as well as their positive reviews and testimonials. Nevertheless, some of the websites were still seen to require improvements to enhance their legitimacy and distinctiveness.

Cluster 4

Companies in this cluster: Mychopchop, EEII, Intellipharmaceutics, Flexfinity, IBH Consulting, and EIC. Cluster 4 consists of highly legitimate companies representing varied industries. Although their websites were not perfect, reviewers rated them as the best amongst others. Their websites displayed high professionalism in terms of content and design, along with unique features that presented them as highly credible to viewers. Reviewers noted that some of these companies are well-established and publicly listed. Regardless, reviewers mentioned a few inadequacies. Companies in this cluster were seen to have few shortcomings related to those in clusters 2 and 3, but reviewers overlooked the shortcomings and ranked the firms as top-stellar because these companies are outstanding in a majority of significant areas.

Linear Regression for Legitimacy and Distinctiveness

The linear regression in Figure 1 illustrates a clear and positive relationship between legitimacy and distinctiveness, not empirically demonstrated in prior research. This relationship is supported by a high R^2 value of 0.689. The linear regression suggests that legitimacy and distinctiveness are correlated. This finding is supported by literature on legitimate distinctiveness, according to which firms that share similarity with other organizations within the same institutional environment, but concurrently differ from those organizations are found to perform well organizational productivity, return on assets, and product innovation (Norman et al., 2007; Tan et al., 2013). Navis and Glynn (2011) hold that founders of new ventures have a higher chance of receiving favorable judgment from stakeholders when their venture proposals consist of both legitimating and distinctive claims in meaningful ways.

The clustering method provides more information on the available data than the ranking method. Thus, it is beneficial to analyze transnationals' legitimate distinctiveness through their website by using either the two research methods or only the clustering method.

DISCUSSION

This research explored the concept of legitimacy and distinctiveness of transnational firms by investigating claims published on the websites of selected Nigerian-Canadian transnationals. We classified transnationals' claims by six argument types using van Werven et al. (2015) typology: analogy,

generalization, classification, cause, sign, and authority. More importantly, we featured a ranking and clustering method as a unique process for analyzing our survey data. Further, a linear regression model provided clear evidence of a positive correlation between legitimacy and distinctiveness.

Based on the findings, we identify the following factors that affect audience perception of a transnational's legitimate distinctiveness from the company's website, further described below: 1) Professionalism of website design, 2) Relevance on social media, 3) Apt description of products/services, 4) Endorsements, customer reviews and testimonials, 5) Presence of images and videos, 6) Word concision, and 7) Cybersecurity concerns.

Website design*:* A website's first impression is everything, and entrepreneurs could lose prospective customers due to bad design (Bacic, 2013). Apart from the role of website's appearance for legitimacy and distinctiveness, prior research on website quality has emphasized the importance of content and design quality in users' perceptions of a business (Hasan & Abuelrub, 2011) and their effects on perceived information quality of the website (Carlos & Rodrigues, 2012). The company in cluster 1 had poor evaluation feedback partly because its website is old and uninviting. More importantly, reviewers found the poor image of the website to be a reason for cybersecurity concerns. This notion is supported by previous research that has examined the connection between website design quality and security (Wang et al., 2001). Companies in cluster 2 were ranked average for a number of reasons, one of which was the unprofessional and basic appearance of their website. However, companies in clusters 3 and 4 were ranked high in legitimacy mainly due to their professional and outstanding website design. Without a doubt, a company's website design affects its legitimate distinctiveness evaluation.

Social media relevance*:* Considering the impact of social media in today's marketing and advertising, reviewers were keen on seeing how relevant the surveyed companies are on social media. Nalevanko (2017) refers to social media as a tool for researchers to achieve a richer understanding of legitimating processes in a digital world. The company in Cluster 1 was deficient on this point because it lacked social media links on its website. Cluster 3 companies were particularly commended in this area as reviewers found them to be actively engaged with their online audience.

Product description*:* The importance of clearly articulating what a company does as a business in terms of how the product/service responds to customers' needs has an impact on legitimacy evaluation (Pollack et al., 2012). To attract and win customers, entrepreneurs must provide adequate description of their offering. Indeed, previous research has found a positive link between information on the website and perceived product quality (Carlos & Rodrigues, 2012). Reviewers were unimpressed by the poor product description of the firm in Cluster 1, which is why reviewers ranked the company low in legitimate distinctiveness. Cluster 3 companies were distinguished by their ability to provide succinct yet adequate description of their products and services, which earned them a stronger evaluation.

Endorsements, customer reviews and testimonials*:* Reviewers were interested in what previous customers had said about the companies. They found endorsements, customer reviews and testimonials vital for a firm to earn audience trust. Lack of customer reviews was one of the key points that influenced the low ranking of the company in Cluster 1. Reviewers identified Cluster 2 companies to be deficient in this aspect as well. Being relevant on social media made it easier for firms in Cluster 3 to receive customer reviews and testimonials. Clearly, they were ranked highly as a result of the positive reviews on their website. Since legitimacy begets legitimacy, founders of new transnationals could leverage certain personal characteristics that stakeholder value, such as significant professional experience and possessing diverse skillset, to claim legitimate distinctiveness (De Clerq & Voronov, 2011).

Cybersecurity concerns*:* The security of websites was underemphasized by the reviewers. This may be due to the fact that, as the literature suggests, the impact of digital security remains invisible until something undesirable happens (Austin & Darby, 2003). That said, cybersecurity was identified for two companies in this study: a company in Cluster 1 and a company in Cluster 2. Reviewers expressed concerns about how old and unmaintained these company websites were.

Word concision*:* Research shows that a good narrative increases a new venture's chances of survival (Aldrich, 1999). Given that we examined claims made on transnationals' websites, it is imperative for firms to understand that legitimate distinctiveness is not only determined by what claims they make but

rather, how meaningful yet concise the claims are presented. Reviewers observed that the information on some of the company websites was quite lengthy, dense and boring and could be condensed and supplemented with videos and images. Although the impact of word concision on the surveyed websites was not as pronounced as other factors identified by reviewers, this factor contributed to reasons why Cluster 2 companies were ranked low.

Theoretical Implications

According to prior literature, claiming cognitive legitimacy by analogy is generally available for entrepreneurs who make incremental changes to a business concept (van Werven et al., 2015). Likewise, the availability of generalized conclusions, i.e. argument by classification, is abundant for incremental newness. However, a degree of distinctiveness is needed for entrepreneurs to gain competitive advantage from similar businesses within their market category (Carayannopoulos, 2009). In the same manner, the 20 companies examined in this research have grounds to claim legitimacy by analogy and classification due to their incremental novel business concept. However, only a few of these firms were able to make distinctiveness claims in areas other than bifocality (Nigeria-Canada) that is common to them all. Thus,

R1: *New transnationals with incremental business concept could improve on legitimate distinctiveness claims by stressing distinctiveness in other important areas aside bifocality.*

The literature states that entrepreneurs have a broader repertoire of arguments to claim legitimate distinctiveness (Perelman, 2008; van Werven et al., 2015). Apart from the well-known argument by analogy, five other argument types proposed by van Werven et al. (2015) can be used for legitimate distinctiveness claims: generalization, cause, sign, classification, and authority. Our study shows that several of our selected companies only focused on analogy and classification arguments to make claims. However, we discovered that the few companies meaningfully using different argument types in addition to analogy and classification had more grounds to claim legitimate distinctiveness.

R2: *New transnationals would have more grounds to claim legitimate distinctiveness by meaningfully exploring more argument types as options to make claims.*

In this study, reviewers highlighted the significance of customer reviews, testimonials, and endorsements for companies to influence audience perception of their business. Previous research has found that entrepreneurs can develop direct credibility by making mention of particular personal qualities that are positively evaluated by stakeholders (van Werven et al., 2015). The qualities include professional/management experience and diverse skillset (De Clerq & Voronov, 2011; Tornikowski & Newbert, 2007; Packalen, 2007).

R3: *New transnationals could improve on legitimate distinctiveness claims by emphasizing on personal qualities (professional experience and diverse skillset) to substitute for customer reviews and testimonials.*

A venture may build up stocks of legitimacy as a result of previous organizational achievement or the positive reputation of its resource providers at a past developmental stage (Fisher et al., 2016). Also, strong media presentation enhances the credibility and identity of a firm (Gioia et al., 2013). Our study highlights that although companies in Cluster 4 were not perfect, they shared characteristics that earned them a high ranking by reviewers. While one of the companies in Cluster 4 was distinguished by being well-established and publicly listed, others had outstanding and professional website content and design. Consequently, these firms can leverage their websites' strengths to win the hearts of reviewers.

R4: *New transnationals could improve on legitimate distinctiveness by demonstrating excellence in value communication, e.g. designing an outstanding and cyber-secured website, being relevant on social media, and providing an apt product/service description.*

Managerial Implications

Our research carries important implications for transnational entrepreneurs. The linear regression model clearly shows a positive relationship and dependency between legitimacy and distinctiveness, which by inference leads to company performance on a variety of measures. Thus, entrepreneurs should aim to balance legitimacy and distinctiveness in their narratives to avoid falling behind on a stated dimension.

New transnationals could partner or affiliate with highly established organizations as a form of endorsement to counteract for their lack of customer reviews and testimonials. Having affiliates would help to increase a transnational's online visibility and its public awareness which, in turn, would help to increase their website traffic and enhance their legitimate distinctiveness.

Transnationals should work towards creating high efficiency businesses that is reflected in the professionalism of their website design, content and functionality. For instance, transnationals should aim to provide a positive customer experience by ensuring the efficiency and ease of access of all web resources and links, and updated information.

Transnationals could keep ahead of competitors by building mobile friendly and quick loading websites that would make their business/website accessible to everyone regardless of devices used. In turn, this would help attract more users and enhance the legitimate distinctiveness of the transnationals.

Social media is another essential medium through which transnationals could promote their business. By leveraging social media, transnational entrepreneurs could easily connect with customers so they can share content and actively engage with them. This would lead to a better understanding of customer needs and preferences and build positive customer relationships that will help grow a transnational's network, customer base, leading to increased business performance.

Transnationals should focus on presenting concrete and realistic value propositions in narratives to sell to a diverse population. They should ensure that they are sending their intended audience the right message. Also, they could make use of images and videos to replace unnecessary wordy texts. This way, they could more effortlessly captivate their audience's attention. Similarly, transnational entrepreneurs should limit the use of jargons or overly technical terms that could create a barrier with their audience. Rather, their business claims should be presented in a concise, understandable and effective manner.

Lastly, transnational entrepreneurs should pay close attention to cybersecurity and ensure that their websites are not tampered with. Therefore, transnationals should be proactive in testing digital systems for potential vulnerabilities by ensuring that their websites are updated and well-maintained.

Limitations and Future Research

The research conducted in this study towards improving transnational claims on legitimate distinctiveness is still in its infancy. The idea of claiming legitimate distinctiveness using five additional argument types besides analogy is a relatively new concept recently incorporated into the literature. Hence, our study has some limitations that might restrict its generalizability but opens future lines of inquiry. A key limitation is the small data set, which on the one hand helped shape the assessment process but on the other hand, a larger data set, along with a more extensive survey, may provide more statistically significant results.

Future research may select a narrower focus by exploring transnationals at a similar developmental stage, or in specific fields such as high tech, or transnationals with radical business concepts, and from other geographical areas. Further, platforms other than websites may be used to evaluate the legitimate distinctiveness of transnationals. Similarly, the role of affiliates in driving traffic to websites, and its potential effects on legitimate distinctiveness of transnationals could be explored. These limitations point to opportunities to further advance the concepts of legitimacy and distinctiveness of transnationals.

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THE MAKING OF INNOVATIVE ENTREPRENEURS IN BUSINESS SCHOOLS: LESSONS FROM A RESOURCE CONSTRAINED ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT

Nurturing innovation has become a central rather than peripheral focus of entrepreneurship education in most Business Schools in the West. Yet the link between pedagogy and innovative entrepreneurship is under-explored. Using case study approach this study explores experiential pedagogy - teaching practices consistent with experiential learning theory- in a Business School in a developing country. The finding shows that the use of experiential pedagogical methods stimulates innovation learning outcomes. Specifically, student business start-up and use of practitioners strongly inspire students attitude and affinity for innovative entrepreneurship. The contributions to entrepreneurship education theory and implications for practice are discussed.
Keywords: Innovative entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial intention, entrepreneurship education, experiential pedagogy

INTRODUCTION

Innovation capabilities are in high demand because innovative entrepreneurs [1] commercialize inventions, create new products, processes and services, or transmute value of products and services (Baumol, 2010). For this reason, some business schools are attempting to reposition capability to innovate as a "central rather than peripheral focus" of entrepreneurship education (Mayhew et al., 2016). Scholars are interested in understanding how entrepreneurship education, specifically, and business schools, generally, inspire innovative entrepreneurs (Muñoz et al., 2019; McClure, 2016). Although various theoretical lenses have been used to explore the peculiarities of entrepreneurship education and how these peculiarities influence various outcomes such as entrepreneurial intention (Rauch and Hulsink, 2015) and behavior (Gielnik et al., 2015), surprisingly, there is a paucity of conceptual and empirical work targeted at understanding whether pedagogy inspires aspirations for entrepreneurship in general and innovative entrepreneurship in particular (Mayhew et al., 2012; Mayhew et al., 2016).

In particular, little is known about whether certain pedagogical methods in a resource constrained environment may inspire innovative entrepreneurship given the evidence that experiential pedagogical methods are potentially viable means of promoting and sustaining learning outcomes than traditional lecture-based pedagogy (Arranz et al., 2017). This paper attempts to address this gap by posing the question: How does pedagogy relate to innovative entrepreneurship in a resource constrained environment?

Recent works relevant to this question focus upon two aspects which are considered to be important. The first aspect is the role of experiential pedagogy in developing competences that may shape cognitive ability to identify opportunities for innovation (Arranz et al., 2017; Barbera et al., 2015; Gielnik et al., 2015).

[1] For this study, innovation is an economic or social rather than a technical term. This means that the term innovative entrepreneurship is not limited to creation of new products processes or services, but also creating new markets for products, processes and services; changing the yield of resources; or as changing the value and satisfaction obtained from resources by the consumer (adapted from Drucker, 1985, p. 33). Innovative entrepreneurs purposefully search for changes, and in the systematic analysis of the opportunities such changes might offer for economic or social innovation (Drucker, 1985, p. 35).

Grounded on experiential learning theory, I define *experiential pedagogy*[2] as teaching practices that engage students within and outside the classroom to learn by experimentation and reflection in order to draw conclusions on alternative ways to act. The other aspect is the role of stakeholders such as administrators and entrepreneurship educators in nurturing aspirations for innovative entrepreneurship (McClure, 2016).

Although compelling, the experiential pedagogy thesis has received limited empirical testing to conclude that it has links to innovative entrepreneurship. In particular it is not known which specific pedagogical methods enable intentions for innovative entrepreneurship.

I report the findings of an in-depth case study of experiential pedagogy applied in entrepreneurship education application at one Nigerian Private University with a dedicated Entrepreneurship Development Center and business school. The findings reported are a set of propositions explaining the links between experiential pedagogical methods and innovative aspirations and behaviors. The evidence suggests that experiential pedagogy involves the practice-oriented curriculum delivered by engaged-faculty who create dynamic and challenging learning environments as well as co-curricular activities that provide out-of-classroom learning experiences. Second, experiential pedagogy transforms students attitude and perceived feasibility of innovation. Finally, experiential pedagogy triggers innovative aspirations and supports innovative behaviors. The empirical grounding of those ideas is the subject of this article.

The purpose of this study is not to provide a curriculum for teaching but rather to explore experiential pedagogy in an environment with institutional voids, and to unpack its links to innovative aspirations, shedding light on how business schools in developing countries can raise their chances of inspiring innovative entrepreneurs. I hope that this study contributes theoretically to a deeper understanding of how business schools can nurture innovative entrepreneurship and the role of experiential pedagogy in the process.

The following section provides an overview of the literature on innovative entrepreneurship and higher education. After a detailed description of the research method and case, I present the findings in two categories: Curriculum and pedagogy and Outcomes. The article concludes with a summary of my findings and their implications for entrepreneurship education and business schools.

INNOVATIVE ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND HIGHER EDUCATION

> *Innovation is the specific tool of entrepreneurs, the means by which they exploit change as an opportunity for a different business or a different service. It is ... capable of being learned, capable of being practiced.*
> *(Drucker, 1985, p. 19)*

Rather than imitate prevailing practices and existing routines, innovative entrepreneurs question "the rules of the game," founding firms that exhibit novelty and act differently from others. Innovative entrepreneurs *create* new products, processes and services, commercialize inventions or transmute value (Cliff et al., 2006; Drucker, 1985) either through new start-ups or within existing firms. Put differently, innovative entrepreneurship takes various forms including product to market innovations, technological processes innovations and novel organizational designs. In short, innovation is essential for differentiation in a competitive business world and the innovative entrepreneur is the central figure in the innovation process.

Since the field of innovative entrepreneurship is budding, advocates for linking entrepreneurship education to innovation make the argument that "education and training […] play a key role in the innovation arms race that is essential to sustain economic growth in any economy" (Baumol et al., 2007, p., 268). Business firms cannot succeed "unless their managers and workers have the skills necessary to

[2] Other authors describe this method of teaching and learning as active learning, collaborative learning, engaged learning. However, the author argues that the term experiential pedagogy is most appropriate since all other terminologies implicitly acknowledge that such learning methods are grounded in experiential learning theory

generate innovations or, at the very least, to recognize and purchase the rights to innovations developed by others" (Baumol et al., 2007, p., 268-269). These possible consequences of innovation are why it is important to study the origins of innovative entrepreneurs in business schools. Within entrepreneurship education research, innovative entrepreneurship "is associated with a *desire to continually advance ideas*, whether on one's own or in collaboration with others" (Mayhew et al., 2016, p. 423). From Drucker's standpoint, innovative entrepreneurship begins with the recognition of innovative opportunities and a conscious plan to exploit them. This is what is referred to as innovative intention in this article. Innovative intention, as Ajzen (1985) posit, is an antecedent of innovative entrepreneurship. Innovative entrepreneurship, as with any planned behavior, is hard to observe and involves "unpredictable time lags" (Souitaris et al., 2007, p. 568). The focus of this study, therefore, is to explore whether experiential pedagogy inspires innovative intention. Thus, for this study it is only necessary that individuals develop innovative aspirations. This conceptualization is consistent with Mayhew et al. (2016); Mayhew et al. (2012).

Groups/Training Period	Focus Group Members ID	Age	Gender	Year	Entrepreneurial Kin
Focus Group 1/Ongoing	FG1A	17-19	M	2	Y
	FG1B		M	2	Y
	FG1C		M	2	Y
Focus Group 2/Ongoing	FG2A	18-25	F	2	N
	FG2B		F	2	Y
	FG2C		M	2	Y
Focus Group 3/Ongoing	FG3A	18-22	M	2	Y
	FG3B		F	2	Y
	FG3C		M	2	Y
	FG3D		F	2	Y
Focus Group 4 - Scrap Arts*/Completed	FG4A	18-22	M	3	N
	FG4B		M	3	Y
	FG4C		M	3	Y
Focus Group 5 - CDC*/Completed	FG5Q	18-22	M	3	Y
	FG5B		F	3	Y
	FG5C		M	3	Y

*Scrap Arts and CDCD are name of business started by students who completed the entrepreneurship course the previous year

Table 1 Characteristics of Focus Groups

However, there is a lack of consensus on the effects of education on innovative entrepreneurship. On the one hand, some studies suggest that higher education can positively influence the cultivation of innovative entrepreneurial intentions (Mayhew et al., 2016). On the other hand, some show that university students do not perceive higher education as having a direct influence on innovativeness (İlhan Ertuna and Gurel, 2011), and business creation (Arranz et al., 2017; Fayolle and Gailly, 2015). One aspect of this debate over the effect of higher education considered important relates to the role of curriculum and pedagogy. The debate over the role of curriculum and pedagogy points to the core of the question: how to train innovative entrepreneurs (Baumol et al., 2009). Some scholars suggest that curriculum and experiential pedagogy - those teaching practices within and outside the class consistent with experiential learning theory, can support

innovative outcomes and may help to train innovative entrepreneurs (Mayhew et al., 2016). Although, Arranz et al. (2017) find that out-of-class activities decrease capacity and intention to start a business. One can deduce that innovative intentions are complex, nuanced and varies based on, not only personal experiences of students such as entrepreneurial kin, but also curriculum and pedagogical – such as experiences with faculty and out-of-class experiences.

INNOVATION AND RESOURCE CONSTRAINED ENVIRONMENT

When juxtaposed against developed economies, developing economies, arguably, offers the opportunity of unpacking the innovative entrepreneurship links to entrepreneurship education pedagogy with minimal policy mixing effect. This is because compared to developed countries, developing countries, arguably, have weaker institutions and policies that can support innovation. Nigeria, for example, presents many opportunities and particular challenges to starting a business. The world bank ranks the country 146 out of 190 on the ease of doing business (Bank, 2018). Some of the challenges are institutional such as bureaucratic administrative structures that delay registering a business, securing relevant permits, registering property and enforcing contracts; customs controls that increase the time and cost of trading across borders; and difficulty to secure credit and the high-interest rates that come with it). Other challenges are infrastructural such as the unavailability of reliable electricity and good transport networks.

Based on Johns (2006) argument on the role of context in management research, it is plausible to expect the institutional and infrastructural challenges listed above to affect students attitudes, aspirations and behavior associated with entrepreneurship in general and innovative entrepreneurship in particular. On one hand, the challenges can dampen students aspirations for innovative entrepreneurship because as Liu (2011) notes, institutional voids may negatively influence innovation. On the other hand, as Liu (2011) notes, institutional voids can offer opportunities to create innovative business models. In either cases, a resource constrained business environment such as Nigeria offers the research opportunity for new perspectives on the innovative entrepreneurship – entrepreneurship education pedagogy relationship.

METHOD

This study adopts a single case-study approach in line with Yin (2013) recommendations. The decision to conduct a single case study was based on the necessity to gain deep understanding and convey in-depth insights about the understudied social setting. The setting is Pan Atlantic University, PAU - a private university in the south-western part of Nigeria. Thick description, of the social setting so unfamiliar to management and entrepreneurship education scholars, could only be achieved through complete immersion in a single case. Besides, considering the relative novelty of innovation as an outcome of entrepreneurship education, and the paucity of conceptual and empirical work link innovation to experiential pedagogy, I view the formulation of a priori hypothesis about the nature of the relationship between experiential pedagogy and innovation innovative aspirations and behaviors as premature.

Data was collected from September to December 2016. Following an interview with the top management, I conducted (semi-structured) telephone interviews with five focus groups. Each focus group consisted of 3-4 students. As shown in Table 1 all the groups have members with at least one entrepreneurial kin. Focus groups 4 and 5 comprise of students who have completed the course the previous academic year and the other three comprise of students who are currently undertaking the course. The groups were interviewed between week 6 to week 9 of the course. The interviews were quite extensive and ranged between 60 to 80 minutes. The students provided answers to interview questions concerning curriculum, teaching and learning practices (practical activities, use of practitioners and case studies, interactions with faculty, group discussions and assessments), facilities (both on and off campus) that may affect how they perceive entrepreneurship, and their aspirations after their program.

Other sources of qualitative data include entrepreneurship course curriculum, websites, records and media reports such as university magazines, bulletins, annual reports collected during the site visits, or published by the university, archival materials and media reports published by official organizations linked to higher education and entrepreneurship development within Nigeria.

Besides qualitative data collected, quantitative data was collected at the beginning and end of the course to assess whether there were changes in the behavioral exceptions associated with innovation aspirations. At the end of the course, students were asked to list the kind of businesses they aspire to create in the future. To assess the innovativeness potential of their aspiration, I asked students to peer-evaluate the ideas by rating them on a scale of 1-10: where 1 is "*not innovative*" and 10 means "*very innovative.*"

Once a detailed case study of PAU was developed the data was examined to extract and to articulate the dominant themes, pedagogical practices and their impact on students. The next section presents the findings and discussion.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The main objective of this study is to explore the links between experiential pedagogy and innovative entrepreneurship in a resource control setting by examining the effectiveness of experiential pedagogy applied in entrepreneurship education in a developing country. This objective is in line with the research question: How does experiential pedagogy relate to innovative entrepreneurship? The study is based on a private university in Nigeria where students undertake practice-oriented entrepreneurship education. The discussion of the data structure behind experiential pedagogy (shown in Figure 1) and the outcomes regarding innovative aspirations (shown in Figure 2) are presented below.

Pan-Atlantic University

Pan-Atlantic University has a student population of 757 and a student to staff ratio of 11:1 (PAU, 2017). Their aim is to empower students with skills for the global marketplace. A practice-oriented entrepreneurship course (curriculum and pedagogy) is part of their strategy to achieve their aim of empowering students is the use of guest speakers and practitioners in the classrooms, in what they refer to as Real Learning.

The course utilizes practice-oriented pedagogy with active, collaborative and participative learning philosophies such as the use of case studies and collaborative group work. Accordingly, guest speakers, some of whom are practicing entrepreneurs and directors and CEOs of multinational companies are often used in the classroom as part of what they refer to as Real Learning. For instance, the Managing Director of Coca-Cola Nigeria Limited, visited PAU in 2016 to give a seminar on business leadership to the students of the School of Business Administration during one of their entrepreneurship classes.

All second-year students are required to complete the entrepreneurship course over first and second semesters. The average class size is 40. From week 1 to 14 the course covers theoretical knowledge about entrepreneurship through topics including idea recognition/creation, innovation, creativity, market research, capital, business start-up, sales e.t.c. From week 16 to 29, students form and work in groups of six to ten members. Each group is given a seed capital of approximately $250. They are expected to register their business, open a bank account, mobilize additional funds and run the business throughout the semester. In week 30 all business participates in a one-day exposition which is opened to the general public. At the end of the semester, the business will be officially liquidated, the seed capital returned to Entrepreneurship Development Center (a center within the university dedicated to the development of graduate entrepreneurship) and the profit donated to a charity of their choice or used to improve the community around the University. Groups are expected to break even, at least, and to return the seed capital. As part of the course, a report is submitted by each group focusing on how they have been able to use entrepreneurial principles learned in the first semester. More importantly, the report expects them to reflect upon their actions and describe what they have learned during their entrepreneurial journey.

Curriculum and Pedagogy

Scholars suggest that dynamic curricular components should include negotiation and leadership (McMullan and Long, 1987; Vesper and Gartner, 1997); sources of capital (Vesper and Gartner, 1997); and out of class activities (co-curricular opportunities) (Mayhew et al., 2012). Most of the curricular components and pedagogical methods of entrepreneurship education at PAU are consistent with the suggestions. Perhaps one of the most important curricular components, especially relevant in developing countries, is *bootstrapping* — starting a business with little capital. This is relevant more so because access to capital is one of the major challenges of start-ups in developing countries such as Nigeria (Bank, 2018). To explain the impact, a student stated that through the bootstrapping activity they learned "FG3B: *how to pitch well [and] to generate funds*" through various means including crowdfunding and pitching to investors.

Students gave examples of teaching practices, as shown in Table 2, that are consistent with experiential pedagogical methods suggested in literature (shown in Table 3). One of the teaching practices that students reported to be valuable is business startup. At PAU, student teams are offered seed capital of about $250 to start a business as part of the entrepreneurship course. At the end of the course, they showcase their businesses during a one-day exposition for members of the public to see and interact. At the time of writing, one of the groups who showcased their business at the exhibition in 2016 still trades. When asked about their thoughts on business start-up exercise, one of the students explains the impact this way:

> *"*FG5C*: ... in the course of doing [business start-up] we found out some things, learned new things, and we [...] found out that there can be much profit in [the] business if we played the cards right. It [...] helped us to experience what we were [...] taught in class: the importance of market research for example [...] we saw that the market research that we did not do properly could affect business performance."*

90% of the students in all five focus groups used the term experience when describing the impact business start-up activity had on them. One past student of the entrepreneurship course explains the impact of business start-up activity as follows:

> "FG4A*: ...we had to put ourselves in the shoes of entrepreneurs, understand the pains of being an entrepreneur, experience the challenges, try to overcome them, try to make sure that we make a profit and meet target and deadline. So [...] that was the most experiential.*"

By experiential, the students imply opportunities for experimentation. Experimentation is a cardinal of experiential learning theory. Experimentation relates to putting knowledge into practice. Experiential pedagogical methods that are consistent with experimentation include the following: business plan exercise case study analysis, group discussion, use of practitioners as guest speakers in class and out of classroom experiences such as student business start-up (Neck et al., 2014; Mayhew et al., 2012). However, student business start-up is considered as a more experiential pedagogical method than other listed because it provides the opportunity for more extensive practical experiences, reflection, and skills acquisition (Bae et al., 2014). Consistent with this submission, all the participants interviewed for this study described the start-up activity as the most exciting part of the course. Perhaps the expression of satisfaction might help to explain why all participants of this study find the course interesting despite being compulsory. One of the current students who were yet to participate in start-up activity stated:

> *"FG3C: Business start-up is going to be a huge avenue for us because we are going to experience [entrepreneurship] in real life. We are going to see how we can manage, our grant of $250 and how we are going to create value, [...] how we can acquire a competitive edge. So I think practicalizing it is going to be the icing on the cake. I really feel that starting up will really just put all of the entrepreneurship course in one. [...] they have taught us*

about pitching your ideas, working in groups, legal aspect everything we have learned so far, all those come together in the business start-up."

This finding is consistent with Neck and Greene (2011) who state that student start-up is arguably the highest form of apprenticeship that can be included in an entrepreneurship course. Start-up activities give students the opportunity to experiment their business ideas and reflect on the outcomes and ways to improve on them However, more may be at work here. Start up activities provide opportunities to *learn by*

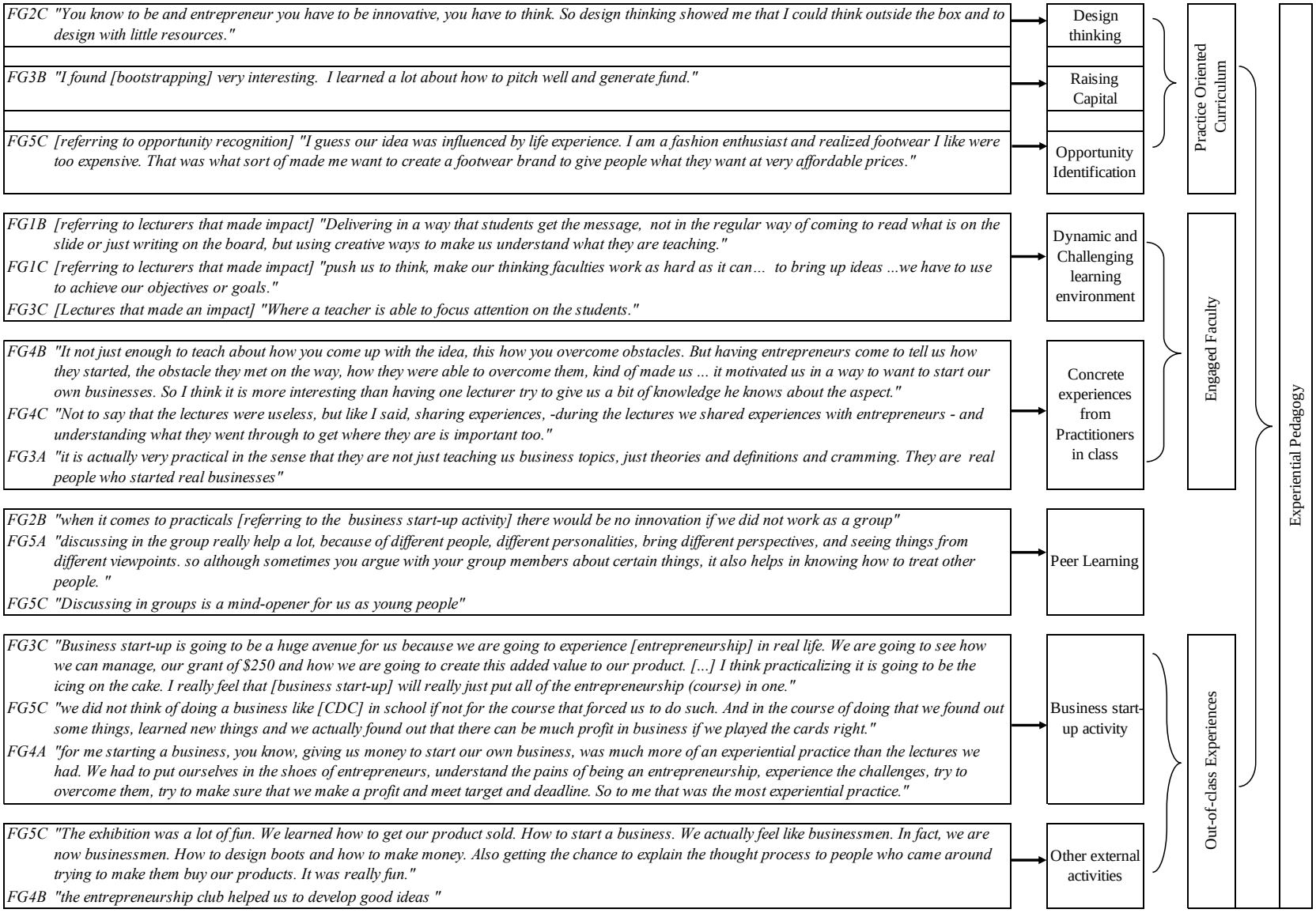

Figure 1 Data structure Behind Experiential Pedagogy

doing which may lead to the emergence of practical (tacit) knowledge. Practical knowledge is invaluable for two reasons. First, it is affected by an individual's concerns about their context and environment. Thus, practical knowledge is *person- and context-bound* as it is adapted to a local context which includes opportunities and challenges that may vary considerably across countries. Second, it is, mainly, implicit or tacit knowledge. One may not be used to articulating their practical knowledge: they are more in a "doing" environment than in a "knowing" environment.

In addition to practical knowledge, the practical experiences gained from startup activities help students to develop high self-efficacy (Ajzen, 1985). Self-efficacy (which influences perceived behavioral control) is an essential antecedent of intention for entrepreneurship (Autio et al., 2001; Peterman and Kennedy, 2003). One can conclude, therefore, that business start-up activities influence students' aspirations for entrepreneurship.

Besides start-up activities, the use of practitioners in class is considered an important pedagogy that may help inspire students and raise aspirations for innovative entrepreneurship (Souitaris et al., 2007). At PAU, practitioners deliver 50% of the curriculum for the entrepreneurship course. Students found lectures delivered by practicing entrepreneurs to be "more valuable because [they shared examples from] what they experience in their daily operations." Some students used terms such as *motivated* and *inspired* (e.g., "FG2B: *[we were] inspired in a way to want to start our own businesses")* to describe the feelings triggered by practicing entrepreneurs. In other words, practicing entrepreneurs inspire students. One student describes the impact of a lecture delivered by the chief executive officer of an animation company in Lagos, Nigeria:

> *"*FG1C*: Before the class, we did not think there was an animation company in Nigeria because most of the cartoons we watch were [Western characters]. They are not Nigerian content. [...] we were surprised, happy and inspired. Her company had this particular project [...] with Adidas. I was like, a Nigeria company doing, collaborating with [...] one of the top [...] brands in the world was amazing and really impressive. [It] gave us greater idea of what we could do [and] a different perspective of what we think about innovation."*

In this statement, the student describes a spark of inspiration following a workshop delivered by a practitioner. As Souitaris et al. (2007) note, inspiration (a construct with an emotional element) is an influential benefit of entrepreneurship education. The findings suggest that inspiration raises attitudes and intentions which increases the likelihood that students will attempt innovative entrepreneurship at some point in their lives. All the participants interviewed for this study expressed a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship course and were very satisfied despite the compulsory element. To emphasize this point one student states: "Fg4A: *for me, if we did not do [this] entrepreneurship course, [...] I would have been sad. Doing a course like this opens your mind to other ideas that also relates to your career path in some way; it exposed me to a lot of possibilities.*"

On the whole, the findings discussed indicate that on average, experiential pedagogy (business start-up and practitioner guest speakers) stimulates entrepreneurial aspirations and increases the chances that a student will start their own business. The findings are similar to the result of National Survey of Student Engagement that experiential pedagogy has a high impact on students learning and retention (Kuh, 2008). However, it contradicts Arranz et al. (2017) which find that out-of-class activities decrease the capacity to start a business. One explanation for the positive response to entrepreneurship education is that the students may have *apriori* interest in entrepreneurship because of their entrepreneurial kin(s).

Based on the proceeding discussion, I propose

> *Proposition 1: Experiential pedagogy will raise the aspiration of students for entrepreneurship*

Students quotes	Corresponding pedagogy
"use real–life cases or real–life situations." "based on real–life situations, things that have happened. [...] a way of bringing real life to the classroom."	Case studies
"real people who started real businesses"	Practitioners are lecturers and guest speakers
"adopting new age technologies. It's [...] a more interactive kind of method"	Videos & films, blogs & social media, and online web-based assignments
"practical ways of how [theories are] actually applied in real life"	Business start-ups, internships, and field trips

Table 2 Students Examples of Experiential Pedagogy

Experiential Pedagogical Practices	Reference
Student business start-ups	Hills 1988
Traineeships and field learning	Dilts and Fowler 1999
Behavioral simulations	Stumpf et al. 1991
Computer simulations	Brawer 1997
Consultation with practicing entrepreneurs	Klatt 1988
Interviews with entrepreneurs,	Solomon et al. 2002
Live cases Guest Speakers and Mentors	Gartner and Vesper 1994; Souitaris et al. 2007
Environmental scans	Solomon et al. 2002
Business plans	Gartner and Vesper 1994; Hills 1988
Field trips	Klatt 1988
Use of video and films	Klatt 1988
Cases	Gartner and Vesper 1994
Class Discussion	Katz 1995

Table 3 Examples of Experiential Pedagogy

Outcome

The findings affirm that experiential pedagogy can support aspirations for innovative entrepreneurship. First, students' comments suggest an evolution in their understanding of innovation through the entrepreneurship course. A student, for example, described the impact of the entrepreneurship course on their innovation mindset as follows:

> *"FG3C: I thought that innovation was [about] bringing new products into the market. But, now I know it is more than just that. It is also about the way you bring the product to the market; even it is an ordinary product. The way you start - bootstrapping, crowdfunding, the process of starting [...] so innovation includes how you bring your product to the market. That is what I also learned so far in the entrepreneurship course."*

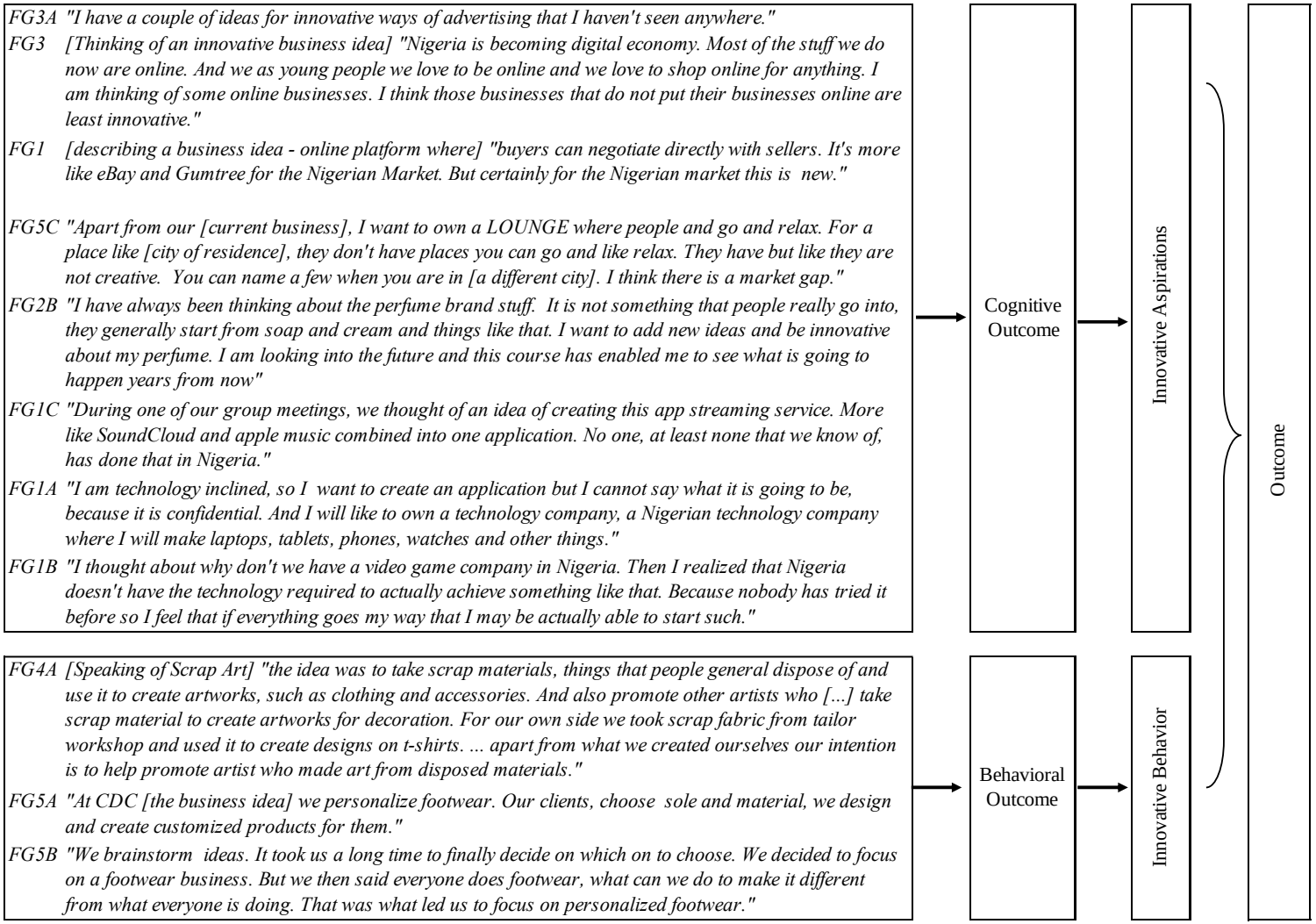

Figure 2 Data Structure Behind Outcome - Innovative Aspirations

Implicit in this statement is the notion that innovation in entrepreneurship is not only about commercializing new products but also about transmuting the value of existing products. This point is consistent with Drucker (1985) argument regarding the nature of innovation and indicates the development of innovation mindset.

More specifically, there is evidence of the emergence of aspirations for innovative entrepreneurship. The following quotes demonstrate this point:

> *"FG3A: I have a couple of ideas for innovative ways of advertising that I haven't seen anywhere."*

> *"FG1A: I still have the same goals and targets and objectives, but the course has taught me how to achieve them in better ways.[...] and I will like to own a technology company, a Nigerian technology company where I will make laptops, tablets, phones, watches and other things."*

> *"FG1B: I thought about [...] a video game company in Nigeria. When I thought about it I realized that Nigeria doesn't have the technology required to actually achieve something like that [...] because nobody has tried it before so I feel that if everything goes my way I may be actually able to start such [a company]."*

These expressions are consistent with the notion that innovative entrepreneurship is not just about bringing new products and services to the market but also transmuting value. One example of this transmutation of value involves focus group 5 which comprise past students of entrepreneurship course who created a business named Scrap Metal. As one of the members of this group stated,

> *"FG4A: the idea was to take scrap materials, things that people generally dispose of and use it to create artworks, such as clothing and accessories. And also promote other artists who [...] take scrap material to create artworks for decoration. [...] we took scrap fabric from tailor workshop and used it to create designs on t-shirts. ... apart from what we created ourselves our intention is to help promote artists who made art from disposed materials."*

The student here expresses transmutation of value by transforming scrap materials — "*things that people generally dispose of*" to more valuable products "such as clothing and accessories" that customers are willing to pay for. The activities of this group are consistent with Drucker (1985) definition of innovation and, I submit, an example of innovative entrepreneurship. Notably, student colleagues described the products of Scrap Metal as creative and innovative. At the time of writing, the business is still in operation.

Besides the evidence from qualitative data, the results of quantitative data show that (a) the behavioral expectation to start a business within 5 years of graduation increased from 55% (at the start of the course) to 59% at the end of the course which implies stronger conviction for entrepreneurial career (b) Peer-evaluation of students business ideas at the end of the course shows that the average score of the innovativeness of potential behavior was 6.8. This score implies that students aspirations were 68% innovative. As peer evaluation can be considered highly accurate (Grant, 2017) the score of 68% can be considered a significant indication that a potential entrepreneurial venture will be innovative.

Triangulating the qualitative and quantitative data, one can argue, the results indicate that students are 59% likely to start their own business in the future after completing the entrepreneurship course and that such a business has a 68% chance of being innovative.

Drawing on the evidence discussed above which shows the effects of experiential pedagogy and the emergence of innovative aspirations, I propose that

> *Proposition 2: Experiential pedagogy raises innovative aspirations and increases the likelihood of innovative entrepreneurship*

CONCLUSIONS

The primary motivation of this article is to investigate how experiential pedagogy applied in entrepreneurship education in a resource control setting links to innovative entrepreneurship. In the main, the results from a resource constrained environment, show that experiential pedagogical methods such as business start-up can inspire aspirations for entrepreneurship, in general, and innovative entrepreneurship in particular. Experiential pedagogical methods provide the opportunity for experimentation and reflection which enhances not only understanding of entrepreneurship process from ideation to venture creation but also inspires attitude, perceived feasibility, innovation mindset, and affinity for an entrepreneurial career. The findings have several theoretical and practical implications.

First, this article contributes to innovative entrepreneurship theory by providing evidence that experiential pedagogy is linked to innovative entrepreneurship. The findings are consistent with Mayhew et al. (2016) by showing that out-of-classroom activities such as business student start up can inspire innovative intentions because it an avenue to juxtapose the theoretical with the practical, the hypothetical with the pragmatic, the problem with the solution. My study extends Mayhew et al. (2016) by providing evidence of innovative entrepreneurial activities that can be traced to experiential pedagogical practices applied in entrepreneurship education. In other words, this study provides evidence that innovative entrepreneurs can be nurtured in business schools when experiential pedagogy is applied in entrepreneurship education. The evidence is encouraging for scholars who are interested to gain knowledge about how higher education can influence innovative entrepreneurship (Mayhew et al., 2012; Baumol et al., 2009). However, the findings here contradict Arranz et al. (2017) which find that out-of-class activities decrease the capacity to start a business. One explanation for this difference may be due to the application of business start up which is considered a highly experiential pedagogy (Neck et al., 2014).

Second, the study contributes to Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory by providing evidence of the effects of pedagogical practices underpinned by experiential learning theory from a developing country context. The ethos of experiential learning is that *learning by doing* is the best way to learn (Kolb, 1984). Scholars have emphasized that learning should be active, practical as well as theoretical not just passive and theoretical (Gielnik et al., 2015; Rauch and Hulsink, 2015). Based on experiential learning theory, active and practical learning methods such as out of class experiences provide opportunities to transform experiences into knowledge. From Kolb (1984) standpoint, such learning occurs by applying theories (action) and reflecting on the experiences from various perspectives (reflection). In this way, Arranz et al. (2017) suggest that experiential pedagogy may promote innovative outcomes. Such practices inspire students' intent to innovate (Mayhew et al., 2012). This study confirms that experiential pedagogical methods promote higher learning outcomes related to innovation (Neck et al., 2014).

Furthermore, in line with Souitaris et al. (2007) the results of this study confirm that using practitioners as educators is useful because it inspires students to change their attitude and confidence for entrepreneurship. This study echoes the remarks of Arranz et al. (2017) that entrepreneurship educators should be, to some extent, entrepreneurs. Such educators draw from real-life experiences when teaching. Students perceive this teaching method highly inspiring because it breaks down the boundaries between the university and the outside world. A point can be made about the importance of synergy between curriculum and teaching practices to achieve experiential pedagogy given the evidence of the central role of practitioners and business start-up activities. Curriculum, for example, should make provision for the use of practitioners in class, student start-up exercises, and collaborative learning practices.

To some extent, this study progresses an understanding of how context affects organizational behavior (Johns, 2006). Johns (2006) argues that management researchers should highlight the effects of context in their studies. This study finds that Business Schools contextualize entrepreneurship curriculum and pedagogy to compensate constraints created by institutional voids within their context (Johns, 2006). This finding is important as it shows that entrepreneurship education is not acontextual. Rather, the potential is maximized when the curriculum and pedagogy are contextualized.

Moreover, the evidence in this study may be encouraging for policymakers in Nigeria and other developing countries who advocate for compulsory entrepreneurship education as part of a broader strategy to meet economic challenges such as unemployment and sustain economic growth. Since experiential pedagogical methods can nurture innovative aspirations which the most appropriate antecedent of innovative entrepreneurship, more investment should be made in experiential pedagogy. Innovative entrepreneurs *create* new things (or bring new things to the market). At its extreme, innovative entrepreneurs commercialize inventions (Baumol et al., 2009) and can be disruptive forces that sustain economic growth.

For educators, this study confirms that innovation can result from pedagogical practices oriented towards action and based on student engagement. In this sense, Decramer et al. (2012) point out that activities for developing real business ideas, as well as creating mixed of students to work together in small groups toward a common goal are key elements for the emergence of innovative aspirations.

To sum up, as Arranz et al. (2017) note, curriculum and pedagogy need to incorporate teamwork to improve critical- thinking, workshops delivered by practicing entrepreneurs to inspire positive attitude and confidence, and business start activities to allow students to maximize the development of innovative ideas. In particular, the use of practicing entrepreneurs and business start-up activities in entrepreneurship education can certainly contribute to the development of innovative entrepreneurs.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There are three main limitations to this study. First, the background of students in private and public universities may vary significantly, and therefore the outcomes of entrepreneurship education may vary across both university-types. PAU is a private university that attracts students from upper middle-class and upper-class income families. The experiences of students from such backgrounds may be different from the population of students in public universities across the country regarding aspirations and class sizes. For instance, it is possible that because of their background, some private university students have been exposed to technologies and innovation that enables them to connect the dots (Shane and Venkataraman 2000) and develop innovative intentions.

Second, relates to the issues of class size. The class size of PAU (40) is significantly small compared to that of a public university in Nigeria with an average class size of 500 students. This difference in the class size reasonably amplifies the challenges of embedding experiential pedagogy in large lectures. Investigating how experiential pedagogy manifests in such large class size might help to unpick more nuances in embedding experiential pedagogy in large lectures (Dean and Wright 2016).

Third, the replicability of PAU's pedagogy. PAU was selected for this study in part because they are the only university known at the time of this writing, that provides seed capital of $250 for student start-up activity as part of the entrepreneurship course. Owing to financial constraints, the replicability of their pedagogy across public universities is open to debate.

Based on these three issues, therefore, care should be taken when interpreting the results of this study. To improve generalizability, future studies should adopt quantitative research approach to investigate a) how experiential pedagogy manifests in public universities; b) whether experiential pedagogy proposed in the model elicit the same results in students across public and private university; c) whether the compulsory element of the entrepreneurship courses affect students across public and private university differently.

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Part 2
Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management

A MIXED-METHOD STUDY OF PERSONALITY TRAITS ASSOCIATED WITH FAHLAWA BEHAVIORS IN THE EGYPTIAN WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) are emerging as an important research topic and have important implications for the organizations and its members. CWB are studied in developed countries ignoring developing countries. This paper aims to study fahlawa as form of CWB as a way of coping to stressful situation in workplace. This study was conducted in Egypt as a developing country in Africa. The aim of the study is to analyze the personality traits of fahlawa personality type. Mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative were used in this study. Qualitative analysis was used to extract personality traits of *fahlawa* personality from social media content and focus groups. Quantitative analysis was conducted by running exploratory factor analysis for the extracted traits. Results showed that there are three traits of *fahlawa* personality type are versatility, pseudo-compassion, and Machiavellianism.
Keywords: *Counterproductive work behaviors, Fahlawa, Egypt, Personality traits.*

INTRODUCTION

Counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) have recently emerged as an important research topic in industrial and organizational psychology. Research has found that CWBs have important implications for the well-being of organizations and their members (Bowling and Eschlemen, 2010). It has been well documented that CWB are damaging to organizations. Litzky, Eddleston, and Kidder (2006) estimate that CWBs result in losses of $20 billion every year and account for 30 percent of all business failures. Providing more understanding of CWBs may help organizations overcome these problems and thus, make them more successful. Given the prevalence of CWB, along with the possible economic and psychological effects, this is an important area of research for both practitioners and academics (Penney & Spector, 2005).

Moreover, most of CWB researches are conducted in developing western countries that may not be generalized to developing countries. Spector and Fox (2005) stated that the predictors of CWB are both individual differences and situational factors. It has been suggested that context affects how employees behave and can cause them to react with negative behaviors (Spector & Jex, 1998). Accordingly, some CWB are context specific and may not be identified in the literature.

This study extends the literature of CWB to include the concept of *fahlawa* as a form of CWB. A poll showed that there was an increase in the percentage of those who see *fahlawa* as a widespread phenomenon that rose from 37% in 2011 poll to 48% in 2017. The aim of this study is to extend the literature of CWB to include researches in developing countries specifically Egypt as an African country. Bakir (2009) mentioned that *fahlawa* needs to be studied. Although some Egyptian researches have studied *fahlawa* in areas as politics (Shehata, 2000), history (El-Shammaa, 2007), and education (Salem, 2013); the personality traits of person performing those behaviors has not been studied. *Fahlawa* need to be studied academically in terms of personality traits of the person adopting those behaviors. Accordingly, the research question is what are the personality traits of *fahlawa* person?

This paper discusses Counterproductive Work Behaviors in terms of definition, types, consequences, and discuss how *fahlawa* is related to CWB. Afterwards, explaining the research gap, methodology that includes both qualitative and quantitative analysis. Finally, explaining results in terms of personality traits extracted and the personality type of *fahlawa*, discussion, and conclusion.

THEORITICAL BACKGROUND

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

In this section, CWB literature will be reviewed to provide more explanation of *fahlawa* behaviors and how they are linked to CWB. Robinson & Bennett (1995) defined CWB as voluntary behavior that violates organizational norms that threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both. Spector et al. (2006, 2010), and Spector (2011) added that counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) as a volitional behavior that harms or intends to harm organizations or people in organizations. These behaviors are generally regarded as unethical or cause a threat to the well-being of organizations and their members (Cullen & Sackett, 2003; Cohen et al. 2013).

There is a difference between counterproductive behaviors from counter productivity; the latter is the tangible outcome of counterproductive behavior. Counterproductive behavior is one of one of dimensions of performance reflecting behaviors rather than outcomes. For example, employees can violate the safety procedures and this is considered as form of CWB that may not result in injuries which is the outcomes. If an injury or an error occurs it is considered counter productivity (Cullen & Sackett, 2003; Cohen et al., 2013). Cullen and Sackett (2003) mentioned that there are two types of CWB: initiated and reactive. Initiated CWBs behaviors are performed to satisfy some need or motive. Individuals perform those behaviors to satisfy a motive such as pleasure, greed, risk taking, or attention seeking. Reactive CWBs are performed by the individual in response to some actual or perceived organizational event. In these cases, the behavior is engaged in to satisfy a motive such as retaliation, revenge, release, or escape. Employees engage in CWBs as a way of coping (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Krischer, Penney, & Hunter, 2010).

Types of CWB

CWBs encompass a broad number of categories of behaviors. Several models were developed to classify different CWB in organizations. According to Robinson and Bennett (1995), CWB can be distinguished along two dimensions: harmfulness of the act (serious/minor) and the basis of the target (against the individuals (CWB-I)/ organization (CWB-O)). Serious behaviors include sabotaging equipment and assaulting a colleague, while more minor incidents include leaving work early or gossiping with coworkers (Mazzola & Kessler, 2012). CWB-I, is interpersonally oriented and may include acts of aggression toward fellow co-workers, such as verbal insults and withholding information from others. CWB-O, is oriented toward the organization and may manifest from minor behaviors such as taking excessive breaks, working on a personal matter instead of working for the employer, or stealing organizational property (Fida, Paciello, Tramontano, Fontaine, Barbaranelli, & Farnese, 2015; Zhou, Meier, & Spector, 2014; Marcus, Taylor, Hastings, Sturm, & Weigelt, 2016).

Gruys and Sackett (2003) sorted behaviors in the literature into eleven categories: theft and related behavior, destruction of property, misuse of information (e.g. revealing confidential information, falsify records), misuse of time and resources (e.g. waste time, alter time card, conduct, personal business during work time), unsafe behavior, poor attendance, poor-quality work by intentionally working slow or sloppy work, alcohol use, drug use, inappropriate verbal actions (e.g. argue with customers, verbally harass coworkers), inappropriate physical actions (e.g. physically attack coworkers, physical sexual advances toward coworker) (Cullen and Sackett, 2003; Mazzola and Kessler, 2012; Marcus et al., 2016).

Spector et al. (2006) distinguish between CWBs by identifying five dimensions: abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. Abuse refers to harmful behaviors directed toward others that harm the person either physically or psychologically. Production deviance refers to the intentional failure to complete aspects of the job properly. Sabotage refers to when employees destroy property that belongs to the organization. Theft refers to when an employee steals materials from the organization or a coworker, and withdrawal when an employee works fewer hours than required by the organization (Mazzola & Kessler, 2012).

Antecedents of CWB

A great amount of research has been carried out to uncover external and internal antecedents of CWB. Spector and Fox (2005) reviewed the predictors of CWB and concluded that it is determined by both individual differences and situational factors. It has been suggested that stressful events and

conditions at work can cause employees to react with negative behaviors (Spector & Jex, 1998), and that perception of workplace stressors can lead to engaging in CWB (Cullen & Sackett, 2003; Zhou et al., 2014).

Previous studies on CWB focused on different situations or conditions that are, at least potentially, mighty stressors such includes workload (Penney & Spector, 2005; Bowling & Eschlemen, 2010), organizational constraints (Spector et al., 2006), unmanaged conflicts, and lack of autonomy and support (Fida et al., 2015). Interpersonal conflict at work is among the most frequently reported job stressors and is one of the strongest known predictors of CWB (Spector et al., 2006, 2010). Zhou et al. (2014) and Fida et al. (2015) mentioned that organizational stressors such as organizational constraints and interpersonal conflict are associated with CWB.

Work stressors are not the only potential predictors of CWBs. Indeed, several CWB studies have examined the role of employee personality traits on CWB. Personality helps to explain why different people react to the same external triggers in different ways (e.g., either with withdrawal or aggression) (Marcus et al., 2016). Bowling and Eschleman (2010) mentioned that people with certain levels of personality traits tend to engage in different coping responses and will engage in CWB.

The five-factor model has been widely used in CWB literature (e.g.: Cullen and Sackett, 2003, Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Krischer, Penney, and Hunter, 2010). Conscientiousness, agreeableness, and negative affectivity were all negatively related with CWB-O and CWB-P (Bowling & Eschlemen, 2010; Zhou et al., 2014). For example, individuals with low level of conscientiousness tend to respond to interpersonal conflict by engaging in CWB. Other personality traits have been examined for their association with CWB and include self-control (Marcus & Schuler, 2004), emotional stability (Cullen and Sakett, 2003), and narcissism (Penney & Spector, 2002).

Few researchers have explored two-way interactions among personality traits in predicting CWB (e.g., Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Penney & Spector, 2002, 2005). Those researches suggest that the tendency to engage in CWB not only depends on one single personality trait, but also on the interactions between them (Zhou et al., 2014). Research showed that high agreeableness means more cooperative employees, high conscientiousness employees are more responsible and cautious, and high emotional stability means that employee is less likely to engage in CWB (Zhou et al., 2014). It is important to determine personality traits of individuals performing *fahlawa* behaviors as *fahlawa* behaviors include different behavior dimensions.

Consequences of CWB

CWBs have important implications for the well-being of organizations and their members (Bowling & Eschlemen, 2010). Although behaviors violating organizational and social norms in the short time may meet some organizational goals, on the long term, these behaviors are costly and even threaten organizations' survival (Fida et al., 2015). CWB is an increasingly pervasive and costly phenomenon and has an impact on organizations in terms of loss of productivity, damage of property, increased turnover and absenteeism, and threatening the organization and its members' well-being (Fox et al., 2001; Penney & Spector, 2005). In the United States, 95% of organizations in the United States experience employee theft and fraud costing approximately $50 billion annually (An et al., 2016). Furthermore, CWB has a wide variety of negative psychological and behavioral consequences such as reduction of employee morale, higher absenteeism and turnover rates, and lower productivity levels (An et al., 2016). Studies have estimated that CWBs not only cost organizations but they have negative consequences for employees as well. For instance, being the target of CWB can lead to decreased job satisfaction and increased stress, and intentions to quit (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012).

Fahlawa as CWB

In this research, *Fahlawa* is defined as a multi-dimensional construct that explains coping behaviors to stressful situations in the workplace with objective of reaching goals and gaining benefits with least effort regardless of the quality. Some of those behaviors are counterproductive behavior and are based on claiming knowledge and abilities. Those employees are not having the necessary capabilities to perform certain functions or specific roles and the employee claim having those potentials or abilities. The main aim of those behaviors is to reach the goals and objectives with the minimum effort regardless of the quality of the outcome. *Fahlawa* is considered as a reactive CWB as it is a response to stressful situations in the workplace. *Fahlawa* are behaviors to overcome the difficulty of life and to circumvent

difficult conditions. *Fahlawa* behaviors are used to get out of situations or solve problems by resorting to tricks and twisted ways. *Fahlawa* has major consequences on the workplace. *Fahlawa* is based on individuality which disrupts the teamwork. *Fahlawa* leads to inefficiency by performing the work in the shortest and most accessible ways at the expense of quality. Moreover, *fahlawa* leads to disruption of workplace environment by bullying, circumvention, and avoid complying with rules and circumventing them and access to benefits for a little effort.

Fahlawa Behaviors

As explained before the dimensions of CWB that were developed by Gruys and Sackett (2003) included eleven categories of CWB. As shown in Table 1 below, f*ahlawa* includes some of those behaviors. Moreover, f*ahlawa* involves behaviors as providing false information and claiming intelligence and knowledge by accruing benefits from minimal knowledge, experience or legal right in any given context(Hatata, 2013; Emam, 2016), giving personal views on any subject raised regardless of his knowledge or lack of knowledge of the subject (El-Mahdy, 2005). Also, shifting responsibilities by avoiding taking the responsibilities of decisions solely and cast them on other people or on circumstances other than him/herself (Abdel El-Rahman, 2016). Shifting conversations; maneuver and defend by changing the topic in the conversation or give justifications using personal reasons or on external factors (El-Toomy 2013; Hatata, 2013). Shifting timeframe of the work needed or task to be done by postponing deadline for tasks. Finally exploitation of others, using others to have personal gain and benefit using social skills and connections with others to finish tasks or solve problem.

Table 4
Application of Gruys and Sackett (2003) on *fahlawa* behaviors

Gruys and Sackett (2003)	***Fahlawa* behaviors**
Misuse of information	Feigning ignorance of information that others know and forging documents based on the idea of "no one will detect" or "no one is seeing".
Misuse of time and resource	Wasting working hours on personal issues (El Tokhy, 2013; Emara, 2014).
Poor attendance	Coming late to work or leaving early without reasons (El Tokhy, 2013).
Inappropriate verbal actions	Criticize others, complaining, and blaming others in any situation (Emara, 2014).
	Catching mistakes of others to escape from having the responsibility solely (Hatata, 2013).

Egyptian Context

The data collected from Egypt as one of the Middle East countries located in North Africa. Egypt's population reached around 98 million by the beginning of 2019 (CAMPAS, 2019). Egypt passed by major political changes that affected economy and investments in Egypt. During Nasser (1954-1970) presidency, the government was the main employer and job creator in the country. The industrial sector was operated and owned by the state (Amin, 2003; Budhwar & Mehalli, 2006). From the Sadat presidency (1970-1981), the "open door policy" was adopted to reduce the restrictions that existed in the private sector by giving more incentives to foreign investments. This program allowed the private sector's employees to provide job opportunities by transforming the ownership of public owned enterprises to private owners (Amin, 2003; Budhwar & Mehalli, 2006; Xiaoqi, 2012).

Nevertheless, the economy was trapped into the dilemmas of "three highs and one low": high deficit, high foreign debt, high inflation rate reaching 13 percent in April 2019 (Trading Economics, 2019), and low employment (Xiaoqi, 2012), high rates of unemployment with 8.1% in 2019 (Trading Economics, 2019). Egypt is ranked 120 among 190 economies in the ease of doing business according to the latest World Bank annual ratings in 2018. High level of corruption as Egypt scored 35 points out of 100 on the 2018 Corruption Perceptions Index reported by Transparency International. High levels of corruption facilitate performing CWB within organizations. This environment helps in motivating dysfunctional behaviors.

According to the World Bank (2019), poverty reached almost 30 percent of the population in 2018. Accordingly, the need to raise the standard of living and achieve social justice was the reason for uprising the revolution on January 25, 2011. All of the above factors affected business environment and Egyptian workplace and considered one of the challenges to achieve Sustainable Development Strategies (SDS) that aims to provide Egypt within 2030 with competitive, balanced, diversified and knowledge based economy, characterized by justice, increase social integration and participation.

STUDY 1 QUALITATIVE EXPLORATORY RESEARCH OF PERSONALITY TRAITS

Participants

According to Babbie (2005), one purpose of qualitative research is to explore and provide explanations rather than examine relationships. Creswell (2014) stated that data collection in qualitative research studies use four main techniques: interviews, audiovisual materials, observations, and archival documents. Qualitative research involves few participants who can share valuable information about the topic (Simon & Goes, 2011). This study collected detailed textual data by collecting archival documents and conducting focus groups. For the documents, online newspaper articles, and social media content (i.e.: Facebook posts) and analyzing audiovisual material (i.e.: YouTube videos) that discussed *fahlawa*.

Social media is changing the way people communicate (Aral, Dellaracas, & Godes, 2013). Social media is used as a source of providing information, expression of opinions, and civic participation that have increased especially after The Arab Spring in 2011 (Boulianne, 2015). I used social media in terms of Facebook posts, YouTube videos in this research as a source of data as both are among the top three websites worldwide (Alexa, 2014). Wilson, Gosling, and Graham (2012) mentioned that Facebook provides social scientists with an opportunity to study behaviors by data collection and observation.

Focus groups resembled semi-structured conversations in which predetermined questions were used. The sampling method was used is purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is about selecting participants from pre-defined group, precisely selected with a purpose in mind (Trochim, 2006). Purposive sampling enables the selection of right and well-experienced participants who can share rich information. This study consisted of 3 focus groups with MBA students approximately 27 participated in the focus groups working in Egyptian organizations as they are exposed to the workplace and the Egyptian context.

Data Collection and Analysis

In this study, data collection and analysis were done simultaneously. Data collection for both focus groups and documents stopped when data saturation took place. Creswell (2014) mentioned that categories (or themes) are saturated when gathering fresh data do not add new insights or ideas. Analysis of data was using NVivo 8. Data were collected from participants through three focus groups for this qualitative study. Participants of the study were volunteers and they were required to answer demographic questions. The focus groups lasted from 55 minutes to 70 minutes each. All focus groups were voice recorded and the interviewer took notes. Each focus group was transcribed into word file. During transcribing of the interviews, participants' names were not mentioned and random number was assigned to each participant has provided anonymity. A code was provided to each participant including participant number and the focus group number (e.g.: P1.1, P2.2, P3.3, and P4.3).

As for documents, data collection started with downloading YouTube videos and Facebook videos that mentioned *fahlawa* in arabic or English letters and was transcribed using voice recognition software. For Facebook posts, the search engine in Facebook was used to reach the public posts from 2004 till 6/2017 that mentioned *fahlawa* as a term in Arabic language and in English letters and was saved as a form of Pdf file. As for newspapers they were downloaded using Google search engine and saved till 2/2018 when data saturation was reached. The online newspapers included articles by experts in fields of sociology, psychology, politics that provided explanation to the phenomena. Documents collected were total of 150 Facebook post, 3 Facebook videos, 194 online newspaper articles, and 30 YouTube videos. There are 98 online newspaper articles that were irrelevant and excluded from the analysis. The focus group transcripts and documents were entered into the software.

An inductive content analysis performed from codes and categories that were generated by the researcher through the examination of the data (Krippendorff, 2004). Prior to coding process, the

transcripts were read through to provide an understanding of the phenomena. For this study, an inductive approach was used as the researcher examined data without any preconceived categories or ideas. The first step took the data and categorized it by creating nodes (open codes). Sub-nodes were created as part of the node and in this way hierarchy was created. As shown in table below, an example of codes that were developed and terms that were used to extract the traits.

Table 5
Coding example for Extracted Traits

Term	Trait
Deceive, maneuver, Convince	Mach
Avoid team work, alone, lack teamwork spirit	Individualistic
Low conscientiousness, not accountable, recklessness	Conscientiousness

RESULTS

From the emerged themes, there are twelve personality traits that were found describing *fahlawa* person: Conscientiousness, Machiavellianism, assertiveness, individualist, self-efficacy, narcissism, openness to experience, cynicism, locus of control, extrovert, agreeableness, and self-confidence. Conscientiousness is the tendency toward being dependable, disciplined, purposeful, organized, and achievement-oriented (Perrewe & Spector, 2002). This person is characterized by low conscientiousness as s/he doesn't take responsibility of tasks and try to do them in fastest and shortest way without following rules. This person depends on deception of others to accomplish tasks without effort.

Machiavellianism, according to Christie and Geis (1970), personality trait or dimension to classify people for several decades and can be explained in terms of manipulative and persuasive behavior to accomplish personal and organizational objectives (Ricks & Fraedrich, 1999).

Assertiveness is tendency to speak up for, defend, and act in the interest of themselves and their values, preferences, and goals. This person is having the ability of being super. Individualist persons give priority to their personal goals over the goals of their in-group. This person is having preference of personal interest on the public or group interest, lack of team spirit and abilities.

Self-efficacy is a person's belief that s/he is capable of performing a particular task successfully (LunenBurg, 2011). This person has the ability to accept any task or try to solve problem even if the person don't have the knowledge. Another trait is narcissism, as cited in Lau and Marsee (2013) that Raskin and Terry (1988) defined narcissism as individuals who have an exaggerated sense of grandiosity, superiority, entitlement, and self-worth, and an excessive need for admiration. *Fahlawa* person gives the impression to others being the smartest, most powerful, wise and skilled. This make him/her far from reality and unable to see mistakes, weaknesses and shortcomings.

Openness to experience is the tendency to be nonconforming, unconventional, imaginative, and creative and it has been associated with adaptability to change (Perrewe & Spector, 2002). *Fahlawa* get out of the problem faced by different solutions, even if it can cause some damage or using illegal methods. Also, has the desire to reach the goal in the shortest and fastest ways, and lack of recognition of natural paths. *Fahlawa* search for solutions by outside the box. Cynicism, this person has somewhat rebellious reaction against rules and system. This provides justification to violation of rules and regulations and to evade responsibility. This person hates rules and has a negative attitude toward the system, deny them, and view them as abusive. Also, the authority is denied by this person. As defined by Dean et al., (1998) that organizational cynicism is negative attitude toward the employer and it consists of three dimensions: belief, affect, and behavior. Believe that their organization lacks principles of fairness and integrity; affect having negative emotions toward employer. The third criteria are behavior that includes a strong criticism of organizations.

Internal Locus of control, this person believes in having the ability and power over events in their live. As defined by Rotter (1966) that internals tend to believe that they can control events. This person resist control and rules put by others, is able to be more responsive in situations, and able to affect the environment in terms of behaviors affecting workflow, tasks accomplishments, relationship with other, and procedures. Extrovert represents the tendency to be social, talkative, energetic, and active (Perrewe and Spector, 2002). This person uses communication skills and social networks to reach goals. This person has the ability to participate in any conversation and put himself on any subject as long as he

knows some basic vocabulary.

Agreeableness, Individuals scoring high on Agreeableness have the tendency to be trusting, caring, gentle, and even compliant (Perrewe and Spector, 2002). *Fahlawa* person in a team will be distributive to other members. This person will hide information of his tools of getting things done and will not show steps to others. This person lacks of respect for the word whether spoken or written. Also, in some situations he/she criticize others, complaints, and blaming others. Also, this person show high agreeableness to others by using sweet words to those who are higher in status or power (El Hoofy, 2008) or whom they can benefit from (El-Toomy 2013), and being social hypocrite (Kilani, 2016), it is tempting to help solve difficult problems (El Mahdy). Also, giving fake compliments intended to cover the situation and the real feelings. Self-confidence is a positive belief that one can generally accomplish what one wishes to do. Self-confidence is more specifically trust in one's ability to achieve some goal (Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen, 2002). This person is having high self-confidence.

STUDY 2 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSES OF EXTRACTED PERSONALITY TRAITS.

Sampling

This study consisted of 214 MBA students and employees working in Egyptian organizations. The sample included 40.7% female and 58.4% male. Average age is 32.04, 25% of the participants were less than 28 years and 25% were more than 35 years. The sampling method was used for this study is purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is about selecting participants from pre-defined group, precisely selected with a purpose in mind. Purposive sampling enables the selection of right and well-experienced participants who can share rich information. The reason for using purposive sampling is that employees and MBA students are exposed to the workplace and the Egyptian context.

Measures

A questionnaire was developed for the twelve extracted traits. Each trait was represented by one item showing behaviors associated with each trait. A pilot study was conducted on 33 participants and modifications were made to the wordings and structure of the questions. All items were measured on a five point scale that ranged from completely irrelevant (1) to completely relevant (5).

RESULTS

Data was analyzed using IBM-SPSS 24. According to Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy the sample size is adequate (.731) and according to Barlett test the sample is significant and factor analysis can be conducted. According to the scree plot and Table 1, the ideal number of traits using Eigen value is three components (eigen value >1). Three components capture 48.681% of the total variance of the twelve traits.

Table 6

Eigen Value, percentage of Variance, and Cumulative Percentage

Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	22.839	22.839	2.192	18.270	18.270
2	16.652	39.491	1.898	15.815	34.085
3	9.190	48.681	1.752	14.596	48.681

According to the rotated component matrix using Varimax as shown in Table 3 below, the structure of components can be as following. A factor loading of .4 or higher was used as a cut-off for assigning an item to a factor. No cross-loadings were detected. Table 3 shows the items and factor loadings. The first component includes: openness to experience, self-assertion, self-confidence, self-efficacy, and extrovert. The second component includes: agreeableness, conscientiousness, and locus of control. Finally, the third component includes Machiavellianism, narcissism, cynicism, and individualism.

Table 7

Scale Item Loading

	Components		
	Versatility	**Pseudo-Compassion**	**Machiavellianism**
Openness to experience	.520		
Assertiveness	.598		
Self confidence	.756		
Self-efficacy	.651		
Extrovert	.621		
Agreeableness		.617	
Locus of control		.698	
Conscientiousness		.679	
Cynicism			.514
Individualism			.656
Machiavellianism			.690
Narcissism			.632

DISSCUSION

In recent years, researchers have taken an interactionism approach to understand the impact of personality on behavior, in which the impact of an individual trait on behavior is likely to depend on other traits (Penney et al., 2011). For example, individuals with high conscientiousness and ES were having low emotional exhaustion (Perry *et al.*, 2007) found that emotional exhaustion was lowest among individuals high on both conscientiousness and Emotional stability. For case of *fahlawa* behaviors, they depend on three personality traits: individual versatility, pseudo-compassion, and Machiavellianism. The combination of traits provides this person with the ability to adapt to different work situations. *Fahlawa* is used to face the difficulty of life, overcome the difficulty of life and to circumvent situations, having great flexibility and ability to adapt quickly.

The first is individual versatility, in which this person has the ability to adapt or be adapted to many different functions or activities. According to Cambridge dictionary term versatility means that the quality of being versatile is being able to change easily or have different purposes. The noun *versatility* derives from the Latin word *versatilis*, meaning "turning, revolving, moving, and capable of turning to varied subjects or tasks." The second is the pseudo-compassion; compassion is showing kindness, caring, and willingness to help others, this person is shows high compassion. Agreeableness is likely to influence a workers ability to inhibit CWBs directed interpersonally (Zhou et al., 2014; Bowling & Eschlemen, 2010; Cullen & Sackett, 2003). This person show high agreeableness to others by using sweet words and compliments to those who are higher in status or power or whom they can benefit from, and being social hypocrite by giving fake compliments intended to cover the situation and the real feelings.

As for internal locus of control, this person can take responsibility of a task and perform it regardless of skills, method or the efficiency of the end results. Also, low conscientiousness by giving false promises and spends time on conversations regardless of his knowledge in the subject, talks more than doing or action taking, exploitation of other people and illegally obtaining things. Researches indicated that individuals with low conscientiousness tend to perform CWB (e.g.: Zhou et al., 2014; Bowling & Eschlemen; 2010; Cullen & Sackett, 2003; Penney et al., 2011). The third is the Machiavellianism (Mach) that includes four traits: Mach, narcissism, cynicism, and individualism. According to Christie and Geis (1970), Machiavellianism is a personality trait or dimension that can be explained in terms of manipulative and persuasive behavior to accomplish personal and organizational objectives (Ricks and Fraedrich, 1999). Individuals possessing those traits are prone to engaging in deception, lying, and betrayal (Zheng, 2017).

As mentioned in Zheng (2017), Dahling et al. (2008) argued that Machiavellianism is a complex set of characteristics that may include several dimensions, such as desire to control and distrust of others. The desire to control is a need to exercise dominance over interpersonal situations and distrust of others is being cynical on the motivations and intentions of others (Arli and Anandya, 2018). Desire to control is reflected in the narcissism trait, individuals who perform those bheaviors think that they are smarter than those around them, and rely on less information to show that s/he knows a lot and tries to convince others of what it is doing. Penney and Spector (2002) showed that those high on Narcissism were more reactive to the environment and are more likely to perform CWB.

Fahlawi like to dominate conversations and has the ability to quote the sentences and thoughts of others; participate in any dialogue and to put himself on any subject as long as he knows some basic vocabulary that helps him. Moreover, giving personal views on any subject raised regardless of his/her knowledge. Those individuals believe in the principle of the purpose justifies the means, involve in changing the right to false and false to right, bullying, and circumvention and lack of respect for the word whether spoken or written. As for the distrust of others, cynicism is one of the traits. *Fahlawi* person hates rules or to find someone telling what to do. Moreover, have negative attitude toward rules and system and viewing them as abusive. Accordingly, *fahlawa* lack of recognition of authority or presidency, and deny them. As a result, *fahlawa* get around rules and evade from responsibility. Also, it is supported by the Individualistic trait that they have protective behaviors are used to cover ways and methods of finishing tasks and avoid sharing information to others. The findings of this paper provide major contributions to CWB literature by extending the literature to include behaviors that exists in developing countries that were not identified before. Moreover, determining dimensions of *fahlawa* personality characteristics and uncovering important

aspect of this phenomenon that have not been covered by other researches. This paper use data from social media rather than other sources.

Implications

The study has theoretical implications. This study extends CWB literature to include researches in developing countries revealing more types. Empirical studies of *fahlawa* are ignored and this study marks an initial attempt to understand and conduct more studies on this phenomenon in management and organization field. As for practical implications, this study suggest involving personality tests to be included in selection processes and individuals scoring high in the mentioned traits are screened out of the organization as they are most likely to engage in CWB after they are recruited.

Limitations and Future research

This study has some limitations. First, the sample used for exploratory factor analysis is small and convenience sampling was used that is difficult to generalize recommending larger sample can be used in future research. The reliability and validity tests of the instrument were not conducted, suggesting checking them in future researches. Also, more researches can be conducted to study *fahlawa* behaviors with employee performance, employee satisfaction, and organization performance. Also, studying *fahlawa* with stress literature, other models of CWB (e.g.: Stressor- Emotion-CWB models). Various theories have consequently been proposed to explain the consistent relationship between work stressors and CWB, including the stressor-strain model (Penney & Spector, 2005), the transactional theory of stress and coping (An, Byajian, O'brien, 2016). Future research is recommended to examine the effect of national culture on predicting different CWB.

CONCLUSION

Developing countries may have different CWB. In this study *Fahlawa* behaviors in Egypt are related to counterproductive behaviors. Individuals performing *fahlawa* behaviors are having specific personality traits. More studies can be conducted in developing countries are required to discuss its effect on organization performance, individual performance, and workplace environment.

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THE EFFECT OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDE ON THE JOB PERFORMANCE OF WOMEN IN ACADEMIA IN HIGHER POWER DISTANCE CULTURES: THE MODERATING ROLE OF SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION

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ABSTRACT

This study examined students' attitudes towards female senior members in Higher Education Ghana. The study also considered whether Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) moderates the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance. The study employed mixed method approach. Ghanaian graduate students and female senior members were sampled for the study. A total of 330 valid questionnaires was used for the quantitative survey analysis and 12 recorded and transcribed data were used for the qualitative analysis. Findings showed that students have positive attitudes towards female senior members. Findings further revealed that SDO does not influence the positive relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance.

Keyword: Social dominance, Senior members, Students, Females, University.

INTRODUCTION

Extant research shows that social inequality has persisted among groups in communities, and has been attributed to social orientations to gender differences (Adams, Steward, Morrison and Farquhar, 1991). This notion appears to be relatively subtle, culturally and situationally normal to male-female differences with respect to contextual endorsement to social dominance orientation (Sidanius, Pratto & Bobo, 1994). Accordingly, women in most cultures are seen as disadvantaged and inferior to males throughout human history (World Bank Group, 2010). In fact, societies across the world seem to be dominated by men because of men's preference for inequality among the social group which tend to favor hierarchy-enhancing ideologies and policies (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994). Trends in literature depicts that regardless of occupation and work tasks, agentic attributes like competitiveness and self-assertiveness are considered as more appropriate for men than women (Lewis & Humber, 2010).

In academia, women, despite having moved into different positions in the past years, still face the glass ceiling (European Commission 2013). Even in the western world where gender equality is being campaigned for women to attain equal gender composition, women are still under-represented as far as female staff is concerned (Mitroussi & Mitroussi, 2009). In fact, the notion of shrinking female participation at higher-level academic career positions has been christened with the catchy metaphor of a 'leaky pipeline' (European Commission, 2008). Moreover, in the Fortune 500 companies literature, women are made up of only 10 percent of senior managers, the uppermost ranks of CEO, president, executive vice president and COO comprise less than 4 percent and less than 3 percent are among top corporate earners (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Thornton, 2013). This is, despite many women who have made significant inroads into the workforce, the glass ceiling is still difficult to breakthrough by women in the workforce (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Baker, 2014). Most top hierarchies of work positions are tilted towards men, despite literature pointing to the fact that men and women are equal in terms of leadership roles (Manning & Robertson, 2015).

Socio-cultural factors have been identified by researchers as the main reason women are stereotyped against in many cultures (Odiaka, 2013). In Africa the situation is not any better as various studies point to the fact that the situation is deeply embedded in socio-cultural practices of the people (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001). Chisikwa (2010) identified that, even though women are given the opportunity now

than the past in Africa, sociocultural factors continue to influence the appointment of more men than women as school heads. For instance, in Ghana most cultures perceive the kitchen to be for females whilst embarking on higher education and other productive ventures are seen to be for men, which could contribute to serious negative attitude towards women (Sossou, 2014). Even though some researchers are of the view that Ghana is doing well in getting more of the women into public offices (Adams, Scherpereel & Jacob, 2016); and the fact that, women constitute 51.2 percent compared to men's 48.8 percent of the total Ghanaian population, statistics from the Ghana Statistical Service indicates that as of 2010 women were made up of only 16.1 percent as against men's 83.9 percent of full time academic staff (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). This imbalance comes along with the perception of unproductive nature of the latter without due consideration of other natural hindrances.

Hence, despite the contribution of women, especially those in the workforce to the development of their organizations and society, women face challenges in workplaces which either affect their performance or serve as a barrier to their progress into the top management positions (Afolabi, 2013). Even though, there are a lot of women in companies and academic institutions who are very well prepared and equipped to move to the top management level (Hoobler Wayne & Lemmon 2009). Existing research suggest that women worldwide still face barriers to get to top management positions in companies and academic institutions because people sex stereotype the characteristics of managers in favour of men (Verzat & Wolff, 2008). In line with the above revelations, researchers using mostly women in the corporate world have established that people, especially men, have a negative attitude towards working women (Grimshaw & Rubery, 2007).There is therefore the need for some investigation into these issues of negative perception and attitudes toward women, dominance and imbalances of gender work-related problems. Hence, the appropriateness of this study.

Specifically, this study examines how social dominance orientation (SDO) will influence students' attitudes towards female senior members' job performance in higher educational institutions. Social dominance orientation (SDO) has been defined "as a personality trait which predicts social attitudes and one's degree of preference for inequality among social groups" (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994, p.741). SDO has been found to influence the behavior of men towards women in society. The theory assumes trans-situational and transcultural differences between males and females in social dominance orientation (SDO), with men showing higher levels of SDO than women (Pratto, Sidanius & Stallworth, 1993). Since SDO is presumed to drive an array of attitudes, beliefs, values, attributions, and ideologies, collectively referred to as legitimizing traditions (Sidanius et al., 1994). It is very appropriate to examine attitudes of students on female senior members work performance using SDO as a moderating effect in a high power distant and masculine oriented Ghanaian context.

Our study makes two contributions to theory and practice. First, this study advances the behavioral literature and gender studies on students' perceptions about women's performance in higher education in a developing context. Research on women is far and in between within developing contexts hence, the relevance of this study. Second, we add to the gender-linked differences and hierarchies on SDO literature and contribute further knowledge to social groups and in-group dominance over out-groups in higher educational institutions by determining the moderating effect of SD orientation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Social Dominance Theory

Social Dominance Theory serves as an important theoretical foundation for this study (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994). This is because Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) which is an important variable in this study is founded on the Social Dominance Theory (SDT). The theory argues that human social groups tend to be organized according to group-based social hierarchies in societies that produce economic surplus. These hierarchies have a three-form structure. They are "(1) age (i.e., Adults have more power and higher status than children (2) gender (i.e., Men have more power and higher status than women) and (3) arbitrary-set, which are group-based hierarchies that are culturally defined and do not necessarily exist in all societies" (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994, p.741). They argue that arbitrary-set hierarchies can be based on ethnicity (e.g. Whites over blacks in the U.S.), religion, nationality and gender. Social Dominance Theory (SDT) therefore predicts that males will tend to have a higher social dominance orientation (SDO) than women. People's desire to keep these hierarchies mostly often discriminate against the low status group members. For instance, some corporations go to the extent of paying women less than their men counterparts (Albrecht, Thoursie, & Vroman, 2014). The desire for

superior groups to maintain their status and the subordinate groups to remain down there is a result of lack of equality (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Social Dominance Theory postulates that people who are more social-dominance oriented will tend to favor hierarchy-enhancing ideologies and policies, whereas those lower on SDO will belong to institutions and choose roles that reduce inequality (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994). Researchers have reported Social Dominance Orientation in their findings. For instance, Zakrisson (2008) is of the view that even in advance countries which are regarded as egalitarian countries, SDO is still very noticed. He states that, the achievement of social power is facilitated by the high degree of SDO because of psychological predisposition. Research conducted by Batalha, Reynords and Newbigin (2011) revealed that men were found to be higher on SDO than women. They emphasize that people who are in the high-status condition are more socially dominant than those in the low-status group. There is evidence from the natural environment that suggest SDO is synonymous with upward status mobility (Liu, Huang & McFedries, 2008). But it is not that men are always higher on SDO than women and that sometimes features of the context determines higher SDO than gender (Batalha *et al*. 2011).

Social dominance orientation (SDO) is generally an orientation articulating general antiegalitarianism, a view of human existence as zero-sum and persistent rivalry between groups. It is the desire for hierarchical relationships between social groups, and in-group dominance over out-groups (Sidanius et al., 1994). Therefore, it is significant to examine students (males and females) perceptions as different social groups to assess female senior members' performance in a high masculine dominated context. Moreover, using SDO as a moderating variable to test its effect /influence on students' attitude and female senior members' work performance is appropriate for this study.

Cultural Orientations and Gender

Researchers have identified socio-cultural factors as one of the obstacles preventing women from breaking the glass ceiling. According to Fuwa (2004), biological and anatomical factors arise as a result of natural differences between the sexes. The differences come as a result of role differentiation which characterize most cultures where women are mostly nurtured to take care of the household and the children. This is evident from the situation whereby working from outside the home and taking care of the financial needs of the household are seen as a preserve of men and is considered more important as compared to women role of taking care of the house and the children (Helgeson, 2015). According to Treasurer *et al*. (2013), cultural beliefs about gender structures that favor men in top management positions is one of the invisible barriers hindering women in progression to the top executive positions. Sahoo and Lenka (2016) seem to agree to this by making an assertion that women are seen to be suitable for certain roles like playing the role of caregiver and homemaker and this is stereotyping which is deeply rooted in culture. Moreover, how women are valued are affected negatively by the traditional roles and societal values that are embedded in most cultures (Chisikwa, 2010). This researcher is of the view that women are expected to show a certain behavior pattern because they are held to the culturally entrenched idea which society has defined for them. It seems as if men in most societies, especially highly patriarchal ones are not interested in getting the situation resolved because stereotyping against women in society is to their advantage. Kusterer, Lindholm and Montgomery (2013) believe that the implications of culture on gender gap cannot be overemphasized. Cultural belief is regarded by most scholars to be the basis of discriminating against women in the workforce (Ridgeway & England, 2007). Negative socio-cultural traditional practices, lack of education as well as financial barriers serve as an obstacle to gender equality (Sossou, 2011). It has been found that, even women who decide to work from outside home roles are still not given value as compared to their male counterparts and this situation has persisted across different cultures for a long time (Bergeron, Block, & Echtenkamp, 2006; Grimshaw & Rubery, 2007).

Attitudes towards women

According to Elamin and Omair (2010), males have more conservative attitudes towards female workers. Their finding also revealed that, those who are educated, not married and unemployed showed less conservative attitude towards female managers than those who are less educated, employed, old and unmarried. The reason may be that men may not be happy with the situation where females would compete with them, especially the married women who are also employed since the Arab region is highly patriarchal in character, and men may want to dominate their women. This has been stressed by

Omar (2008) that some countries are patriarchal and male dominated society that subject women to a lot of coded and unwritten social norms. Cortis and Cassar (2005) reveal in their finding that male employees including male students than their female counterparts held more negative stereotypical attitude towards females. It can be seen clearly from his finding that male students hold negative attitudes against females which is not surprising. It can therefore be assumed this might translate into the workforce where the same people will be occupying positions in the future and are likely to behave in the same way.

Galanaki, Papalexandris and Halikias (2009) seem to have similar finding whereby they discovered that, the attitude of people towards women who occupy senior managerial positions is highly gendered as far as the positiveness towards woman manager is concerned. In addition, a study by Mostafa (2003) revealed that more female than their male counterparts have a more positive attitude towards women in the workforce. It can be deduced from Mostafa's finding that males rather have a negative attitude towards women workers. This like other studies in the Arab region is not surprising in a sense that generally, Arab men tend to have a more conservative traditional attitude towards women workers. Kiaye and Singh (2013) in a study found that in South Africa, men disrespect and discriminate against female workers which serve as a major barrier to female workforce. This is not surprising as most African countries are non-egalitarian due to the socio-cultural beliefs which orient men to dominate over women. It is obvious that cultural belief by the people plays a significant role in the perception and attitudes of males towards females. Interestingly, Rhoads and Gu (2012) found that women see the challenges confronting them as more serious whilst men think otherwise. It is therefore appropriate to investigate students' attitude toward female senior members work performance in higher educational institutions in Ghana.

Stereotyping and Job Performance

There are negative responses associated with negative stereotypes which can show themselves in the stereotyped individual's reaction, self-esteem, achievement level, motivation and performance (Singletary, Ruggs, Hebl & Davies, 2009; Carnaghi, Piccoli, Brambilla & Bianchi 2014). This assertion is corroborated by some studies which revealed that job performance and achievement levels are seriously affected when women are stereotyped against (Afolabi, 2013). Many attitudinal and behavioral effects in and out of the workplace are caused by stress and anxiety which in turn affects performance in times of stereotype threats against women workers (Podsakoff, LePine & LePine, 2007). Their research findings seem to go little further as it identifies stress and anxiety as a lead cause of poor performance in situations of stereotyping against women workers. Also, their finding is in line with research conducted by others who are of the view that women employees clearly separate between being female employees and work identities. They do this separation as it is important to minimize the negative mental health consequences associated with being a female worker. Most women are of the conviction that negative mental health consequences affect women workers who see their gender identity to be inseparable. Women's morale may negatively be affected because they sometimes feel there are obstacles which prevent them in their professional progression (Hungi, 2010). Research has shown that companies and institutions that deal with the issue of stereotyping against female workers are more likely to have the competitive edge to attract and retain quality female workforce (Deemer, Carroll & Carpenter, 2014). A study by Treasurer et al. (2014) seems to have similar finding which revealed that women who get to the top management positions perform better than their male counterparts. A survey by Catalyst (2011) also found that, companies which have more women in their top management position are more successful and more profitable compared to their counterparts with fewer women. Therefore, the zeal to change the status quo into a greater equality and diversity is likely to continue (Hurn, 2012). Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1a: *Students' Attitude is negatively related to Female Senior Members' Job Performance*

Hypothesis 1b: *Female students will show more positive attitude towards female senior members than their male counterparts.*

Influence of Social Dominance Orientation on Attitude

Studies have shown that in many countries, the gender gap in SDO exists. For example, it was found that in USA, men scored higher on SDO than women (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Also, in Sweden,

which is regarded as one of the most egalitarian countries, SDO is still noticed (Zakrisson, 2008). They mentioned that, the achievement of social power is facilitated by higher degree of SDO because of psychological predisposition. Research conducted by Batalha *et al*. (2011) revealed that men were found to be higher on SDO than women. They are of the view that people who are in the high-status condition are more socially dominant than those in the low-status group. There is evidence from the natural environment that suggest SDO is synonymous with upward status mobility (Liu *et al*, 2008). But it is not that men are always higher on SDO than women and that sometimes features of the context determines higher SDO than gender (Batalha *et al*, 2011). Consistent with that view, we expect that SDO is likely to influence positively students' perception of women work performance in higher educational institutions. Thus, when SDO is low, we expect female senior members' work performance to be high among female students. When SDO is high, we expect female senior members' work performance to be low or negative among male students. We therefore hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2*: Social Dominance Orientation will influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance.*

METHOD

To meet the objectives of the study, we employed a mixed method approach. A procedure for collecting, analyzing and mixing or integrating both quantitative and qualitative data to gain a rich and a better understanding of the research problem (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Creswell, 2005). Additionally, the reason for using both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study is to provide insight by both methods which will engender an effective solution to our research problem (Johnson & Onwuegnuzie, 2004). Consequently, this study employed a sequential explanatory mixed method design strategy because it helps in using quantitative data followed by a collection and analysis of qualitative data to triangulate the quantitative data (Creswell, 2013).

We used two separate surveys consistent with recommendations of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Jeong-Yeon, and Podsakoff (2003) to minimize common method variance. This is also Consistent with studies that examine behavioral issues that are based on self-report measures of attitudinal variables and measures examining human performance. Accordingly, the two separate survey questionnaires were administered to Ghanaian graduate students and female senior members respectively, whilst a face-to-face interview was additionally conducted with some female senior members. Female senior members here mean women holding various academic positions as teachers or lecturers in the university. Letters explaining the purpose of the study were sent to the institutions selected for the study. Consent was sought from respondents and they were assured of confidentiality of any information given.

Quantitative Phase

Sample and Procedure

The printed questionnaire was divided into two parts, one for job performance which was completed by the female senior members only, and one for attitude towards women's work which was completed by only the student. A total of 450 copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the respondents (graduate students) to supply the necessary information at their own convenient time in which 300 were retrieved which constitute a response rate of 66.7%. And 50 copies of the second questionnaire were distributed to female senior members in which 30 were retrieved for data analysis constituting 60%. The two versions were match-coded to ensure anonymity. Respondents were motivated to participate as the researchers promised a feedback report.

Measures

Each scale was measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1(Strongly Disagree) to 7(Strongly Disagree). First, 21 items were used to measure students' attitude towards female senior members. This variable was measured using a scale developed by Terborg, Peters, Ilgen and Smith (1977). The Cronbach's α for Women as Managers scale indicate that the reliability is sufficient ($\alpha = 0.70$). Second, 16 items were used to measure social dominance orientation (Sidanius, Lvin & Pratto, 1996). The Cronbach's α for Social Dominance Orientation indicate that the reliability is sufficient ($\alpha = 0.83$).

Third, job performance was measured by 6 items based on prior measure (Kuvaas, 2006). The Cronbach's α for Job Performance indicate that the reliability is sufficient (α = 0.72). All items were modified to suite the context of the current study. Example, "Challenging work is more important to men than it is for women" was modified as "Challenging work is more important to Male senior members than female senior members".

Control Variables: The researcher controlled for students' marital status (married = 1; Single = 2), students' age (21-25 = 1, 26-30 = 2, 31-35 = 3 and 36 and above = 4) and students' gender (male = 1; Female = 2). This is because research has shown that these variables may impact on the students' attitude towards women in the workforce (Elamin & Omair, 2010). Because the selected institutions are easily accessible by the researcher, copies of the questionnaire were delivered to respondents by hand.

DATA ANALYSIS

Structural Equation Modeling was used to test the hypotheses. Validity and Reliability of the scales and the items were established after Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted. Both Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability were all above 0.70. For measurement validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) of all the latent Constructs are larger than the cutoff point of 0.50 recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Discriminant validity was also examined by ensuring that the AVE of each latent variable is greater than the squared correlations with all the other latent variables as proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Factor loadings of all the individual items are significant (p-values < 0.01) and their factor loadings are above 0.5. The overall measurement model fit was good including the goodness of fit indices. The latent common method factor model also exhibited a good fit hence, common method variance is not problematic in this study (see table 1 and 2).

Table 1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Results

Variables	Loading	T-value	
Students 'Attitude (α = .703, CR = 0.881, AV = 0.660)			
AT21: Female senior members not confident in teaching situations that demand it.		0.729	0.885
AT20:Female senior members not ambitious enough to be successful in the profession		0.887***	15.150
AT19: Female senior members less capable of learning Mathematical and mechanical skills than are their Male counterparts.		0.878***	15.023
AT18: Average, a woman who stays at home all the time with her children is a better mother than a woman who works outside home at least half of the time		0.732***	12.469
Social Dominance Orientation (α = .830, CR = 0.870, AV = 0.582)			
SD7: Equal conditions must be provided for males and female		0.732	
SD6: Males and Females are equal.		0.804***	13169
SD5: Sometimes females must be kept in their place.		0.757***	12.418
SD4: Females should stay in their place		0.732***	12.018
SD3: It is probably good that males are at the top and females at the bottom		0.765***	12.550
Job Performance (α = .724, CR = 0.723, AV = 0.597)			
JP4 As a female senior member, I try to work as hard as possible		1.000	7.742
JP3: As a female senior member, I often expend extra effort in carrying out my job.		0.811***	0.729
JP2: As a female senior member, I often perform better than what is expected.		0.743***	7.615

Note: *** Standardized factor loading is significant at 0.1% (0.001); CR: Composite Reliability, AVE: Average Value Variance Extracted

Table 2 Fornell-Lacker Procedure for Discriminant Validity

Variables	1	2	3

Attitude	**0.812**		
Social Dominance Orientation	-0.616	**0.759**	
Job Performance	-0.015	0.037	**0.705**

NB: Elements with bold faces are the square root of AVE and the rest of the elements represent the squared correlation estimation between construct items.

RESULTS

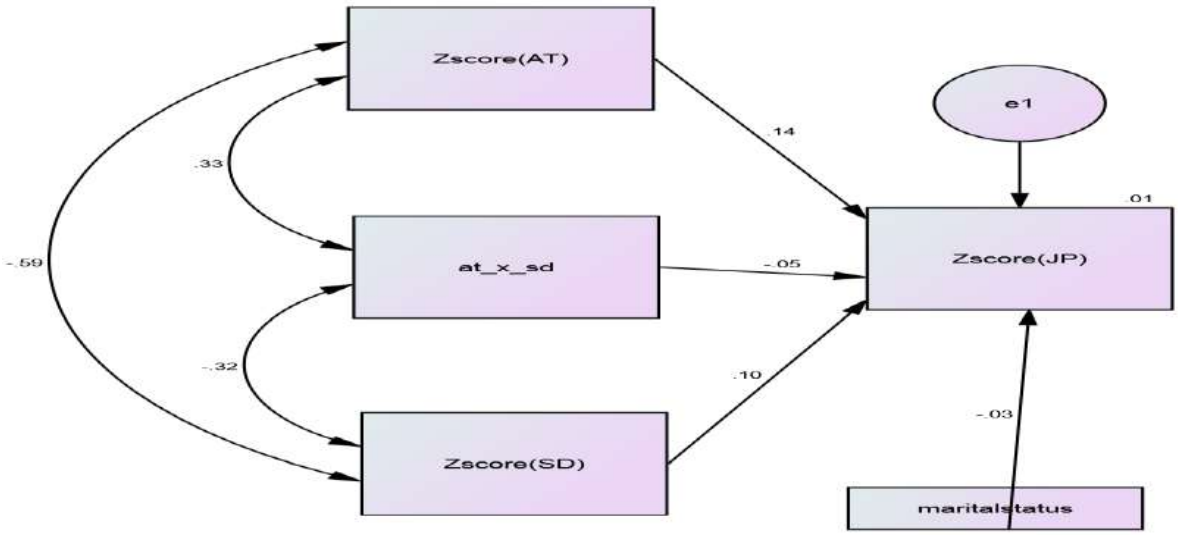
Table 3 presents the correlation matrix of means, standard deviations as well as the linear relationships that exist among the variables understudy. From Table 3, Job Performance correlates positively with Attitude and Social Dominance Orientation, but the relationship is not significant.

Table 3: Pearson's Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables

	MEAN	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. JP	6.70	0.11	1					
2. AT	5.32	7.53	0.065	1				
3. SDO	2.29	1.06	0.030	0.594**	1			
4. Age	2.34	1.09	0.010	-0.111	0.136*	1		
5. Gender	1.41	0.49	0.002	0.220**	-0.285**	-0.201**	1	
6. Marital status	1.68	0.48	-0.020	0.045	-0.035	-0.565**	0.010	1

Note: * = 0.05: ** = 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Fig 1: Final Structural Model



TESTS OF HYPOTHESIZED RELATIONSHIPS

Table 4: Path Relationships for the Hypothesized Relationships

Path Model Relationship	Estimate	S.E	T-values	P
ZAT ----------->ZJP	0.139	0.073	1.911	0.056
INTERACTION ------->ZJP	-0.048	0.057	-0.771	0.441
ZSD----------->ZJP	0.096	0.072	1.321	0.186
MARITALSTATUS--->ZJP	-0.027	0.119	-0.462	0.644

H1a: Students' Attitude is negatively related to Female Senior Members' Job Performance. From the analysis, the hypothesis shows that students' attitude is not negatively related to female senior members' job performance ($\beta = 0.139$, $p = 0.056$). Accordingly, there is no significant relationship between students' attitude and female senior members job performance.

H1b: Female students will show more positive attitude towards female senior members than their male counterparts.

In order to check whether there is difference between males and females in terms of their attitude towards female senior members, chi square group difference was conducted in the SEM using the structural model. The results indicate that there is no group difference between males and females in terms of their attitude towards female senior members (see table 5)

Table 5: Chi-square group difference results

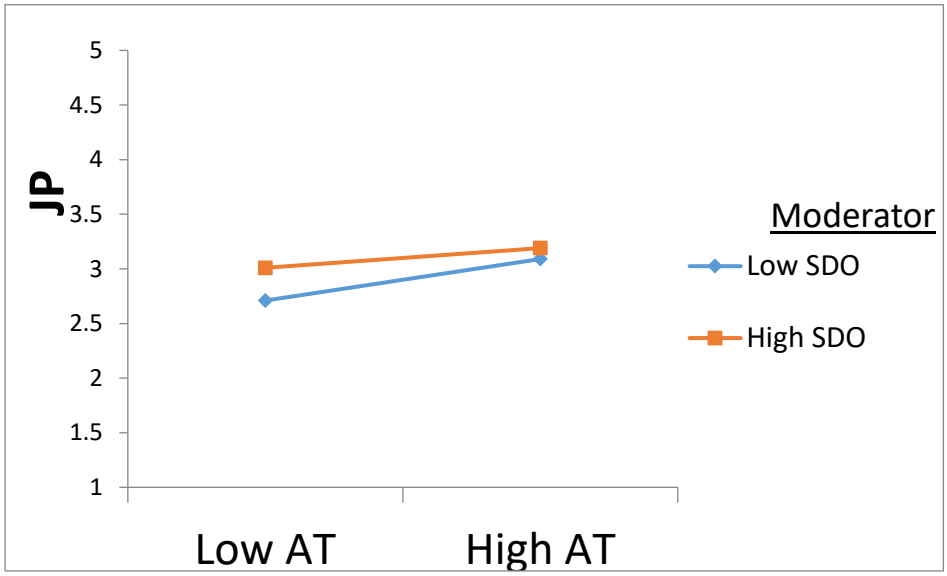
Effect	Gender	χ2(df)	Hypothesis	Support
Students Attitude ⟶FSM JP	Male/ Female	0.03(1)	H1b and H1c	No

*: p<0.05

As depicted in the table above, the statistical result for Gender is not significant along the path between students Attitude and female senior members' Job Performance ($\chi 2 = 0.03$, d = 1, p = 0.854).

H2: Social Dominance Orientation will influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance. It can be seen form Table 5 that the interaction effect is not significant ($\beta = -0.048$, p = 0.441). This means that there is no interaction effect between AT and SDO. This is explained further by fig. 2. Below.

Fig 2: The interaction of AT and SDO on female senior members' Job Performance



NB: AT= Attitude, SDO= Social Dominance Orientation, JP= Job Performance

As can be seen from figure 2 above, the blue line represents low Social Dominance Orientation (before the introduction of the moderator) and the yellow line represents high Social Dominance Orientation (after the introduction of the moderator). From the graph it can be seen that there is no interaction between the independent variable (AT) and the moderator (SDO). The upward slope of the blue line indicates high positive relationship between the independent variable (AT) and the dependent variable (JP). The introduction of the moderator (SDO) decreased the positive relationship between the independent variable (AT) and the dependent variable (JP) but the relationship is still positive.

Qualitative Phase

Qualitative Research Design and Sample

Face-to-face interviews with 12 female senior members from the three selected higher educational institutions were conducted and recorded on audio recorder upon an agreement by the respondents for transcription. The face-to-face interview allows the interviewer the opportunity and flexibility to ask questions which help clarify issues and follow new leads (Burns, 2000).

Interview Guide Development

The content of the interview guide was based on the quantitative results from the first phase of the study. And the aim was to understand how students behave towards female senior members. therefore, a total of 5 questions were used to explore how students behave towards female senior members. some of the questions include: how do students behave towards female senior members (whether positive or negative), how do they cope with negative stereotypes from males students, whether their performance

is affected because of their gender, whether men are culturally oriented to dominate their female counterparts and whether socio-cultural beliefs form the basis of negative attitude towards women.

Procedure and Data Analysis of the Qualitative Interview

The interviews in this study sought respondents' views on how students behave towards them in detail. Each interview lasted between 25 – 30 minutes. Audio recorder was used to record interviews for transcription. This allowed every information provided by the interviewees to be captured. The process of thematic analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data to discover the preferred themes in the participants' answers to the questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Transcription and data coding were manually done by the researcher (Gibbs, 2007). After reading through the work several times, codes were generated. The codes were later categorized into themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Abugre, 2013).

Validity and Reliability of the Qualitative Interview

To check for the validity, transcribed interviews were sent to some of the interviewees to check whether the account given is in consonance with their narratives which most of them agreed. Phone calls were also made to some of them to confirm the interview they granted which they also agreed (Gibbs, 2007). Also, to check for the reliability, transcription checking was constantly done to make sure there are no obvious mistakes (Gibbs, 2007). In addition, the transcribed data was given to my supervisor and some of my colleagues who also went through for identification of potential errors.

Findings from the Qualitative Strand

The table below shows the respondents and their titles. As indicated in Table 6 below, PhD Holders were 10 representing 83.3% whilst 2 were professors representing 16.7%.

Table 6: Qualitative Respondents Demographics

Respondents	Qualification
Respondent 1	PhD
Respondent 2	PhD
Respondent 3	PhD
Respondent 4	Professor
Respondent 5	PhD
Respondent 6	PhD
Respondent 7	PhD
Respondent 8	PhD
Respondent 9	PhD
Respondent 10	Professor
Respondent 11	PhD
Respondent 12	PhD

Source: Field Survey (2017)

Three major themes emanated from the interviews after the analysis of the respondents' statements.

Students relationship towards female senior members

11 of the interviewees representing 91.7% were of the view that they have a positive cordial relationship with their students whether male or female. However, one interviewee representing 8.3% had encountered negative attitudes from students. Some of them were of the view that occasionally they encounter rowdy behavior from students, but to them it is a normal thing that happens to every lecturer regardless of the gender. Some of them mention that sometimes they hear some of the students talk behind their back, alleging female lecturers are strict, especially with regards to marking of their papers, but personally students had not confronted them or reacted negatively to them in their presence. But one of the respondents who mentioned she had had negative experiences with students alluded to the fact that, she does not think if it was to be a male lecturer, students would have reacted the way they did to her. Those who indicated they have a positive relationship with their students had these to say:

Respondent 8 said:

> *As for students behaviour, you know they can be rowdy. They can misbehave in class, they can do all sorts of things when you are teaching, but I think it is a personal thing. I don't necessarily interpret it as due to the fact that am a female lecturer that is why they are behaving that way. I think that students will always be*

students. So, that is the kind of behavior that they exhibit. I believe such behaviors occur irrespective of whether you are a male or a female lecturer

However, **Respondent 10** had this to say:

Some of them don't respect. I have headed this department seven times. I went to USA for one year to teach and I realize that they have what we call 'office hours', that is, the time they meet the students and I said wow! This is a god idea, so when I came, in addition to administrative work and teaching, I decided to have specific days and time for students to come and see me. I put office hours on the door, that was Tuesdays and Fridays and surprisingly, I got graffiti behind my door which says 'lazy puppy', is it this time you come to work, whose Mrs. are you? where did you get your doctorate from? From journalism or what'? It was in different handwritings and another person wrote 'are the men in the department, why is it that a woman is heading the department.

The Influence of gender stereotype on performance

In terms of how gender difference affects their performance, all 12 interviewees agreed that their performance is not affected. Some were of the view that there are other factors like family responsibility which delay their promotion to the higher level but does not affect their performance. Some of them were even of the view that some of the female lecturers perform better than some of their male colleagues. Below are some of the responses from the respondents:

Respondent 1 said:

No. I don't see why being a woman will affect my performance. But it is just that sometimes family responsibilities give our male colleagues advantage in terms of publishing which sometimes delay our promotion.

Respondent 2 said:

As for my performance in class no, because we all worked very hard to get to this level and I don't see why my performance will be affected. Sometimes people think men should outperform women in any level, which shouldn't be so. I will even say that sometimes some of the female lecturers will perform better than their male colleagues.

Cultural orientation of men

Cultural orientation of men runs through all the responses of interviewees. Most of them were of the view that it is about how socialization takes place in our societies and that socio-cultural beliefs play a role. According to them it starts from the beginning where boys and girls are socialized to play certain roles and they end up growing with that same mentality. 5 of the interviewees thought men dominance over women is changing especially with education. They believe it will take time for significant change to happen, but there will definitely be a change. However, 7 of the respondents were of the view that they do not see men dominance over women changing. Respondents were of the believe that once society still socializes boys and girls to play different roles, they do not see anything changing and that it will continue to exist for a very long time. The assertions below present respondents' views.

I think that education plays a key role and so when people are educated, they don't stereotype negatively against females, but of course you will have some people who are set in their ways who stereotype and who still think that males should dominate. (**Respondent 5**)

For the previous generation, I will say yes, but for current generation I don't see that kind of dominance. I think older men will try to be a bit more domineering but for my peers, they may not try that on me because of the sensitization that goes on. A few do, but it is not as prevalent as previously **(Respondent 12)**

May be not in my life time. For instance, my eight-year-old boy will tell his sisters 'don't you know I am the man'. As young as eight years, though he is the youngest. I tried to bring them up in such a way that there will not be discrimination but

he is still aware of it. Sometimes, if I ask him to come to the kitchen, he will tell me 'the kitchen is for ladies **(Respondent 4)**

Generally, there are divergent views on the issues of male dominance over females. While some interviewees clearly indicate that being female does not in any way affect performance of female senior members, others also indicate that men are culturally oriented to dominate over women.

DISCUSSION

This research addresses a very important question: how do students behave towards female senior members and how it affects their job performance as well as how this is influenced by Social Dominance Orientation (SDO)? Using both quantitative and detail qualitative results, it was found that (H1a) students' attitude is negatively related to female senior members' job performance and (H1b) female students' will show more positive attitudes towards female senior members than their male counterparts were all not significant. These findings therefore suggest that students have a positive attitude towards female senior members contrary top our initial perceptions. The findings above were corroborated by the qualitative findings, which explains further that students have a positive attitude towards female senior members in higher educational institutions. These findings are contrary to previous studies which indicated that students and workers, especially males stereotyped negatively against females (Elamin & Omair, 2010; Cortis & Cassar, 2005). Second, the hypothesis (H2), which states that SDO will influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior member's job performance was also not supported. The finding is also confirmed by the qualitative findings which indicated that respondents have a positive relationship with students. This finding contradicts several findings, which revealed a high influence of SDO in their findings, especially men and in some cases women (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Batalha *et al*., 2011; Zakrisson, 2008). Certain reasons can be attributed to these findings. First, the setting of the research which seem to have different cultural orientation from those in the villages and remote areas might be one of the reasons. The setting is the capital city of Ghana – a very cosmopolitan and modern town, where people seem to be enlightened compared to the other parts of the country. People might have had a different picture about women through education and modernization of people's outlook. People have seen women occupying important positions as well as owning big time businesses might have changed the orientation people traditionally held about women in general. This was corroborated by the interviews conducted which sought female senior members' opinions about students' behaviour towards them. Most of the respondents were of the view that they have a positive relationship with their students and that students, whether male or female had not behaved negatively towards them because of their gender. It was also clear that, the fact that they are females does not in any way affect their performance. Some of them mentioned that they move on very well with their male colleagues and the students. This is a clear evidence which indicates people's cultural orientation towards women are changing. Another possible explanation is the fact that the participants are students and most of them are young. This is witnessed from the demographics of respondents. Some scholars are of the view that education decreases people's negative perception about women (Akotia & Anum, 2012). Their findings also revealed that young adults as well as females had more modern attitude about gender roles. As most uneducated still hold to the traditional gender roles, the educated holds a more positive perception about women. This indicates that as people get higher education they yearn for egalitarian society and therefore feels free to respond to females.
In addition to the above findings, age and marital status were controlled. Both were not significant with the dependent variable (Job Performance) which means that the differences in age or whether one is married or not does not affect the positive relationship towards female senior members. This confirms the facts that students have a positive attitude towards female senior members in present day Ghana.

Theoretical Implications

The first contribution of this study is that, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to test the influence of SDO on the relationship between attitude of students and females' senior members' job performance. It has contributed to knowledge with regards to how students behave towards female senior members in HE institutions. This will help academic institutions and corperate bodies to take

decisions that will see to the development of their organizations. Second, the study contributes to knowledge by focusing on the context of higher educational institutions (HE). Few studies in this area have taken into consideration the context of higher educational institutions. Another major contribution of this study is the use of the mixed method approach. Most of the studies done within this area, mostly use either qualitative or quantitative approach. It therefore means the combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches by the researcher gives a better insight to the study.

Practical Implications

This study has an implication for managers, especially Human Resource managers who have the utmost responsibility of finding the cultural background of employees. The orientation of people towards women, especially those in the working class is very critical to organizations and institutions. To reduce negative attitude bias usually encounter by women, HR managers can hire people who have a positive attitude and low on SDO because such people tend to have a positive attitude towards female workers. They must give emphasis to selection of employees who are educated because education seems to decrease the negative attitudes people have towards professional women.

Limitations and Future Research

In the light of taking into consideration the findings and the recommendations of this study one must not forget to also consider the limitations accordingly. The data was collected from only three tertiary institutions and generalizing it to other tertiary institutions must be done with care. Another drawback of the study is that, it focused on only tertiary institutions. Therefore, generalizing it to other sectors must be carefully thought through. There is the need to also focus on other sectors such as corporate organizations to get more insight into the concept. A purposive sampling method adopted for the selection of the institutions and sample for the study is another limitation to the study. Though it was helpful it was not based on probability method and can compromise the generalization power of the research results. Future research should therefore focus on other sectors such as corporate organizations to get more insight into the concept. Also, probability sampling methods such as simple random or systematic sampling method can be adopted to increase the generalization power of the research results. Other variables such as Power Distance (PD) can be included to determine its impact on other variables (Attitude, Social Dominance Orientation and Job Performance).

CONCLUSION

The study examined students' attitude towards female senior members' job performance. The study found that students have positive attitude towards female senior members. Therefore, students who have received higher education appear to have a positive attitude towards professional women and therefore, HR managers should factor it into their hiring strategy.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB PERFORMANCE IN EGYPT

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ABSTRACT

Social intelligence is a construct with promising practical applications in business but its use in research and applied settings has been limited by definitional debates, difficulties in distinguishing it from other related or overlapping constructs, and complexity of most existing measures intelligence. This study tests the relationship between social intelligence and employee performance dimensions in Egypt. The study was conducted on a sample of 184 participants, to measure social intelligence using the Tromsø Social Intelligence Scale and to measure job performance Individual Work Performance Questionnaire. A short version of Marlowe and Crowne Social Desirability scale was embedded to control for self- report bias. The findings of the research are encouraging; a significant positive correlation has been found between social intelligence and contextual performance. In addition, a significant negative relationship has been found between social intelligence and counterproductive work behavior. Nevertheless, the relationship between overall social intelligence and task performance has not been found significant regardless of the job type. The study reveals the importance of social intelligence to employee performance in Egypt with promising applications in in the area of selection, talent management and training.
Keywords: Social intelligence, task Performance, contextual performance, counterproductive performance, Egypt.

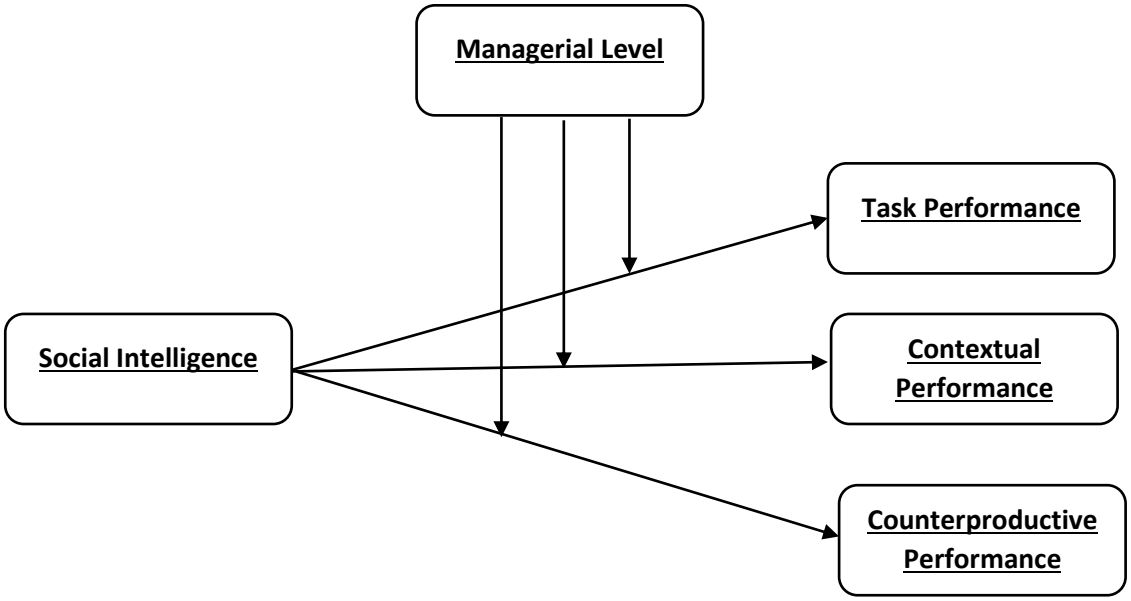
INTRODUCTION

The acceptance of traditional mental intelligence as the only predictor for a person's potential in life has lost a great deal of credibility. Many psychologists and HR researchers now accept the proposition that there are multiple types of intelligence that provide breaks from the traditional mental intelligence (Albrecht, 2004). One such intelligence is social intelligence (SI). SI has shown promising practical applications in business and education, but its use has been limited by confusing definitions, difficulties to differentiate it empirically from overlapping constructs, and complexity of most existing measures (Gini, 2005; Silvera, Martinussen, & Dahl, 2001). Most of the SI literature focuses on controversies related to construct conceptualization, operationalization and measurement rather than SI applications and how it can contribute to the changing business sphere. Specifically, no studies have examined the relationship between SI and job performance. This is unfortunate since understanding this relationship can help us in selecting and training a higher performing workforce.

In an attempt to address this gap, the current study examines the relationship between employee SI and job performance. Studying this relationship is important because it can help us understand the contributions of SI to individual and organizational outcomes. The study is divided into four parts. In part one, the literature on SI and its relationship to job performance is covered. We also provide a

conceptual framework and hypotheses of the relationship between SI and job performance moderated by managerial level. In part two, we present the research methodology. In part three, we present the results of this study. Finally, in part four, we discuss the results and identify the limitations and future research directions.

FIGURE 1
Conceptual Model of Hypothesized Relationships between Social Intelligence, Task, Contextual and Counterproductive Performance and Managerial Level



THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Social Intelligence

The scientific study of SI began in 1920 by Thorndike who suggested three mutually independent cognitive abilities including mechanical, abstract and social intelligence. Thorndike defined SI as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, and to act wisely in human relations" (Thorndike, 1920, p. 228).

The popularity of SI concept was born out of Gardner's (1983) and Albrecht's (2006) multiple intelligences propositions. Multiple intelligences theory asserts that individuals who demonstrate a particular aptitude in one intelligence will not necessarily demonstrate a comparable aptitude in another type of intelligence. Gardner (1983) criticized the overreliance on a single generic intelligence. He proposed that there are different distinct kinds of intelligence, each hypothetically associated with a different brain system. He argued there are eight relatively autonomous intelligences; linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, interpersonal, intrapersonal (emotional intelligence), and naturalistic. Individuals use these domains in order to create products and solve problems relevant to one's environment. Interpersonal intelligence, as defined by Gardner (1983) is the "individual's ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals" (p. 239). Interpersonal Intelligence is most similar to SI in that it concerns understanding the intentions, motivations, and desires of others.

Further to Gardner's (1983) efforts on multiple intelligences, Albrecht (2006) suggested a simpler multidimensional model for intelligence. He proposed six primary dimensions of intelligence; Abstract, Social, Practical, Emotional, Aesthetic and Kinesthetic intelligences. Albrecht (2006) classified behavior toward others as falling somewhere between toxic behavior and nourishing

behavior. A continued pattern of toxic behavior indicates inability to connect with people and influence them effectively; a sign of low SI.

One of the main difficulties in studying SI is the fact that different researchers have defined this construct in different ways. Albrecht (2006) defined SI as ability to interact and cooperate well with others. His concept involved self-insight of one's perceptions and reaction patterns, social awareness, social skills and social knowledge of the best social tactics for a social situation. Marlowe (1986, p. 52) defined SI as "the ability to understand the feelings, thoughts and behaviors of persons, including one's own, in interpersonal situations and to act appropriately upon that understanding".

Even though little agreement exists on a universal definition of SI, there is consensus among researchers regarding the multidimensional nature of the construct (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 2000; Silvera et al., 2001; Gini, 2005). For example, Björkqvist, Österman and Kaukiainen (2000) argue that SI has three different components: perceptual, cognitive-analytical, and behavioral. Marlowe (1986) argued that SI involves a set of social problem-solving skills that help the individual find and resolve interpersonal problems. In his SI model, Marlowe (1986) proposed a four-dimensional construct: (i) social interest in others (ii) social self-sufficiency (iii) empathy skills (understanding of other's emotions), and (iv) observable social performance skills. Marlowe believed that SI is directly related to perception, memory, reasoning and problem-solving rather than being mediated by innate reflexes, conditioned responses, evolved genetic programs.

Buzan (2002) highlighted that SI comprises eight factors: (i) understanding others: (ii) active listening (iii) sociability (iv) influencing others (v) popularity (vi) negotiation and social problem solving (vii) persuasion, and (vii) proper behaving in different social contexts.

Furthermore, Albrecht (2006) proposed a five- part model of SI – Situational Awareness or Social Awareness, Presence, Authenticity, Clarity and Empathy (S.P.A.C.E.). a) Situational Awareness or Social Awareness- perceptiveness to the underlying social dynamics and knowledge of interaction styles and strategies that can help a person achieve his or her social objectives. b) Presence- or the external sense of one's self that others perceive including confidence, self-respect and self-worth c). Authenticity- or the extent others perceive one's behavior as honest, trustworthy ethical and value driven. d). Clarity- the ability to communicate clearly and effectively including active listening, self-expression, influence, verbal fluency. e). Empathy- the ability to connect with people on personal level. Albrecht's (2006) model uses a self-assessment tool to measure SI as a combination of social skills, self-awareness and interaction style.

Goleman (2006) identified two aspects of SI: social awareness and social facility. Social awareness includes one's ability to sense and perceive important social cues and to understand different social situations while social facility implies one's ability to deal with others.

SI and Employee Performance

Job performance is perhaps the most important construct in industrial and organizational psychology and human resource management (Arthur, Tubre, & Bennett, 1998; Koopmans et al., 2011, Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Rotundo and Sackett (2002) defined job performance as "actions and behaviors that are under the control of the individual that contribute to the goals of the organization" (p. 66). There is no consensus on what exactly constitutes individual work performance (Koopmans et al. 2011). As noted by Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) few efforts have been made to develop generalizable models of performance as it has been assumed that what constitutes performance depends on the job itself. As a result, researchers have used countless numbers of measures for employee performance (Arthur et.al., 1998; Koopmans et al., 2011).

More recently, researchers have developed theories of job performance that claim some latent performance dimensions generalize across a broad range of jobs (Arthur et.al., 1998). Koopmans et al., (2011) have identified three job performance dimensions. The first is task performance which refers to "behaviors and activities that support the organization's technical core, which can involve design, execution and maintenance of technical processes (Borman & Motowidlo, 199, p.72). The second

component is contextual performance and is defined as "behaviors that support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 73). The third component is counterproductive performance. Rotundo and Sackett (2002) define counterproductive performance as "voluntary behavior that harms the well-being of the organization" (p.69). It includes a group of behavior that detract from the goals of the organization such as personal deviance, substance abuse, poor self-discipline, destructive- hazardous behaviors, property deviance, political deviance, personal aggression, and unruliness (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

Although there are several empirical studies on the relationship between general mental ability and job performance, there is limited research on the relationship between other kinds of abilities and job performance (Schmidt & Hunter, 2004) and no research on the relationship between SI and job performance is found. SI may have an important impact on job performance due to the increased social interaction component that forms a large portion of the daily activities of work. Socially intelligent employees have bigger networks, more friends, better relationships, more successful careers, and happier lives than those who lack this ability. In order to behave skillfully in various social situations (e.g. talking to one's boss and customers, attending meetings, making presentations in front of a group of people, sharing experiences with others, or interviewing for a job), one needs to have a level of SI (Albrecht, 2006).

We expect that SI will be related to multidimensional job performance. However, we suspect that the relationship between SI and job performance will depend on the job's social complexity; the more socially complex the job the more important SI becomes for performance on that job. In other words, we expect that the relationship between SI and job performance will be moderated by managerial level. Managerial roles involve a significant social component (e.g. maintaining good working relations, coaching, communications and presentations, maintaining organization image), that may not be present in non-managerial levels.

As such, we expect the relationship between SI and job performance to be stronger for managerial positions than for non-managerial positions. Based on the above we test the model shown in Figure 1 and the hypotheses shown below:

Hypothesis 1: *There is a significant positive relationship between employee social intelligence and task performance.*

Hypothesis 2: *Managerial level moderates the relationship between employee social intelligence and task performance.*

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant positive relationship between employee social intelligence and contextual performance.

Hypothesis 4: Managerial level moderates the relationship between employee social intelligence and contextual performance.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant negative relationship between employee social intelligence and counterproductive performance.

Hypothesis 5: Managerial level moderates the relationship between employee social intelligence and counterproductive performance.

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

Respondents were Egyptian white-collar employees enrolled on a Master of Business Administration program (N=184) at a private Egyptian university using convenience sampling. Males

represented 80% and females represented 20% of the sample. With regards to age, 45% of the sample was between 26-35 years and 42% was between 36-45 years. As for managerial level, 42% reported that they were managers and 58% reported that they held non-managerial positions.

Measures

To measure SI we used the Tromsø SI Scale (TSIS) (Silvera et al., 2001). This is a self-administered scale that is composed of 21 items. Response to all items is given on a 7 point scale that ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Although the TSIS measurers three subdimensions, in this study we are only using the composite total scores. Several studies have validated the TSIS. For example, Gini (2005) conducted a study on adolescents to validate the Italian language version of the TSIS. The study confirmed the reliability and validity of the of Italian TSIS scale. Dogan and Cetin (2009) also investigated the reliability and validity of the Turkish version of the TSIS. Overall results of this study showed that this scale is a valid and reliable tool to measure SI for Turkish university students.

To measure multidimensional work performance, we used the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) (Koopmans et al., 2012). This scale is self-administered and is composed of 18 items; 5 measuring task performance, 8 measuring contextual performance, and 5 measuring counterproductive performance. Response to the task and contextual items ranged from 1 (Seldom) to 7 (Always) and for the counterproductive performance ranged from 1 (Never) to 7 (Often). It is important to note that Self-reporting of performance has its downsides compared to objective measures or managerial rating as employees frequently tend to rate themselves higher that does the supervisor (Tsui & Barry, 1986). Nevertheless, self-report scales have their own advantages such as ease of data collection, confidentiality, and less problems with missing data (Koopmans et al., 2012). Managerial level was measured using a single item where the participant classified his/her job as either managerial or non-managerial.

To measure the extent to which social desirability as a bias, affected the results, the Marlowe-Crowne short form, 8 items social desirability scale (Reynolds, 1982) was also used. An example of an item on this scale is “I am always courteous, even with people who are disagreeable”. A forward-backward translation method was used to translate all scales from English to Arabic, which is the native language of Egyptians.

Procedures

After the scales were translated and approved by the university's research ethics committee, a pilot test with 30 participants was conducted to ensure that the scales did not contain vague or confusing items. Afterwards, one of the authors approached MBA students after their classes to invite them to participate in the study. Students were assured that participation was voluntary and confidential. Those agreeing to participate were given course credit. Data was collected in April 2017 through paper and pencil questionnaires.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Reliability

Table 1 shows the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation for the variables of the study. Internal consistency for each of the factors was evaluated using Cronbach’s alpha coefficients. All scales showed acceptable reliability.

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics and Reliability of the Variables

Variable	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Social Desirability	13	.70	40	83	64.90	8.66
Social Intelligence	21	.84	65	141	104.38	13.40
Task Perf	5	.80	11	35	29.35	3.67
Contextual Perf	8	.74	34	56	48.14	4.50
Counterproductive perf	5	.70	5	31	18.02	5.66

Correlation and Analysis of Variance

Because social desirability is one of problematic biases that can distort the results of the measurements of self-reported SI and employee performance, we wanted to examine its relationship with the other variables first. Table 2 shows the results of the correlation analysis across all variables with social desirability. As evident from the results, social desirability did significantly and strongly correlate with SI and the three types of job performances. Specifically, social desirability explained 28%, 9.5%, 8% and 35% of the variance in SI, task, contextual and counterproductive performance respectively. Since this may represent bias, we repeated the correlation analysis after removing the effect of social desirability. Partial correlation was conducted to control social desirability effect on the magnitude of relationships among variables. Table 2 shows the results of these partial correlations. **A** Pearson Correlation was performed to measure the predictive relationship between pairs of variables. Results are shown in Table 11.

TABLE 2
Correlations between the Study's Variables and Social Desirability

Variable	TP	CP	CWB	SD
Social Intelligence	.22** a	.36* a	-.52* a	.54* a
	.07 b	.26* b	-.30* b	--
Task Performance	1 a	.48* a	-.25* a	.31* a
		.43* b	-.08 b	--
Contextual Performance		1 a	-.23* a	.29* a
			-.08 b	--
Counterproductive Performance			1 a	-.59* a

Note. * p-value = 0.05; TP=Task Performance; CP= Contextual Performance; CWB= Counterproductive Work behaviours; SD= Social Desirability; *a* = correlation; *b* = partial correlation

As expected, the magnitude of the correlations decreased after removing the effect of social desirability. Based on this, the relationships between SI and task performance (H1) was not supported (r = .06, N=184, p >.05). However, the relationship between SI and contextual performance (H3) (r = .25, N=184, p< .05) and counterproductive performance (H5) (r = -.29, N=184, p< .05) were supported.

To examine the moderating impact of managerial level on the main relationships, we conducted analysis of variance (ANOVA). Since the main relationship between SI and task performance was not

detected, we did not test H2. Results of the ANOVA showed that the interaction effect between SI and managerial level on contextual performance (H4), $F (6, 172) = .581$, $p > .05$, and counterproductive performance (H6), $F (6, 172) = 1.09$, $p > .05$, were not significant. As such, both H4 and H6 were rejected.

DISCUSSION

Although there are several studies that have examined the theoretical and construct validity of SI, there are no empirical studies that have examined its relationship with job performance. This implies a gap in our knowledge of the predictive power of SI. The aim of the current study was to target this gap by investigating the relationship between employee SI and multidimensional job performance in Egypt. We also investigated the role of managerial level in this relationship.

The research findings showed that SI did not predict task performance but did predict contextual and counterproductive performance. The results also showed that managerial level did not moderate any of the relationships.

The lack of relationship between SI and task performance may be disappointing but not surprising. The performance of job tasks may be perceived as a purely technical effort that is devoid of any social aspects. Consequently, SI did not relate to it. Alternatively, it may be that the scale we used to measure task performance did not capture the social elements present in task performance.

The significant positive relationship between SI and contextual performance imply that an employee who is able to adapt to social situations, build relationships, and act wisely in different social occasions will add to the social and psychological environment of the organization. This finding matches the previous research that has connected an individual‘s level of social skill to contextual performance (Morgeson, Reider, & Campion, 2005).

The significant positive relationship between SI and counterproductive work behaviour also imply that an employee who is able to recognize social norms, values, social patterns, and behaviours of others will be aware of a potential social harm of a given behavior on others. This awareness might reduce destructive behaviours such as gossiping, infighting, conflict and breaking social norms.

The hypothesis that occupation type will moderate the relationship between SI and employee task , contextual performance or counterproductive work behaviours have not been supported by the statistical results, the figures showed the interaction between the SI and occupation type does not have a significant impact on different sub dimensions of employee performance, the results imply that the SI is a significant success component of contextual for all jobs, not only for managerial roles.

Concerning the role of managerial levels, we had hypothesized that SI would be more important for job performance as the job context becomes more socially complex. The data showed that social complexity did not matter; SI was predictive of contextual and counterproductive performance no matter what the level of the job (social complexity) was. This is encouraging evidence of the importance of SI to all job levels.

Finally, the results revealed a high positive relationship between social desirability and SI. Past studies have also reported positive relationships between social desirability and SI in Norwegian (Silvera et al., 2001) and Italian (Gini, 2005) samples. However, they were much smaller than our finding. This might be attributed to the cultural difference and the need for social approval in Egypt's collectivistic culture.

Limitations and Future Research

This study had several important limitations. First, the cross sectional design of the study precludes any causal inferences. In other words, the data presented in this study does not prove that SI caused performance. On the contrary, it is possible that the social experience of excelling on the job improves SI. Second, the small size and convenience design of the sample also precludes any generalization to the general population of the study. We studied MBA students attending a private

university in Cairo; this is hardly representative of the Egyptian workforce. Future studies may use probability sampling methods studies that permit generalization. Third, we did not perform any validation of the scales we used. Future studies may examine the factor structure of the SI and the multidimensional job performance scales.

CONCLUSION

The study explored the relationship between employee SI and job performance in Egypt. The results confirmed the relationship between SI and both contextual and counterproductive work behaviour. Managerial level did not moderate the relationship between SI and any of type of job performance. These results demonstrate the importance of SI for contextual and counterproductive behaviour irrespective of job level. We hope that the results of this study will encourage researchers to examine the predictive power of SI for a variety of important job outcomes.

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WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND WORKPLACE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR: A REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

This paper is a review of work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviour. Literature was gathered using online search engines. It was found that antecedents of workplace deviant behaviour include: individual factors, situational factors, kind of work and amount of work, workload, stress, burnout and work-family conflict. Embedded in work-family conflict are antecedent factors, which are also antecedents of workplace deviant behaviours, and this, therefore, has necessitated further research. The model developed from the review put *stress* and *burnout* (now recognized by WHO as an official medical diagnosis) as potential mediating variables of the relationship between work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviours.

Keywords: work-family conflict, workplace deviant behaviour, stress, burnout

BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE REVIEW

The workplace has become a second home to the contemporary worker where much of the active day is spent, engaging in one economic activity or the other, and interacting with others (including coworkers, subordinates, supervisors, or customers). By spending almost half the day commuting to work, engaging in work, and commuting back home from work, the family roles get compromised such that the quality and amount of time that would have been devoted to the family is sacrificed on the altar of work. Not that it is what the employee wants, but it is considered a necessity of life for survival in order to bring food to table, as well as provide shelter and clothing, and other basics of life. The concept of work-family conflict thus emerged in the 1980s when many women began engaging in the labour force (Tsai, 2008). This concept has been widely researched into, taking into consideration several antecedents and outcomes. For instance, Lambert, Minor, Wells, and Hogan (2015) identified a number of job demand variables that predict work-family conflict (eg. Role overload, role stressors of conflict, and the perceived dangerousness of work). Mihelič and Tekavčič (2014) earlier categorized the antecedents as arising either from individual differences or job and family characteristics. They further classified outcomes of work-family conflict as variables related to behaviours, attitudes and well-being of workers.

Characteristics of the job such as abusive supervision has been found to compound the work-family conflict of workers, which eventually results in deviant work behaviours exhibited by employees. The deviant behaviours is a sub-set of the behavioural and attitudinal consequence classification of work-family conflict by Mihelič and Tekavčič (2014). Someone who is stretched to the extent that no time is available to attend to very important family affairs would want to create situations that would make him or her find reason to be absent from work. For instance, the employee could call in sick, and even connive with a medical facility to issue an excuse letter when such employee is not actually sick, but only wants a means to be away from the workplace. There are some workers who would even intentionally cause a technical fault in the machines they use for work so that they can stay home while the problem is being resolved (that is, in the case where no other alternative work is available for them to do). Others too would want to take away future burden (for instance, a teacher who does not want to assess students re-sitting a subject) by allowing everyone to pass. This is because, extra students would mean extra work which would make one not able to have that quality time for the family or other personal. All these behaviours are considered counterproductive because they defy the norms and values of the organisation, and the organisation tends to lose in the end.

In looking at the relationship between workplace deviant behaviours and stress, the focus of the stress has always been on the work-related stress, including workload and job stress (eg. Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Lee & Allen, 2002; Omar, Halim, Zainah, Farhadi, Nasir, & Khairudin, 2011), with less emphasis on non-job-related factors, including work-family conflict. As a result of this gap, Radzali, Ahmad and Omar (2013) developed a model of deviant behaviour at the workplace to include workload, job stress, and work-family conflict as important factors that predict the behaviour of deviance. Therefore, the factor of work-family conflict as it relates to workplace deviant behaviour is worth considering in this review.

This review considers work-family conflict as well as workplace deviant behaviours. These concepts are explained, together with their respective theoretical underpinnings. The review further looks at how these two concepts are related by analyzing empirical works of other researchers. Specifically, this review seeks to:

i. Explore and explain the conceptual underpinnings of work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviour;
ii. Categorise and analyse the research issues concerning work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviour;
iii. Categorise and analyse the theoretical and conceptual approaches used for understanding the research topic;
iv. Assess methodologies used to carry out the research studies;
v. Identify key research gaps.

METHODOLOGY FOR THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The search strategy for this paper was varied. The search engines used were mainly Google Scholar (https://scholar.google.com/) and the University of Ghana Balme Library's E-Resources (http://balme.ug.edu.gh/index.php/research-tools/databases-quick-a-z). The keywords used in the search were: *work-family conflict, consequences of work-family conflict, workplace deviance, employee deviant behaviour, workforce deviance, antecedents of workplace deviance, counterproductive work behaviour.*

Source and Selection Criteria

Much literature exists on work-family conflict in relation to other variables of concern to researchers across time and space, as well as for workplace deviant behaviour or counterproductive work behaviours. However, not all of such studies are relevant for this review. The very limited relevant studies of concern (from 2007-2017) were reviewed for the purpose of this paper. Journals from the field of Psychology, Sociology, Human Resource Management, and Management in general were resorted to. Studies linking the two key variables for the review – work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviour were either very scarce or isolated. Scarce in the sense that very few studies have linked both constructs, and isolated in the sense that authors did not consciously link both constructs but some elements mentioned in those studies mimicked factors associated with them, and so were deemed appropriate to make intelligent inferences. For instance, the study by Spanouli and Hofmans (2016) did not mention work-family conflict, however, they pointed out that pressuring workers had the tendency of making them engage in counterproductive work behaviours. Pressure from work invariably relates to work-family conflict such that when the job demands become excessive, employees are not able to balance the work and family roles. *Kind of work* and *amount of work* refer to the role of individuals and how such uncontrolled work demands lead to deviant behaviours (Fagbohungbe et al., 2012). Mihelič and Tekavčič (2014) mentioned attitudes and behaviours as outcomes of work-family conflict. Workplace deviant behaviour is a behaviour or attitude which can result when an individual wants to maintain a balance at all cost.

The articles reviewed had very useful information from other authors (supporting articles) that were relevant for this review; some of the information in there served as foundations for current studies. The journals from which the articles (both primary and supporting/secondary) were reviewed are cross-tabulated below (Table 1) with years of publication of the articles.

Table 1: Crosstabulation of Journals and Publication Years

Journal Name	*2007-2010*	*2011-2014*	*2015-2017*
MIS Quarterly	*1*		
Journal of Applied Psychology	*1*		*1*
Corporate Governance	*1*		
International Studies of Management and Organisation	*1*		
Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management	*1*		
Journal of Business and Psychology	*1*		
Cross-cultural Management An International Journal	*1*		
Personnel Psychology	*1*	*1*	
Journal of Occupational Health Psychology		*1*	
International Journal of Management and Information Systems		*1*	
International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology		*1*	
International Journal of Business and Management		*2*	
International Education Studies		*1*	
International Journal of Management and Marketing Research		*1*	
World Applied Sciences Journal		*1*	
Nonprofit Management and Leadership		*1*	
Journal of Managerial Psychology		*3*	
The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning		*1*	
International Journal of Academic Research and Social Sciences		*1*	
International Journal of Advances in Management and Economics		*1*	
Frontier in Psychology			*1*
Journal of Vocational Behaviour			*1*
Jinnah Business Review			*1*

Table 2 Summary Analysis of Methodological Approaches for Main Articles Reviewed

Study	**Variables**	**Type of Paper**	**Type of Analysis**	**Source of Data**	**Timing/Design**	**Country**
Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, and Semmer (2011)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Meta-analysis	Secondary	2004-2011	Not specified
Mihelič and Tekavčič (2014)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Review paper	Secondary	Across time	Not specified
Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, McKnight and George (2007)	WFC, Work overload, Turnover intentions	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary and Secondary	Cross-sectional	USA/ Computer and software services industry
Spanouli and Hofmans (2016)	CWB	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Longitudinal	Belgium
Spector, Allen, Poelmans, Lapierre, Cooper, Michael, ... and Brough, P. (2007).	WFC, Job satisfaction, Work demands	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Longitudinal	Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom, United States of America,

Study	Variables	Type of Paper	Type of Analysis	Source of Data	Timing/Design	Country
						Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, China, Taiwan, Bulgaria, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Ukraine, Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Peru, Puerto Rico.
Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, Ayodeji (2012)	WDB	Not-peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	Nigeria
Bai, Lin, and Wang (2016)	CWB	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Longitudinal	China
Anwar, Arif, and Sarwar (2011)	WDB	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	Pakistan
Shamsudin, Subramaniam and Ibrahim (2011)	WDB, HR practices	Conference Proceeding	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	Malaysia
Cavazos-Garza (2011)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	United States of America; Mexico
Agboola and Salawu (2011)	WDB	Peer-reviewed	Qualitative	Primary	Case Study	Nigeria
Nohe, Meier, Sonntag, and Michel (2014)	WFC / Strain	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary and Secondary	Panel Study	Cross-country analyses
Appelbaum, Iaconi and Matousek (2007)	WDB	Peer-reviewed	Qualitative	Secondary	Literature review	Cross-country analyses
Casper, Eby, Bordeaux, Lockwood, and Lambert (2007)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Qualitative	Secondary	Methodological review	Cross-country analyses
Omar, Halim, Zainah, Farhadi, Nasir, and Khairudin (2011)	WDB	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	Malaysia
Nair and Bhatnagar (2011)	WDB	Peer-reviewed	Qualitative	Secondary	Literature review	Cross-country

Study	Variables	Type of Paper	Type of Analysis	Source of Data	Timing/Design	Country
Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles and König (2010).	WDB	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	United States of America
Huffman, Culbertson, Henning, and Goh (2013)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	Unites States of America
Ahmad and Omar (2013)	WFC and WDB	Peer-reviewed	Qualitative	Secondary	Literature review	Cross-country / cross-sector
Rubab (2017)	WFC and WDB	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	Pakistan
Zhang, Griffeth, and Fried (2012)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	United States of America; China
Darrat, Amyx, and Bennett (2010)	WFC and WDB	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	United States of America
Beutell, and Schneer (2014)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	United States of America
Breaugh and Frye (2008)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	Not specified
Hassan, Dollard, and Winefield (2010)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Quantitative	Primary	Cross-sectional	Malaysia
Poulose, and Sudarsan (2014)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Qualitative	Secondary	Conceptual review	Cross-country / cross-sector
Radzali, Ahmad, and Omar (2013)	WFC, Stress, Workload, WDB	Peer-reviewed	Qualitative	Secondary	Theoretical/ Conceptual review	Cross-country / cross-sector
Kossek, Pichler, Bodner and Hammer (2011)	WFC	Peer-reviewed	Qualitative	Secondary	Meta-analysis	Cross-country / cross-sector

**** WFC= Work-family conflict; WDB= Workplace deviant behaviour; CWB= Counterproductive work behaviour*

WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT

Mihelič and Tekavčič (2014, p.15) have defined work-family conflict as "… the experience of mutually incompatible pressures that stem from work and family domains." This definition is not too distinct from the classical one given by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), thus: "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p.77). The inter-role conflict, also referred to as role conflict, has been defined clearly by Robbins and Judge (2007, p.307) as "a situation in which an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations". The divergent

role expectations come about because at home, there are expectations for being a parent or a breadwinner, and at the place of work, there are expectations for being an employee or an employer, with pressure to satisfy the demands from each domain. Thus, while the family is literarily pulling the individual, the work environment also pulls the individual to get work done.

In a meta-analytic review, Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark and Baltes (2011) sought to examine a framework and theoretical model for work-family conflict. Specifically, their study aimed at identifying the antecedents of work-family conflict. They found that the antecedents to work interference with family (work-to-family conflict) are: work role stressors (including variables such as role ambiguity, time demands, job stressors, time demands and role conflict), work social support (including variables such as coworker support, organisational support and supervisor support), work characteristics (with variables such as family friendly organisation, task variety, and job autonomy), work role involvement (with variables like work interest and job involvement), and personality (including internal locus of control and neuroticism). On the other hand, the antecedents of family interference with work (family-to-work conflict) are: family social support (including spousal and general family support), family role stressors (including role conflict, role overload, parental demands, number of dependents, and role ambiguity), family involvement (with variables such as family interest or family centrality), and again personality (with same variables of internal locus of control and neuroticism).

To further add to the discussions on the antecedents of work-family conflict, DiRenzo, Greenhaus, and Weer (2011) examined differences in work interference with family and family interference with work among lower- and higher-level employees in organisations. They sought to further examine the factors that might be explaining such differences. Their findings pointed to the fact that workers at higher levels experience more conflict in both directions (that is, work interference with family, and family interference with work) than workers at the lower levels. They also found that work-based and home-based resources relate differently to the conflict experienced by lower-level and higher-level workers. Basically, this study and that of Michel et al. (2011) sought to look out for the antecedents of work-family conflict, and they both seem to arrive at a similar conclusion that factors emanating from the family and from the work domain are key contributors to the nature of the conflict. This dovetails into the later finding of Mihelič and Tekavčič (2014) who identified clearly two categories of antecedents of work-family conflict – individual differences, and characteristics of the job or family. If work domain characteristics are antecedents of work-family conflict, is it possible that changing some conditions in the work environment can greatly reduce the conflicts experienced by workers? This question was answered to a greater extent in a study by Kelly, Moen and Tranby (2011) when they investigated how changing workplaces contribute in reducing work-family conflict, with work schedule control as a mediating variable. Results from their analyses showed that initiatives taken by organisations to bring about changes in the work environment clearly affects work interference with family basically by increasing the control employees have over their work schedules.

Further, Lambert et al. (2015) did a study among correctional staff and their results revealed that role overload, perceived work dangerousness, and role stressors of role conflict, which are all variables of job demand variables, predicted work interference with family. Job resource variables (including instrumental communication, job variety, supervision, autonomy and integration), however, did not predict work interference with family or family interference with work. Apart from individual differences and job or family characteristics as antecedents of work-family conflict, Mihelič and Tekavčič (2014) identified a number of outcomes, including well-being, attitudes and behaviours, and these relate partially to the outcome variables identified by Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, and Semmer (2011). Attitudes and behaviours as outcomes of work-family conflict, as identified by Mihelič and Tekavčič (2014), are what this study captures as workplace deviant behaviours. Absenteeism (which, of course is one of the examples of workplace deviance behaviour) as a behavioural outcome has been found to be positively correlated with work-family conflict. Thus, when the felt conflicts are high, the tendency to absent oneself from work increases, all things being equal.

Amstad et al. (2011) did a meta-analysis of work-family conflict and various outcomes, and much emphasis was placed on cross-domain and matching-domain relations. They found that consistently, work interference with family and family interference with work were related to three types of outcomes, namely:

work-related outcomes, family-related outcomes, and domain-unspecific outcomes. Specifically, work interference with family was strongly correlated with work-related outcomes; family interference with work was strongly correlated with family-related outcomes. Work interference with family and family interference with work are the two directions of work-family conflict (Frone, 2003). These two measures, though somewhat overlapping, have been found to be unique in variance to warrant independent assessments (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005), however, work interference with family has become more prevalent than the family interference with work (Amstad et al., 2011; Eagle, Miles, & Icenogle, 1997). Work interference with family being strongly correlated with work-related outcomes here means that when the individual's work demands make it impossible to attend to family needs. When this happens, such individual looks for ways to satisfy the demands of the family as well, and in doing so, the likelihood of a deviant behaviour becomes the only escape route. Thus, the work-related outcome within the context of this study is the workplace deviant behaviour exhibited.

In a meta-analytical study to examine cross-national work-family conflict differences, Allen, French, Dumani and Shockley (2015) looked at the economic, cultural and institutional context of nations. Differences in work interference with family were not statistically significant, and in collectivistic cultures, family interference with work was higher than in individualistic cultures. Also family interference with work was higher in countries with higher economic gender gap than those with lower economic gender gaps, and the same was for countries other than the U.S. and the U.S.. Spector et al. (2007) studied work interference with family among managers by clustering them into four countries. One of such countries was individualistic (Anglo) while the others were collectivistic countries (Latin America, East Europe, and Asia). Anglos showed the strongest relationship with strain-based work interference with family.

Work Family Conflict Theories

Role Theory

At the very foundation of the construct, work-family conflict, is the role theory, which in fact, set the tone for the classic definition of work-family conflict by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985). Developed by Merton (1957), the role theory is hinged on the assumptions that: individuals define their own roles and of others through experience from reading or from social learning; expectations are formed from the defined roles; individuals encourage others to conform to the role expectations; individuals will always act within the adopted roles. These assumptions are evidence that the role expectations (especially when those expectations are very high) make people get stressed out, consequently resulting in a number of outcomes, including workplace deviant behaviours.

Spillover Theory

The spillover theory conceptualises the interactions between the work life and family life of an individual. According to this theory, no boundaries can be drawn between a person's work life and his/her non-work/family life (Lawson, Davis, Crouter, & O'Neill, 2013). The theory suggests that people often transfer behaviours, attitudes, emotions or skills from one domain to another, that is, from personal life to the workplace or vice versa (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006). Thus, Mennino, Rubin and Brayfield (2005) posit that work-family spillover occurs when there is a transfer from the work domain to the family domain or vice versa of behaviours, attitudes, emotions, moods and stress. The spillover theory relates to this paper in the sense that a negative spillover from the family to the work domain means that the individual worker may not be able to give the best he or she can for the organisation due to role expectations from the family domain.

The Job Demand-Control Model

Karasek (1979) introduced the Job Demand-Control (JD-C) Model to explain the effect of work characteristics on the stress, safety and well-being of workers. According to this model, stress and well-being of workers are affected by two work characteristics – job demands and job control. Job demands are concerned with those aspects of the job – physical, social, or organizational, that make demands on a worker

and requires constant input of effort, physically and psychologically (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Elst *et al.*, 2016; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Rhenen, 2009). These job demands are associated with costs that drain a worker of his/her physical and psychological energy. Thus, the higher the demands on a particular job, the more stress that worker is likely to experience which will deteriorate his/her well-being. Job demands have therefore been seen to predict stress and burnout very well, positively. Job demands include work pressure, workload and violence (Elst, Cavents, Daneels, Johannik, Baillien, Van den Broeck, & Godderis, 2016). Contrarily, job control relates to the decision latitude given to a person in his/her work; sometimes called job autonomy, which involves the level of freedom given to a worker to decide when, how and what to do on the job (Wu, 2016). This characteristic has been found to relate negatively with job stress, such that, workers who have a higher degree of freedom to make their own schedules on the job, dictate how they carry out tasks and what task to carry out at what time are able to reduce their stress levels and improve their health and well-being. The work demands as put out by Elst et al. (2016) are very potent grounds for workplace deviant behaviours.

Job Demand-Resource Model

The Job Demand-Resource (JD-R) Model is considered as one of the most useful models in explaining work-related stress (Elst *et al.*, 2016). This model assumes that certain characteristics impact on the stress, burnout and well-being of workers, and these characteristics can be categorized into two: job demands and job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands comprise aspects of the job and the organisation such as work pressure, workload, violence, harassment, aggression, among others, which drain a worker's energy resulting in stress and burnout (Elst *et al*., 2016), while job resources are those physical, social and psychological characteristics of the job that help to reduce job demands, pursue and accomplish tasks and also reduce the costs associated with the job demands.

In relation to this review, and similar to the JD-C model, when the demands on the job of an employee are high with little resources such as control, autonomy, skills and support, the schedule of the individual becomes very demanding and difficult to balance the time between work and non-work demands, thus leading to higher levels of stress related to the job and burnout. However, when employees are given adequate job resources such as the control and autonomy over when, how and what tasks to undertake, support from supervisors and co-workers, skills to effectively undertake tasks, among others, they are able to effectively reduce the demands on the job by working within schedules that are flexible for them, thus making time for family and personal life, thereby reducing job-related stress and burnout. Again from the JD-C model, it can be deduced that the job demands contribute to the tendency for employees to engage in deviant behaviours at work while the job resources relate to strategies that can be used to help employees minimize the thoughts of engaging in deviant work behaviours by eliminating the variables of the job demands.

WORKPLACE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR

The concept Workplace Deviant Behaviour is defined as a voluntary act that is in contrast with important norms of the organisation, thereby threatening the well-being of the organisation and those who work in it (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Workplace deviance also can be described as the deliberate or intentional desire to cause harm to an organization (Omar, Halim, Zainah, Farhadi, Nasir, & Kairudin, 2011). An employee who engages in a workplace deviant behaviour is called a deviant. In the definitions, there is emphasis on the violation of organisational norms intentionally or voluntarily by the employee. Voluntary because there may be no motivation to conform to the norms, and so the deviant work behaviour in itself becomes a motivating factor. Workplace deviant behaviour has variously been referred to as dysfunctional, counterproductive, maladaptive, antisocial, or simply deviant work behaviour (Nair & Bhatnagar, 2011). Further, Robinson and Greenberg (1998) examined a number of definitions of workplace deviance constructs, and they found five common characteristics among the definitions: Perpetrator (those who initiate deviant behaviours); Intentionality (it is voluntary and conscious); Target ("victim" of the deviant

behaviour); Nature and execution of action (direct, active, passive, verbal, physical); Consequence (result of a deviant behaviour). These characteristics however do not address the reasons behind deviant behaviours.

In a study conducted among civil servants in Malaysia, it was observed that job stress and job satisfaction both predicted employee workplace deviant behaviour (Omar, Halim, Zainah, Farhadi, Nasir & Khairudin, 2011). Specifically, job satisfaction negatively relates with workplace deviant behaviour (thus, when one is satisfied on the job in the presence of job resources, workplace deviant behaviours are minimized) while job stress (which is an aspect of the job demands, with reference to the job demand-resource model) positively relates with workplace deviant behaviour. Thus, a satisfied employee would find no cause to cause harm or damage to a fellow employee or to the property of the organisation. On the other hand, a stressed employee, in an attempt to ward off stress may end up behaving in a deviant way. Stress as an antecedent of workplace deviance, is one of the consequences of work-family conflict. This therefore makes it possible to conceptualise the relationship between work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviour with stress as a mediating variable. Burnout is also a consequence of work-family conflict (Karatepe & Uludag, 2008).

Concept Theories of Workplace Deviance

Affective Events Theory (AET)

This theory suggests that workplace events cause emotional reactions on the part of employees, which then influence workplace attitudes and behaviours. This theory proposes that affective reactions from employees are triggered by organisational events. By implication, things happen to employees in work setting and people often react emotionally to these events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Radzali et al. (2013) noted that deviant behaviour results from work strains that bring about negative emotions such as depression, anger and frustration. These negative emotions generate the need for corrective action and individuals respond through deviant behaviour. Workforce emotions are well-taken into consideration as integral to the understanding of their attitudes and behaviours towards work and organization as a whole (Zerbe, Ashkanasy, & Hartel, 2006). Individual's emotions have been claimed as a strong predictor of behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Agency Theory

Agency theory holds that agents (employees) are self-interested individuals who are inclined to opportunism (Fagbohungbe et al., 2012). Opportunism relates to furthering one's immediate interests without regard to basic principles or consequences, therefore self-interests of rational individuals does not necessarily result in opportunistic behaviour (Gomez-Mejia, Wiseman, & Dykes, 2005). The key assumption in this theory is that an employee's deviant behaviour generates benefits for the employee but also costs to the organization, and the two do not necessarily coincide. Thus in their quest for attaining higher benefits, employees also become conscious of issues of equity, thereby comparing the ratio of their inputs and output to others, such that when they perceive inequity or discrepancy, they take steps (which are at times negative) to attain perceived equity. This ties into Adams' (1965) equity theory, which is widely known in management studies and emphasizes the perception of individuals about fairness.

Antecedents of Workplace Deviant Behaviour

Workplace deviant behaviour has been found to be predicted with a combination of individual- and situational-level factors (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Herschovis *et al.*, 2007; O'Leary-Kelly *et al.*, 1996; Peterson, 2002a; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Vardi, 2001; Vardi & Wiener, 1996). Predictors of deviant behaviours have been classified under the personality-related factors and organisational factors. With this study considering work-family conflict as a predictor, the personality-related factors and organisational factors are both embedded in the work-family conflict construct due to its nature, that is, factors from home (personal factors) and factors from the workplace (organisational factors). Work-family conflict arises when individuals are unable to maintain a balance between demands from work

and demands from the family domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). When employees experience the conflicts, are they likely to be engaged in one form of deviant behaviour or the other? For instance, why would an employee lie about hours worked, call in sick when not, or steal from the organisation to cater for family need?

Other researchers have argued that different antecedents explain different types of workplace deviant behaviours. For example, organizational factors might be more likely to influence deviance directed at harming organizations, whereas individual variables may be more likely to explain interpersonal forms of deviance harming individuals (Everton, Jolton, & Mastrangelo, 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). In the same vein, empirical evidence suggested different antecedents displaying different effects on different types of workplace deviance (Colbert *et al.,* 2004; Lawrence & Robinson, 2007; Peterson, 2002a).

WFC as Antecedent of WDB

Darrat, Amyx and Bennett's (2013) study into the effects of work-family conflict on deviance among salespersons revealed that up to 40 percent of salespersons admitted to having been engaged in one workplace deviant behaviour or the other. Also, about 66 percent of the salespersons did not perceive that workplace deviant behaviour would attract significant punishment as a consequence. The study found that work-family conflict was significantly related to the three forms of deviance considered in their study – interpersonal, organisational, and customer. Key among their recommendations was that sales managers must be careful in assigning targets to their salespersons; that the targets should be reasonable and attainable. Overstretching their salespersons through work or role overload (eg. Bayram, Gursakal, & Bilgel, 2009; Jonge & Peters, 2009) has the potential of making them look for any means to achieve their targets, which then makes them engage in varied forms of deviant behaviours. Work environments where there is excessive workload can be considered as hostile environments (Hauge et al., 2002; Bayram et al., 2009); Stouten et al. (2011) suggested that employers must ensure that their employees are not exposed to excessive workloads since they have been found to be associated with deviant behaviours.

Riding on the issue of ensuring that reasonable and attainable targets are given employees, Spanouli and Hofmans (2016) observed that pressuring employees with excessive work demands that often fall outside their work schedules or job descriptions has the tendency of making them engage in counterproductive work behaviours. They recommended that employers be mindful of the unintended consequences that such pressures could bring to the organisation as a whole. They drew from Adams' (1965) Equity Theory by arguing that if the pressures of work get to the extent where employees feel that they are not being fairly treated, they would also reciprocate by engaging in counterproductive work behaviours so as to minimize the cognitive dissonance.

Rubab (2017) conducted a study to investigate the effect of work-family conflict on burnout and deviant behaviours at the workplace by using job stress as a mediating variable. The study found work-family conflict to be positively related to workplace deviant behaviour and burnout. In other words, when the felt conflicts (that is, incompatibility of demands from home and work domains) are high, employees are very likely to be engaged in workplace deviant behaviour, and they are also more likely to experience burnout. This finding aligns with that of Darrat et al. (2013) when they studied workplace deviant behaviours among salespersons. Rubab (2017) noted that workplace deviant behaviours has over the years contributed significantly to revenue losses by organisations and to a greater extent, irreparable damage to the workplace environment. For instance, an employee who is consistently absent from work leaves some aspects of the job undone, and this has financial implications; an employee who arrives late to work too, accumulates financial losses because the late hours not worked can be costed. Or even one who intentionally destroys working tools and equipment incurs cost of repairs to such damaged items. Such deviant behaviours must be nipped in the bud if the organisation really seeks to advance (Appelbaum, Deguire & Lay, 2005).

Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, and Ayodeji (2012) looked at the factors that result in workplace deviant behaviours from organisations. Among the factors that predicted workplace deviant behaviours, *kind of work*, and *amount of work* were key. When the kind of work and amount of work makes it impossible for an individual to have time for family or other personal affairs, the work-family conflict phenomenon arises,

thus making such employee look for any means possible to attain a balance. Often, such means are unjust and inappropriate, thereby making them deviant workplace behaviours.

CONCLUSION

From the reviews and discussions on the variables of concern, it is clear that workplace deviant behaviours do not occur in a vacuum; there is, or are, some antecedents, for which work-family conflict plays a very key role through its consequences. Some of such consequences of work-family conflict then become the antecedents of workplace deviant behaviour. Although it is possible to draw a direct link between work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviours, stress and burnout (directly emanating from work overload) are suspected to be possible mediating variables that warrant further research empirically. This is illustrated in Figure 1. Apart from work done among salespersons (Darrat et al., 2010), healthcare workers (Jonge & Peters, 2009), and university staff, comparing male and female workers (Anwar et al., 2011), very little empirical literature exists across time, sectors, and countries. With the conceptualization of the link between work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviour, with stress and burnout being the mediators, further reviews are needed, leading to an empirical study to actually test the variables of concern and establish appropriate relationships. Thus, to what extent do the variables of stress and burnout explain the relationship between work-family conflict and workplace deviant behaviour?

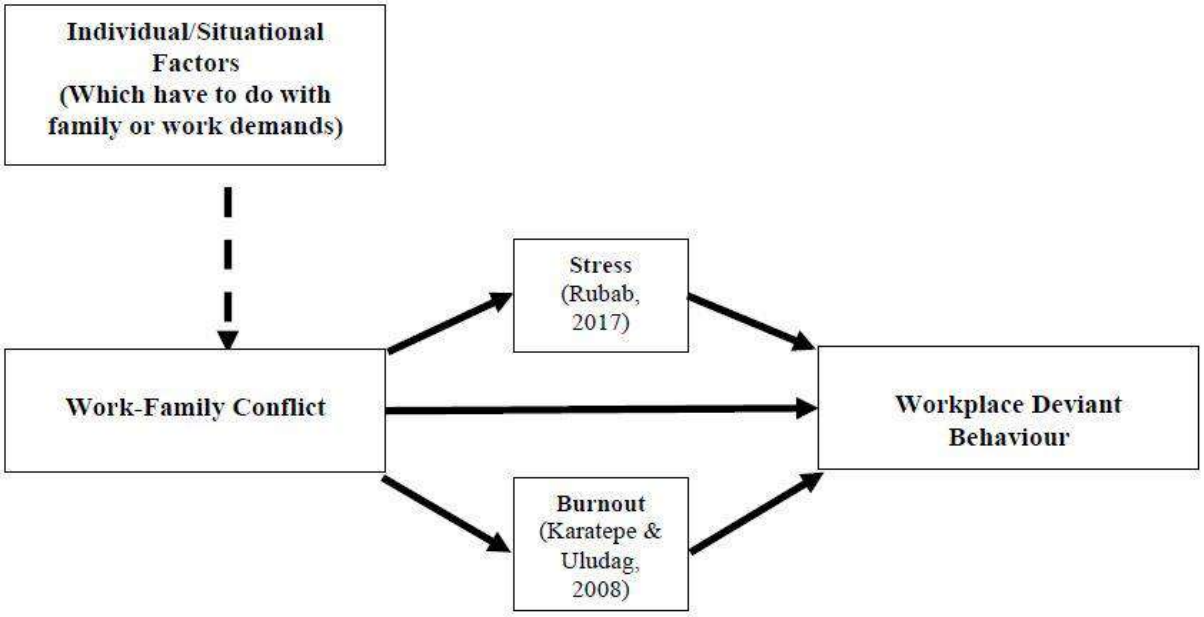

Figure 1: *Author's Conceptualisation of the link between WFC and WDB*

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EXTENDED FAMILY AND MARITAL RESOURCES AS COPING MECHANISMS FOR MANAGING THE NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF FAMILY DEMANDS ON FAMILY-WORK CONFLICT

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ABSTRACT

The lack of a universal definition of the family has created a gap in the understanding of the role of extended family members in research in sub-Saharan Africa. A two-stage study in Nigeria indicated the distinct nature of extended family support and demand, that extended family support and demand explained additional variance in family-work conflict, and that marital and extended family supports moderated the relationship between parental and family-work conflict. These results indicate that the context of study must be considered in defining family variables. Theoretical and managerial implications were drawn from the results obtained.

Keywords: Nuclear family, Extended family, family-work conflict, marital, parental

INTRODUCTION

> *The importance of social and cultural context in generating the meanings of family, together with the wide variation in meaning even within the same interview, point to the unspoken assumptions that enable people to understand what is being referred to by the term family* (Becker & Charles, 2006, p.119).

Work and family have transformed in recent times and are characterized by the increased number of dual-income families, single parenting, and workplace diversity (Ajala, 2017; International Labor Office, 2009). These changes have led to the existence of diverse workplace models such as flexible work schedules, part-time schedules, and other non-standard employments all aimed at managing demands when people are involved in the work and family domains simultaneously (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Burke & Cooper, 2008; Kuschel, 2017). Managing the demands of work and family is critical to employees' wellbeing and productivity, and failure to do this has negative consequences (Annor, 2014; Shockley & Singla, 2011). For example, the inability to balance the demands of work and family is known to have health, physiological and psychological implications (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1994). Family resources, especially support, have been identified as a possible coping mechanism which has the potential to mitigate the negative effects of family-work conflict (Annor, 2014; Fredriksen-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2001; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1994). An aspect of family resources which has been identified and discussed in qualitative studies and popular media as common in most communities is the support or care received from extended family members (Annor, 2014; Fredriksen-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2001). Despite this realization, Annor (2014) stated that these resources which are widely used by working couples in sub-Saharan Africa have not been empirically tested to confirm their effectiveness. This omission arose from the inadequate definition of the family in some contexts of past empirical studies (Bagger & Love, 2010 cited in Annor, 2014).

To accurately determine the level and sources of family resources, there is a need to define what constitutes the family. After reviewing the definition of family in past studies, Rothausen (1999:820) observed that no common definition can be drawn from the studies and so "the importance of recognizing and capturing this diversity" in future studies is encouraged. Similarly, Miller (2002) concluded that the current definition of the family excluded extended family members thereby creating a gap in family research. Fifteen years after the comments made by Miller (2002), Kuschel (2017) reviewed work-family studies between 2004 and 2014 and concluded that most studies defined the family in terms of nuclear family and failed to account for the extended family members in the management of the conflict between work and family roles. Aryee (2005) identified extended family resources as a possible coping mechanism in

managing the conflict between work and family in sub-Saharan Africa and even made research proposals that may guide future studies. Ugwu (2017) recognized that female bank workers in Nigeria utilized the services of house help and other family members as coping mechanisms. Yet when identifying the family variables that contribute to the management of the conflict between work and family roles, the contributions of extended family members and house helps were not reflected in the study and in other studies in sub-Saharan Africa. The opening quotation further highlights the need to understand the meaning of family in the context of any research. Becker and Charles (2006) concluded after a qualitative study that people from different contexts understand family differently, and so any study involving the family must draw from the meaning in its context. Bassani (2007:119) identified that the popular Japanese family form "tanshin funin" was yet to be reflected in studies in the western context. There are also lapses in the definition of the family in the Nigerian context. For example, Amah (2010) while defining family-friendly policies identified spouse and childcare but not extended family care. The current study argued that in establishing family resources in studies situated in Nigeria (and most probably Africa), the contextual definition of the family which includes the extended family and even house helps must be factored in. This is the only way to make the results of the studies in Africa relevant to practitioners, employers, and employees (Hodgson & Birks, 2002; Sharma, 2013).

In the African context, the nuclear family is a part of the extended family structure (Annor, 2014; Stewart, 2007). The nuclear family structure contains a married couple with/without their unmarried children (Sharma, 2013); the extended family structure is a family structure which includes maternal and paternal grandparents, parents, children, aunts, uncles, cousins, siblings, nephews, nieces, and other kin of the wife and husband (Georgas, 2003). The main difference between defining family as nuclear or extended is the composition of the family demand and resources. For example, only marital support is available in nuclear family, while the extended family structure has support from spouse and extended family members (Ferri, Pedrini & Riva, 2018; Namayandeh, Yaacob, & Juhari, 2010; Nyaledzigbor, 2013; Polat, Kutlu, Ay, Erkan, & Dogrusoz, 2018; Wallace, 2014). Working couples have consistently maintained that domestic support provided by extended family members was effective in managing the stress encountered in the work and family domain. However, empirical evidence to support this assertion is scarce and still leaves some questions unanswered (Annor, 2014). The questions are: is extended family support distinct from marital support? Is extended family demand distinct from marital and parental demand? Will extended family variables (demand and support) explain additional variance in the value of family-work conflict when the contributions of marital and parental variables are controlled? What is the role of the extended family support in ensuring low family-work conflict?

Hence, the aim of the current research is to find answers to these questions by expanding the meaning of family according to the cultural context of sub-Saharan Africa. In doing this, the study makes two valuable contributions. The first is to answer the call to define the family in the context of the study since country specific variables affect people's experience of work-life balance (Kossek & Ollier-Malaterre, 2013; Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009). The second is to test a robust model of the antecedents of family-work conflict so that the results obtained would provide all encompassing data to help organizations in formulating family supportive policies. For example, Hegewish and Gornick (2011) established that work-family policies formulated based on the family as a nuclear entity help women to manage the conflict between their work and family role involvements. It is likely that the policies would vary if the extended family was included in the definition of the family. The study was carried out in two stages. Stage 1 addressed questions 1 and 2 by establishing the distinctiveness of the extended family variables (demand and support), while stage 2 addressed questions 3 and 4 by establishing the role of extended family variables in a family-work conflict model.

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Nigeria is located in the West Africa within the sub-Saharan region of Africa. She is a former British colony with institutional arrangements drawn largely from the western world. The population of the country is estimated to be 200 million persons representing 2.35% of the world's population. According to the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) 2018 Q3 report, approximately 17.2 million persons work full-time in

the urban city and have a high likelihood of experiencing work-family conflict, even if they worked the normal 40 hours a week.

The Nigerian work environment was initially a traditional setting in which the men were involved in the work while the women were regarded as care givers at home on full-time basis (Epie & Ituma, 2014). However, globalization, and some social campaigns have led to the increase in the number of women in the workforce (Ajala, 2017; Ajiboye, 2008). However, unlike the western world where members of the family share home duties, home duties are still the full responsibility of women despite their increased role in the work domain. Poor labour laws and the unwillingness of organizations to invest in family-friendly policies, aggravated the work-family conflict of women and lower their satisfaction with family activities. (Epie & Ituma, 2014).

THEORY BUILDING AND HYPOTHESES

Family-Work Conflict

Work-family conflict (WFC) occurs when individuals who are simultaneously involved in the work and family domains find it increasingly difficult to be effective in each domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Individuals involved in work and family domains have limited resources, and based on the scarcity model, utilizing resources in one domain depletes resources available for use in other domains thereby causing conflict (Annor, 2014). For example, individuals have limited amount of time and when they spend this in the work domain, they have limited time for their roles in the family domain. Work-family conflict occurs in two directions namely, work interfering with family (work-family conflict) and family interfering with work (family-work conflict) (Annor, 2014; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Jaga, 2014). Family-work conflict (FWC) is the subject of this study. Past studies have established that the interface between work and family is permeable and hence, what happens in one domain affects the other domain. Studies have shown that the two forms of conflicts act as gateways through which events in one domain affect functionality in another domain (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986, Ironson, 1992). The antecedents of each form of conflict reside in the domain of the conflict. For example, the antecedents of FWC include variables that make demand on individuals such as parental demand and marital demand, while resources such as extended family and marital support provide relief from FWC.

Family Demand

Family demand is a "perception of the level and intensity of responsibility within the family domain" (Boyar, Maertz, Mosley, & Carr, 2008:218). There are many family role characters that affect overall family demand, and the role characters used depend on how the family is defined. In the nuclear family, the role characters would be the parental and marital roles (Kuschel, 2017). However, in the current study where the extended family structure is considered, the role would include that of caring for the extended family members. Parental, marital and extended family demands arise from the responsibility people have to their children, spouse and extended family members respectively. The number of children living at home, marital status/hours of care giving to spouse, and number of extended family members living at home, have been used as objective measures of parental, marital and extended family demands respectively (Boyar et al., 2008). However, results from past studies which utilized these objective measures have been inconclusive (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996; Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001). This has led to the use of subjective measures since stress depends on individual evaluation of the environmental demand and personal resources, and not on objective facts (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). According to the conservation of resources (COR) model (Ten Bruuelhuis and Bakker (2012), stress arises when an individual does not have enough resources to satisfy the demand placed on him by the environment. Marital, extended family, and parental demands will drain the resources available to an individual. Hence, by the COR model, stress will occur because people do not have resources to satisfy the demand placed on them. Thus, there will be increase in FWC. Hence the following hypotheses are stated:

Hypothesis 1*: Marital demand is positively related to family-work conflict*
Hypothesis 2*: Parental demand is positively related to family-work conflict*
Hypothesis 3*: Extended family demand is positively related to family-work conflict*

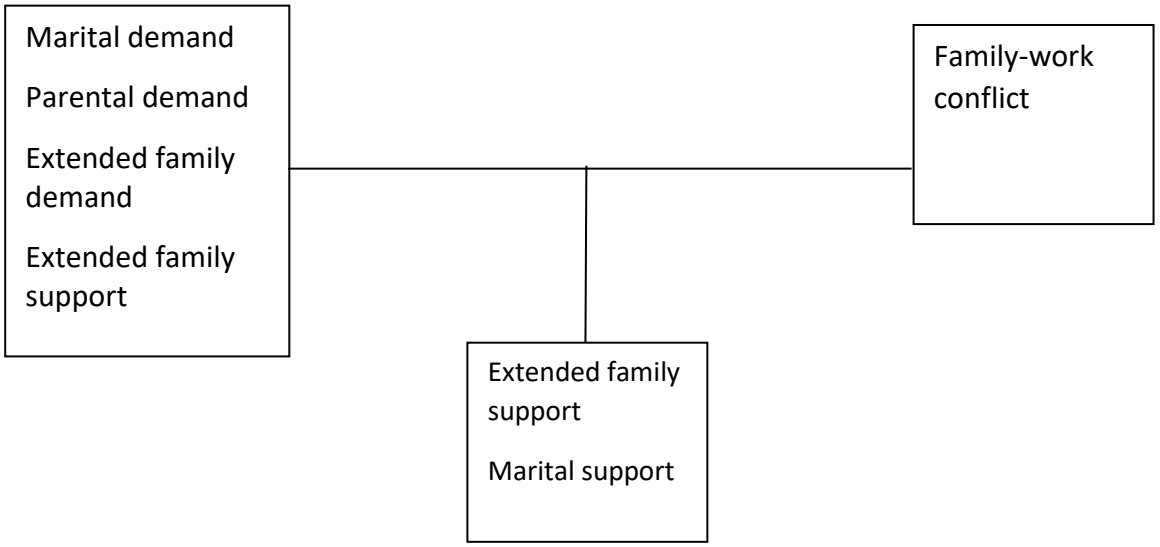
Family Support (Support from spouse and extended family)

The emergence of dual-career and dual-income families has made family social support inevitable in handling the demand from the family and work domain (Akinnusi et al, 2018; Epie & Ituma, 2014). Like all social supports, family support is the interpersonal transaction involving exchange of resources between two individuals and perceived by the provider and recipient to be intended to enhance the wellbeing of the recipient. It "involves emotional concern, instrumental aid, information or appraisal" (Aryee, 2005:265). Family social support can come from the spouse or the extended family members (Akinnusi et al 2018). Family social support is operationalized as the perception of the levels of encouragement, high quality relationships and amount of help offered by spouse and extended family members. Irrespective of the forms of support, family support can be categorized as either instrumental (helping behavior) or emotional (caring behavior). For social support to be effective, the type of support must correspond to the need of the recipient, and the source of the support must correspond with the source of the stress it is meant to relieve. For example, assuming individuals desire support to handle childcare, the support must come from family members, and in a form that reduces the recipient's childcare responsibilities. Annor (2014) argued that in the absence of adequate family support interventions from sub-Saharan African organizations and government agencies, extended family members play a major role in the management of home activities for working couples. Extended family members provide social support that mitigates family-work conflict and enhances the wellbeing of the recipients. Akinnusi et al (2018) opined that the presence of a social support for families experiencing work-family issues is likely to influence the wellbeing of all the family members. Ferri *et al* (2018) also argued that social support, such as the use of extended family relatives or domestic help, may offer working men and women more leverage in managing work-family conflict.

In the Nigerian context, the extended family relatives of either husband or wife are expected to be concerned and provide the needed emotional and physical support for the overall wellbeing of family members. These supports are aimed at ensuring that family members who are employees concentrate on their jobs and have less family issues to grapple with. This will in turn enhance both their working life and satisfaction with the family. According to the conservation of resources model, when a demand drains resources, the effect of such demand can be reduced when the individual has constant supply of resources that can handle the demand. For example, when working mothers face demand from their parental role, the help offered by extended family members and spouse will reduce the FWC experienced. Similarly, when employees obtain resources by way of support from their spouse and extended family members, they will be able to mitigate the effect of family demand on FWC. Thus, the resources provided by the extended family and marital supports will moderate the positive relationship FWC has with the demand variables such that it becomes weaker. Hence, the following hypotheses are stated:

Hypothesis 4*: Marital support is negatively related to family-work conflict*
Hypothesis 5*: Extended family member support is negatively related to family-work conflict*
Hypothesis 6*: Extended family support will moderate the relationships among parental, extended family, and marital demands and family-work conflict such that the positive relationships become weaker.*
Hypothesis 7*: Marital support will moderate the relationships among parental, extended family and marital demands and family-work conflict such that the positive relationship becomes weaker.*

FIGURE 1
Conceptual Model of Hypothesized Relationships



STUDY 1 METHOD

Participants and Procedure

Two organizations in the city of Lagos were involved in the first stage of the study. Participants were obtained using the phone directory of each organization. The first part of the questionnaire captured the demographic data of the participants while the second part captured the variables used for the research. The demographic variables captured included gender, marital status, and age of the youngest child. Participants were assured of confidentiality and filled questionnaires were returned by participants directly to the researcher through a locked box in each organization. The questionnaires were distributed to 500 randomly selected participants in the 2 organizations. The essence of this stage was to obtain data to validate the distinctiveness of marital, parental and extended family demands, and to also establish the distinctiveness of marital and extended family support. Two hundred questionnaires were returned (40%). The participants were mainly female (70%), between the ages 28-40 years (88%), all married, 75% of them have children between 1-5 years, and 65% have bachelor's degree or higher degree.

Measures

Existing and validated measures were used for the study. Marital support, extended family support, extended family demand, and marital demand were measured with Likert's scale of 1=Not at all to 5=A great deal. Parental demand was measured with Likert's scale of 1=Almost never to 5=Almost often.

Marital demand was taken from the work of Vinokur *et al*. (1999), and the items in it were rephrased to capture extended family demand which was not measured by the study. The items measured the level and intensity of care given to the spouse and extended family members. Example item for marital demand is "How much responsibility do you have to your spouse?" The Cronbach alpha for marital stress obtained in this study is 0.82 compared to 0.73 obtained by Vinokur et al. (1999), and that of extended family stress is "How much responsibility do you have to your extended family members?" The Cronbach alpha for this measure is 0.75. Parental demand was taken from the work of Vinokur et al. (1999). It measures the difficulty individuals have in handling their parental care responsibilities. Example item is "How often do you feel that you have too little time to yourself because of your children." Cronbach alpha obtained in this study is 0.82 compared to 0.81 obtained by Vinokur et al. (1999).

Marital support was taken from the work of Carlson and Perrewe (1999), and the items in it were rephrased to capture extended family support. These items measured the level of support obtained from spouse and extended family members. Example item for marital support is "How much does your spouse provide you with encouragement and reassurance when you need it?", and that of extended family support is "How much does your extended family members provide you with encouragement and reassurance when you need it?" Cronbach alpha obtained for marital support in this study is 0.80 and is the same as what Calson and Perrewe (1999) obtained. The Cronbach alpha for the extended family support obtained in this study is 0.71.

RESULTS

The study was to establish that extended family support was distinct from marital support, and that extended family demand was distinct from marital and parental demand. Unrotated factor analysis extracted five factors with the first factor extracting only 20% of the variance compared to 72% extracted by the whole factors. Common method factor was included in the 5-factor model with the loadings of all items on this common factor set to be equal, and factor variance constrained to be 1. The common loading was 0.5 which indicated that the common method variance was 25%. These results showed that common method variance was not an issue (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The instruction given to the participants was aimed at minimizing common method variance in line with Chang, Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010 recommendation. The Cronbach alpha for all variables were above the 0.7 cutoff mark (Nunnally, 1978), and the loadings for items of each factor were all above the cutoff mark of 0.5 (Hair *et al*., 2010). Thus, convergent validity and construct validity were achieved.

Two separate factor models involving marital demand, parental demand, and extended family demand were tested. The first model was a single factor model where the items for the three variables loaded on a single factor. The second model contained 3 factors where items for each variable loaded on their respective factor. Results indicated that the 3-factor model with all the demand variables as separate factor had the better fit indices of $\chi2$ =15.34; df=10; $\chi2$/df= 1.534; GFI=.98; CFI=.97; RMSEA=.046 (see Table 1).

Two separate factor models involving marital and extended family support were tested. The first model contained a single factor where the items for the support variables loaded on a single factor. The second model was a 2-factor model where the items for each support variable loaded on their respective factor. Results indicated that the 2-factor model had the better fit indices of $\chi2$ =6.21; df=11; $\chi2$/df= 1.677; GFI=.99; CFI=.98; RMSEA=.052 (see Table 2)

TABLE 1
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Marital Demand, Parental Demand, Extended Family Demand Factors

	$\chi2$	df	Δ $\chi2$	$\chi2$ /df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
1 Factor (all loaded on 1 factor)	107.55	13		8.273	.88	.85	.171	.000
3 Factors (all separate factor)	15.34	10	92.21**	1.534	.98	.97	.046	.502

**p<.001

TABLE 2
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Marital Support, and Extended Family Support Factors

	$\chi2$	df	Δ $\chi2$	$\chi2$ /df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
1 Factor (all loaded on 1 factor)	40.62	15		8.123	.94	.88	.169	.000
2 Factors (all separate factor)	6.21	11	33.91**	1.677	.99	.95	.052	.399

**p<.001

STUDY 2

Participants and Procedures

Fieldwork was undertaken using questionnaires to obtain data from the participants in the participating organizations. Five organizations in the city of Lagos agreed to participate in the study. The organizations nominated a person who coordinated the entire process of obtaining data in the organization. The nominated individual worked with the researcher to obtain sample of participants using the phone directory of each organization. The first part of the questionnaire captured the demographic data of the participants while the second part captured the variables used for the research. The choice of the demographic factors was based on past studies establishing the variables that affected family-work conflict, and family variables (Amah, 2010). Participants were informed that the data would be used for research and would be presented in a format that would not identify those who provided the data. They were instructed to avoid any data they did not wish to provide. To ensure further confidentiality, a locked box was placed in each organization, and filled questionnaires were dropped in the box by the participants themselves. A total of 1000 questionnaires were distributed to the participants. However, only 400 filled questionnaires were returned (40%). This sample size was determined to be adequate for the implementation of Structural Equation Modeling Technique which is the statistical method used for analyzing the data collected (Amah, 2010; Bentler, 1990). The participants were mainly female (62%), between the ages 28-40 years (90%), all married, 88% of them have children between 1-5 years (88%), and 79% have bachelor's degree or higher degree.

Measures

All the variables used in stage 1 were adopted in stage 2 and from the same authors. Only family-work conflict was added in stage two of the study. Family-work conflict was captured using Likert's scale of 1=strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree.

Family-work conflict was taken from the work of Karatepe and Azar (2013). It captured how involvement in family affects functionality at work. Example item is "I am often too tired at work because of things I do at home." The Cronbach alpha obtained in this study is 0.83 compared to 0.73 obtained by Karatepe and Azar (2013). The Cronbach alpha for marital demand, parental demand, extended family demand, marital support and extended family support in stage 2 of the study were 0.78, 0.79, 0.75, 0.79, and 0.72 respectively.

DATA ANALYSIS

Preliminary analysis

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 23) and Analysis of Moments of Structures (AMOS 23) were used for the analyses of data. The model fit was gauged using Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Root Mean Standard Error of Approximation (RMSEA). For the GFI and CFI, an effective model must have at least a value of 0.9, while the RMSEA value must fall between 0.5 and 0.8. (Bentler, 1990). Prior to calculating the interaction terms, the values of the interacting variables were mean centered to avoid collinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). The purpose of stage two of this study was to establish if extended family support contributed significant variance to FWC after the variance contributed by other variables had been factored in. The second aim was to establish the role of extended family support in the FWC model.

Common method analysis

Cross-sectional study with data acquired through self-report is the best method for capturing the study variables in this study. This is because only the individual involved can accurately rate self on the variables. For example, no family member can rate how another family member feels about relationship in the family. However, to minimize common method variance, the method recommended by Chang, Witteloostuijn and Eden (2010) was adopted in the instructions given to participants. Participants were informed that the data would be used for research and presented in a format that would not identify those who provided the data.

They were instructed to avoid any data they did not wish to provide and filled questionnaires were dropped in a locked box by the participants themselves. Despite these instructions, three other methods were used to gauge the level of common method variance in the study. Non-rotated exploratory factor analysis extracted six factors with the first factor extracting only 20% of the variance compared to 75% extracted by all the factors. Thus, the common method variance was acceptable (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The second method involved testing a six-factor model and one factor model of all the study variables. The six-factor model had a better fit with the following indices: $\chi 2$ =107.088; df=78; $\chi 2$/df= 1.360; GFI=.95; CFI=.98; RMSEA=.038 (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Marital Demand, Parental Demand, Extended Family Demand, Marital Support and Extended Family Support, and Family-Work Conflict

	$\chi 2$	df	$\Delta \chi 2$	$\chi 2$ /df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
1 Factor (all loaded on 1 factor)	577.556	88	471.47**	6.563	.74	.61	.149	.000
6 Factors (all separate factor)	106.088	78		1.360	.95	.98	.038	.866

**p<.001

The 6-factor model was modified to include a common factor in the third method. The loadings of the items on the common factor were constrained to be equal and the variance of the factor was stipulated to be 1 (Chang *et al*., 2010; Eichhorn, 2014). The estimated equal loading was .47 which gave common method variance of 22% compared to 50% recommended by (Chang *et al*., 2010; Eichhorn, 2014). Based on the three tests, the common method variance was acceptable.

Construct, convergent and discriminant validity analysis.

For construct validity to be accepted, the loading of items to their respect factors must exceed the cutoff point of 0.5 (Hair, *et al*., 2010). Table 4 indicated that this condition was achieved in all factors. Convergent validity indicates closeness of the items that measure the same variable. Convergent validity is achieved when the loadings of items exceed 0.5, Cronbach reliability above 0.7, and average variance extracted exceeds 0.5 (Hair *et al*., 2010; Nunnally, 1978). Table 4 indicated that the conditions were achieved by all the factors. According to Koufteros, Vonderembse and Doll (2002), to ascertain discriminant validity, the average variance extracted by each variable should be compared with the variance shared with other variables. Each diagonal element in Table 5 is greater than its vertical and horizontal off-diagonal elements showing evidence of discriminant validity.

TABLE 4
Construct and Convergent Validity

Variable	Range of item loadings on factors	Average variance extracted	Cronbach alpha	Composite reliability
Family-work conflict	0.79-0.80	0.65	0.71	0.94
Marital support	0.82-0.87	0.71	0.79	0.90
Extended family support	0.79-0.83	0.66	0.72	0.92
Marital demand	0.78-0.81	0.74	0.78	0.88
Extended family demand	0.72-0.82	0.76	0.75	0.85
Parental demand	0.75-0.80	0.68	0.79	0.87

TABLE 5
Discriminant Validity

	1	3	4	5	6	7
1.Family-work conflict	**.65**					
2. Marital support	.03	**.71**				
3. Extended family support	.02	.07	**.66**			
4. Marital demand	.01	.01	.05	**.74**		
5. Extended family demand	.02	.01	.05	.35	**.76**	
6. Parental demand	.06	.06	.12	.27	.27	**.68**

Diagonal entries in bold represent the average variance extracted, and all other entries are squared correlation matrix.

RESULTS

The three methods used in testing for common method variance indicated that the level in the study is within the acceptable level recommended (see Tables 3, 4, and 5). Correlation between study variables indicated support for most of the hypotheses (see Table 6). The regression analysis is in Table 7.

TABLE 6
Mean, Standard Deviation, Correlation and Reliability Coefficient

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Gender														
2.Job status			-.01											
3.Age			-.23**	.32**										
4.Marital status			.04	.31**	.45**									
5.Age youngest child			-.37**	-.07	-.01	-.47**								
6.Highest Education			-.11	.08	.17**	.19**	.01							
7.Family-work conflict	3.01	.77	-.01	.07	.05	.09	-.01	.04	**.83**					
8. Marital support	3.35	1.00	-.11	.11	.16*	.16*	.05	.18**	.17**	**.79**				
9.EFS	3.15	.93	.15*	.14*	.04	.10	-.06	.10	.04	.26**	**.72**			
10.Marital demand	2.79	1.04	.27**	.04	.03	.13*	-.26**	.03	.18**	-.05	.22**	**.78**		
11.EFD	2.86	1.16	.32**	.10	.04	.16*	-.29**	.09	-.15*	-.11	.23**	.59**	**.75**	
12.Parental demand	2.77	.88	.23**	-.02	.01	.14*	-.28**	.03	.25**	.01	-.35**	.52**	.52**	**.79**

*p<.05, **p<.001 Diagonal elements are Cronbach alpha

TABLE 7
Hierarchical Regression Analysis on Family-work Conflict

Predictors	β	T	Hypotheses
Step 1: Control variables			
Gender	0.14*	2.053	
Job status	-0.04	-.518	
Age	0.08	1.060	
Marital status	-0.02	-.264	
Age of youngest child	-0.19*	-2.429	
Education	0.01	.196	
ΔR^2	0.07*		
F Change	3.048		
Step 2: Direct effects			
Marital support	-0.13*	-2.455	H4
Marital demand	0.23**	3.870	H1
Parental demand	0.40**	6.484	H2
ΔR^2	0.29**		
F Change	36.165		
Step 3: Direct effects			
Extended family support	-0.12*	-2.070	H5
Extended family demand	.14*	2.119	H3
ΔR^2	0.02*		
F Change	4.284		
Step 4: Interaction terms			
Extended family support*Parental stress	-.16*	-2.162	H6
Marital support*Parental stress	-.15*	-2.103	H7
Marital support*marital stress	-.13	-1.577	H7
Marital support*extended family stress	-.09	-1.061	H7
Extended family support*marital stress	-.11	-1.433	H6
Extended family support*extended family stress	.10	1.211	H6
ΔR2	.03*		
F Change	2.788		

**p<.05, ** p<.001*

Gender was positively related to FWC (β=.14, t=2.053). Since high number of gender was female, the result implied that females experienced more FWC than males. The age of the younger child is negatively related to FWC (β=-.19, t=-2.429). This implied that participants with younger children experienced more FWC than those with older children. These demographic variables accounted for 7% of the variance of FWC. After controlling for the demographic variables, family-work conflict had positive significant relationship with marital demand (β=.23, t=3.870), and parental demand (β=.40, t=6.484). Thus, hypotheses H1 and H2 were supported. Family-work conflict had significant negative relationship with marital support (β=-.13, t=-2.495). Thus, H4 was supported. After controlling for the demographic variables and the marital and parental variables, extended family support was negatively related to FWC (β=-.12, t=-2.070), while extended family demand was positively related to FWC (β=.14, t=2.119). Thus, hypotheses H5 and H3 were supported. The interaction between extended family support and parental demand significantly predicted FWC (β=-.16, t=-2.162), and that between marital support and parental demand also significant predicted FWC (β=-.15, t=-2.104). The interaction terms between extended family support and marital demand (β=-.11, t=-1.433), extended family support and extended family demand (β=-.09, t=-1.061), marital support and marital demand (β=-.13, t=-1.577), and marital support and extended family demand (β=.10, t=-1.211) did not significantly predict FWC. Thus, hypotheses H6 and H7 were partially supported. The extended family variables (support and demand) and the interaction terms accounted for additional 2% and 3% respectively in the variance of FWC.

To interpret the significant interaction terms, the method recommended by Aiken and West (1991) was adopted. Participants with high value and low values on the support variables (marital and extended family) were separated. High value participants had mean value plus the standard deviation while low value participants had mean minus standard deviation. Regression analyses were run separately for high and low groups. The results indicate that the link between Parental demand and FWC was weaker for high values of extended family support (Figure 2), and for high marital support (Figure 3).

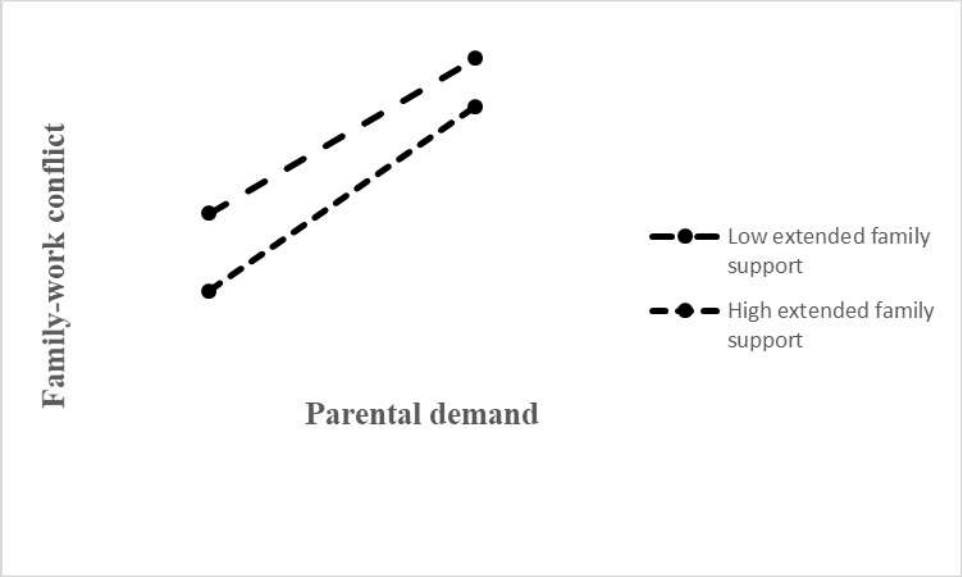


Figure 2. Regression of parental stress on family-work conflict for high and low extended family support

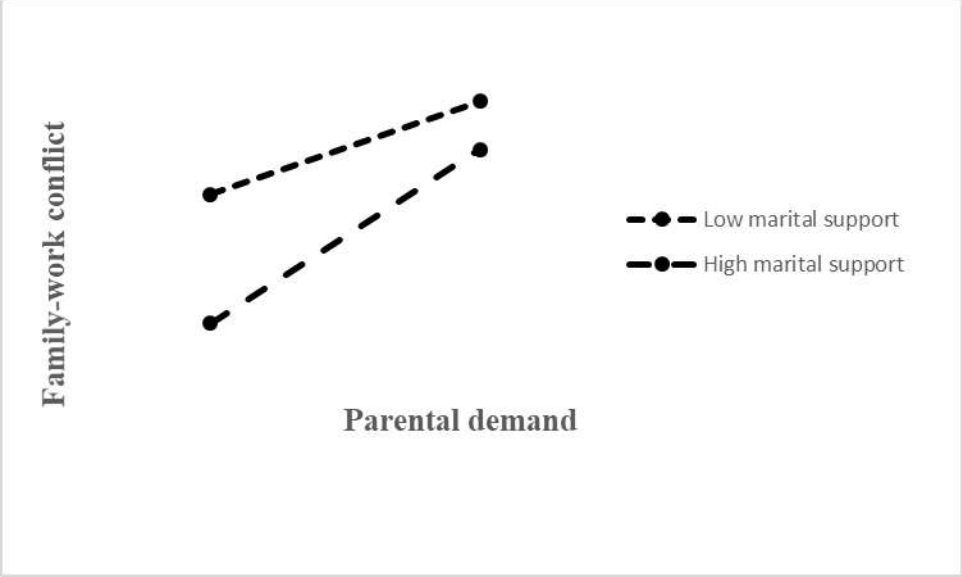


Figure 3. Regression of parental stress on family-work conflict for high and low marital support

DISCUSSIONS

The study was undertaken to fill a gap identified in the definition of family in Nigerian context. This is because past researchers have referred to the need for researchers to bear in mind the context of their study while defining family variables (see Bassani, 2007; Becker & Charles, 2006; Miller, 2002; Rothausen,

1999). Despite the realization of this need, researchers continued to define the family using western-based understanding of the family. Working couples have expressed that extended family members are very useful in their efforts to manage the conflict between work and family (see Annor, 2014; Becker & Charles, 2006), but past studies have not identified if these assertions are empirically true. In addressing these issues, the current research proposed four questions which were addressed with empirical data. The questions are: is the extended family support distinct from marital support? Is the extended family demand distinct from marital and parental demand? Will extended family variables (demand and support) explain additional variance in the value of family-work conflict when the contributions of marital and parental variables are controlled for? What is the role of the extended family support in ensuring low family-work conflict? These questions were addressed using two stages of the study.

The distinctiveness of extended family support was addressed by comparing two factor models containing marital demand, extended family demand, and parental demand. The results indicated that a three-factor model representing distinct factors of marital demand, extended family demand, and parental demand had better fit indices (see Table 1). In testing the distinctiveness of extended family support, various factor structures involving the marital and extended family support were tested. The results obtained indicated that a 2-factor model containing distinct factors for marital support and extended family support had better fit indices (see Table 2). These results clearly demonstrated that participants understood the family in terms of the spouse, children and extended family members. What this study showed is that any definition of the family which does not consider the distinct nature of the marital, parental, and extended family member roles will fall short of how people see and feel the family within the Nigerian context. This finding agrees with the works of Allan and Crow (2001) and Young and Willmott (1957) which stated that family assumes different meaning depending on the context of the study. The result of the study would make available more family resources that can be used to manage the conflict between work and family. The results also confirmed what Annor (2014) and Aryee (2005) had postulated while reviewing cross-cultural research in FWC.

Seven hypotheses were stated involving the five study variables and family-work conflict. Five hypotheses were fully supported and two were partially supported. Marital support and extended family support were negatively related to family-work conflict. Extended family, marital, and parental demands were positively related to FWC. These results agree with the postulation of conservation of resources that when resources are drained, stress increases and when resources are gained, stress is mitigated (Amah, 2016).

When the family is defined as nuclear, the variables associated with it are marital support and demand, and parental demand. Hierarchical regression analysis indicate that these variables jointly contribute 29% of the variance in family-work conflict, while the extended family support and demand contribute 2% of the variance in family-work conflict. This contribution is available only when the family is properly defined in line with the understanding in Nigeria. The interaction involving extended family support and parental demand, and that involving marital support and parental demand both significantly influenced FWC. The interaction terms accounted for 3% of the variance in FWC. Parental demand associated with caring for young children can be handled by taking advantage of marital and extended family support. The graphs in Figures 1 and 2 indicate that relationship between parental demand and FWC was weaker when extended family support was high than when it was low. Similarly, the relationship between parental stress and FWC was also weaker when marital support was high than when it was low. The importance of family-provided support in managing FWC is critical in Nigeria where supports to workers from government and organization are sparingly available because of weak enforcement by government and pursuit of profit by organizations. Individuals who must work to provide for their family utilize family resources to make up for what is required in managing work and family demand. This study demonstrated that extended family support is very handy in making up for the shortfall in organizational support. This information can only be known if family is defined as including extended family members instead of the nuclear family utilized by most studies in western world.

Unfortunately, marital and extended family support could not reduce the negative effects of marital and extended family demand in this study. For social support to be effective, the support must provide exactly what the recipient needs, the support must be located in the same location of demand. For example,

to solve parental demand, the support must provide means to reduce caring for children and must be provided in the family domain. It is likely that this assertion was not satisfied in the current study. For example, in the Nigeria environment marital demand may arise because of cultural demands which cannot be reduced by any other form of support.

Theoretical Implications

In the opening quotation in this manuscript, Becker and Charles (2006) identified that there is a wide variation in the meaning of the family. The implication of this assertion is that what the family means to the context of a research must be considered while defining family variables. By establishing that extended family variables added unique variance to family-work conflict, the study has wide implication to future studies in the context of Nigeria. There can be no universal definition and understanding of the family, and so researchers must consider this fact and ensure that they include all the variables based on the understanding of the family in their context. Another implication is that in interpreting the results of family-based research, one must always understand how family was understood and defined so as to properly understand relationships in any model developed and estimated by the study. Otherwise researchers will end up making the error of assuming that "they know what family means to those with whom they are interacting" (Becker & Charles, 2006, p.119).

Managerial Implication

The fact that extended family support directly affects family-work and reduces the negative effect of parental demand in this study has some managerial implications. Employees utilize the services of extended family members to alleviate challenges involved in managing work and family responsibilities. Consequently, organizations must recognize extended family members as important in the quest of their employees to manage the conflict between work and family. Extended family members actually help employees to manage the conflict between work and family and enhance their productivity and family satisfaction. When this is achieved, employees are productive, and organizational productivity is enhanced. A major implication is that organizations must factor extended family members into the process of creating family-friendly policies. For example, some organization have policies for the aged and the children in families. This is because these organizations believe that if not supported, the presence of the aged and the children would constitute impediments in the productivity of their employees. Based on the findings of this study, organizations must include extended family members into their family-friendly policies since they play a major role in improving employee productivity through reduction in FWC. Aryee (2005) also stated that the understanding of the role of extended family will aid in "organizations developing culturally appropriate work-family policies" (p. 262).

In an era of globalization and cross-cultural diversity in the workplace, organizations must train their managers to recognize that the family has contextual definition and encourage them to accommodate the definition of family by their employees. The problem of an extended family member may not be a serious issue in the context where family is defined as nuclear, but when it is defined as extended, it will be serious and must be factored into organizational policies. For example, employees are given compassionate leave to handle issues involving the nuclear family, but not the extended family. This action is not adequate in situations where the family is defined to include extended family members. This calls for managers to be trained to enhance their cultural intelligence when operating in a multicultural environment.

Limitations and Future Research

The nature of the variables involved in this study was such that self-report was the best option to acquire data from participants. Hence, common method variance was a possibility that could not be avoided. However, the tests carried out indicated that common method variance was not an issue. Since the study utilized cross-sectional methodology, causation cannot be inferred in the study. The study established that extended family variables were important in the management of FWC, future studies must further explore how the role of extended family members affect the relationship between FWC and family satisfaction. In this way, it would be established if indeed the use of extended family members by working couples is

effective in managing the conflict between work and family. Family involvement and family conflict are other variables that could be added into the model to better understand the enhanced definition of family in the Nigerian context. Nigeria has similar context with other African countries. Hence, to enhance generalization, future studies must develop models in other African countries. Extended family members, house helps, and the crèche have been advocated to be effective in managing home challenges (Fredriksen-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2001). Future studies should explore how people make decision as to which option to use, and also compare the effectiveness of these options so that employees can make informed decisions as to which option or combination of options to use.

CONCLUSION

The study expanded the definition of the family to include the extended family members in line with the culture in the context of study. The conclusion is that extended family resources are available to employees as they attempt to balance the demand of work and family. Organizations must recognize the important role of extended family members and make provision for them in their family-friendly policies.

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DOES MANAGEMENT COMMITMENT INFLUENCE EMPLOYEE HEALTH PROTECTION AND JOB SAFETY IN THE MEDIA INDUSTRY IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA?

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the moderating role of management commitment on employee health protection and employee job safety in the media industry of Ghana. Using 242 responses and structural equation modeling, finding shows that employee job safety influenced health protection while management commitment did not influence health protection significantly. Furthermore, employee job safety correlated positively with management commitment to safety, and management commitment to safety moderated the positive influence of employee job safety on health protection such that when management commitment to safety is high, employee job safety has a higher influence on health protection of employees. It is recommended that management of media houses ensure health of their workforce is protected by improving the safety inherent in jobs.
Keywords: Management commitment, Job safety, Health protection, Ghana, Sub-Saharan Africa.

INTRODUCTION

In developed and developing countries, media houses play a preponderant role in development and communication, as they represent a major source of information delivery to the populace. The intrusive nature of media houses in seeking information render them to vulnerability and the risk of health and safety in their job roles. Particularly, the professional work routines of journalists regularly place them in dangerous conditions to confront their own vulnerability (Carlsson & Pöyhtäri, 2017). Statistics gathered by the International News Safety Institute (INSI) reports that 111 media workers were killed in 2015, and 115 in 2016. Additionally, Media personnel reporting from conflict zones are more likely to be exposed to unhealthy and unsafe conditions (Collins, 2001) and therefore desire protection. Moreover, numerous studies report how journalists experience considerable levels of stress, quality of life deterioration, and therefore desire to leave the profession (Heloani, 2005; Reinardy, 2009b; Weidmann & Papsdorf, 2010). Violence, threats and intimidation, poor working conditions with less protection in the contemporary world position the media industry at increased risk to its staff which calls for increasing public attention to the seemingly lack of health and safety practices of media houses (Carlsson & Pöyhtäri, 2017).

Health protection and job safety of employees are the responsibility of management. For example, according to Dickson-Swift, Fox, Marshall, Welch and Willis (2014), organizations must pay increased attention to workplace health issues relating to physical, mental and social health in order to improve worker wellbeing as well as health performance indicators. Apart from the moral responsibility bestowed on employers and management to protect employee health and safety, there are legislations by governments in various countries to promote job safety and health protection. Examples of such include the Health and Safety Executive and Local Authorities in the United Kingdom that develop, enforce and

monitor health and safety legislation; the Occupational Safety and Health Act which guides employees in the United States (Alli, 2008) and the Labor Act 2003, Act 651 that guides employers in Ghana.

This responsibility of management thus calls for their commitment to protecting employees' health and job safety. Management commitment to safety is considered an important sub construct of the safety climate construct and it is the measure of employees' perceptions about an organization's attitude towards the health and safety of its workers (Pinion et al., 2017). If senior management does not express informed, sustained commitment to job safety as one of the primary business objectives, then the commitment for safety in the organisation can easily lose focus or fade away. Thus, management commitment implies the direct participation by the highest level of management in all specific and important safety programs of an organisation (Bornstein & Hart, 2010) and critical for the success of media organizations. By protecting the health of workers, Media organizations would be investing in long term benefits through reduced sick leave days, lower medical cost and higher productivity. Empirical evidence show that benefits can accrue to organizations when management is involved in and are committed to protecting and maintaining a safe work environment for their employees (Michael, Evans, Jansen & Haight, 2005). It thus appears that media personnel would be seeking out high levels of commitment from management to their health and safety needs in order to render quality performance benefits to the organizations. The reason is that, lack of health protection and non-safety jobs would cause work-related attitudes like withdrawal and absenteeism of personnel.

Accordingly, Neal, Griffin and Hart, (2000) apply the psychological contract to management commitment to health and safety and employee performance respectively. By this, they argue that if employees perceive the organization as supportive of their Health and safety well-being, they will be more likely to fulfil the organization's values and mission. Thus, psychological contract and social exchange theories have been employed and utilized in health and safety topics with significant success. However, in spite of the importance of employee health protection and job safety in organizations, the empirical literature on how these can be influenced by management commitment is remarkably small in developing economies, especially with a focus on the hazardous work nature of media personnel. For this reason, this work explores the influence of management commitment on employee job safety and health protection in the media industry from a sub-Saharan Africa perspective and contributes to management literature in two major ways. First, it provides information on the paucity of work on employee health and safety within the media industry from a sub-Sahara African context. Secondly, we look at how management commitment moderates the relationship between health protection and job safety of personnel in the volatile media industry in Ghana. This study employs psychological contract theory to account for the moderating role of management commitment in the relationship between employee job safety and health protection in Sub-Saharan Africa using Ghana as a context.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The Psychological Contract and Management Commitment

To better understand how management commitment to health protection affects job safety of media personnel, we used Rousseau's (1995) psychological contract between management and employees. The employment relationship between an employer and an employee is most often regulated by written documentations or contracts. There are however certain exchange agreements between the employer and employee which are unwritten. Such unwritten agreements are called Psychological Contracts. A Psychological contract is the belief a person holds about an exchange agreement between himself or herself and another party (Rousseau, 1995). The belief is formed as a result of promises made between parties especially at the employment offer stage of an employment relationship. In addition, they include a consideration that has been offered in exchange for promises which eventually binds employees and employers (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Psychological contracts have a number of characteristics such as reciprocity, specific to individuals and a mutual relationship between an employer and an employee. They vary in strength and generality (Rousseau 1995; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993) with some contracts being simpler than others. Psychological contracts are categorized into four types; transactional, relational, balanced, and transitional (Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994). Transactional contracts focus

highly on monetary or economic exchanges where for example, employees work very hard in anticipation for promotion. Relational contracts are more likely to be long-lasting, open-ended relationships focusing on mutual satisfaction, loyalty, and commitment whereas the balanced type is a blend of the transactional and relational type. Transitional contracts are contracts that are not guaranteed and are short term in duration. It usually has no incentive or performance demands from either party.

Thus, literature on the effects of transformational leadership has suggested that safety climate will be improved if employees perceive that management acts based on a commitment to their safety as opposed to reacting to regulatory demands (Barling, Loughlin, & Kelloway, 2002).

Health and Safety of Employees in the Media Industry

The ILO has provided support to health and safety issues affecting the media industry because of the importance of the media to the social economic development of nations. Such support includes the provision of financial assistance for the International Federation of Actors (FIA) to publish its safety guidelines for performers working in live shows in 2007. The United Nations (UN) has also created an action plan on the safety of journalists endorsed by the UN Chief Executive Board on 12th April 2012. The Plan of Action aims to create a free and safe environment for journalists and media workers, both in conflict and non-conflict situations, with a view to strengthening peace, democracy and development worldwide (UNESCO, 2017).

According to the International Federation of Journalists (IFJ)'s 2013 report, Africa ranked the third deadliest region in the world for journalists. 22 journalists and media personnel were killed in 2013. Journalists in Africa currently face risk from armed militants' groups such as Al-Shabab in Somalia and Boko Haram in Nigeria and the Sub-Saharan Africa region. These terror groups can target journalist in reporting conflicts affecting them apart from the general risk of attacks on the general public during events likely to be covered by journalists (IFJ, 2012). Moreover, other risks such as abduction, accidents and long-term health deterioration due to the use of media technology, all need the attention of media houses to commit to protecting the heal and safety of their personnel.

The situation is no different in Sub Saharan Africa specifically Ghana where reports from the industry regulators show an increase in competition and investment within the industry (NCA, 2016). This increase may not be directly proportional to the industry's job safety and health protection adherence. Journalists face numerous work hazards daily in the conduct of their duties leading to loss of lives (Myjoyonline, 2015). This has led to many industry experts lobbying for a mandatory medical and life insurance policy for all journalists in Ghana (Businessghana, 2017). Health and safety issues in the Ghanaian media industry are therefore critical and need the commitment of management as in other industries such as mining, oil and gas and construction.

Employee Job Safety and Health Protection

According to the International Labor Organization (ILO, 2003), a worker dies from a work-related disease or accident every 15 seconds. 153 workers get involved in a work-related accident globally making the concept of job safety critical for business sustainability. It is therefore the responsibility of all organizations to ensure that employees and persons affected by the organization's activities always remain safe. Losses due to workplace accidents are not limited to the employee but the employer as well. To the employer, possible losses include; machinery replacement cost, employee medical cost, cost of engaging temporal workers when a permanent worker is indisposed and the reduction in quality of output when employees are replaced due to ill health (Alli, 2008).

Health hazards refer to those aspects of the working environment that slowly and cumulatively, sometimes irreversibly cause harm to a worker. Thus, the health of a worker relates to the long-term and therefore needs to be protected and promoted. Health protection at work is a conscientious effort by employers to institute measures, strategies and mechanisms aimed at preventing illness and long-term work-related diseases (Burton, 2010). According to Dickson-Swift, Fox, Marshall, Welch and Willis (2014), organizations must pay increased attention to workplace health issues relating to physical, mental and social health so as to improve worker health as well as health performance indicators including

sickness and absence. Studies have demonstrated that psychosocial safety climate is a good predictor of employee health issues such as emotional exhaustion and psychological distress Dollard and Bakker (2010). Therefore, Gallagher, Underhill and Rimmer (2001) stress the need for managers' protection by constantly checking on hazards and risks in order to enhance job safety at the workplace Hence, we hypothesize that:

H1: *Employee job safety will have a positive influence on the health protection of workers.*

Moderating Influence of Management Commitment on Employee Job Safety-Health Protection Relationship

Senior management set the direction, policies, goals and targets of the organization (Flin, Mearns, O'Connor & Bryden, 2000). Therefore, when senior management has a good attitude towards employee health and safety, it is more likely that the employee job safety would improve and thereby affect the health of employees positively. Management commitment to safety must be evident in the policies and procedures as advanced by the senior managers in the organisation and must manifest in the daily actions of supervisors (Zohar & Luria, 2005). Higher levels of safety climate and safety practices provide protection against the risk of injuries (Gimeno, Felknor, Burau & Delclos, 2005). The lack of safety training is as a result of less commitment to safety on the part of management, and this was found to lead to higher work-related injuries of employees (Gimeno et al, 2005). Management commitment to safety, a dimension of safety climate, relates negatively with injury rate of workers, and consequently has a positive effect on the job safety of employees and eventually their health (Zohar, 2002). Accordingly, we hypothesize that

H2: *Management commitment to safety will moderate the relationship between employee job safety and health protection; such that, the relationship is positive and high when management commitment to safety is high.*

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

To meet the study objectives, this work used a quantitative approach. Creswell (2003) asserted that the quantitative approach uses experiments and surveys to gather data and to analyse them statistically in order to answer research questions. The study employed this approach in order to facilitate the sampling of many respondents that is representative of the population. This study adopted a cross-sectional design where data is collected from respondents at point in time based on the convenience of the busy schedules of respondents (Sekeran, 2003). The survey was delivered to employees of the media companies under study through their front office after an initial permission was sought from their management to undertake the study.

Measures

A structured questionnaire was used in collecting data in this study. The measures related to employee job safety, health protection and management commitment. Employee job safety was measured by adopting Neal and Griffin's (2006) 25-item General Safety Climate scale measured on a 5-point Likert with Cronbach's alpha of this scale ranged from 0.85 to 0.95. Health protection was measured by adopting and modifying the Preventive and Protection Actions subscale under the Occupational Health and Safety Management Systems scale (OHSMS) developed by Fernandez-Muniz, Montes-Peon and Vazquez-Ordas (2007) and measured on a 5-point Likert. Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .77. Management commitment to safety was measured by adopting the 5-item Management Commitment to Safety (MCS) subscale under the Offshore Safety Questionnaire (OSQ) by Mearns *et al*. (1998) measured on a 5-point Likert ranging and the Cronbach's alpha was 0.88 (Bosak, Coetseeb, & Cullinanea, 2013). Table 1 reports the alpha reliability for each of the scales used in this study.

Table 1 Reliability of Study Variables using Cronbach's Alpha

Variables	Original Values	Current Values	Items	Valid Cases
JS	.85	.82	25	15
HP	.77	.71	4	15
MSC	.88	.86	5	15

Note: JS- employee job safety, HP- health protection, MSC- management commitment to safety

DATA ANALYSIS

Covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) was used in testing the hypotheses. SEM is deemed to be a better tool for data analysis than regression (Bollen, 1989). Also, the moderation variable is analyzed with the aid of a Microsoft Excel Toolpack after the unstandardized coefficients had been generated from SEM. 280 questionnaires were distributed, out of which 261 were retrieved representing a response rate of 93.21%. After preliminary analyses were done, 242 usable questionnaires were used in the analysis.

Preliminary data analysis for this study focused on the handling of missing values (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King,2006) in the data obtained, investigation of outliers, and the test for normality in order to meet the assumption of normality of data in SEM. Normality was examined by checking the absolute values of the skewness and kurtosis for each of the variables under study. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), a data is said to be normally distributed when the absolute values for the skewness and kurtosis for each variable is between -2 and +2.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to explore the loadings of the items on each of the study variables. This was to provide a basis for developing the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) model. The EFA was done for each variable, indicating the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Sampling Adequacy Test, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity, and the Cumulative Variance Explained (CVE) for each variable. The results are displayed in Table 3 showing that all variables met the basics as recommended by Kaiser (1970) as well as Bartlett's p-values of less than 0.05 (Bartlett, 1954). The EFA showed that Employee Job Safety had five (5) components, namely; Motivation, Knowledge, Physical Environment, Safety Systems and Training, and Communication. Health Protection had one component while Management Commitment to Safety had two components extracted; negative attitude and positive attitude. All item loadings had coefficients of above 0.3.

Table 2. Summary of CVE, KMO and Bartlett's Tests of EFA

Variable	Components	CVE (%)	KMO	Bartlett's (p-value)
Employee Job Safety	5	68.56	0.824	0.000
Health Prot.	1	58.54	0.710	0.000
Mgt. Commitment	2	63.40	0.712	0.000

A CFA was performed in order to confirm the factor loadings of each item on the latent variable. Schreiber *et al.* (2006) assert that CFA is based on the theorized relationships between latent variables and their observed variables. Hsu (2010) indicates that EFA is only exploratory and thus there is the need for CFA to be done in order to confirm factor structure of variables and to make sure that no mistakes are made. Thus, a measurement model was developed consisting of the three latent variables (Employee Job Safety, Health Protection, and Management Commitment to Safety) and their observed variables or items. To obtain good model fit indices, the model was readjusted several times by deleting items that had weak loadings (below 0.3) as recommended by Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010). However, each of the

latent variables had at least two (2) observed variables in the final CFA model, as recommended by Kenny (2016). Figure 1 and 2 presents the initial CFA (measurement) model with unstandardized loadings and the final CFA (measurement) model with standardized loadings respectively.

Model Fit Indices for the CFA model

The following fit indices were employed to validate the measurement model; the ratio of the chi-square to the degree of freedom (CMIN/DF; $\chi 2$/df), the Goodness of Fit (GFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Table 4 presents the various indices, their thresholds according to various researchers, and the fit indices obtained for the model. From our analysis, all our figures indicate good model fit measures for the model, as they all fall within the range of acceptability, indicating that the measurement model is fit.

Reliability and Validity

Most researchers indicate that composite reliability values of 0.70 and above are required for each of the items. Regarding validity, discriminant and convergent validity were used. The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was used in checking the convergent validity. In checking the discriminant validity, the Fornell and Lacker (1981) criterion was employed, where support for discriminant validity is ascertained when the square root of the AVE for each construct is higher than its squared correlations with other constructs. Malhotra and Dash (2011) however assert that the AVE is too strict meaning the AVE is rigid and sometimes the acceptable benchmark of 0.50 may be difficult to achieve. In cases where model fit indices are good and composite reliability values are above 0.70, the measurement model can still be deemed reliable and valid even if the AVE values are slightly lower than 0.50. Table 3 presents the composite reliability values and AVE values for both convergent and discriminant validity.

Table 3. Assessment of Reliability and Validity of Retained Items

Variable	CR	AVE	1	2	3
1. JS	.89	0.53	**0.72**		
2. HP	.71	0.41	0.32	**0.64**	
3. MCO	.72	0.43	0.53	0.39	**0.65**

Note: *JS- Employee job safety, HP- health protection, MCO- management commitment, CR- composite reliability, AVE- average variance extracted.*

As shown in Table 3, all the three constructs had composite reliability values above 0.70. Additionally, with the exception of one construct that had an AVE value above 0.50 (Malhotra & Dash, 2011), the square roots of the AVEs (boldened) were all higher than their squared correlations among them, confirming discriminant validity.

Correlation Analysis between Variables

A zero-order bivariate correlation analysis using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was performed to show the relationships that exist among all the variables in the study. The results are presented in Table 4 showing the correlation coefficients and their significance levels among the three variables under study including the demographic variables.

Table 4. Correlation Matrix of Variable

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. JS	1						
2. HP	.75**	1					
3. MCO	.25**	.24**	1				
4. Gender	-.10	-.12*	-.10	1			
5. Age	.10*	.12*	.13*	-.10	1		
6. Education	-.17**	-.26**	.13*	.23**	-.00	1	
7. Duration	.14*	.13*	-.00	.09	.33**	-.12*	1

**significant at 1%, *significant at 5%

From Table 4, job safety has a positive significant relationship with health protection ($r = .75$, $p < 0.01$) and with management commitment ($r = .25$, $p < 0.01$). Job safety also has a significant correlation with age ($r = .10$, $p < 0.05$), educational qualification ($r = -.17$, $p < 0.01$), and duration of service ($r = .14$, $p < 0.05$) but it is not significant with gender. Furthermore, health protection had significant relationships with gender ($r = -.12$, $p < 0.05$), age ($r = .12$, $p < 0.05$), education ($r = -.26$, $p < 0.01$), and duration of service ($r = .13$, $p < 0.05$); while management commitment to safety had significant correlations with age ($r = .13$, $p < 0.05$) and education ($r = .13$, $p < 0.05$) but not with gender and duration or years of service.

The Structural Model

Based on the final CFA (measurement) model, the structural models were developed to test the hypothesized relationships between employee job safety, health protection and management commitment to safety. The retained items were computed for each of the latent variables which were used for the model. Due to the moderation hypothesis being tested, the standardized values of the computed variables (Z-scores) were used in the model. Furthermore, an interaction effect was created between employee job safety and management commitment to safety to test the moderating influence of management commitment on the relationship between employee job safety and health protection. Two models are presented; the first one seen in Figure 3, presents the structural model with hypothesized relationships without the interaction effect of employee job safety and management commitment; and the second model seen in Figure 4, presents the final structural model after the interaction effect was included. The age and years of service of the respondents were used as control variables in order to improve the fit indices of the model and, because these are perceived to influence the health protection of employees. It should be noted that in the model, Zscore(SAF), Zscore(MCO), Zscore(HEA) and SAF_X_MCO represent job safety, management commitment to safety, health protection and the interaction effect between job safety and management commitment to safety, respectively.

Figure 1 The Structural Model Standardized Loadings (Without Interaction Effect)

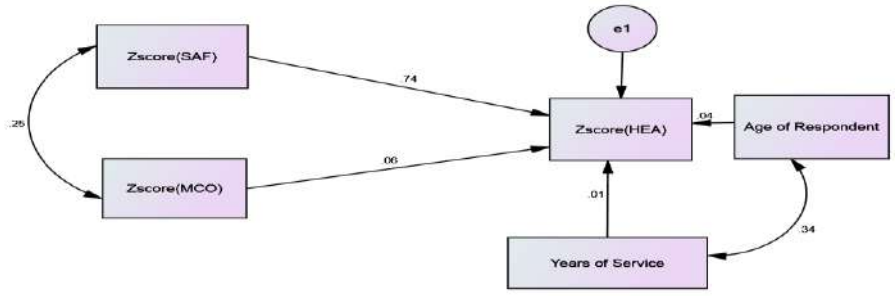
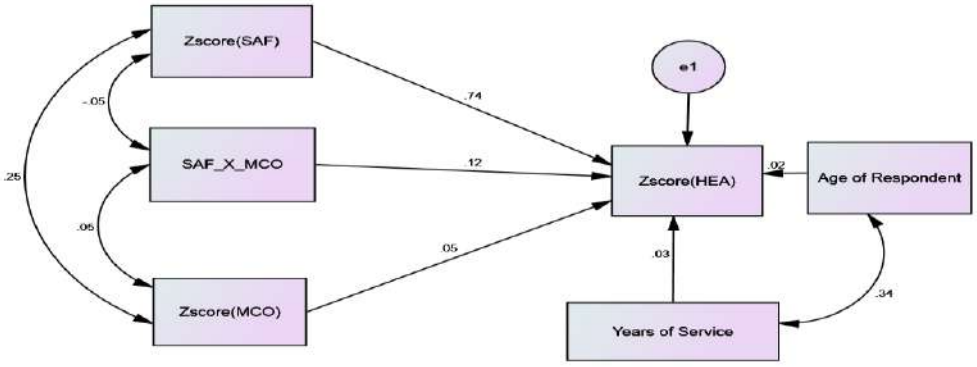


Figure 2. Final Structural Model with Standardized Loading (With Interaction Effect)



Model Fit Indices for the Structural model

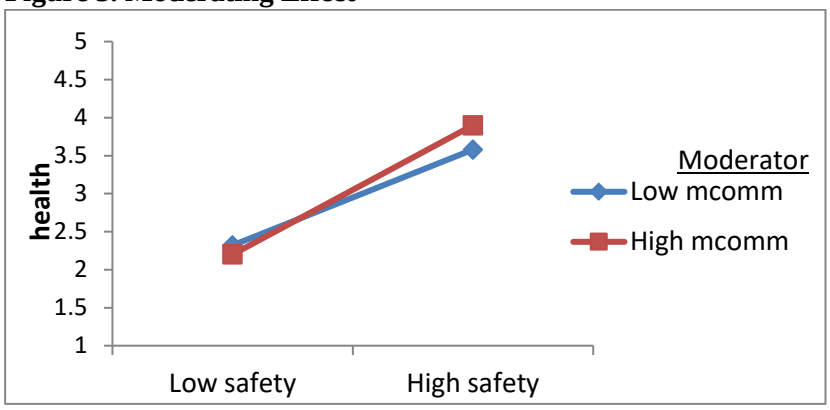
The structural models were also assessed for their fitness. All indices fell within the range of acceptability, indicating that the structural models were also fit and valid for testing the hypothesized relationships.

RESULTS

The survey results used Structural Equation modelling as the central tool for investigating the study hypotheses (H1 and H2). The benefits of using SEM over other traditional regression models is that it reduces measurement errors by subjecting all variables to a fitness test. Therefore, we tested our hypotheses thus; H1: *Employee job safety will have a positive influence on health protection* and H2: *Management Commitment will influence the relationship between employee job safety and health protection such that the relationship is high when management commitment is high.* The test result in table 8 show that there is a significant positive influence of job safety on health protection (β= .736, t= 16.82, p= .000) thus H1 was accepted. Additionally, the interaction effect between job safety and management commitment had a significant positive influence on health protection (β= .121, t= 2.89, p= 0.004). The table also indicates a change in R^2 of 0.015 after the interaction effect was included in the model; an indication of a moderating effect of management commitment on the job safety and health protection relationship. Therefore, the type and the extent of this moderation was investigated. The unstandardised

coefficients of the model were entered into the interaction effect tool pack in Microsoft Excel. Figure 3 presents the result of the extent of the moderation.

Figure 3. Moderating Effect



From Figure 3, management commitment to safety strengthens the positive relationship between employee job safety and health protection. The blue line represents low management commitment to safety, that is, before the interaction effect was introduced while the red line represents high management commitment to safety, that is, after the interaction effect was introduced. It is seen from the graph that there is an upward slope of the blue line indicating a positive relationship between employee job safety and employee health protection. Furthermore, when the interaction effect is introduced and the moderator is high, the graph shows that there is a steeper upward slope of the red line. This indicates that the relationship between employee job safety and employee health protection is still positive but higher. Additionally, the graph shows an interaction point between the blue line (low management commitment to employee safety) and the red line (high management commitment to employee safety), where the starting point of the red line is lower than that of the blue.

Table 5 presents a summary of results and its interpretation. The interpretations of the results are presented subsequently.

Table 5. Summary of Results

Model 1 (Without Interaction)	**Estimate**	**C.R**	**S.E**
JS--->HP	.736**	16.82	.044
JS<-->MCO	.246**	3.72	.066
Age----->HP	.039	.856	.068
Years--->HP	.012	.261	.071
Model 2 (With Interaction)	**Estimate**	**C.R**	**S.E**
JS--->HP	.743**	17.24	.043
JS<-->MCO	.246**	3.72	.066
SAF_X_MCO--->HP	.121**	2.89	.037
Age----->HP	.020	.453	.067
Years--->HP	.025	.566	.069

R^2 before interaction= .567, R^2 after interaction =.582, ***significant at 1%, **significant at 5%
Note: JS- Employee Job safety, HP- health protection, MCO- management commitment, SAF_X_MCO- interaction effect, C.R- critical ratio (t-value), S.E- standard error.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of employee job safety on health protection and how management commitment affects that relationship if such a relationship existed. It was found that employee job safety had a positive and significant influence on employee health protection; thus, confirming the first hypothesis (β= .736, t= 16.82, p= .000). This implies that when the job safety of employees is good and high, it is likely to result in the protection of employee health in the long term. This finding is consistent with the study by Dollard and Bakker (2010) where it was found that psychosocial safety climate was a good predictor of employee health issues such as emotional exhaustion and psychological distress. Again, the study by Gallagher *et al*. (2001) also found that aspects of job safety such as physical and psychosocial safety climates has positive influences on the health of workers such as decrease in burnout, stress and emotional exhaustion, thus protecting workers' health. The confirmation of the current study is significant within the sub-Saharan African media industry. Our findings imply that job safety positively related to health protection. Therefore, the presence of good job safety in terms of positive safety climate, exhibition of good and acceptable safety behaviors among others, the health of employees is protected and thus, health problems such as stress, burnout and emotional exhaustion are significantly reduced in the long term.

The findings also indicate that management commitment to safety strengthens the positive relationship between job safety and health protection such that the relationship is high when management commitment to safety is high thereby confirming the second hypothesis (β= .121, t= 2.89, p= 0.004). This finding complements the earlier finding in hypothesis one where employee job safety was found to significantly and positively influence employee health protection. According to Flin *et al*. (2000), senior management in organization set the direction, policies, goals and targets for the organization. Therefore, when senior management has a good attitude towards employee health and safety, it is more likely that the job safety would improve thereby protecting the health of employees. Our study thus validates the earlier findings from Flin et al. (2000).

The contribution of this work is that first, our findings on employee job safety is an important influencer of employee health protection which makes a significant contribution to the health and safety literature especially in sub-Saharan Africa. Not only does the study illustrate that employee job safety influences health protection positively but also adds that management commitment is very necessary for health protection and job safety of employees within organizations.

Second, the context of the study is very significant. The media industry and Ghana as sub-Saharan African country are rarely studied areas contextually. Therefore, a study of this sort makes significant contribution to contextual knowledge and adds to the paucity of literature in the safety and health management area of human resource management.

Third, our findings validate Rousseau's (1995) psychological contract which serves as our theoretical background. Our finding demonstrates the strong effect of quid-pro-quo implying that when management strongly commits to job safety, employees would be better protected to do their work resulting in positive outcomes of work. This is the foundation of the psychological contract of employment. Thus, our work explains that a strong commitment by management to job safety of employees would instigate a higher-order mindset of employees that their jobs are protected that requires high levels of performance.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite the contributions and their implications, the study has a few limitations that can be addressed in future. The adoption of only the quantitative approach in this work inhibited the ability to further peruse the actual impact of job safety on health protection. Further studies should apply the mixed method of data collection for investigation. Secondly, Ghana's media industry is overpopulated (Ghanaweb, 2017); a situation which may be different in other countries even in Sub Saharan Africa. Further studies should therefore focus on other sub regions and continents. Albeit these limitations, this study makes a strong contribution to literature.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this work examined whether employee job safety had an influence on the health protection of workers in the Ghanaian media industry and whether management commitment to job safety moderated the relationship between job safety and health protection. We hope future research builds on these significant findings to expand on employee job safety and health protection.

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APPENDIX A

Figure 4.1 Initial CFA (Measurement) Model with Unstandardized Loadings

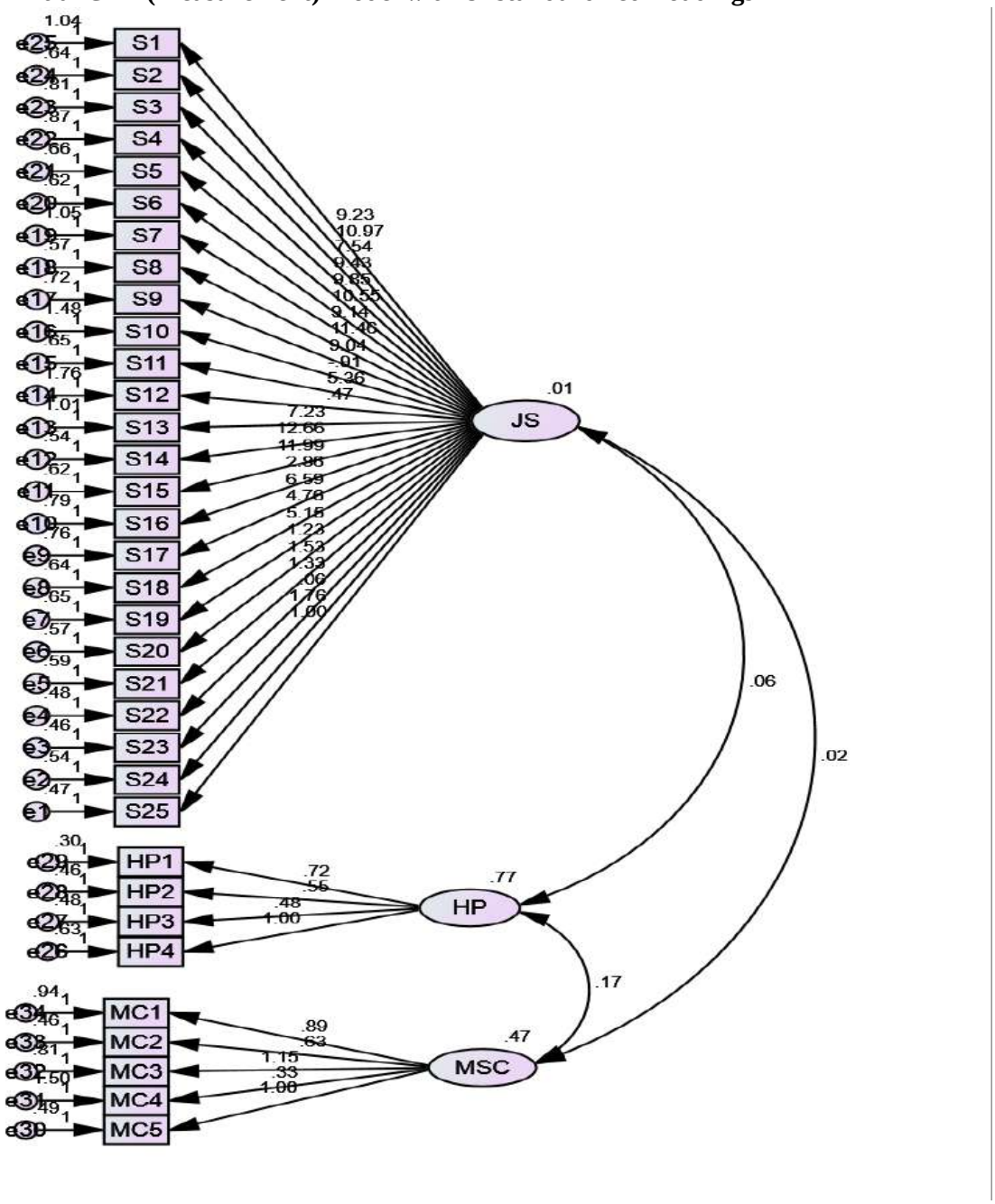
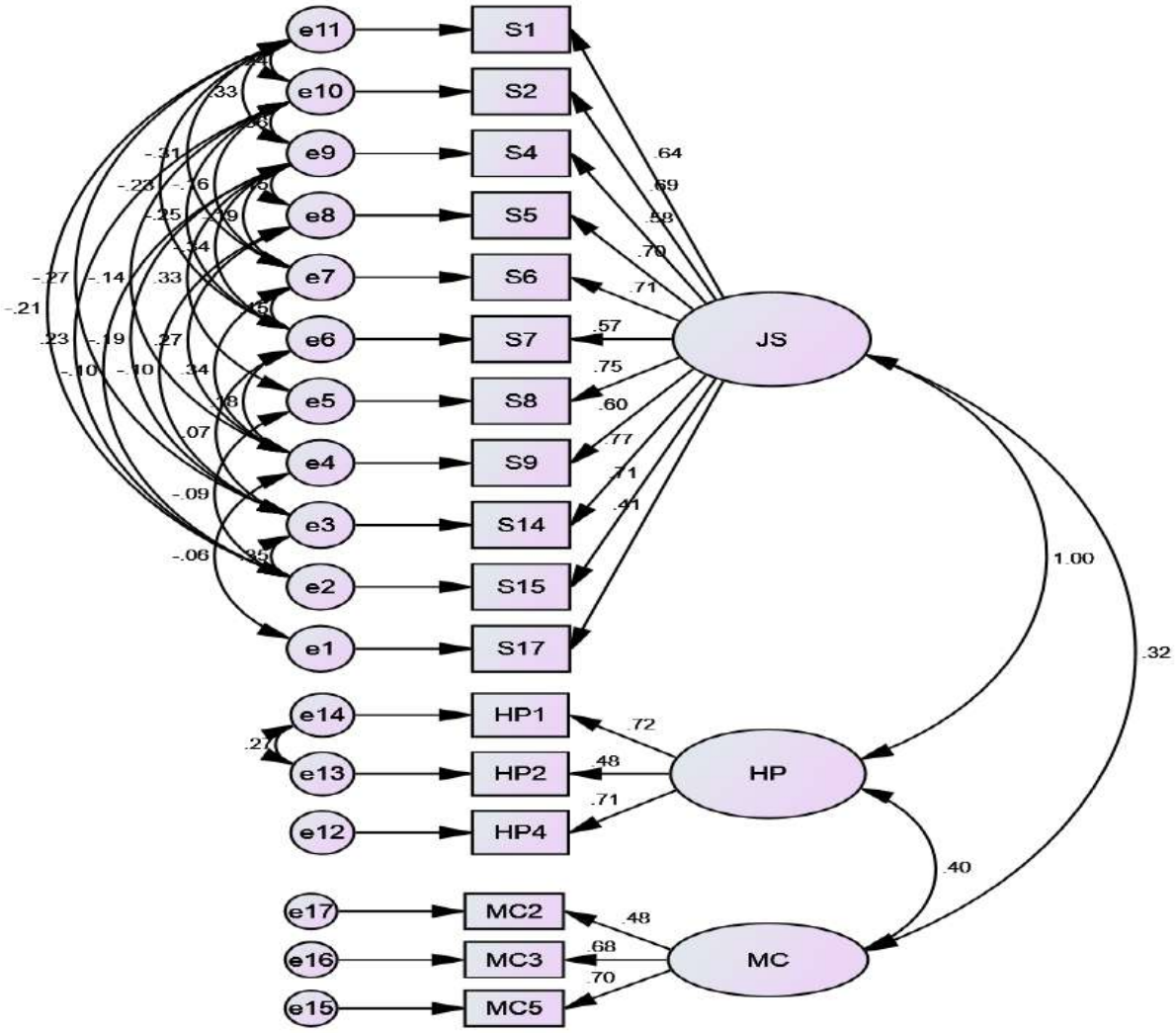


Figure 4.2 Final CFA (Measurement) Model with Standardized Loadings



Note: JS- Job Safety, HP- Health Protection, MC- Management Commitment to Safety

IMPEDIMENTS TO EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP IN AFRICA: IMPLICATION OF CULTURE AND TRADITION IN A CHANGING GLOBAL BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper seeks to understand ways in which culture impedes leadership practice. Mainstream concepts present effective leadership as founded on leaders' individual inspiration, influence process, skills, and facilitating attributes. However, such theories are culture neutral. To understand culturally-bonded notions of leadership, this paper explores leadership practice in 20 local councils in Cameroon and Nigeria. Findings suggest that practice is culturally-bonded. Leadership is perceived as means of nurturing cultural norms, belief and value systems. This culturally-embedded practice is different from mainstream theories but equally misaligned with the prerogatives for leadership in formal organizations, thus interrogating both universalization and localization to propose theoretical blending and adaptability.

Keywords: transformational leadership, Ubuntu, blending, indigenous, high performance

INTRODUCTION

This paper seeks to understand ways in which culture and tradition impede effective leadership practice in a public service organization in a non-Western context. Mainstream leadership theorizing has focused in leader-follower influence mechanisms, highlighting the role of legitimate power, charisma, skills, vision, authenticity in enabling leaders to attain organizational goals (Avolio, Wernsing, & Gardner, 2018; Antonakis, 2017; Antonakis, Bastardoz, Liu, & Schriesheim 2014; Bass, 1985; Gardner Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens 2011; Northouse, 2018). However, there has been an escalating interest in unpacking aspects of leadership theorizing that do not necessarily focus in examining personal attributes, leader influence processes or follower motivation strategies for productive ends (Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden, & Hu, J 2014; Ford, Learmonth, & Harding; Ford, Harding, Gilmore, & Richardson 2017; Raelin, 2016).

More recent interest has been around theories that consider the micro subjectivities underlying leadership practice such as perceptions, emotions, and cognitions (Sy, Horton, & Riggio, 2018; Matta and Van Dyne, 2018; Trichas & Schyns, 2012), as well as highlighting the paradox of identity (Carroll & Levy, 2010; Nicholson & Carroll, 2013), power and resistance (Gagnon and Collinson, 2014, 2017; Carroll and Nicholson, 2014) and leadership aesthetics (Carroll, & Smolović Jones, (2018); Edwards, Elliott, Iszatt-White, & Schedlitzki 2015). Furthermore, the social relational context in which leadership takes place has formed the basis of considerable effort (Clarke, 2018; Chang & Johnson, 2010; Cunliffe and Eriksen, 2011; Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012). Significant inroads have been made in Western countries relating to leadership. Yet indigenous African organizations and the distinctive sense of the "African management" remain elusive due to a lack of convincing conceptualization (Iwowo, 2015; Jackson, 2013).

There is therefore a gap in research that examines how historical cultural customs and traditions affect constructions and practices of leadership and what impact this could have for leadership in formal organizations particularly in Africa. This study addresses this gap by studying the implication of cultural hegemony on leadership practice in a public service organization in two sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries. We believe that attention to the African cultural context is important at a time of global competition in a neoliberal world. Scholars have argued that unless leaders of public and private organizations adopt approaches that harness the human and material resources in an impactful manner, the dream of social transformation in Africa will remain elusive (Gumede, 2017; Khoza, 2012; Nkomo, 2017; Walumbwa, Avolio, & Aryee, 2011).

The question that remains unanswered is how to operationalise the process of adaptation and change given that cultural impediments remain unidentified and under-theorised (Bolden and Kirk, 2009; Eyong, 2017; Zoogah, 2009). On the one hand, pragmatists support the view that African leaders and managers should adopt tried and tested universal approaches. On other hand, anti-colonial, pan-Africanist, postcolonial and indigenous writers (Edoho, 2001; Kiggundu, 1991; Ngambi, 2004; Nzelibe, 1986), favour the development of Afrocentric leadership and management approaches akin to the socio-cultural context in which African leaders operate. This discourse is fuelled by a growing yearning to arrive at what has been referred to as African renaissance – signalling the necessity for Africa to source from within for solutions to its socio-economic and political challenges, drawing heavily on romance with a great African past civilization as retold by African historians (e.g. Davidson, 1991; Mazrui, 1986). Re-echoing Desmond Tutu's earlier suggestion about how Ubuntu could benefit the world, former South African President Thabo Mbeki stated:

> "Education has an important role to play in the economic, cultural and political renaissance of our continent and in the drive for the development of indigenous knowledge systems. This implies that all educational curricula should have Africa as their focus, and as a result be indigenous in its grounding and orientation" (Mbeki, 2005, in Kondlo (2014:93).

We argue that one way of addressing some of the political and economic malaise in which the African continent finds itself would be to introspectively understand indigenous African philosophies and ideologies inherited from past generations which were different from present day Africa (Lewis, 2018; Meredith, 2006; Udogu, 2018). A critical examination of the implication of indigenous culture and tradition in present day organizations in Africa as undertaken within this work could engender a modernization discourse for change, adaptation and evolution to align practice with the new African reality as part of a wider global community.

It is no cliché that the African continent remains underdeveloped and economically and socially deprived compared to other continents or regions. In spite of glimpses of hope and early signs of recovery, the African Development Bank (ADB) concludes that the continent remains miles away from emerging from persistent socio-economic difficulties (ADB, 2018). It is in addressing the wider socio-economic challenges faced – particularly by SSA countries and in considering the opportunities to accentuate on meeting key elements of the United Nation's (UN) sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 2030 that this study examined leadership within local council organizations in Cameroon and Nigeria. The choice to study local councils and to focus within the two countries under study is justified on two grounds. First, local councils have recently emerged as an important unit of governance involved in the day to day lives of communities in SSA and thus assisting government and private sector organizations to realize important social projects (Konings & Nyamjoh, 2019). Second, the populations in both countries has been described as constituting Africa in miniature, considering that combined, they harbouring a disproportionate number

of ethnic and linguistic clusters compared to other countries and is currently experiencing leadership challenges (Paden, 2016).

Against this background, this study explores the implication of indigenous culture and tradition in leadership practice in local council organizations in Cameroon and Nigeria. The paper is structured into four sections. The first provides a brief theoretical landscape about leadership studies in the African context and introduces the theoretical framework adopted for the study. The second presents the empirical study and outlines methodological choices and approaches. The third and fourth sections present the findings and discusses the findings.

UNDERSTANDING AFRICAN CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP

There is as yet no agreed universal definition of culture. However, there is some degree of unanimity that it includes the values, norms, symbols, ideas, science, civilization or way of knowing and doing that differentiates one people from another (Goffman, 1981; Hall, 1997; Ford 2010). Put simply, Hofstede (2003) refers to culture as a form of embeddedness or mind-programming that sets members of a community apart and different from others in behaviour, knowledge and thinking. Whilst recognizing the simplistic and reductionist nature of the discourse on African culture for want of homogeneity, a number of identifiers have been associated with the culture and tradition of people from many SSA Africa. The intention of this paper is not to cover the large of this debate as this has been covered in more detail elsewhere (see e.g., Achebe, 1958; Ikuenobe, 2006; Idang, 2015; Olupona, 2004; Partridge, 1903; Ruel, 1969 etc.). Within this work we refer to African culture as knowledge conveyed through the different arts and crafts, folklore and religion, clothing, cuisine, music, language and acts of behaviour and thinking emanation from different communities within SSA in particular. For the purpose of this study, interpretation is limited to research and writings derived from the four regions under consideration and focusing on social, moral, and religious as well as political and aesthetic explanations of culture and leadership.

In his seminal work Idang (2015) posits that the underpinning culture defining communities within the cross river basin – extending into Cameroon and Nigeria is the firm proclivity to the metaphysical perception that providence and wisdom can be received from the goodwill of ancestors and gods of lands. Focusing in Akwa Ibom, in Eastern Nigerian region, Antia (2005), argues that this metaphysical orientation underpinned local perception of ability, ownership and effectiveness in leadership in precolonial communities. Temple (2012) confirms the predominance of spirituality and cultural thinking in Nigerian political leadership. In rural communities, in particular, metaphysical notions of leadership effectiveness and embeddedness into cultural belief systems is lived, cherished and enforced through constant celebration. Backed by customary laws and the goal of enabling benediction and benevolence, a more spiritual, culturally-programmed and indigino-historic foundations of knowing and doing leadership remain dominant in indigenous African leadership practice (Eyong, 2017).

A key benefit of collective acceptance and participation of indigenous constructs of leadership is the enforcement of high moral and ethical conduct, values highly esteemed within rural communities in Cameroon and Nigeria in the pre-colonial histories of these localities (Ruel, 1969). Accordingly, in rural communities, crime, injustice, theft, infidelity, disrespect for elders and other forms of obstreperous behaviour is frowned at and heavily reprimanded. Enforcing institutions apply policies of collective rejection, public naming shaming and – for the most serious cases expulsion from the community to maintain Afrocentric cultural forms of leadership and expectations for followership (Achebe, 1958; Adebayo, Abdallah, Adesina, Adéyẹmí, Agena, Agbor, & Danso 2014; Anita, 2005). Politically, these

countries operate a hierarchical, yet flexible cultural system ascending from bottom to top with heads of family, village heads, and clan chiefs, then progressing to the authority of paramount ruler.

Councillors, advisers, cult groups, and elders also command respect from which they wield significant influence in decision making. Disloyalty, disobedience and dissent to these hierarchy is often synonymous to disobedience to the gods of the land (Asouzou, 2004; Eze, 1998; Soyinka, 1990). At the social and economic dimension of culture, enterprise is perceived as familial, collective and subsistent – leadership thus, adopts this conservative and preservative underlining (Idang, 2015). Ownership of wealth is a function of the family and by extension the community rather than the individual. A fundamental principle of reciprocity glues a community spirit with small groups of persons – friends and family joining forces to assist in farming, repairing a home and engaging in community activity. These cultures and traditions are harmonised by convivial celebrations and extensive merry-making in such occasions as new yam festival, birth of a child, harvesting and planting season in Cameroon and Nigeria (Gbadegesin, 1991; Nyamjoh, 2002). Certainly, indigenous African cultures find a plethora reasons to celebrate. In summary, Afrocentric cultures and traditions seem to accord primacy to sociability, affinity, respect and sense of community in leadership (Khoza, 2012), founded on a metaphysical ontology with compliance to systems compelling.

The culture and traditions of the communities under study as elucidated above draws much similarity – and indeed, seems to be reproduced in wider conversations in leadership in the African context. A small but growing body of work referred to as indigenous African Leadership (IAL) posits that pre-colonial leadership in Africa replicated decades of undiluted indigenous African philosophies, ideologies and cultural value systems. Muchiri (2011) for instance, suggests that Afrocentric leadership is mainly founded on patriarchal rather than on strategic goal-driven aspirations. Other Scholars (Inyang, 2008; Gumede, 2017; Jackson, 2004; Nkomo, 2011) concur that the fundamental principles informing indigenous African leadership are essentially cultural. A common characterisation of leadership intention within Afrocentric culture and tradition is that high value is placed on the need to privilege collectivism, observe high morality and ethical standards and to achieve closer social affinity (Eyong, 2017; Khoza, 2012; Mbigi, 2005).

These views corroborate early account of African explorers suggesting that the local culture and tradition orchestrated an approach to leadership emphasizing a sense of collective participation, a community spirit and a fluid interchanging role with power mobilizing between leaders and followers for different events and at different times (see e.g., Denham, Clapperton, & Oudney, 1826; Lander and Lander, 1830 in Hallett, 2013; Park and Barrow 1822).

This perception of leadership is succinctly captured in an entry from one explorer's notes describing the unfolding of leadership in a local African community in present day Gambia noting:

> "There is hardly any knowing of who is monarch here or even what form of government prevails. Four fellows assume the title of royalty. Very little ceremony is observed by the people towards their sovereign, they converse with him with as little reserve as if he were no better than themselves" (Lander and Lander, 1830:45 & 47).

Recent theorizing of leadership drawing on indigenous notions surfacing in contemporary management writings concur with the notion of patriarchy, collective approach and moral consideration. For instance, the notion of Ubuntu leadership practice traced from has been presented as founded on a humanistic paradigm that elevates the spirit of care, encourages maintenance of harmony and privileges hospitality, respect and responsiveness (Khoza, 2012). Other scholars argue that Ubuntu leadership practice accords

primacy to the reinforcement of social relations, neutralizes leader-followers friction and seeks to promote collective rather than individual interest in a respectful manner (Bekker, 2008; Karsten & Illa, 2005; Mangaliso, 2001; Ncube, 2010). However, critiques have hinted on the possibility of this model of leadership becoming obsolete in modern day Africa. Some proffer that the communal, collective and humanist approach might have been a survival strategy which might not be relevant in a competitive organizational context. Nevertheless, research exploring aspects where Ubuntu and much as the body of indigenous culture and traditions might be counter-productive or misaligned to present day enterprise is at best skeletal and at worst inexistent. This study makes a contribution into this discourse by examining how the local culture and traditions translate into leadership and what impact this has on leadership effectiveness.

Culture and leadership-as-practice

The notion of leadership-as-practice and theories of culture formed the theoretical base of the study. The complementary theoretical harmony provides a succinct insight into the broader socio-cultural dynamics that give rise to leadership in action (Raelin, 2016; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta 2004; Sandberg and Tsoukas, 2011). Scholars of culture posit that social groups embody peculiar, definable inherited morals, manners, beliefs and habits constituting a culture or cultural systems. These systems and actors produce particular language and practices that are both similar in certain respects but equally distinguishable from other culture and traditions in many ways. The early works in the theorising of culture in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Durkheim,1995; Durkheim and Mauss, 1967; Saussure, 1974) present culture as both 'systemic' and the 'symbolic' and 'linguistic'. Of particular importance to this study is the relationship between the symbolic nature of social relations and the social solidarity, political construction and anthropology of local people, and how their identities unfold in leadership with their bounded territorial space as suggested in early writings on people and culture (Benedict, 2019). This bounded territorial theorising of culture accords credence to the notion of the existence of levels of distinct national, regional and continental cultural frameworks. Recognising extant eloquent critique (see e.g., McSweeney, 2002; Fang, 2003; Tayeb, 2001; Williamson, 2002), the early theories of culture (Hofstede, 1980A; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta 2004; Vu & Gill, 2019) has enabled us make sense of leadership and how practice derives from historical cultural underpinnings.

The paper turns to practice to explore a popular definition as "temporally unfolding within a spatially dispersed nexus of doings and sayings" that permeates everyday social life Schatzki (1996: 89), seen and known through actions reproduced by individuals in context (Reckwitz, 2002). If cultural systems govern living space in the form of nations and peoples, one could infer that practice can only be enacted within the constraints of the guiding cultural systems in place.

Viewed from this perspective, leadership practice viewed through the lens of leadership-as-practice (Raelin, 2016) becomes a complex integration and linkage of various activities and tasks, including materials, meanings and forms of competence informed by cultural systems in context (Hargreaves, 2011; Raelin, 2014; Warde, 2015). If we agree that culture is fundamentally the portrayal of acts informed by hegemonic mind-programming that leads to behaviour outcomes Hofstede (2003), then it is safe to agree that leadership is essentially a cultural activity Jackson and Parry (2010). Hickson and Pugh (1995:90) takes the influence of culture in the reproduction of action in practice even further, declaring that culture 'shapes everything'.

Eliciting the new concept of leadership-as-practice, Raelin (2016) presents leadership as temporary and sometime routine actions and processes unfolding within an organization as ecumenical and intersubjective involving multiple agentic activities at different times. Shove, Pantzar, & Watson

(2012) construct a sense of the individual, yet collective contributions into practice in three salient dimensions – materials, meaning and competence as key contributors into the spatial, dynamic and temporal features of practice. These three parameters he argues constitutively serve as a unified analytical starting-point for theorising practice. Expanding practice in the specific context of leadership, Raelin (2014:6) expands to practice to seven key dimensions including: scanning, 'signalling', 'weaving', 'stabilising', 'inviting', 'unleashing' and 'reflecting'. Considering the multiple implements and social action that goes into the production of leadership, Raelin argues further that leadership emanates from a socioemotional phenomenon embodied through language and other semiotic manifestations. These effects surface in conjunction with the material, structural and aesthetic resources within a specific working arena, rather than reside on the traits of particular individuals Raelin (2016). Seen through the leadership-practice-culture interface, the links between the unfolding of leadership action – as a socio-cultural influence process becomes more accessible (Oswell, 2006). In studying the case of leadership practice in the local councils, we support the notion that the practice-culture linkage underlines and defines leadership practice intentionality and reproduction in cultural context (Shove, Pantzar & Watson ; Realin, 2016).

In taking this view, we place emphasis on 'the (un)patterned, consistent and inconsistent actions embodied within cultural systems to highlight the complexity of cultural systems and cultural forms in leadership practice within the context of exploration. Therefore, rather than assume a uniform, orderly and teleological framing of leadership as often suggested in dominant leadership theories, we hold to the theory of leadership that constructs leadership as polyphonic, defragmented and at times mutational (Chia and MacKay, 2007; Ford, 2006; Tourish, 2014). Somers (1998:67) moves the complexity of culture and practice into spheres of identity by describing the production of practice as: 'the relational processes of interaction between and among identities' which can be tensional and differentiated. This author holds therefore that although cultural systems constitute states of 'entanglements' and 'inseparability' between individuals from mutually informative subsystems (Barad, 2007, p. 283), occurrence of these is not generalizable. Our conceptualisation of leadership-as-practice is more of a pluralistic set of 'intra-actions' in which leaders influence followers and are in turn influenced by followers. In this context, both leaders and followers belong to subsystems within the wider cultural macro-systems defining collective cultural signifiers in the communities explored in Cameroon and Nigeria. However, rather than orderly and teleological, the discursive frames were not exactly replicative to generate a rounded, definitive and objective knowledge. The intention of the study therefore was to make sense of leadership practice in context discursively for deeper reflection and further theorizing. Our findings are therefore not generalizable, neither do they make truth claims.

Nonetheless, it is clear that leadership practice is a product of 'cultural performativity'. Similar to the views of (Durkheim,1995; Durkheim and Mauss, 1967; Saussure, 1974) in the past, Barad (2007, p. 374) suggests that cultural inheritance such as language, culture and other representations are lenses that mediate between the object world and the mind of the knowing subject – in this case participants in this study. However, her work does not explore the implications of this assumption. This is where this paper makes a contribution. Leadership practice as a reflection of the culture and traditions, particularly in the African context remains understudied. This is where we make a contribution. We turn to the empirical study to examine the implication of culture in leadership practice by studying leaders' experiences as participants in the process of leadership within local council organizations in 20 local council authorities in Cameroon and Nigeria.

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Sample and Procedure

The aim of this study was to develop an understanding of leadership practice as productions of cultural hegemony revealed in decision making, action orientation and in the manner in which leader-follower dynamic is managed and understood within local councils situated in the cultural context of four regions. We adopted an exploratory qualitative research approach, employing a combination of ethnography and organizational techniques. Our interest was to explore how participants actions, thought processes are reflected in their autobiographical accounts about their understanding of leadership as well as their experience of it. We were keen to explore decision-making, influence parameters and behaviour-action triggers within the leader-culture-actor interface.

Empirical data collection lasted a full year between June 2017 and June 2008. During this time, the researchers lived within the communities with subjects, immersed in their daily working lives and actively participating in work processes within local councils and engaging in ethnographic interaction and observation in and off work. This enabled the study to draw on life stories and experiences and belief systems. As part of organizational technique, we added to these ethnographic activities, some structured group discussions and interviews. This 'transdisciplinary' approach of combining ethnography and formal discussions and interviews enabled deeper cultural meanings as well as wider knowledge about particular operational issues in leadership (Czarniawska, 2012). Conversations took the form of inter-subjective interaction, co-creation of knowledge and collective interpretation with participants, focusing in the analysis and understanding of key 'events' 'activities' and 'processes' undertaken by individuals in the process of leadership (Cunliffe, 2008). This way, we were able to understand the unspoken assumptions that underpin the links between culture, customs and traditions and leadership in practice.

We selected participants by way of purposive sampling, including only persons holding leadership positions in the councils including: Mayors, Chairmen/Women, Councillors, Secretary General and Heads of department. In all 20 interviews were conducted within the premises of the councils, each interview per council. We started by piloting the questions with colleagues. This enabled the questions to be streamlined for easy understanding. The questions were then shared with gate keepers and participants and other stake holders to establish a working relationship, gain confidence and build trust with participants. Interviews lasted between 45 to 90 minutes, generating between 4000 to 7000 words of texts. A meticulous process of careful planning, reflective practice, diligent note-taking and consistent questioning ensured credibility (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2017). We further enhanced trustworthiness and reliability by sharing our findings with interviewees for cross examination.

Discussions began with open questions aimed at exploring the experience and perceptions of participants about the phenomenon of leadership. Conversations then progressed to autobiographical storied accounts and narratives of their experiences as leaders of councils (Crossley, 2000). This was followed by work-related questions exploring leader-follower dynamics, influence of culture and traditions in leadership as well as evaluative questions about what participants saw as good leadership and acts culturally considered repugnant when imaging themselves and others in the role of leadership. Self-imaging is a reflective introspective approach to interviewing which allows subjects to re-examine their motives, compare their actions with others and make judgements, enabling the research to access rich and deeper knowledge (Clegg, 2018). We balanced the spread of the research field coverage by conducting 5 interviews sessions in each region as illustrated in table 1 below.

Table 1: Councils, states and country

Country	State or Region	Council name
Nigeria	Cross River state	Ikom, Etung, Obubura, Boki, Obudu
Nigeria	Taraba state	Takum, Ussa, Akum, Bali, Donga,
Cameroon	North West Region	Wum, Bamenda, Kumbo Batibo, Widikum
Cameroon	South West region	Muyuka, Buea, Kumba, Mamfe, Eyumojock

Four group discussion sessions formed part of a second data collection method. Discussion sessions were organized in all four regions with eight participants taking part in each of the sessions. Discussion sessions, lasting between 60-90 minutes and involving employees at different administrative levels. Group discussions added impetus to the exploration by offering opportunities for participants to reflect and react to the viewpoint of others. It also allowed participants a chance to ask questions of their own to others for extended cross-positional conversation, generating more information than could have been possible in one-to-one interviews (Bell and Bryman, 2018).

Key areas covered in the discussions were conversations about how leadership is practiced and the factors that influence approaches adopted by leaders. Thus, conversations focused in motivations for leadership, influence factors in decision making processes, perceptions of leadership, evaluation of leadership effectiveness, and performance evaluation mechanisms. Other aspects included the place of culture in leadership practice and how leaders influence followers and how they in turn respond.

We triangulated by adding a third data source, field notes of observations and informal conversations and other storied accounts on culture not necessarily to validate our claims but rather to broaden and widen our understanding (Haydn, 2019; Olsen and Holborn, 2004; Okafor, 2013). The field notes complemented the interviews and group discussion by contributing non-verbal information often missed in verbal expression (Flick, 2018). Observations were unstructured, non-participant and overt (Robson and McCartan, 2016). Our relationship with participants was one of close collaboration where our participants understood that were there to learn from their experience and considered us as guests. Observations were made during visits to the councils and were continuous as the opportunity provided. Observed practices were noted as field notes collected during meetings and at work. The focus of observations was to make notes of interactions between leaders and followers, decision making processes and the body language of leaders and followers during work encounters and generally.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis was an ongoing process during fieldwork with the researcher immersed in the co-creation of knowledge as well as off the field examining recorded oral conversations and texts of observations. The data sets were analysed thematically (Braun and Clark, 2006), using template technique (King, 2018) to arrive at the first and second order themes. The analytical process began with identifying *a priori* gaps, issues or debates in the literature. It progressed into manually analysing empirical data gathered from the interviews, focus group discussions and notes from observations. Following Braun and

Clark (2006), we began by listening to oral recordings of tapes and transcribing these into text. All texts were then read, summarised and relevant comments noted. This reduced the data to manageable level.

A second reading process led to initial open coding whereby power phrases, sentences and sections were annotated and marked relevant to the three main research questions and debates (Pratt, 2009). Data from group discussion and observation were harmonised as they related to the emerging themes. The emerging codes revealed similar and interrelated codes creating categories of intelligence explaining key issues in the research. These were then checked, adjusted and co-related, transitioning from open to axial coding (Pratt, 2008; Silverman, 2015). The final stage consisted of further refining the specifics of each category to identify themes, generate propositions and outline complexity.

RESULTS

This study set out the explore impediments to leadership practice resulting from the local culture and traditions of ethnic communities in four regions within two African countries. The data sets collected from interviews, group discussion, field notes, as well as unwritten embodied knowledge gained in immersion into the communities led to four main impediments. These include impediments due to compliance to cultural meaning and way of life, impediments arising from inter-relationships, impediments relative to cultural duality or hybridity and impediments grounded in metaphysical worldview (Zoogah and Nkomo, 2013). Overall, the study found that cultural codes impose hegemony over leadership practice and in the process introduce non-work related exigencies that impose less effective leadership practice in the local councils. Each of these impediments is presented in detail in the following sections.

Impediment One: Compliance to culture and tradition (age and noble personalities)

Sensitivity and adherence to culture and tradition was a common observation across the field in both countries and in all four regions. Most times, approval and respect of cultural exigencies were non-work related. However, these had consideration implication for leadership practice. The most common aspects of culture that leaders respected and considered as important was age. Irrespective of position of hierarchy in the administrative structures of the councils, leaders are expected to show respect to followers. This meant that for certain task, leaders have to consider whether it was appropriate to allocate work to persons older than them. A very vocal participant *Eta* highlights the cultural necessity for leaders to respect age in their leadership roles saying:

> In our culture, we respect age. This is because the way we work in our villages is according to age groups. Everyone is identified according to their age grade. The age groups carryout different functions in the village and each one respect the other that is older than them. It is a duty to respect your senior. If you don't do it you are seen as a bad person and everybody will avoid you. (Council Chairman, Nigeria).

What is evident here is a strong compliance to cultures and traditions embodied in systems of culture imbibed from one's village community into leadership practice in the councils. This firm consideration of age was further reiterated by another participant *Kibong* at a group discussion session in a council in Cameroon saying:

> Whether you are the Chairman, you must respect your elders in our culture. This is the way our forefathers have been doing since many centuries, you cannot change it. A leader must be someone who understands the culture. Once you don't respect your senior, they will leave you alone and say carry on

> – they will all run away and no one will listen to you again, even the younger ones. (Deputy Mayor, Cameroon).

Both *Eta* and *Kibong*, explain the extent to which leadership is influenced by respect for seniority by age and emphasise the extent to which traditions and culture influence leadership meaning in this context. As a result of this conditioning cultural imposition, it was common to find leaders at higher positions reluctant to exert authority and influence to junior who were older.

A second aspect to compliance is what we refer to as double personalities. By this we mean persons working in the councils at various positions below the Mayor or Council Chairperson but benefitting from nobility status in their village communities – out of the councils. These individuals would normally wear outfits that indicate their authority in their councils even at work in the councils. For these title holders we observed that leaders could not control, deploy or reprimand them in the same way they could for ordinary council employees. When asked why this was the case the participant Agbor explained:

> You see, as he is dressed in leopard skin garment and handles that staff, he is a *Sessekou* in *Ekpe* tradition. That means he must be respected. He can come to work late or not even come at all, nobody will question him. You see now he has come but he will leave soon, he cannot stay here at work. The Mayor and the leaders of the council respect him so much.

As with age consideration, this excerpt further shows the extent to which a culture and tradition intended for the community is imposed in corporational or organizational work context. This would seem to reflect the trilogy of culture 'systemic', 'symbolic' and 'linguistic' suggested by early scholars of culture (Durkheim, 1995; Durkheim and Mauss, 1967; Saussure, 1974). Once leaders become part of the system, not only would they speak the same language, they reflect the very symbols, work ethics and understand culture in the way that the system constructs it and act in response. The consequence is that in the end, culture and tradition become more important that leadership effectiveness and the need to meet organizational goals.

What is more interesting is that the leaders were supportive and full of praise for these cultural exigencies – instead highlighting the benefits.

When if they favoured change, to a more level plain field where they could practice leadership with everyone treated in the same way, irrespective of age or title, most participants sounded unwilling. *Mbaka* explained this reluctance saying:

> Things have already change because of the council has people from different tribes… But because this the way we do things in most of our villages, I would not want this culture to change…..can you change the tradition? We can change and use computers but we can never change our tradition and culture much (Deputy Mayor, Cameroon)

Reading the above excerpts, there is a sense in which the role of leadership in the councils was more that of participatory in the conservation of culture and traditions systems as opposed to necessarily run an organization or corporation with clear goals and objectives to achieve.

Impediment two: The intervention of inter-familial relationship

Theme one was about how leaders responded to the cultural exigencies around age and traditional title holders in leadership. Theme two suggests that leadership practice is influenced by affinities with co-

workers and the general composition of the work inter-relationships. Because leaders are expected to treat close relations differently, they become sensitive and responsive to the relationships they have with co-workers or followers. There decisions are not made on the basis of rational thinking. Rather, leaders are concerned with presenting an image of themselves that they believe will influence the appreciation of their relationships and network within the councils. Typical statements – were expressions from *Mbah* who said:

> 'When you are working with your in laws and cousins you have to think about what impression they are going to have about you. Because they have to see you as a good person and then you can be able to lead them.

Close relationship with co-workers and followers was key decision-making. The balance between leaders being seen as tolerant and understanding emerged as important as it provided leaders a sense of security and therefore less challenged in their positions. *Mango* our participant was modest in explaining the implication of relationship for leadership noting:

> You see….my subordinates are related to me in many ways; I am related to someone who is married to my family, I am married to another village and so on. You cannot do anything to your relation even if he does the wrong thing. In our culture you cannot criticise your relative who is a Chairman of the council, anything he does is right, it is the same here at the council (Vice Chairman, Nigeria).

The strength of co-ethnic relationships emphasised in this interview excerpt and the previous impacts on the extent to which leaders are able to execute punitive action. It also impacted on role allocation, advancement decisions and other aspects of decisions that are made by leaders of the councils. For instance leaders would appoint their relations into positions deemed to be lucrative or less tasking. The consequence is that in this context, the extent of co-ethnic, familial and other relational affiliations defined human resource deployment as one kinds men would frown at the leader if a competent but unrelated person was appointed into a strategic position. In this respect, tolerance, flexibility, less punitive action, conciliatory approach to conflict resolution and less strict application of work ethic emerged as key impediments to leadership effectiveness.

Impediment three: Constraints due to multiple cultural influence

This theme captured the multiple cultural influences to which leaders are confronted. When asked if the councils had any rules, mission or vision, leaders babbled and demonstrated limited knowledge. Although the councils had some written documentation stating their mission, vision and targets, many where out of date. Furthermore, leaders hardly considered them as guide for council operation or approach to leadership.

> *We don't have those kinds of rules here, even if we have them who will even care, my brother, this is a different place, people are just looking for a way to survive. Those things like mission statement or vision is used in Europe there. Here we don't consider those things as important (Deputy Mayor, Cameroon).*

Given that councils do not operate according to any specific rules as confirmed by this participant. Rather, leaders demonstrated different practices and behaviours, ranging from autocratic, relational, delegation, laissez faire to culturally-driven-humanist approaches. The Adopted approaches to leadership depended on personality, level of education, exposure and other factors.

> For me, I think my education is also important. You know when you have been exposed to different people and places you become enlightened. Before I came to this council, I was in the private sector with the corporative bank. I have a degree in economics so I am not like politicians who just get elected (Mayor, Cameroon).

As it can be established from the above participant, leaders with higher education qualification were more articulate, inspiration and demonstrated some kind of ambition and direction. We have argued that pre-colonial SSA society was essentially collective. The Lander brothers, Richard and John Lander (1730) saw villages, clans and clusters of communities operating a collective, community-based inward-looking approach to leadership founded on the goal of defending collective interests. Although subsequent change infused by Western colonial leadership remains indelible, by large, it is argued that SSA society remains fundamentally collectivist, inclusive, humanist and conservative particularly in rural and semi-urban areas (Bolden and Kirk, 2009; Blunt and Jones, 1997; Haruna, 2009).

What the data sets reveal systemic is individualism, contrasting the rather collective world-view underpinning the local cultural context. The concomitant manifestation of 'individualism' and collective social working processes is paradox, but understandable, given the dual cultural influences under which leaders operate in the African context. Whist a social environment founded on collective convivial animation dominates employee work interrelationships as elicited above, it was ironical to observe that important decisions of the councils were mainly the prerogative of the head of the councils. Financial decisions in particular, were single-headedly decided by Mayors for the case of councils in Cameroon and council chairperson for councils in Nigeria. Instead of collective decision making as akin to local culture and tradition, it was evident in our conversations and observations that capital decisions were made by the elected head of the councils. Quite interesting we observed that collaborators and other senior employees and elected officials were quite reluctant to challenge decisions made by leaders. The sole right to make decisions enjoyed by leaders rather than through collective conversation and consensus was vividly expressed in a focus group session by a participant noting:

> Leadership in our own thinking here in this council assumes that it is the head of the council who keeps all the finances and key resources. That is to say, you have a Chairman … who is the main leader and who decides what you can take and what you cannot take. After all, only one candidate won the election so why must there be two leaders? The leader has the knife and the yam he decides when, where and how much of the yam he wants to cut (Department head, Nigeria)

It is interesting to note two influencing factors from this excerpt. First, leadership is influenced by an adopted individualist tendency imposed by Western democratic leader selection processes. The competitive democratic political party system, although foreign the cultural ethos of leadership as conceptualised with the local communities has become embedded in institutions in context. This introduction has a distorting effect in the sense that it reinforces individualism in an otherwise collectivist cultural milieu (Mbaku & Ihonvbere, 2018). What Africa faces is an unwitting paradox of executing concepts founded around heroism and individualism underpinning such models as transformational leadership in a rather culturally-sensitive context that strives on collective and metaphysical cultural worldviews. This disconnect leads Kuada (2010) to observe that African managers trained in Western leadership and management principles and practices often revert to their local pre-training behaviour after participating in universal training programmes. This abandonment indicates fundamental weaknesses in Western approaches when applied in non-western contexts and explains the difficulty of implementation local councils in Cameroon and Nigeria. Thus, in lieu of the disproportionate leader-follower relationships underpinning concepts like charismatic, transformational and transactional leadership theories, paternalistic relationship was predominant in leader-follower engagements, with leaders perceived as

rulers and *elders* humanely protecting the wellbeing of followers and vice versa as typical in the patriarchal traditions predating western intervention in Africa (Muchiri, 2011). The metaphor of head of family was a constant expression in interviews and group discussions with the role of council leaders likened to responsibilities attributed to the father in a family. The leader saw followers and collaborators not as merely colleagues assembled to achieve organizational goals but more as children, friends and family members whose wellbeing was his or her responsibility.

> The leader is the father of the house, even like in Cameroon now the President is the father of the Nation. When it comes to leadership of this council, it is the chairman who decides who will be employed and how much salary the person will be paid. Everything is in the hands of the chairman. He acts like the father in a family (Deputy Mayor, Cameroon).

As much as in the previous theme, we find from this excerpt that the local cultural perception with leadership conceptualised as a social unit family, rather than an institution in which individual, social and organizational capital is brought together to deliver high performance (Fu, Flood, Bosak, Rousseau, Morris, & O'Regan, 2017). Our findings concur with the assertion that African leaders often sacrifice organisational goals for their personal and family gains, ultimately influencing the decision making and leadership behaviour (Kuada, 2010; Rotberg, 2014; Wanasika, Howell, Littrell, & Dorfman, 2011).

If we consider the dimensions of Ubuntu as a construct or philosophy of Afrocentric leadership, then, self-interest seeking behaviour can be considered as a fundamental shift from the values of humanity, closer affinity, respect and people-orientation defining Ubuntu, (Eyong, 2019). It is also obvious that self-seeking virtues are deviant from the sense of collective interest and value sharing characterizing Afrocentric social clusters (Haruna, 2009). This deviation gives rise to the problem of corruption, nepotism, favouritism and plunder with impunity reported by many participants (Adeyemi, 2012; Rotberg, 2004).

DISCUSSION

The foregoing analysis illustrates a contested, complex and material exhibition of leadership (Grint, 2005). It follows that leadership practice and organizational forms cannot be conceptualised as a straightjacket. It also cannot be assumed that an inclusive organization or approach to leadership as suggested in this year's theme for the Academy of Management conference is necessarily a panacea for a better work environment.

In considering what approach to leadership might be suitable in the African context in the midst of the various cultural impediments distilled within this work, we came to the conclusion that the leader-centred approach of transformational leadership would not quite resonate in a cultural context which remains collectivist. At the same time, given the drive for motivation, inspiration and productive influence (Bass and Avolio, 1990), transformational leadership retains aspects of positive influence that is vital for leadership that seeks to achieve better organizational outcomes. Drawing on Bhabha (1994) we considered the notion of hybridity to advance a cross-cultural 'blending' framework of leadership (Fauconnier and Turner 2002) founded on the notion of complexity leadership theory (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey 2007). Founded around the notion of leadership as reproduced and enacted within complex interactions, leadership has more recently been observed to emerge out of adaptive systems (CAS), (Plowman Solansky, Beck, Baker, Kulkarni & Travis 2007). This rather complex – rather than simplistic perception and conceptualization of leadership has gained traction in critical leadership studies (CLS). For instance, Uhl-Bien & Arena (2017) argued against mainstream simplification of leadership as persons in positions and authority. Rather, they argue that leadership is complex and takes place in different contexts, requiring

adaptability for effective practice which might not fit the uni-directional influence systems underpinning contemporary practice.

Rather than control, influence and power dominance, successful leadership is increasingly associated with an approach to leadership practice with an essence around cultivating and reinforcing ethical leadership practices. In the context of the councils at community level, leadership is service beyond the self. However, where interest is identified by leaders this shifts to leadership for self. Rather than individualised decision, collectively measured decision-making ethos whereby the prerogative of leaders are maintained but curtailed such that issues are discussed and evaluated before implementation is more able to address leadership shortages while enforcing accountability. Such an approach should lead to effective leadership and higher objective attainment within the councils, in ways that councils are able to deliver on their most desired services while moderating on cultural exigencies.

CONCLUSION

This study has established that inclusive and collectivist cultures can give rise to less strict monitoring and evaluation and governance mechanisms and that meanings, discourses and practices of leadership are often more complex and emerge in contested ways (Grint, 2005). We argue that this complexity ultimately requires flexible and adaptable leadership styles, collective and participatory decision making approaches beyond fixation to culture-specific thinking (Benedict 2019; Mesoudi, Whiten & Dunbar, 2006). Rather than inclusive organization – per say, an adaptive leadership practice that considers culture and context as dynamic and leadership practice as contextual is proposed.

Our study expands the leadership debate by engaging with the dynamic, complex and conflicting issues of cultural identities, cultural influences and contextual contingency in a context defined by institutional voids and sensitivity to historical hegemonies (Brown, 2015; Eyong, 2017; Amaeshi, Adegbite & Rajwani, 2014). These conversations are often ignored in mainstream theories of leadership that tend to present these matters simplistic, static and unitary (Ford, 2006). We casts new light on how the complex web of co-ethnic relationships and interdependencies embedded in cultural conventions are reproduced and appropriated as frames for leadership practice. In this context, leadership practice becomes multifarious, depending not on any universal theory but on personality, exposure, education and embeddedness to a cultural mind-set. Grounded within this dynamic, the proposed framework that blends endogenous and exogenous considerations and influences could impact on leadership practice in context. This concomitant accumulation of capability and style, we think can assist in the advancement of leadership effectiveness.

Our study has implication for leadership practice and theory development. It develops a new approach to leadership by implanting purposefulness, vision, performance-seeking and evaluation in leadership practice. We anticipate that this study could enable local councils to develop a leadership practice that is flexible and adaptable. This way, councils could better responds to the changing global environment, addressing the needs of local populations while maintaining esteemed cultural values of collectivism, respect and humanity and where necessary leaders will need to exude individualistic competence that drives collective motivation and sense of purpose. The framework proposed within this work is only one step ahead in the onerous process of arriving at achieving effective, appreciative and sustainable leadership in a challenging African context at a time of global influence.

Future research could design programmes and initiatives within formal institutions in SSA for leadership development in developing country contexts. Such programmes could draw on reflections generated within this work to outline specific actions, behaviours and mind-set on which leaders could be

trained. Well considered, such training and education could materialise processes of cultural unlearning, action- oriented adaptive and flexible decision-making and ethical and collaborative decision making for purposeful leadership.

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AM I INCLUDED?
LESSONS FROM LEADERSHIP RESEARCH IN AFRICA AND THE AFRICAN DIASPORA

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ABSTRACT

Inclusive leadership is explored from the framework of the leadership effectiveness in Africa and the diaspora. Inclusive leadership, diversity, and inclusivity are explained. Leader motivations and cultural dispositions which have important implications for inclusive leadership, are reviewed. Findings are that leaders are motivated by respect from followers, working with people, and community development projects. Implications for inclusive leadership are discerned. Given the importance of inclusive leadership in leadership effectiveness, future research should be conducted on the relationship between culture, motivation and inclusive leadership to improve motivational and cultural dispositions on inclusive leadership. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Key words: *Diversity, Inclusion, Inclusive leadership, LEAD, Africa, African Diaspora*

INTRODUCTION

While Burns (1978) asserted that, "Leadership, unlike naked power-wielding is … inseparable from followers' needs and goals" (p. 19), Gardner (1987) suggested that, "Executives can be given subordinates, but a following must be earned" (p.4). This partly explains why leadership continues to attract attention from researchers and practitioners with a focus on what kind of leadership would be most appropriate in a dynamic world characterised by need for inclusivity.

Inclusive leadership is examined from the perspective of the leadership effectiveness, which is the focus of the Leadership Effectiveness and Motivation in Africa and in the African Diaspora (LEAD) research project. The LEAD project brings together researchers from Africa, the Caribbean, the US and Canada who are interested in generating Africa specific leadership and management knowledge in response to various calls for Africa specific leadership theory. This paper explores the relevance of the various LEAD project findings to inclusive leadership concept. Though the Ubuntu philosophy and African culture appear to emphasize inclusiveness, the practice of leadership in government and organisations appears to be to a large extent in contrast with the *Ubuntu* philosophy.

Leadership effectiveness continues to preoccupy researchers, practitioners and scholars. Popular press and academia constantly lament the absence of effective leaders, which is particularly reflected in the mistrust of those in positions of authority. Further "recent surveys report that only one in four members of the general public trusts business leaders to correct issues, and only one in five trusts them to tell the truth and make ethical and moral decisions" (Hollensbe, Wookey, Hickey, George & Nichols, 2014, p. 1227). The most emerging discourse on effective leadership dwells on two related notions: diversity and inclusivity. A discussion of diversity is important in the conversation of inclusive leadership because it involves appreciating and embracing people from all shades of life. In this regard, an understanding and practice of inclusion in addition to a clear understanding and appreciation of diversity are pertinent to leadership effectiveness. The objective this paper is to present a review of studies on inclusive leadership and highlight implications for further studies to inform practice. It starts by examining diversity and inclusivity, which underpin inclusive leadership followed by a review of studies on inclusive leadership and insights from the LEAD studies. This is then followed by implications for practice and research and lastly conclusion.

Diversity and Inclusivity

The concept of diversity encompasses acceptance and respect; and the understanding of the fact that each individual is unique, as well as recognizing our individual differences. Our differences can be along the dimensions of race, ethnicity, gender, socio-economic status, age, physical abilities, religious beliefs, political beliefs, or other ideologies (Friedman & Di Tomaso 1996; Lorbiecki & Jack 2000). Emphasis on diversity with accompanying implications and cultural sensitivity raises the important issue of inclusivity. While cultural sensitivity would imply the absence of a universal culture; and the imperative to accept and respect the fact that, as human beings, we are different based on our socializations, inclusivity implies that every shade of opinion, cultural disposition including beliefs, norms and preferences must find expression in how we conduct affairs in business, political arena, and education just to name a few.

Though the definition or meaning of inclusion remains a subject of multiple interpretations with the possibility of misconceptions, research reveals that inclusion is expressed as a feeling of being confident and inspired and that a holistic definition comprises four related yet discrete elements (Bourke & Dollin, 2018). First, people feel included when they are "treated equitably and with respect". Participation without favouritism is the starting point for inclusion, and this requires attention to non-discrimination and basic courtesy. It should be noted here that the feeling of being excluded may be the source of most protracted conflicts both at country, business and even at family unit levels. An example in Africa where multiple nationalities strive and even clamour for space at the "national cake table" results not only in violent conflicts but also in civil wars as has been witnessed the world over such as the US civil rights movement, Kenya's post-election violence (2007/8) where elections have been divisive

resulting from the fact that the winner more often than not "takes it all" and excludes "the losers". This is not unique to Kenya, Zimbabwe or Africa at large but is typical of anyone purporting to be a leader but lacking the temerity and magnanimity required of an effective leader anywhere in the world.

Secondly, "feeling valued and belonging" is an element of inclusion which is experienced "when people believe that their unique and authentic self is valued by others, while at the same time have a sense of connectedness or belonging to a group" (Bourke & Dollin, 2018). Thirdly, inclusion is also expressed as feeling "safe" to speak up without fear of embarrassment or retaliation, and when people feel "empowered" to grow and do one's best work. In this regard, it is only when organizations are clear about the objective of inclusion can they turn their attention to the drivers of inclusion, take action, and measure results. The fourth element is that inclusion is expressed as feeling "confident and inspired". It is emphasized that being excluded or feeling this way, can have serious psychological effects on an individual and has the potential to result in consequences such as individuals taking action to ensure inclusion sometimes with devastating outcomes.

Exclusion can take various forms such as imposition of one's will on another, political intolerance as manifested in crackdown on legitimate dissent and lack of involvement in decision making in organizations. Examples of the effects of exclusion are many and diverse. In the 1930's as a result of a rising cost of living from the worldwide depression coupled with the oppression of black people facing low wages across the region, spontaneous rioting erupted throughout the commonwealth Caribbean. In Barbados, 14 people were killed and 47 wounded in protests in 1937. Again in Barbados on March 11, 2017, key stakeholders of the Social Partnership in Barbados, private sector, trade unions and the main opposition political party led a nation-wide march protesting against several austere governmental initiatives which were implemented without proper consultation and inclusion of the said stakeholders ("March of Protest in the City", 2017). The Grenada revolution in the 1980s is also another example of the consequences of exclusion. The revolution was championed by Maurice Bishop and Bernard Coard and sought to adopt a more inclusive leadership approach by allowing all citizens' voice in the nation's social and political decision making.

Additionally, the case of the Tamil Tigers of Sri Lanka, the conflict and civil war of Angola which led to the killing of Jonas Savimbi – founding leader of *União Nacional para a Independência Total de Angola* (UNITA, in English, the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola), Umkhonto we Sizwe the *armed wing* of the *African National Congress* (*ANC*) during apartheid in South Africa which was co-founded by Nelson Mandela in the wake of the Sharpeville massacre and the Kenya Land and Freedom Army (KLFA) also known as Mau Mau rebellion against the British colonial rule in Kenya. The war was between Mau Mau and the British colonists who comprised the white European colonist-settlers in Kenya, the British Army, and the local Kenya Regiment (British colonists, local auxiliary militia, and pro–British Kikuyu people)

Though it is unclear why extremists arise, it may be an expression of the feeling of being excluded or motivation to exclude others. Exclusion has subtle expressions in the workplace as well. These may include aggression towards co-workers, sabotage of operations, pilferage and 'go slow" at work; it may also lead to resignations. Even worse, the frustrations arising from being excluded usually spills over to the customers, yet these are the reason for the existence of the organisation. When this happens and is not addressed, it spells doom for the concerned organisation.

Inclusive Leadership

Over the past 50 years extensive empirical and theoretical research on types of leadership has been explored, utilising various quantitative and qualitative approaches; in an effort to determine the best leadership style. Results from these studies highlighted a plethora of leadership styles that can be effectively used in organisations, teams and groups. However, with populations becoming more diverse and new problems arising, a new paradigm of leadership has emerged known as inclusive leadership.

Inclusive leadership is oriented significantly more towards the involvement rather than the

manipulation of followers by those in power. Respect, recognition, responsiveness and responsibility are vital for the successful implementation of inclusive leadership (Hollander, Park, Boyd, Elman & Ignagni, 2008, p.4). This approach to leadership appears to suggest empowerment of people in organisations where 'Empowerment means that someone at the top must be wise or noble enough to give away some of his power' (Laloux, 2014, p. 62). Rappaport (1987) states that empowerment conveys both a psychological sense of personal control or influence and a concern with actual social influence, political power, and legal rights. Empowerment thus implies, enabling followers through mentorship, training and provision of resources, to take control of their work situations and influence decisions that affect them. It also has implication for ensuring their inclusion and participation in the running of organisations as equal stakeholders.

The importance of inclusivity continues to be reported in leadership studies. For example, Deloitte's research (Bourke & l Dillon, 2018) shows that the behaviours of leaders (senior executives or managers) can drive up to 70 percentage points of the difference between the proportion of employees who feel highly included and the proportion of those who do not. This underscores the critical role that leadership plays in ensuring inclusivity which draws heavily from the notion of diversity. It is therefore not surprising that "companies increasingly rely on diverse, multidisciplinary teams that combine the collective capabilities of women and men, people of different cultural heritage, and younger and older workers. However, in order to achieve superior performance *inclusive leadership is required* — "leadership that assures that all team members feel they are treated respectfully and fairly, are valued and sense that they belong, and are confident and inspired" (Bourke & Dollin, 2018, 2018). Further, in research involving 3,500 ratings by employees of 450 leaders, Deloitte found that,

> *Inclusive leaders share six behaviours — and that leaders often overestimate how inclusive they really are. The behaviours are: visible commitment, humility, awareness of bias, curiosity about others, cultural intelligence, and effective collaboration (2018)*

As an example, leaders in Africa are motivated when they are involved with people, get respect of subordinates and are involved with the society in the development projects (Senaji, Metwally, Puplampu, Sejjaaka, Michaud & Adedoyin-Rasaq, 2014). This finding suggests that the leaders should strive to earn their followers respect since it is a source of motivation. This appears to be conditional: they need to be effectively involved with the people and in the development of the people which in itself should be an inclusive process. However, "while most business leaders now believe that having that a diverse and inclusive culture is critical to performance, they do not always know how to achieve that goal" (Bourke & Dillon, 2018, p.1). Further, what constitutes effective leadership is still elusive with inclusive leadership being even more ephemeral.

Effective leadership offers the opportunity to bend personal motivations, group norms, and environmental opportunities toward organizational objectives (Senaji, et al., 2016). Meanwhile though the search for inclusive leadership remains pervasive it may also find respite in the spiritual realm. This fact is aptly articulated by Cardinal Vincent Nichols in Hollensbe et al. (2014) by asserting that:

> *"The deepest resources for the transformation of business, as for society as a whole, lie within the human heart. It is there we have to seek what it is we truly value and yearn for, and where we can harness the strongest motivation to change— ourselves, our organizations, and our world—for the better"* (p. 1227).

Given the fact that inclusive leadership has become a critical leadership competence it is necessary to explore who an inclusive leader is or should be. To the question: "what distinguishes highly inclusive leaders from their counterparts?" Deloitte's research identifies six signature traits all of which are interrelated and mutually reinforcing (Bourke & Dillon, 2016):

1. *Commitment*: They are deeply committed to diversity and inclusion because it aligns with their personal values, and they believe in the business case for diversity and inclusion. They articulate their

commitment authentically, bravely challenge the status quo, and take personal responsibility for change.
2. *Courage*: They are humble about their own capabilities and invite contributions by others.
3. *Cognizance of bias*: They are conscious of their own blind spots as well as flaws in the system, and work hard to ensure opportunities for others.
4. *Curiosity*: They have an open mind-set; they are deeply curious about others, listen without judgment, and seek to understand.
5. *Culturally intelligent*: They are attentive to others' cultures and adapt as required.
6. *Collaboration*: They empower others and create the conditions, such as team cohesion, for diversity of thinking to flourish.

Part of inclusion is to ensure that people of different cultures are treated equally by the leaders. Culture, which is defined as, "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others" (Hofstede, 2011, p.3) plays an important role on what constitutes leadership effectiveness. According to LEAD research in the African context, Senaji et al. (2014) found that the term culture may be used to mean the respect for the elderly/authority, modesty and moral behaviour that is expressed by people (Ghana), being accommodative, welcoming and showing happiness (Uganda), social behaviour, love of God/religious belief and hardworking (Egypt, Nigeria), and ethnic group and language (Kenya).

Based on the foregoing finding of the study on leadership effectiveness in Africa, important cultural dispositions that have important implications for inclusive leadership come to the fore. First, there is modesty, the underlying implication is that a leader should listen and be open to a wide range of views from followers and that someone who is pompous and "full of themselves" may not succeed in Ghana. There is also, "love of God/ religious belief" which has may linkages with spirituality and the related notion of altruism – a disposition to embrace others - hence inclusion. Further, being "accommodative" as a cultural norm in Uganda implies inclusivity and sensitivity to diversity in terms of ensuring everybody irrespective of their state or status "are brought on board" in all aspects of an organisation whether a religious organisation (church, mosque, synagogue, temple etc.) a firm, a local government or even national government and even in the civil society. The "ethnic group and language" as a culture descriptor has the implication that you cannot be perceived to be inclusive at the country level and even in business in Kenya unless you address tribal and ethnic diversities present in the country by striving to have a balance in key decisions such as appointment to positions in organisations. This is not unique in Kenya because country constitutions in some countries such as Lebanon prescribe who should be president or prime minister depending on their religious affiliations.

In an effort to ensure diversity and inclusion, governments and businesses alike have respectively enacted laws/ constitutions and formulated business polices to address this important issue. However, leader disposition and commitment to these remain areas requiring empirical clarity to guide practice since there appears to be scarcity of appropriate leaders to deliver on this promise. Further, though recent studies have empirically determined preliminary descriptors of effective leadership, culture and what motivates leaders in the African and in the African Diaspora context (e.g. Ford & Miller, 2014; Galperin. Lituchy, Acquaah, Bewaji, & Ford., 2014; Senaji et al., 2014), more needs to be done to establish what motivation, cultural disposition and effort are needed to realise inclusive leadership which is increasingly being found to be the most appropriate approach in the present and unfolding environment. Further, the findings from the LEAD research project suggest that when leading people, it is important to consider the cultural dimensions on which they differ and as much as possible, ensure that any decisions take into account these cultural differences. In addition, Ncube (2010) asserts that:

> *Leadership is about knowledge, skills, and abilities for transformation. It is also increasingly about worldviews or visions of life—beliefs, values, and principles. But worldviews are also ways of life, for beliefs direct us, values guide us, and principles motivate us to certain kinds of action and behaviour" (p.1)*

This assertion complements these findings in an attempt to clarify what leadership is about while at the same time pointing out aspects of differences that exist between people and which should form the approaches to inclusive leadership.

INCLUSIVE LEADERSHIP: A REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES

There have been many views posited by reserachers regarding the definition and purpose of leadership. For example, House et al., (2004) describes leadership as "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members" (p.5). Resulting from this definition, many concepts and typologies have attempted to describe and explain leadership.

While there are many different definitions, there has been no agreement on a universal definition of leadership (Hollander 2009). Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) contend that apart from there being a lack of convergence on the definition, there has also been some confusion created by the different levels of analysis presented on the subject. In the context of these realities, the topic of leadership continues to be a pervasively dominant concept within the management, organizational and strategic literatures. As a result, this pervasiveness has influenced scholars to theorize on the nature and impact of leadership as a discipline.

Conceptualisation of Inclusive leadership

There are a number of theories that have been posited on inclusive leadership. Many of these theories refer to the concept of inclusiveness in a broad and general manner. The overarching notion is that inclusiveness relates to state of embracing everyone regardless of cultural background, age, sexual orientation, gender, disability, personality type, and ways of working etc. Some of these theories are explored below.

Inclusive leadership is a two-way relationship between the leader and follower based upon respect, recognition, responsiveness and responsibility, and entails a guiding principle of "doing things with people, not to people'' (Hollander 2009). Further, these leaders ''appreciate everybody's contribution and inspire innovation by involving people at risk of being excluded from society'' (Bortini, et al. 2016).

In 2016, Bourke and Dillon conducted a study on inclusive leadership and from their findings developed six traits of an inclusive leader. The first trait 'commitment' is emphasised by attributes of fairness, a strong belief in personal values and business case which influence a sense of commitment to diversity and inclusion. Secondly, 'courage' is having the tenacity to take risks and challenge the status quo. The third trait 'cognizance of bias' is the ability to identify and be aware of personal and group/company biases in making effective decisions. The fourth trait 'curiosity' relates to the leader being open-minded to other ideas and input from other individuals. The fifth trait 'cultural intelligence' refers to the capacity to correspond with individuals cross-culturally. The last trait 'collaboration' relates to empowering others to work together with the knowledge that a diverse team can produce better outcomes (Bourke and Dillon 2016). Thus, ''inclusive leaders should be aware of their own biases and preferences, actively seek out and consider different views and perspectives in an effort to inform better decision-making; see diverse talent as a source of competitive advantage and inspire diverse people to drive organisational and individual performance towards a shared vision" (Coppin 2017).

In addition to Bourke and Dillon's theory of inclusive leadership there are some other researchers who have posited their views on the concept. For example, Frederic Laloux suggested that the inclusive leader is one who is interested in assisting others in becoming leaders and in attaining autonomy themselves. 'Empowerment means that someone at the top must be wise or noble enough to give away some of his power.' (Laloux, 2014 p. 62).

Further, Laloux (2014) describes a scenario where an organization exists without differentiation between the powerful and the powerless. He adds that since the world has become more complex, the 'predict and control system' should be replaced by a 'sense and respond' approach. Laloux proposes that successful organizations are those that perceive themselves to be living with a sense of direction and individual genius. Laloux adds that to achieve this people should no longer wear a professional mask. Instead, individuals should seek wholeness and nurture their spiritual and rational aspects. He highlights that many organizations in today's world are devoid of life because very little life is injected into them. He suggests that soulful practices could assist in helping them to find their humanity

Similarly, Scharmer and Kaufer (2013) describe inclusive leaders as those 'who engage in creating change and shaping their future, regardless of their formal positions'. He suggests that there is a need to migrate from an ego-system-centric awareness of institutional decision-makers to an eco-system reality. 'Decision-makers must move from a place of only seeing their own viewpoint (ego-awareness) to experiencing the system through the lens of the other players, especially those who are most marginalized. The goal must be to co-sense, co-inspire and co-create an emerging future for their system that values the well-being of all rather than just a few' (Scharmer & Kaufer, 2013, p.12). Scharmer offers what he refers to as 'Theory U' which a process he introduced to support companies and institutions in collaboratively progressing towards future possibilities. It is important to underscore that all of these leadership theories incorporate the new dimension of diversity which is a critical variable in today's organizations. Inclusive leadership has the potential to allow leaders to reach individuals who would otherwise be alienated within organizations. Once these individuals are empowered and included the probability of them reaching their full potential within organizations and society as a whole is increased. Deloitte describes an inclusive leader as 'a person who actively creates a workplace in which diverse talent is fostered, where diverse teams operate to their maximum potential. Further, they see a paradigm shift from "leading from the top to leading from the center" Deloitte (2012, p.1).

Inclusive leadership and Similar Leadership Styles

Scholars have alluded to the similarities of inclusive leadership to transformational leadership and servant leadership. Transformational leadership was first coined as such by James MacGregor Burns in 1978, until later in 1985 when Bernard M. Bass referred to the term as transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is described as a method whereby "leaders and followers help each other to advance to a higher level of morale and motivation" (Burns 1978). Transformational leadership is characterized by intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, inspirational motivation and idealized influence. The transforming leader must be able stimulate ideas and challenge the status quo (intellectual stimulation), act as mentors and nurture the needs of their subordinates/followers (individual consideration), have a sense of charisma (inspirational motivation), and be an exemplar (idealised influence). Bono and Judge (2004) conducted a meta-analysis study to determine the relationship between personality and transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. Findings of that study revealed that transformational leaders have five major personality traits: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness.

Servant leadership first coined by Robert Greenleaf in 1970, is described as a leadership style that seeks to enhance the lives of others whilst achieving organisational goals. Servant leaders exhibit characteristics such as ''listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community''(Spears 2010).

Like the inclusive leader, the transformational leader and servant leader ''are people-oriented styles'' (Parolini 2007). Echols (2009) noted that these leadership perspectives do not disregard the importance of goal outcomes but is concerned with the human element. Emphasising the importance of positive human relationships, leads to a realisation of individual and group potential that encourages growth and cohesiveness, resulting in goal attainment (Echols 2009) Therefore, similar to studies on inclusive leadership, authors have reported positive outcomes from utilising transformational or servant

leadership approaches (Ng 2017); (Lehmann-Willenbrock, Meinecke, Rowold, & Kauffeld 2015); (Bosch, et al. 2019); (Czayka-Chełmińska, et al. n.d.); (Bentein and Chiniara 2018).

Though these styles find the humanistic variable as important in achieving goals there is some difference. A transformational leader is focused on the organisational goals and exhibits characteristics that encourage followers' commitment to those goals, whilst the servant leader is primarily focused on the followers and organisational goals become more of a secondary objective (Kantharia 2012); (Patterson, Russell and Stone 2002). However, ''inclusive leadership adds a new dimension to leadership concepts, by putting the focus on diverse groups and individuals; it addresses individuals at risk of exclusion by looking at their needs, aspirations and potential, and empowering them to participate fully in society'' (Czayka-Chełmińska, et al. n.d.).

Inclusive Leadership Outcomes

David, Dodds, Moss, and Sims (2016), conducted a study to explore organisations' understanding of inclusive leadership as well as the perception of its practice and its links to performance, productivity, satisfaction and well-being (David, et al. 2016). From their study, three major findings were revealed. The first finding indicated that inclusive leaders embody fifteen core competencies (consideration, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulaton, unqualified acceptance, empathy, listening, persusasion, confidence, building, growth, foresight, conceptualisation, awareness, stewardship and healing), all co-existing with equal importance. The second finding postulated that ''people working with inclusive leaders are more productive, satisfied and engaged than those working with non-inclusive leaders'' (David, et al. 2016). Hence, the last finding unearthed several benefits of having inclusive leadership: enhanced performance and productivity, enhanced loyalty, the advance of under-represented groups, enhanced creativity, better services to clients, customers and service users, better teamwork, motivation to go the extra mile, higher retention and a diverse talent pool. Participants within the study cited inclusive leadership as the major contributor to their overall productivity, satisfaction and engagement.

Similar results were found in a study conducted by Prime and Salib (2014), who sought to report on differences of opinions and effects of inclusive leadership among employees in six countries (China, Australia, Germany, India, Mexico, and the United States). The findings revealed that regardless of culture, employees who were led by persons considered as inclusive felt more innovative and expressed higher team citizenship behaviours, which increased the company's overall productivity and product innovation(Prime and Salib 2014).

Carmeli, Hirak, Peng, and Schaubroeck (2012) found that there was a positive relationship between leader inclusiveness and performance. Specifically, individuals who performed at mediocre or unsuitable levels perceived inclusive leadership to be either non-existent or unfavourable. Consequently, they adopted a more negative view of psychological safety and responded to failures; accordingly, resulting in low performance and productivity output. In contrast, those individuals who perceived and experienced leaders who were inclusive, had more positive perceptions of their psychological safety which affected their attitudes towards any occurring failures. These individuals were noted as having the highest levels of performance and productivity output.

Despite being a relatively new concept, inclusive leadership is also referred to as the 21st century leadership style for competitive advantage showing multiple benefits (Nelson 2016). As a result, more and more research is being conducted in this area, confirming the benefits of inclusive leadership. (Choi 2017); (Qi, et al. 2019).

METHOD

In this paper, we explored literature on inclusive leadership with the aim of ascertaining how inclusive the leadership in Africa and in the African diaspora was. Based on the theorisation of the inclusive leadership construct (for example, Hollander et al., 2008), we examined the dimensions of the leadership

effective scale (Michaud et al., 2019) that was developed in the LEAD project in order to determine some of its implications on inclusive leadership. To do this, we reviewed emperical studies (LEAD project) on effective leadership in Africa, the Carreben; and in the US and Canada. We then teased out some implications for inclusive leadership and then suggested areas for further. The results are presented in the next section and discussed thereafter.

LEAD PROJECT RESEARCH FINDINGS AND INCLUSIVE LEADERSHIP

Inclusive Leadership: The Caribbean Context

Culture, politics, religion and geography are some factors that influence leadership styles (Punnett 2008). Hence, the current leadership atmosphere in the Caribbean has its eminence in the era of colonial power; a top-down decision-making style, where those in power make decisions with little to no input from subordinates (Greenidge and Punnett 2009). These leaders generally believe that they are making the best fit decisions. Instead, they are often perceived as individuals just seeking financial gain, not caring for the people they lead (Holder et al., 2014).

In the Caribbean, leadership is explored mostly within the context of politics and organisations. Typically, leadership roles over the years have been either democratic, autocratic or lazier-faire in nature (Hoebing 1996). Inclusive leadership behaviours such as empowerment, commitment, accountability, courage and cultural intelligence, can be recognised in some areas, but the term itself has not been considered as a typology of leadership.

Inclusive leadership is characterised by the ability to embrace and motivate individuals, especially those marginalised, to participate within a group and together achieve a common goal. Having a people-oriented focus, makes it similar to the transformational leader and servant leader. However, it differs as it focuses not only on individuals but on issues of diversity. Though a relatively new concept of leadership, most international research examines inclusive leadership within the context of organisations reporting a plethora of benefits. These studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between inclusive leaders and an increase in individual health and overall productivity. Inclusive leadership, regardless of context appears to assist in bringing about positive characteristics among members that aid in rectifying many challenges (see e.g. Bourke & Dillon, 2016; 2018)

Unfortunately, in the Caribbean, there is a dearth of literature regarding inclusive leadership, as expected. Research on inclusive leadership has its focus in education (still limited), but is unexplored in other settings such as organisations, politics, groups and teams to name a few. Often, ‘‘inclusion’’ is discussed or studied as a mechanism for involving youth or future leaders into the activities of the region; to offer a better foundation for future economic growth and regional integration. These programmes’ overarching goals are based on inclusivity and participants learn some inclusive leadership behaviours. However, inclusive leadership as a style is yet to be acknowledged as an instrument that can be utilised for future growth.

It is important to highlight that the Caribbean as a region has a colonial past and as a direct result of this leadership styles tend to be bureaucratic in nature and feature a top down approach which tends to run contrary to the notions of inclusive leadership.

Inclusive Leadership: The African Context

Similar to the Caribbean, the literature on inclusive leadership in Africa is limited. This, notwithstanding, at least two aspects about Africa provide clues as to how inclusive leadership in Africa may be understood: the concept of Ubuntu and the dominant culture in Africa. Both Ubuntu as a worldview and the African culture have received some attention in the literature. The Ubuntu philosophy is aptly presented in the words of Archbishop Desmond Tutu of South Africa, thus:

> *A person is a person through other persons. None of us comes into the world fully formed. We would not know how to think, or walk, or speak, or behave as human beings unless we learned it from other human beings. We need other human beings in order to be human (Tutu, 2004:25).*

Ubuntu has attracted the attention of researchers (e.g. Ncube, 2010) and appears to resonate well with the notion of inclusive leadership as discussed in the previous sections. For example, it has been argued that *Ubuntu* represents the Africans worldview and it encompasses value systems, beliefs and practices that are common among the African people (Mnyaka & Motlhabi, 2005). This world is founded on the core values of humaneness, caring, sharing, respect and compassion (see; Mthembu, 1996 in Mnyaka & Motlhabi, 2005). Tutu (2011 in Buqa, 2015) posits that *Ubuntu* speaks of spiritual attributes such as generosity, hospitality, compassion, caring and sharing, which means that one could be affluent in material possessions but still be without Ubuntu. Other authors have described *Ubuntu* as 'a set of institutionalized ideals, which guide and direct the patterns of life of Africans with the hallmark of Ubuntu being its concern with harmony and continuity (Ncube, 2010). These descriptions suggest that Ubuntu philosophy and way of doing things are by default inclusive. Thus, leaders who operate from the vantage point of *Ubuntu* would be disposed to be inclusive in their leadership style in an attempt to ensure that harmony and continuity are preserved.

Though Ubuntu clearly implies humanity and inclusivity, the reality is that Africa still faces leadership problems as most of the current styles of leadership are either not consistent with inclusivity or at best narrowly embrace inclusivity of ethnicities or tribes. This situation constitutes exclusion which always spills over from the national to organisational levels. The implication is that in most cases leadership practices in Africa are largely inconsistent with the African (Ubuntu) worldview and need to be more inclusive. As also noted, the African culture provides a way of understanding inclusive leadership in Africa. The research by Hofstede (2011) shows that Africans have a collectivist culture. In collectivist cultures, people are members of a few groups and loyalty to the group is critically important. … Where collectivism is high, organizational plans are formulated on the basis of the larger group and societal good, with input from a variety of organizational members. The overall direction of the organization may be widely discussed throughout the organization. Decisions are made collectively, with affected parties participating in the process. Disagreements are dealt with throughout the process and consensus from all members is sought. Tasks and assignments are carried out by groups. There is pressure from the group for conformance to acceptable standards. When decisions need to be made, they are made by the group as a whole. The quality circle approach is popular, because it incorporates the idea of bottom-up decision making, consensus among members, and group involvement, both in the process and implementation of decisions.

The implication of collectivist culture in most of Africa is that leadership should be exercised from a collectivist follower perspective. This means groups of people rather than an individual should be consulted by the leader when prior to making decisions that affect the /people in organisations otherwise a feeling of being excluded can quickly set in and impair the prospects of an organisation.

Inclusive Leadership: US and Canada

According to the LEAD findings, inclusive leadership played a role in perceived leadership effectiveness in the African diaspora in Canada and U.S. As noted by Bourke and Dillion (2016), inclusive leaders show a commitment to fairness and a strong belief in personal values. When asked to describe the personal characteristics of effective leaders, participants from both Canada and the U.S. noted the importance of honesty and trustworthiness. In addition, when asked about descriptions of why leaders are effective, participants also mentioned the role of unwavering morals and ethics. The African diaspora in Canada (but not the US) also mentioned that what motivates leaders to succeed is a passion for justice/change, which also is related to having the tenacity to take risks, the second trait of inclusive leaders. While participants did not refer to 'cognizance of bias' and cultural intelligence, the third and fifth traits of inclusive leadership, respectively, the findings suggest that members of the African diaspora in US and Canada perceive effective leaders should place an importance on being open-minded to other ideas and input from other individuals, the four trait. While there was no mention of "curiosity", participants mentioned factors related to open-mindedness and getting input from others. For example, participants from the African diaspora in the US noted the role of listening skills in effective leadership

and Canadians from the African diaspora mentioned that effective leaders adaptively execute. The last trait of 'collaboration' relates to empowering others to work together with the knowledge that a diverse team can produce better outcomes and the role of inspiring others towards a shared vision (Bourke and Dillon 2016). Our findings show strong support for this trait according to the African diaspora in Canada and the US. In the US, members of the African diaspora noted that effective leaders inspire others to take action. In Canada, members of the African diaspora highlighted that effective leaders set a vision/ develop vision, goals, objectives, plans ahead as well as inspires others. When asked about effective leader's personal characteristics, members of the African diaspora in US (but not Canada) mentioned "empowering". Interesting, members of the African diaspora in Canada (but not US) stressed the importance of being a team player.

DISCUSSION

A review of theoretical and empirical literature on leadership and practices from an inclusive leadership lens provides insights on how inclusive leadership is important but needing further conceptualisation and operationalisation in Africa, the Caribbean and Africa Diaspora. We next present implications for practice and future research.

Implications for practice

Absence of inclusive leadership has been shown to have serious consequences in organisation – be they firm or even nation states as already pointed out in this paper. As seen from previous studied that have been reviewed and from the findings from the LEAD research, it is apparent that leaders should discern diversity in their followers and use it as a means of enacting a leadership that is inclusive – one that celebrates diversity and unlocks the potential that is embedded therein through inclusive leadership approaches. Further, it is noted that Ubuntu – humanness, collectivist tendencies and spirituality are prominent in the African context. In this regard, a leadership style that reflects these aspects is encouraged among leaders of organisations of all types.

Implications for future research

Though inclusive leadership is reported in extant literature as having positive influence on performance of organisations, its conceptualisation still needs more refinement and clarity. For example, the relationship between *Ubuntu* philosophy and inclusive leadership is an interesting area of further research. Another area of potential research is on predictors of inclusive leadership. In addition, the relationship between inclusive leadership descriptors and performance require further research to ascertain which among them are more significantly related with performance of organisations. Findings from such studies will guide practice and training on effective leadership in order to improve performance of organisations. It is also noted that from the LEAD project developed leadership measure, spirituality appears not to be equally perceived as important for leadership effectiveness between Africa and in the Caribbean (Michaud et al., 2019). This implies that there could be some differences in the conceptualisation of inclusive leadership between the Caribbean and Africa with important implications for practice. This calls for empirical inquire into this possible phenomenon because spirituality is closely linked to *Ubuntu*. Lastly. It is also important to empirically ascertain the conceptual distinctions between inclusive leadership and other styles such as servant leadership and transformational leadership.

CONCLUSIONS

Since inclusive leadership is an intentional and effortful process, leaders have the necessity to adjust their behaviours and that of the workplace to be in line with the needs of diverse talent, ideas, customers,

and markets. This is because the old "hero" style of leadership has fallen by the wayside as the context within which organisations are led continues to become much more diverse. Inclusive leadership has become critical to success yet little is known about it. The situation regarding inclusive leadership at the organisational level is a reflection of the situation at the country level hence the need to approach this phenomenon at all levels in order to realise the benefits that inclusive leadership promises.

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THE FRAMING OF CAREER SUCCESS AMONGST SELF-INITIATED EXPATRIATES IN SOUTH AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

Calls have been made within the careers literature for studies focusing on the career experiences of sample groups often neglected in theorising. One could regard self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) as one of these sample groups, especially within the context of a developing country. An interpretivist paradigm, relying on interviews, was adopted for this study using a sample of 25 expatriates working at a South African university. Based on data generated, career success was framed through: 1) quest for career progression; 2) material possessions; and 3) research publication output. Participants deemed factors within the organisation as key to this framing of career success, particularly: 1) the value placed on social networks; 2) quest for fair remuneration; and finally 3) the availability of opportunities within the organisation. In their endeavours to retain and attract foreign academics, human resources (HR) practitioners can use the findings of this study to inform strategies that assist in developing their staff.
Keywords: career success; self-initiated expatriates; academic expatriates; narratives; global careers

INTRODUCTION

Globalisation has been instrumental in shaping the world of work (Chinyamurindi, 2016; Suutari et al., 2018). One sample group affected by this global trend, includes self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) (Lauring & Selmer, 2018), defined as those individuals who pursue an international career without the backing of an employer (Jonasson, Lauring, & Guttormsen 2018) for the purpose of career development (Chen, 2012). This quest for career development allows SIEs to move across geographic boundaries (Jonasson et al., 2018; Rodriguez and Scurry 2014), despite the challenges that can be encountered (Harry, Dodd, & Chinyamurindi, 2017). Another reason for the movement of SIEs could be due to unfavourable conditions in their home country (Kim et al., 2018). Researchers argue for the need to continually investigate SIE experiences, especially within host countries, and the impact of this not only on individual career development but also on the lived experience (e.g. Dorsch, Suutari, & Brewster, 2013; Makkonen, 2015; Myers, 2016; Shortland, 2018; Suutari et al., 2018). Within an international and South African context, there has been scant empirical focus on the career development processes of SIEs (Harry et al., 2017; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2013).

SIEs face several challenges as part of their lived experience and these eventually impact not only their career development (Chen, 2012; Hussain & Deery, 2018) but also their experiences in the host country (Harry et al., 2017). Challenges within the host country may even result in SIEs deciding to terminate their international assignments (Sarna, 2015), which increases the labour turnover (Kim et al., 2018). Empirical efforts are needed that seek to understand how SIEs can be assisted to settle in the host countries, not just for their benefit but also that of their organisations (Andersen, Al Ariss, & Walther, 2013; Dickmann & Baruch, 2011). One such focus should be on understanding the quest for career success within the expatriation experience (Doherty, Dickmann, & Mills, 2011). In developing countries like South Africa, Chinyamurindi (2016) argues for more empirical investigation on career success as a concept, in organisations, as a precursor to interventions that assist employees in adjusting. Notably, there is little discussion on the career success issues faced by SIEs despite the growing interest in this sample group internationally (e.g. Andersen et al., 2013; Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2013; Joshua-Gojer, 2016; McNulty & Selmer, 2017; Sarna, 2015). This heightens the need for such an exploratory study amongst SIEs.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Our theoretical position is based on boundaryless career theory (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) and human capital theory (Becker, 1964). In the past, career development and success have been investigated using the lens of traditional career models. Traditionally, it has been argued that careers were perceived as full-time, long-term and continuous employment within a limited number of organisations (Valcour & Tolbert, 2003) and were perceived as relatively predictable careers. However, research evidence suggests that careers are more boundaryless and individuals are more responsible for their career development (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Gerli, Bonesso, & Pizzi, 2015; Hall, 1996). A growing and large body of literature has suggested that careers are increasingly discontinuous and fragmented because of frequent career transitions (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). There is consensus among researchers that human mobility continues to shape and reshape geographical, familial, cultural, economic and social landscapes (Favell, 2015).

EMPERICAL LITERATURE

A career is an unfolding sequence of a person's work experiences over time (Suutari et al., 2018) and an important feature of the lived experience (Inkson, Dries, & Arnold, 2015). One outcome of the work experience is career success (Chinyamurindi, 2016), consisting of a self-evaluation of those factors deemed important as part of the work experience. Others (e.g. Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005:179) define career success as the "accomplishment of desirable work-related outcomes at any point in a person's work experiences over time." The grouping of career success has been on two continuums. Firstly, career success as a subjective experience, which is associated with psychological success and an emphasis on career satisfaction (Shaffer et al., 2012; Shortland, 2018) and job satisfaction (Hussain & Deery, 2018). Secondly, career success can also be framed as an objective reality, with the emphasis more on measurable outcomes such as job security, promotions and salary (Zikic, 2014). There is agreement regarding how these two evaluations of career outcomes are interdependent but theoretically distinct (Dickmann et al., 2016; Suutari, et al., 2018), with each evaluation deserving empirical attention.

Contemporary careers are believed to be boundaryless and with a renewed emphasis on understanding subjective experiences and how they affect the lived experience (Doherty et al.,

2011; Gerli et al., 2015; Suutari et al., 2018). This study focused on skilled SIEs from developing countries, whose movements resemble the quests described in the literature as fitting within the concept of boundaryless careers (Baruch & Reis, 2016). Emphasis is on individual responsibility (Inkson et al., 2012; Makkonen, 2015), placing cadence to the value of mobility as aiding career development (Jonasson et al., 2018). Within this context, SIEs are those individuals believed to have strong goals and who exhibit intrinsic career motivations (Hussain & Deery, 2018). Hall (2004) argues that personal growth and personal learning are the most important features and critical success factors in contemporary careers. More research is needed to aid in the understanding of these subjective evaluations of work and their role on the lived experience (Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2013), especially using SIEs as a sample group (Suutari et al., 2018). Such investigations may also need to explore the links between individual, societal and organisational variables, how they affect the lived experiences of SIEs and how this links to individual career development experiences (Cao et al., 2013; Dorsch et al., 2013).

Empirical work appears to be divided on the relevance of SIE. Some views highlight SIEs to be globetrotters who move from country to country in search of individual pursuits (Rodriguez & Scurry, 2014). In this view, host country organisations can be thought of as being in the right place at the right time to benefit from this global labour movement (Chen, 2012). Another viewpoint notes SIEs to be key in human capital development, even at the expense of their leaving their home countries (Andersen et al., 2013; Chen, 2012). In this view, the movement of labour is seen to be inevitable and part of a global phenomenon (Inkson et al., 2012). Organisations should strive to assist employees in self-managing individual careers (Makkonen, 2015), especially given the current skills shortage affecting most countries (Hussain & Deery, 2018). One key to how this can be achieved is through an understanding of career success not just as career development, but as life experience (Chinyamurindi, 2016). Interventions for purposes of career counselling can be made based upon this.

Individuals place different emphases on career success. To some, this can consist of those opportunities for career development (e.g. Arthur et al., 2005; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2013; Shortland, 2018). SIEs can be assisted to craft career plans that support their career development and subsequently deliver the experience of career success. To others (e.g. Cao et al., 2014; Makkonen, 2015; Suutari et al., 2018), career success may mean opportunities that enhance employees' employability and represent an upward trajectory career-wise. Career success can also be framed according to the social networks the SIEs may belong to, and how these communicate a view of success (Hussain & Deery, 2018; Suutari et al., 2018). The stronger the networks, the more they emphasise organisational commitment and self-directed behaviours. In this research we also look at psychological availability, which refers to the "sense of having the physical, cognitive, emotional, or psychological resources to personally engage at a particular moment" (Kahn, 1990: 714). May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) suggest that psychological availability is a psychological condition that assists individuals in determining how to engage with their colleagues and roles. It is, therefore, important for SIEs and local employees to understand the concept of being psychologically available for their counterparts and have the mental capacity to give attention to their colleagues, as this plays a role in individual career success. This research is, therefore, aimed at understanding the experiences of career success amongst a sample of SIEs from African countries, working within the higher education context in South Africa. The following research question was set: *What factors influence the experience of career success amongst a sample of SIEs working within a higher education context in South Africa?*

METHOD

Research Design

A qualitative exploratory research approach was adopted to understand the experience of career success amongst SIEs. The main purpose of this study was to: a) understand the factors that influenced career success; and b) to determine what was perceived as a successful career among SIEs. This was done by gathering situational data and determining the connotations as well as resolutions that individuals accredit to their actions and decisions (Chinyamurindi, 2018; Levitt et al., 2018). Participants were able to express their views freely. This approach allowed for the capturing of in-depth meaning of success in participants' words (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). A qualitative approach was employed to understand how the participants made sense of their experiences and to understand how their behaviours were influenced by the experiences.

The data were collected through unstructured interviews. This was a notable deviation from a previous South African study on career success that used semi-structured interviews (Chinyamurindi, 2016; 2018). Unstructured interviews were used in order to explore the participants' narratives in detail. Unstructured interviews were utilised given the scarcity of empirical literature in South Africa on the career success of SIEs. This strategy allowed for the research team to understand the participants' experience of career success under less pre-imposed structured conditions (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Participants were briefed before the commencement of all interviews, which took place in the participants' offices. To start all the interviews, the question *"Tell me about yourself"* was used to put the participants at ease.

The data collection was conducted by the principal investigator. The principal investigator acted as a participant in the data collection process through conversational (unstructured) interviews. Collaboration between the interviewer and interviewee assisted with the construction of narratives and their meanings. The aim was to have an in-depth understanding of the participants' experiences; hence there was limited interjection from the principal investigator during the interviews. However, during the interviews, the principal investigator made notes for follow-ups later in the interview to avoid interrupting the flow of the narratives. With permission from the participants all the interviews were tape recorded. The length of the interviews varied from 50 minutes to 2 hours.

Sampling and Participants

The participants were selected using a combination of purposive and convenience sampling (Joshua-Gojer, 2016). Participants had to be from other African countries to partake in the study. Also, the participants had to be people who had financed their own mobility to participate in the study. A total of 25 participants were selected to be part of the study. Participants had to be SIEs and a directory of names was obtained from the HR department of the participating university. A total of 103 names were generated. A general email was sent to this group, requesting participation in the research study. A total of 35 participants indicated their availability. However, due to attrition and issues surrounding the academics' hectic schedules, a total of 26 participants were used. The study was conducted at a university in the Eastern Cape province of South Africa. Ethics approval was obtained from the same institution (Certificate reference number DOD61SHAR01). Participants were also required to sign a written informed consent form before taking part in the study. Table 1 details their biographical characteristics.

TABLE 1
Characteristics and Demographics of Participants

Pseudonym	Gender	Marital status	Nationality	Age	Position	Previous Job Title
Collin	Male	Married	Zimbabwe	30–39	Senior Lecturer	Student
Steve	Male	Single	Zimbabwe	20–29	Junior Lecturer	Student
Jim	Male	Married	Eritrea	30–39	Lecturer	Student
Uche	Male	Married	Nigeria	40–49	Professor	Lecturer
Kelly	Female	Widow	Zambia	30–39	Lecturer	Teacher
Teshi	Female	Single	Zimbabwe	20–29	Jnr Lecturer	Student
Sue	Female	Married	Zimbabwe	40–49	Senior Lecturer	Chief Economist
Sean	Male	Married	Cameroon	40–49	Senior Lecturer	Self-employed
Mark	Male	Married	Kenya	40–49	Associate Professor	NGO
Paul	Male	Married	Cameroun	30–39	Lecturer	Student
Mercy	Female	Married	Zimbabwe	40–49	Senior Lecturer	Student
Peter	Male	Married	Zimbabwe	40–49	Professor	Extension advisor
John	Male	Single	Zimbabwe	20–29	Junior Lecturer	Student
David	Male	Married	Tanzania	60–69	Lecturer	Lecturer
Conrad	Male	Married	Ethiopia	40–49	Senior Lecturer	Student
Azo	Male	Married	Nigeria	50–59	Visiting Professor	Student
Bill	Male	Married	DRC	30–39	Lecturer	Student
Lily	Female	Married	Uganda	60–69	Lecturer	Teacher
Robin	Female	Single parent	Botswana	30–39	Lecturer	Student

Ted	Male	Married	Zimbabwe	40–49	Associate Professor	Teacher
Eve	Female	Married	Zimbabwe	30–39	Lecturer	Student
Angie	Female	Single	Zimbabwe	30–39	Lecturer	Student
Sam	Female	Married	Nigeria	30–39	Senior Lecturer	Student
Wayne	Male	Married	Kenya	60–69	Professor	Student
Emily	Female	Single parent	Nigeria	30–39	Lecturer	Student

DATA ANALYSIS

An interpretivist approach was adopted for data analysis in this study. A qualitative narrative analysis approach was used (three levels of meaning-making), as adopted in previous studies (e.g. Chinyamurindi, 2016; 2018; Harry et al., 2017). The interviews were transcribed soon after each interview. The transcripts were then entered into the QSR NVivo 9 data analysis and management software (Reuben & Bobat, 2014). The software was used to code each of the transcripts' paragraphs into themes and sub-themes. Using the three-levels of meaning-making, the transcripts were read several times and the audio recordings were listened to repeatedly by the researchers to understand the experiences of career success from each of the narratives. This allowed for the identification of "markers" that were in the narratives (McCormack, 2000). Moreover, this first level answered the question "what kind of story is this?" for each of the narratives (Thornhill, Clare & May, 2004, 188).

The narratives of the participants were then classified into meaningful categories. The process allowed the researchers to be able to understand the similarities between the different narratives. Researchers reflected on the data by making notes and comparing the interviews. The researchers continuously went back and forth from one interview to another, attempting to match the reality and theory. Lastly, the researchers identified the themes from the narratives through analysing the content of the narratives. The themes were explained and described through the use of direct quotes from the participants' accounts (Levitt et al., 2018).

Strategies to Ensure Data Quality and Reporting

Data quality was ensured by referring to literature suggestions (Levitt et al., 2018) and a South African study also helped in framing the study (Chinyamurindi, 2016). It was easy to build trust between the researcher and the participants, as the principal investigator is also a SIE. Furthermore, the researchers were engaged with the university and had become familiar with the context and setting, which avoided misinformation. Moreover, through persistent observation, the researchers were able to understand further about career success. In addition, two researchers were involved in creating the codes, data analysis and interpretation to avoid the bias of using one researcher. The interview transcripts were also sent to the participants for them to correct any perceived misinterpretation. Likewise, to ensure honesty from the participants, only those who had indicated their willingness to participate in the study were included as the sample of the study. Iterative questioning was also applied during the interviews to have a better understanding of the issues that were being raised by the participants.

RESULTS

From the data analysis, two main narratives are framed: first, efforts towards the meaning of career success; and second, those factors that influence this meaning of career success.

Meaning of Career Success

Participants highlighted the three main meanings of career success. Most of the participants were in consensus that the achievement of personal goals was the primary determinant of career success. Before embarking on their respective journeys, participants had set out goals that they desired to achieve. However, due to unforeseen circumstances, such as poor economic and political conditions, participants had to expatriate to South Africa. Lily, a participant from Uganda, shared: "When I started working my country was undergoing civil unrest. It was during the amnesty time, and those were terrible times economically and socially in Uganda." Thus, South Africa offered participants like Lily an opportunity to work towards individual goals. For most of the participants, their primary aim was to be able to support their families. For example, Sean was not able to have a good life when he was young but vowed that he would give his family a better life. For Sean, having a career that is fulfilling, was a form of career success for him. He said:

> *I couldn't go to a decent school, and I couldn't put on a nice shirt during my entire life, but now at least I'm giving that to my kids and it's making me feel that somehow I'm fulfilled. Hence I feel fortunate in my career choice, in as much as though I might not be giving them the physical attention, I'm supporting them.*

Both young and senior academics regarded this as an important factor that determined their career success as they wanted to provide for their families.

Although the opportunity to achieve personal goals was the main reason for career success, most of the participants noted good remuneration as a way to determine career success. Therefore, an association between remuneration and career success was developed, as illustrated by one of the participants: "The salary attracted me to academia. The remuneration I am getting is satisfying me" (Sue).

However, some participants were not concerned with the remuneration they were receiving. Rather, career satisfaction and job satisfaction took precedence. For instance, Mark, who had experience in other fields, mentioned that although the remuneration is poor, he feels satisfied with the job that he is doing. Thus, job satisfaction and career development opportunities were regarded as being of greater importance than remuneration. In Mark's own words:

> *Personally, I am attracted to academia more when I see those badges for being the best researcher. There are opportunities for you to actually share what you are doing with other people in the world. When I look at the student's evaluation about me, they were giving me ratings of excellent, or good, which makes me feel so nice.*

To further understand the meaning of success, the study also looked at the factors that contributed to this success. Most participants highlighted that they had moved to South Africa because of the availability of opportunities for career development. Consequently, participants actively opted to develop their careers in South Africa. Participant Mark stated: "Since I left Kenya there has been an economic collapse there and South Africa is much better for my development." Also, most of the participants had studied in South Africa. Hence, they had decided to develop their careers in a country where they had studied primarily because of the

availability of opportunities. Paul mentioned, "I had studied here, so I thought this would be a good starting point career-wise, because of the possibilities that I came across while I was still a student."

Furthermore, South Africa is seen as a country that is providing a platform for career development through the National Research Foundation. With such funding opportunities, participants decided to develop their careers in South Africa. Funding opportunities act as a determinant of career success. This was concisely expressed by Collin: "Although I have travelled to a lot of countries, I think I would like to develop my career more here because of the opportunities such as research funding."

Despite the availability of opportunities for career development, participants also required social networks. Participants needed support from both the institution as well as social support from family and friends. Participants narrated this to be a crucial factor in their career success, especially for women. Participant Kelly shared:

> *As with most women, we only start having that career development when our kids grow up. The family support system is critical if you are going to make it as a worker and a student, especially if you are based in a foreign land like me. The university has so many support structures that if you are someone who is clever and use them, you can realise your career development.*

In addition to support, participants required competitive remuneration in order to develop their careers. The remuneration acted as a motivation for the participants to be effective in their jobs. Some of the participants noted that they had joined academia because of the remuneration it offered, as compared to the participants' home countries, South Africa is paying competitive salaries. Although the salaries are competitive, they are not sufficient for the participants. Emily mentioned: "The salaries are very low, the only reason I am staying is that it offers me the opportunity to develop my career."

DISCUSSION

The primary focus of this study was to understand the experience of career success amongst SIEs within a South African higher education context. Success meant various accomplishments for the participants. The meaning of success was noted as the quest for career progression, material possessions and a recognisable publication record. Further, the factors that contributed to such success were noted as social networks, availability of opportunities and fair remuneration. The findings are discussed in line with the themes that were developed during data analysis.

Theoretical Implications

This study's findings are in support of existing research on the meaning of and factors contributing to career success. Social networks were noted by many participants to be of the utmost importance, especially for women. This is in support of previous studies, which pointed out that social networks determine the career success of expatriates (Arthur et al., 2005; Hussain & Deery, 2018; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2013; Suutari et al., 2018). Further to that, organisational support simplifies the expatriates' adjustment (Cao et al., 2014; Joshua-Gojer, 2016). Knowing what competencies are necessary is integral to the SIEs' professional development (Cao et al., 2013) and therefore places importance on the development of such. It is, therefore, important that SIEs have the necessary social support structure to achieve their career objectives.

The current study found that SIEs defined their career success through the achievement of personal goals. Previous studies have noted that SIEs are self-driven and strive for personal

values, which are regarded as a protean career attitude (Cao et al., 2014; Hall, 1996; Briscoe & Hall, 2006). Many of the study participants had set personal goals and believed in their abilities to achieve them. This is in support of previous studies that noted expatriates with high self-efficacy are capable of performing effectively (Dickmann et al., 2016; Hussain & Deery, 2018). Furthermore, the finding is in support of the boundaryless career, which is linked to an individual's motivation to pursue a career (Suutari et al., 2018). Previous research noted that personal motives led to success (Chen, 2012). A protean career attitude can thus potentially lead to subjective career success.

Participants perceived expatriation as a way to make the most of the employment opportunities in the host country, but which are absent in their country of origin. This supports previous studies which have shown that people self-expatriate for employment opportunities and career development (Cao et al., 2013; Chen, 2012; Hussain & Deery, 2018). Hence, SIEs characterise the concept of boundaryless professionals (Gerli et al., 2015; Rodriguez & Scurry, 2014). Other previous studies have noted that SIEs are associated with intangible motivators and non-financial rewards (Jonasson et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2018). However, participants of this study perceived remuneration as a form of motivation. Remuneration was a determinant of the participants' success. This is perhaps a result of the sample being representative of SIEs from developing countries, where such quests are noted as key (Harry et al., 2017). Despite remuneration being a motivator for SIEs, most of the participants perceived that they had low salaries as compared to locals (Andersen et al., 2013; Chen, 2012).

Furthermore, the findings of this study support other studies (Kim et al., 2018; Cao et al., 2014) of the view that expatriates' sacrifices should be recognised and rewarded to enhance job performance and organisational commitment. Most participants in this study were of the opinion that the institution was not accepting the sacrifices they were making and they felt undervalued (Suutari et al., 2018). The findings link to previous studies, which opined that SIEs had fewer professional opportunities and less gratification when compared to locals (Andersen et al., 2013; Chen, 2012). The participants felt that they were in possession of sufficient professional-related knowledge (know-how) to work effectively and easily and to pursue career goals (Kim et al., 2018; Zikic, 2014). Nonetheless, their professional knowledge was undervalued.

Moreover, the findings of this study echo previous studies which noted that job insecurity led to career and job dissatisfaction (Chen, 2012). Participants of this study indicated that they felt insecure about their jobs which, as a result, led to job dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction is linked to subjective career success. Thus, when SIEs are satisfied with their jobs, it will lead to career success. Career development was the main driving force behind the SIEs' success. Most expatriates claimed that they took up the assignment for career development motives (Dorsch et al., 2013). Although objective career success was noted to be significant, subjective career success was reckoned to be more important by the participants (Doherty et al., 2011). SIEs' success is determined by the achievement of personal goals and personal development. Organisations have to work in collaboration with SIEs to motivate them in the achievement of organisational and personal goals.

Practical Implications

Global mobility has increased due to various issues, such as economic and political conditions and talent shortages. Hence, SIEs have to be perceived as valuable human resources in the achievement of organisational goals. Organisations must develop strategies, practices and policies that recognise SIEs' needs and expectations. Self-initiated expatriation brings about deep learning and growth opportunities for people to enrich their career development in the long term.

Although SIEs are self-driven and independent, direct and indirect support from the organisation is of utmost importance for the achievement of organisational and individual goals. Also, policies such as remuneration and career management policies of local employees should not be very different from the SIEs' policies. Equal opportunities should be provided to all employees. HR management departments should train SIEs to make them valuable to the institution. This group of SIEs, in line with the findings, are enacting global careers while they are increasing their career competencies (knowing how, knowing why, and knowing whom) and allowing them to develop their career capital.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

The findings may not be applicable to other countries, as the study focused on SIEs in South Africa. Furthermore, one institution was used for the sample selection, and the incorporation of other institutions might have provided a variation in the findings. Thus, generalisability is limited. However, study findings reveal how SIEs can be successful in their careers. Moreover, the sample was made up of one industry- academic field, thus the findings cannot be generalised to self-initiated expatriates in other industries. Future studies should look at self-initiated expatriates in other industries. Several quantitative studies have been conducted on SIEs. However, for more in-depth information about SIEs who move between developing countries, qualitative studies are suggested. Further studies are needed on the repatriation of SIEs after successfully working in foreign countries.

CONCLUSION

Institutions and organisations will continue being influenced by globalisation. The need for talented foreign professionals will persist. However, traditional expatriates will be unwilling to take up international assignments for personal reasons. Thus, skilled professionals who relocate on their own will be easily accessible. Organisations need to understand the meaning and factors that contribute to the success of SIEs to attract and retain them. It is critical that organisations/institutions support and assist SIEs to overcome barriers in their career development. SIEs' career success is a dual effort between the organisation and the individual.

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Part 3
Strategy and International Management

ETHICS IN ACQUISITIONS: A SOCIAL CONTAGION PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, ethics in mergers and acquisitions (M&A) are using the context of domestic M&A in Africa. I apply social contagion theory to discuss how target firms are able to prevent the spread of unethical practices once acquired. I offer that target firms with autonomy are better able to control the extent to which the acquiring firms imposes business practices on them, especially when those practices might be unethical. Sources of autonomy might include geographical distance, type of acquisition, or financial standing of target firm. The business economy in Africa is fast developing and as more domestic M&A occur, substantial investigation of M&A implementation and integration is necessary.
Keywords: Domestic African m&a, social contagion theory, ethics, diversification

INTRODCUTION

Mergers and acquisitions (M&A) are popular and increasingly common forms of diversification as evidenced by the increasing research on the topic (Cartwright & Schoenberg, 2006; Chatterjee, 1986; Datta, 1991; Datta & Grant, 1990; Datta, Pinches & Narayanan, 1992; Haleblian, Devers, McNamara, Carpenter, & Davison, 2009; Homburg & Bucerius, 2005; Homburg & Bucerius, 2006). They represent the end of the continuum of diversification options a firm can implement as part of its growth strategy, within a specific industry or in extending operations into another industry or sector (Epstein, 2005; Schuler & Jackson, 2001). Mergers can be defined as "two entities of relatively comparable stature coming together and taking the best of each company to form a new organization" (Epstein, 2005: 38). Acquisitions, on the other hand, involve buying and fitting a target firm into the structure of the acquiring organization. Schuler and Jackson (2001) argue that acquisitions can be categorized into two forms: acquisition and integration (the complete dissolution of the acquired firm) or acquisition and separation (acquired firm is left to run as a subsidiary).

Mergers and acquisitions (M&A) play a key role in the investment and growth strategies of large organizations. Yet, studies reveal that the majority of M&A transactions fail and the acquiring firms rarely benefit (Datta et al., 1992; Epstein, 2005; Haleblian et al., 2009). The failure rate is even higher in cross-border acquisitions (CBA) likely due to wider discrepancies in organizational culture and practices among firms involved in the transaction (Kostova, 1999; Xu & Shenkar, 2002). Given the high rate of M&A failure (Epstein, 2005), considerable attention has been paid to examine the conditions in which acquirers and target benefit from the transaction (Datta et al., 1992; Haleblian et al., 2009; King, Dalton, Daily, & Covin, 2004). Researchers have also tried to explain why firms continue to engage in M&A transactions given the high failure rates (Lubatkin, 1983). Haleblian et al. (2009) summarize the antecedents of firm acquisitions into four: value creation, managerial self-interest, environmental factors, and firm characteristic. They also discuss four broad categories of moderators influencing the relationship between acquisition and performance - characteristics of the acquisition deal, managerial effects, firm characteristics, and environmental factors. They suggested that future research consider exploring the implementation phase of acquisition to understand the inconclusiveness of prior studies (Datta et al., 1992; King et al., 2004).

Prior studies assume that the acquiring firm controls business operations and decisions without input from the acquired firm (Epstein, 2005). However, Datta and Grant (1990) posited that the type of acquisition, either related or unrelated, results would influence the allocation of control. The effect of relatedness on M&A performance has received considerable attention in the literature (Chatterjee, 1986;

Datta et al., 1992; Haleblian & Finkelstein, 1999; Singh & Montgomery, 1987). The overall conclusion from research suggests that both acquiring and target firms benefit more from related acquisitions as opposed to unrelated acquisitions through the realization of synergy from the transfer of core skills between both firms (Salter & Weinhold, 1979). Singh and Montgomery (1987) also argue that related acquisitions create economies of scale, economies of scope, and market power economies that make such acquisitions more beneficial than unrelated or conglomerate acquisitions. Other research suggests that issues of organizational fit (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993) impact M&A success. Among the earliest to do so, Datta (1991) considered the effect of two areas of organizational fit - management styles and rewards and evaluation systems, on both high and low levels of post-acquisition integration. He concluded that managerial style differences can negatively impact post-acquisition performance.

The aim of this paper is to examine predictors of business decisions and operations in domestic M&A, a situation whereby organizations in the region, continent, or country merge with, or acquire each other. Domestic M&A among organizations in emerging economies like Africa are on the rise (Ellis, Lamont, Reus, & Faifman, 2015; Gaffney, Karst, & Clampit, 2016). For example, merger activity in South Africa, Egypt, and Nigeria has risen over the last decade (Gomes, Angwin, Peter, & Mellahi, 2012). Hence, there is an opportunity for research to examine success of mergers and acquisitions among organizations in this context. Taking a paradoxical view, I examine the flow of unethical practices to the target firm once an acquisition occurs. I do so using social contagion theory, a framework based on the collective behavior or actions of individuals or the spread of behavior from one individual to the other. Firm acquisitions serve as an appropriate context within which to apply social contagion theory given the uncertainty associated with such a transaction (Homburg & Bucerius, 2006; Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991). This aligns with the assumption of social contagion theory which states that collective action is more likely in periods of uncertainty and instability (Locher, 2002).

This paper contributes to management research on the African continent in several ways. First, to the paper focuses on domestic M&A activity as opposed to the current research focus on international acquisitions. Second, the paper attempts to shed more light on the importance of ethics in strategy decision making process especially in the context of M&A, by examining the transfer of unethical practices. This perspective differs from those offered by most scholars in management as well as the contribution of scholars from other disciplines such as finance, economics and accounting. Third, this paper uses external theory with roots in biology and social psychology to advance research within the field of strategic management. Also, the paper introduces a counter argument to the "conquering army syndrome" in M&A research, suggesting that target firms possess more influence than they are credited with. Lastly, this paper deviates from the traditional M&A research by focusing on the target firm's perspective rather than the acquirer.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Giralamo Fracastor introduced contagion theory in 1546 to explain infectious diseases. The term "contagion" in Latin means "from touch" (Marsden, 1998) and is defined as the communication of a disease from one person to another (Dictionary.com). It can also refer to the spread of harmful ideas or practices from person to person known as social contagion. Social contagion theory therefore examines the collective behavior of individuals in a crowd or mass of individuals (Locher, 2002). Social contagion theory is applied to the study of incidents and occurrences like the spread of suicides (Marsden, 1998; Phillips, 1974), transfer of emotions and aggression (Barsade, 2002; Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998; Wheeler & Caggiula, 1966), and criminal behavior (Ludwig & Kling, 2007). In this paper, social contagion theory is a perspective used to address the questions on transfer of unethical practices raised earlier, and to find possible explanations that move M&A research forward. Major contributions to the theory of social contagion occurred over a span of 50 years through the works of three researchers – Gustave Le Bon (1895), Robert Park (1921), and Hebert Blumer (1969).

Le Bon (1895) focuses on the collective behavior of individuals that is not necessarily by choice, but rather, borne out of what might be termed a hypnotic effect. According to him, the hypnotic influence,

combined with the anonymity of belonging to a large group of people, results in irrational behavior. He argues that crowds are usually destructive in their actions although, some do engage in heroic behaviors they would normally be afraid to try (Locher, 2002). Citing the French Revolution that began in 1789 and lasted till the early 1800 as part of his analysis, Le Bon argues that contagion leads to the formation of a psychological crowd which is its own entity and not merely the collection of the people in the crowd (Locher, 2002). According to him, there are three components of a psychological crowd. First, individuals feel invincible and anonymous as part of the crowd. This allows them to engage in behavior that they would normally repress out of fear or self-consciousness. Secondly, contagion then occurs creating a hypnotic phenomenon or sentiment and people are willing to sacrifice their self-interest for that of the group. Lastly, the group becomes suggestible, with their attention focused on the same event or object (Locher, 2002).

Park (1921) defines collective behavior as "the process by which societies are disintegrated into their constituent elements and the process by which these elements are brought together again into new relations to form new organizations and new societies" (p. 924-25). He introduced the term "milling" or aimless behavior, to explain the excited unfocused behavior of the crowd (Locher, 2002). Park bases his theory of social contagion on the concept of emergent interaction (Locher, 2002). Specifically, he states that crowds form more easily during periods of instability and uncertainty because people become more attuned to each other than they normally would be (Locher, 2002). Park argues that people imitate and reinforce each other's behavior resulting in a circular reaction that produces the effect of social contagion (McPhail, 1989). If one person performs an act in a decisive manner, another person then imitates him or her, this leads the first person to believe that their action was appropriate, and they continue to display the behavior. This then convinces others of the action as well until everyone in the group starts to act in the same manner reinforcing the behavior as they do so.

Blumer (1969) argues that for contagion to occur and collective behavior to form, there must be mechanisms in place that allow people to break-off from established rules and routines of group life (Locher, 2002). He defines contagion as a rapid, unconscious, irrational dissemination of a mood, impulse, or behavior. Under normal circumstances, interpretive interaction occurs, and individuals rationally interpret the words or actions then base their behavior on those rational interpretations. However, circular reaction occurs when people are in a crowd situation and faced with uncertainty. Circular reaction occurs when individuals imitate one another thereby reinforcing the behavior being displayed (Locher, 2002). This creates suggestibility and a breakdown of behavioral norms. Circular reaction is a precursor to three other mechanisms that culminate in three successive forms of collective behavior – milling, collective excitement, and social contagion. Collective excitement is a more intense form of milling that occurs when individuals become emotionally aroused, unstable, unresponsive to logic and irresponsible. At this point, social contagion is dominant with the crowd worked up and distracted, losing their ability to interpretively interact and blindly react to whatever goes on around them.

Process of Contagion

The process and mechanisms of contagion are not very explicit in the works of the three scholars discussed above. Wheeler (1966), however, provides a detailed view of the process of contagion that is beneficial to the discussion of M&A. In his paper, he attempts to operationally define and differentiate behavioral contagion from other related terms like conformity, imitation, social pressures, and social facilitation which other authors have offered as explanations of collective behavior of individuals and crowds (Festinger, 1954; Starch, 1911; Thorpe, 1956). To begin, Wheeler critiques the requirements for the occurrence of contagion stated by Redl (1949).

According to Redl (1949), there are four points necessary for contagion involving one person to act as the *initiator* and another to serve as the *imitator*. The process of contagion thus begins with an imitator who is conflicted about a specific behavior. The imitator also has a strong impulse towards that behavior, but, possess enough control to keep from acting on the impulse. Also, there should be an initiator or actor with urges like that of the imitator. Lastly, an open act by the initiator without fear or guilt that leads the imitator to view initiator's actions as accurate. Wheeler (1966) argues that these stated criteria do not adequately differentiate contagion from other types of social influence (p. 179).

According to Wheeler (1966), contagion occurs when a one member of a group (person X) performs a behavior (B_N) which is known to 1) produce impulses towards a similar act by members of the group, 2) the behavior performed is within the response repertoire of this group member, and there are no physical restraints to prevent him or her from engaging in the behavior, 3) as the *imitator*, person X does not initially perform the behavior, but, 4) they observe the behavior being performed by another group member, person Y, who serves as the *initiator*. The inference from this definition of the process of contagion is that the imitator (person X) is possibly conflicted about the appropriateness of the behavior which is why he/she initially does not engage in it. However, their conflict is effectively resolved when they observe another person engaging in a similar behavior.

PROPOSITION DEVELOPMENT

The foundational theories of social contagion focused on the collective behavior of the crowd or masses. However, most acquisitions occur between two single entities. Redl (1949) and Wheeler (1966) in their work, focus on this relationship examining behavioral contagion from one individual to another. Therefore, their research is more useful in understanding the transmission of unethical behavior in the context of M&A. In applying this concept of contagion to the study of acquisitions, I make two assumptions. First, I assume that the target firm has a propensity for unethical behavior that is restrained (Redl, 1949) and weaker than their moral responsibility for decent and honest practices. Second, they observe or are aware of the unethical practices of the acquiring firm. These two assumptions imply that a conflict exists for the target firm regarding unethical behavior, which is why even though it has a propensity for it, it has not yet engaged in it.

Uncertainty and Contagion

Mergers and acquisitions create a period of uncertainty for an organization among its stakeholders including employees, top management team (TMT) members, and customers (Homburg & Bucerius, 2005, 2006; Schweiger & DeNisi, 1991; Walsh, 1988). This makes it crucial for firm to limit the extent to which uncertainty persist. One way to do so is by ensuring a smooth and seamless integration process (Homburg & Bucerius, 2005; 2006). Bauer and Matzler (2014) also suggest that speed of integration is a key driver of M&A success as it leads to faster exploitation of synergies and quicker investment returns (Angwin, 2004). However, management research has not paid little attention to the topic of implementation and how integrating firms and managing uncertainty impacts M&A success (Haleblian et al, 2009).

Homburg and Bucerius (2006) cite fit or relatedness between the merging firms as a mediator in the relationship between integration speed and M&A success. This implies that lack of fit can impact integration speed and likely prolong the uncertainty faced by employees and customers of the target firm (Homburg & Bucerius, 2005). Fit or relatedness refers to the compatibility between both firms involved in an acquisition. Fit or relatedness of firms in an M&A transaction can be determined by several factors such as organizational culture including compatibility of management styles (Datta, 1991; Datta, Grant, & Rajagopalan, 1991), similarities in strategies orientation (Cartwright & Cooper, 1992; Salter & Weinhold, 1981), as well as external factors like market positioning of the firms (Capron, Mitchell, & Swaminathan, 2001).

Organizational ethics is defined as the "articulation, application and evaluation of the consistent values and moral positions of an organization by which it is defined, both externally and internally (Spencer, Mills, Rorty, & Werhane, 2000: 5). Business ethics covers practice such as daily business operations, firm reporting procedures, corporate governance and the management of employees. The African continent has struggled over the years with a reputation of being unethical (Ellis et al, 2015). Reasonably, ethical practices among organizations in a domestic African M&A will have significant consequences on acquisition performance. I propose that ethical similarity influences the determination of fit between target and acquiring firms. Fit contributes to a greater integration speed during the implementation phase (Homburg & Bucerius, 2006). However, when firms are not ethically compatibility or experience ethical dissimilarity, the integration process halts and the period of uncertainty is extended.

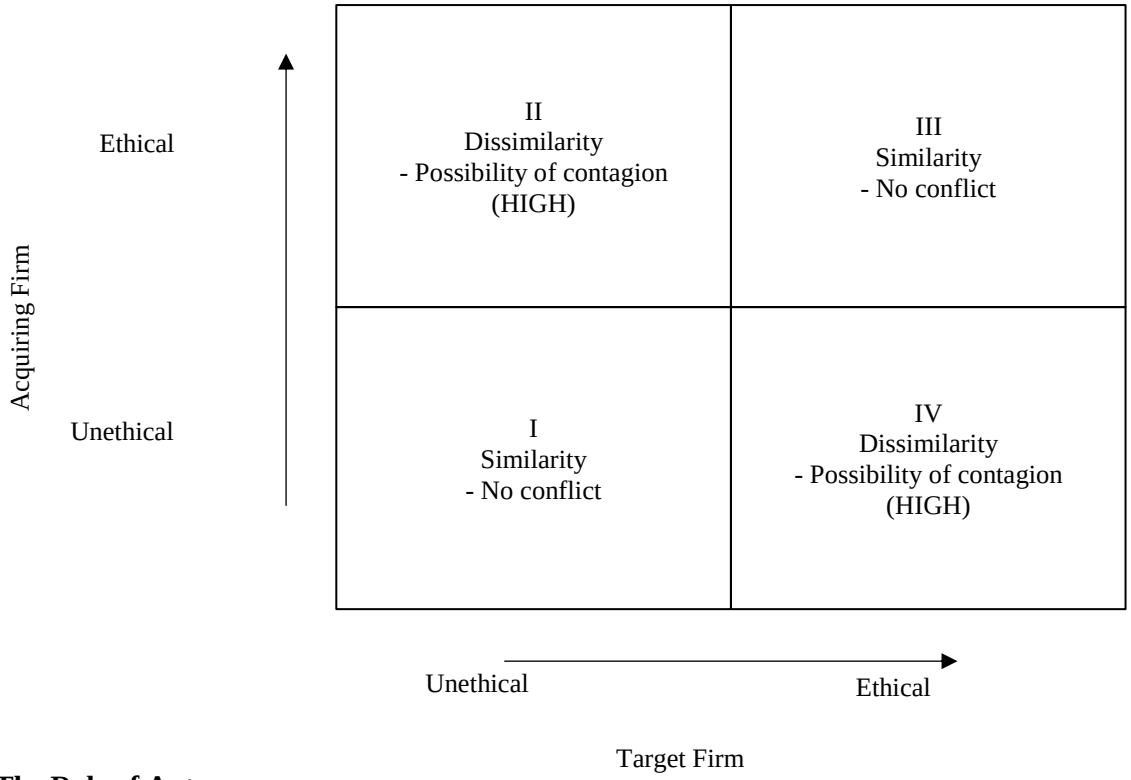
Figure 1 depicts the four situations that firms (target and acquiring) can be categorized into based on their ethical standing during an M&A. Quadrants I and III represents situations where both firms share ethical similarity (either unethical or ethical). Quadrants II and IV are points of dissimilarity where conflict and uncertainty exist. This ethical dissimilarity which is not beneficial for integration speed can also increase the chances that unethical practices are transfer to the target firm based on the arguments of social contagion theory (Locher, 2002; Park, 1921; Wheeler, 1966).

Recalling Park's (1921) argument of how crowds form, entities are attuned to one another during a process of uncertainty causing them to be suggestible and easy to contaminate (Locher, 2002). Wheeler (1966) expands on this showing that when an individual is conflicted, they are more willing to emulate the actions of another individual, which they are not opposed to. As such, when a target firm experiences uncertainty, it is likely that it seeks direction from the acquiring firm on how it should continue to operate. When the acquiring firm operates using less than ethical practices, the probability that those practices transfer that this is to the target firm is high. Per the assumptions made in this paper, this happens because the target firm holds a propensity for unethical behavior that is typically controlled, but, in the scenario of uncertainty and confusion, observing the acquiring firm engage in such practices dissolves their conflict leading them to engage in similar unethical behavior. Hence, I propose that ethical dissimilarity between firms increases the likelihood that an acquiring firm can transfer unethical practices or behavior to a newly acquired target firm.

> ***Proposition 1:*** *Ethical dissimilarity between an acquirer and a target is positively related to contagion of unethical behavior by the target firm.*

In Quadrant II (an ethical acquirer with an unethical target firm), assuming that "conquering army syndrome" holds, a likely situation is that the target firm is turned around to be more ethical in its operation. While this scenario is ideal, a situation like in Quadrant IV whereby the roles are reserved, and the acquiring firm is the unethical one raises concerns of unwanted contagion. If the "conquering army syndrome" assumption holds in this case, the target firm will become unethical due to the acquirer's influence. While this might encourage a quicker integration speed (Bauer & Matzler, 2014), it is not an ideal situation. Contrary to this perspective, I argue that target firms have autonomy in determining the course of operations even after an acquisition. This autonomy will moderate the relationship between ethical dissimilarity and the contagion of unethical behavior. The next section explores this moderating relationship citing geographical distance as an indicator of autonomy.

FIGURE 1
Illustration of Contagion



The Role of Autonomy

Integration decisions in acquisitions vary along a continuum from autonomy to absorption (Schweiger & Walsh, 1990). Datta and Grant (1990) define autonomy as "the amount of day-to-day freedom that the acquired firm management is given to manage its business" (p. 31). Since, ethical behavior refers to a daily practice of honest and decent business interactions, the amount of autonomy given to a target firm to determine its ethics, will impact contagion of unethical behavior. Several factors influence the level of autonomy given to a target firm to make daily operating decisions. Datta and Grant (1990) suggest three –types of acquisition, extent of available synergies between the acquiring and target firms, and the acquiring firm's own knowledge of the target firm's business. Focusing on types of acquisitions, they find that compared to related acquisitions, unrelated acquisitions provide target firms with a greater degree of autonomy.

Another likely source of autonomy discussed in past research relates to the market position of the target firm prior to acquisition. Saxton and Dollinger (2004) make the argument that when acquirers buy targets with a stronger market position, they are less likely to quickly integrate or absorb the target firm into their own company. This is because the target firm's independent standing is likely more beneficial to the acquirer. On the other hand, target firms with weak financial standing are more rapidly absorbed into the acquiring firm (Saxton & Dollinger, 2004). Low asset divestiture occurs when the acquiring and target firms are not closely related and allowing the target firm to operate independently increases benefits of the acquisition (Capron, Mitchell, & Swaminathan, 2001).

A recent emergence in M&A research is the effect of geographical strategy on target selection and acquisition performance (Chakrabarti & Mitchell, 2013; Yeo, 2013). Chakrabarti and Mitchell (2013) argue that geographical distance can impact a target firm's ability to resist acquisition implementation. They also considered the effect of geographical distance on the completion of related and unrelated acquisitions stating that acquiring firms are more likely to complete unrelated acquisitions than related acquisitions even when the distance between firms is great (Chakrabarti & Mitchell, 2016). Acquiring

firms prefer to acquire firms that are within geographical close to them because it reduces the need to monitoring and the costs of monitoring (Yeo, 2013). Similarly, franchising research suggests that when the physical dispersion of operations is high, companies will choose franchising to extend their market rather than own the location (Brickley & Dark, 1987; LaFontaine, 1992; Norton, 1988).

In their study, Datta and Grant (1990) also find that in unrelated acquisitions, granting target firms more autonomy improves acquisition success. Their findings support prior recommendations for acquiring companies to retain autonomy with the target firms in unrelated acquisitions (Dundas & Richardson, 1982). Prior research shows that the "conquering army syndrome" approach to M&A leads to negative outcomes (Buono, Weiss, & Bowditch, 1989). It is also possible that such an approach increases the level of uncertainty perceived by target firms. In contrast, I suggest that when degree of autonomy given to target firms is high, it reduces level of uncertainty experienced and subsequently, the risk of contagion is low. Therefore, I propose that:

> ***Proposition 2:*** *Target firm autonomy will moderate the relationship between ethical dissimilarity and the contagion of unethical behavior by target firms, such that, the positive relationship will be attenuated.*

DISCUSSION

This paper applies social contagion theory to the topic of firm acquisitions within strategic management research. I discuss the contagion of unethical behavior by target firms due to acquisition by a firm with unethical practices and the role of autonomy as a mechanism to prevent spread of unethical practices.

Implications

This paper offers various theoretical implications including the need for future scholars to consider the place of ethics in acquisition implementation. I have shown that the possibility of negative contagion is high given that M&A situations raise the uncertainty experienced by the target firm. The uncertainty is further heightened by ethical dissimilarity between the acquiring and target firms. However, when target firms have autonomy in making decisions elated to daily operations, contagion through ethical dissimilarity is reduced. This is a positive outlook for an ethical target firm that faces threat of negative contagion from an unethical acquirer. Also, in situations when ethical standing influence the decision to acquire a target firm, autonomy helps to ensure the retention of the target firm's reputation. Practical implications of this research exist for firms at the pre-merger phase of the M&A process. Given the likely effect of firm autonomy in restraining the spread of unethical behavior, target firm managers may seek to negotiate for such independence in the pre-M&A phase to ensure that their company's ethical practices are not tainted.

Future Research

Existing literature typically places control on the side of the acquirer (Epstein, 2005). Therefore, the source of contagion within the acquiring firm serves as a starting point into the relationship between ethics and transfer of unethical behavior. However, consideration of target firm autonomy raises interesting questions as well for the transfer of firm behavior. For example – what is the likelihood of an ethically sound target firm to transfer moral practices the other way to the acquirer? Exploration of conditions under which the transfer of ethics can occur the opposite direction, from target to acquirer, seems to be an interesting research question. Aside from the overall direction of contagion at the organizational level, future research should consider the key actors in the transfer of ethics. Possible questions for future research include deterring the origin of ethical contagion within the firm – either top-down from the TMT or bottom-up starting with firm employees.

Similarly, this paper develops four different combination involving ethical similarity and dissimilarity. By merely incorporating the assumptions and arguments of the conquering army syndrome (Mace & Montgomery, 1962), the paper was limited to only exploring the situation of ethical dissimilarity

when the target firm is more ethical than the acquirer. This was done because the aim of the paper was to take a contrasting perspective, that of the target firm, than is typically found in acquisition research. However, in doing so, the paper may include assumptions that do not necessarily hold true or apply in all situations. Future research should expand on each quadrant or situation presented in Figure 1 and develops arguments on how ethical contagion occurs for each one. It might be uncovered through empirical study and logical deductions, that ethical similarity does not completely remove the possibility of ethical contagion. The question then becomes what the source of such a contagion will be.

Another future research opportunity involves the impact of turnover within the target firm on spread or containment of unethical contagion. Schweiger and DeNisi (1991) show that acquisitions increased the rate of turnover among TMTs above normal turnover expectations. This raises an interesting question on whether the exit of current members of the target firm's TMT increases the contagion of unethical behavior. If the acquiring firm can adequately fill the vacant positions with people that share similar standards of ethics, that implies contagion will occur at a quicker rate given existing research that cites acquirer domination and the conquering army syndrome (Epstein, 2005; Mace & Montgomery, 1962).

Future research should also consider the issue of time in the spread of contagion. Entrainment theory suggests that over time, two different mechanisms in close proximity will achieve synchronization (Ancona and Chong, 1992). This further highlights the influence of geographical distance in predicting contagion. Another moderator of the relationship between time and contagion is type of acquisition. It is likely that in unrelated acquisitions where the target is never fully integrated, the likelihood of contagion even over time, will remain low. The proposed relationships call for empirical investigation to confirm the direction of contagion in both ethical and unethical situations. Lastly, future research should investigate the effect of contagion speed in conjunction with other acquisition outcomes such as integration speed (Bauer & Matzler, 2014).

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to theorize on the potential for behavioral contagion to occur between firms involved in a merger or acquisition. While ethical behavior is desirable, target firms often run the risk of negative influence by an unethical acquirer. The current research based on the conquering army syndrome suggests that such contagion is inevitable. Social contagion theory supports this assertion given the amount of uncertainty generated during acquisitions which leaves firms suggestible and open to contamination. However, in this paper, I argue that firm autonomy moderates transfer of unethical behavior and develop propositions to that effect. As the conversation in M&A research gradually moves from economic and market factors and indicators of acquisition performance, future research on topics such as ethics, fit, autonomy, should continue in order to the provide the field of strategy with a more robust understanding of the acquisition process.

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WHEN AND WHY INFORMAL FIRMS FORMALIZE: A STRATEGIC DECISION-MAKING PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

We offer a behavioural framework to explain how the formalization decision of informal firms unfolds. We argue that aspirations for which firms skirt formal regulation to operate in the informal economy serve as reference points in interpreting and evaluating the prospect of formalization. We differentiate between the influences of the performance aspiration level of a firm and the influence of the form of aspiration a firm pursues.

Keywords: Informal firms; Firm formalization; Strategic decision-making; Firm aspirations; Prospect theory

INTRODUCTION

It is conventionally assumed that firms that initiate their operations in compliance with laws and regulations garner legitimacy and overcome the liabilities of newness (Bitektine, 2011; Singh, Tucker, & House, 1986). Indeed, empirical research has bolstered that firms that operate formally, in general, perform better than firms that skirt legal requirements to operate in the informal economy (Assenova & Sorenson, 2017; Benjamin & Mbaye, 2012; La Porta & Schleifer, 2014; Mbaye & Benjamin, 2015; Rand & Torm, 2012).

Despite these assertions, informal firms prevail and are, in contrast to predictions of demise by leading scholars (Godfrey, 2011; Williams, Martinez-Perez, & Kedir, 2017; Darbi, Hall, & Knott, 2018), even expanding in numbers and size. Across the world, the informal economy contributes substantial portions of countries' economic activity. Estimates point to 31.9% on average across 158 countries while reaching as high as 62.3% for some developing countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Medina & Schneider, 2018). At the same time, studies establish that informal firms are less efficient contributors to the development agenda of countries and contribute to gaps in the provision of decent work across the world (ILO, 2018; Levy, 2008). Why firms choose to remain informal in the face of various legal, productivity and development disadvantages has therefore been a long-standing debate (Webb, Ireland, & Ketchen, 2014; Darbi et al., 2018; Sutter, Webb, Kistruck, Ketchen, & Ireland, 2017; De Soto, 1989).

In answering this question, research has focused on the costs and benefits of formalization that are created by existing formal regulations and infrastructure (i.e., Sutter et al., 2017). One stream of thought argues that firms remain informal because the cost and time involved in registration are too high (e.g. de Soto, 1989). Another dominant view holds that firms make rational choice based on the running costs vis-a-vis the benefits of formalization (e.g. De Castro et al., 2014). Despite the important contributions of these views, the focus on the economic (dis)incentives of formal institutions has led to an elusive understanding of how the formalization of informal firms unfolds (Sutter et al., 2017; Nguyen, Verreynne, & Steen, 2014;

Rand and Torm, 2012). Specifically, given empirical evidence to the effect that formal firms perform better than informal firms with similar firm-level characteristics (Assenova & Sorenson, 2017; Rand & Torm, 2012), it is unclear why some firms perceive it more beneficial to remain informal under similar macro environmental conditions. Additionally, in spite of the broader informal economy literature's recognition of other reasons for informality such as perceived lack of redistributive justice and industry-based cultures of informality (Hunt, 2009; Lee & Hung, 2014; Uzo & Mair, 2014; Williams, Shahid, & Martínez, 2016), existing explanations of why firms remain informal or not have scarcely integrated the influence of these factors. More so, the budding evidence is that regulatory reforms targeted at the economic (dis)incentives of formalization do little to improve the rate of formalization among preexisting informal firms (de Andrade, Bruhn, & McKenzie, 2016). It is, therefore, our view that the literature on the formalization of informal firms will advance with a further unpacking of the sources of heterogeneity in firms' response to the prospect of formalization.

In this article, we propose a behavioral framework for understanding of why firms choose to remain informal or decide to formalize. In doing so, we sidestep the focus on quasi-rational cost-benefit calculus to present a more realistic characterization of bounded rational decision-making under uncertainty. Drawing from prospect theory, we suggest that firms use the aspirations for which they skirt formal regulation to operate in the informal economy as a reference point in interpreting and evaluating the prospect of formalization. We then differentiate between the influences of firms expected performance relative to aspired performance and the influence of the form of aspiration being pursued. To achieve the later, we draw on existing literature on the informal economy to build a categorization of aspirations that firms pursue in the informal economy.

As a result, this paper makes important contributions to the literature on the formalization of informal firms. First, by adopting a behavioral approach to analyzing informal firms' decision to formalize, the paper moves the discussion from an approach based on an assumption of quasi-rational calculations and optimizations on the part of informal firms to an approach that recognizes the nuanced decisions-making process of firms in the face of incomplete information and uncertainty. In light of incomplete information, firms make strategic decisions based on satisficing rather than optimizing principles (Miller & Wilson, 2006; Simon, 1972). The consequence of this is that, in evaluating the option of formalization, informal firms may adopt judgmental criteria that may deviate from widely used performance-based criteria. In adopting a behavioral approach, this study, therefore, draws the literature towards a more realistic and holistic characterization of the formalization decision-making of informal firms. Second, by focusing on the aspirations that firms pursue in the informal economy, the paper unfolds an additional source of heterogeneity in informal firms' response to the prospect of formalization. Finally, by explicitly conceptualizing formalization as a strategic decision facing informal firms, the proposed framework allows us to draw on insights from the management literature on firm decision-making to understand how formalization unfolds from the firm perspective. Thus, we contribute to building the theory of the informal economy from a management perspective (Godfrey, 2011, 2015).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The informal economy and informal firms

The informal economy consists of market-based activities conducted by unregistered firms or by registered firms but hidden from taxation and regulation (De Castro et al., 2014; La Porta & Shleifer, 2008; Mcgahan, 2012). Godfrey (2011, 234) argues that "the domain of the informal economy covers a conceptual area from the dusty developing country bazaar to the pristine developed country boardroom". The informal economy is thus present in both developing and developed country contexts. It contributes an average of 31.9% of GDP across 158 countries while reaching a GDP contribution of about 62.3% for some developing countries (Medina & Schneider, 2018). The informal economy is considered persistent and expanding in contrast to predictions of demise by leading economists (Chen, 2013; Williams et al., 2017; Darbi et al., 2018).

Many informal firms exist because of the presence of taken-for-granted norms, values and social behaviour contrary to the laws and regulations of formal institutions (De Castro et al., 2014; Webb, Tihanyi, Ireland, & Sirmon, 2009). For example, large groups of customers are willing to buy goods outside the formal economy as a means of cutting costs or satisfying social and redistributive reasons (London, Esper, Grogan-Kaylor, & Kistruck, 2014; Williams & Martinez-Perez, 2014). Webb et al. (2009) argue that this incongruence between formal and informal institutions' perception of what is legitimate provided a grey space within which individuals may explore entrepreneurial opportunities. Informal firms, therefore, arise as a means of exploring opportunities in the informal economy by engaging in activities that are illegal yet legitimate to some large groups in society.

Informal firms may utilize illegal means to produce legal goods, legal means to produce illegal goods or illegal means to produce illegal goods (Thai & Turkina, 2014; Portes & Haller, 2005; Webb et al., 2009) The critical factor, however, is that the market-based activities of these firms though technically illegal is not considered as antisocial by informal institutions (Webb, Bruton, Tihanyi, & Ireland, 2013). This definition thus differentiates informal firms (illegal but legitimate firms) from renegade firms – firms that undertake market-based activities that are both illegal and illegitimate (Webb et al., 2009). In this study, we limit our definition of informal firms to firms that produce legal goods and services. Thus, we focus on "firms that conduct market-based activities with legal goods produced and distributed without regard for taxation or regulation" (De Castro et al., 2014). This distinction between legal and illegal goods allows us to focus on firms which have a realistic potential to formalize. Thus, we exclude the question of informal firms that supply illegal goods and services such as counterfeit products or pirated software as these firms cannot register their businesses under universally accepted legal frameworks.

Firm formalization as a strategic decision

Formalization occurs when a firm registers with the appointed authorities and complies with formal regulations associated with business, tax and labour (Godfrey, 2011; Siqueira, Webb, & Bruton, 2016; Williams et al., 2017). Formal firms, therefore, use legal means to produce legal goods; conducting their market-based activities with regard for taxation and regulation (Webb et al. 2009; DeCastro et al., 2014).

Conventionally, formalization has been viewed as superior to informality, especially with respect to productivity and firm performance (Assenova & Sorenson, 2017; Benjamin & Mbaye, 2012; La Porta & Schleifer, 2014). Being formal is argued to give firms legitimacy to operate more openly, access to broader range of contracts, risk pooling mechanisms, government provided business development services and increased investment to that lead to better performance (Webb, Khoury, & Hitt, 2019; Fajnzylber, Maloney, & Montes-Rojas, 2011; La Porta & Schleifer, 2014; Rand & Torm, 2012). Recent evidence, however, points to the fact that firms choose to remain informal (e.g. De Castro et al., 2014; de Mel et al., 2013). This is because moving from informality to formality for an informal firm goes beyond the payment of a registration fee and taxes. The reality of formalization for an informal firm involves transitioning from "one institutional framework based on minimal standards (i.e., standards underpinning the informal market) to another institutional framework with specified and enforced standards of quality, efficiency, and volume (i.e., standards underpinning the formal market)" (Sutter et al., 2017: 421-422). It encompasses fundamentally changing the way a business operates – changing the reliance on trust and word-of-mouth to detailed contractual agreements and changing quality checks by visual inspection and touch to compliance with legal standards (Godfrey, 2011; Sutter et al., 2017).

We thus argue that the formalization decision of an informal firm is thus a strategic decision as it is interdependent on other contemporaneous decisions facing the firm and has the potential to affect the firm's stakeholders and radically shape its evolution (Leiblein, Reuer, & Zenger, 2018; Van Den Steen, 2017). This inherent nature of formalization, as a strategic decision, makes it a naturally risky or uncertain decision. This is especially for firms that relied on the norms and social behavior of informal institutions for existence and in many cases, competitive advantage (de Andrade et al., 2016; DeCastro et al., 2014; Williams & Martinez-Perez, 2014). The potential role of formalization in the long term welfare of the broader range of individuals through employee welfare and the provision of social goods from taxes (ILO, 2018; Levy, 2008; de Mel et al., 2013), however, makes the complete understanding of the formalization process critical.

Prospect theory and strategic decision-making

In this study, we explain when and why informal firms break the apparent "formalization inertia" by focusing on the aspirations that firms pursue in the informal economy. In this respect, prospect theory (PT) is a theory of individual decision making under risk and uncertainty that has been extended to understanding firm decision making within the broader management literature (Holmes, Bromiley, Devers, Holcomb, & McGuire, 2011) and, more specifically, the strategic management literature (Bromiley, 2010). The theory has for example being applied in the study of firms' merger, acquisition and divestiture decisions (e.g. Shimizu, 2007; Wood, 2009), innovation decisions (e.g. Abrahamson & Rosenkopf, 1993; Mark, William, & Vincent III, 1998; Schubert, Baier, & Rammer, 2018) and risk-return relationship of firm strategy (e.g. Fiegenbaum, 1990; Lehner, 2000).

PT divides the decision-making process into two phases; the editing or framing phase and the subsequent evaluation phase (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). At the editing phase, the decision maker reorganises and reformulates the offered prospects, usually yielding a simpler representation of the prospects. At the evaluation phase, the decision maker chooses the prospect with the highest value (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). PT further assumes that decision makers frame the outcomes of a decision into gains or losses relative to a neutral reference (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981). Outcomes above the reference point are framed as gains while outcomes below the reference point are framed as losses. Prospect theory also indicates that decision makers are risk-seeking when it comes to gains and risk-averse when it comes to losses.

PROPOSITION DEVELOPMENT

Performance aspiration level and firms' formalization prospects

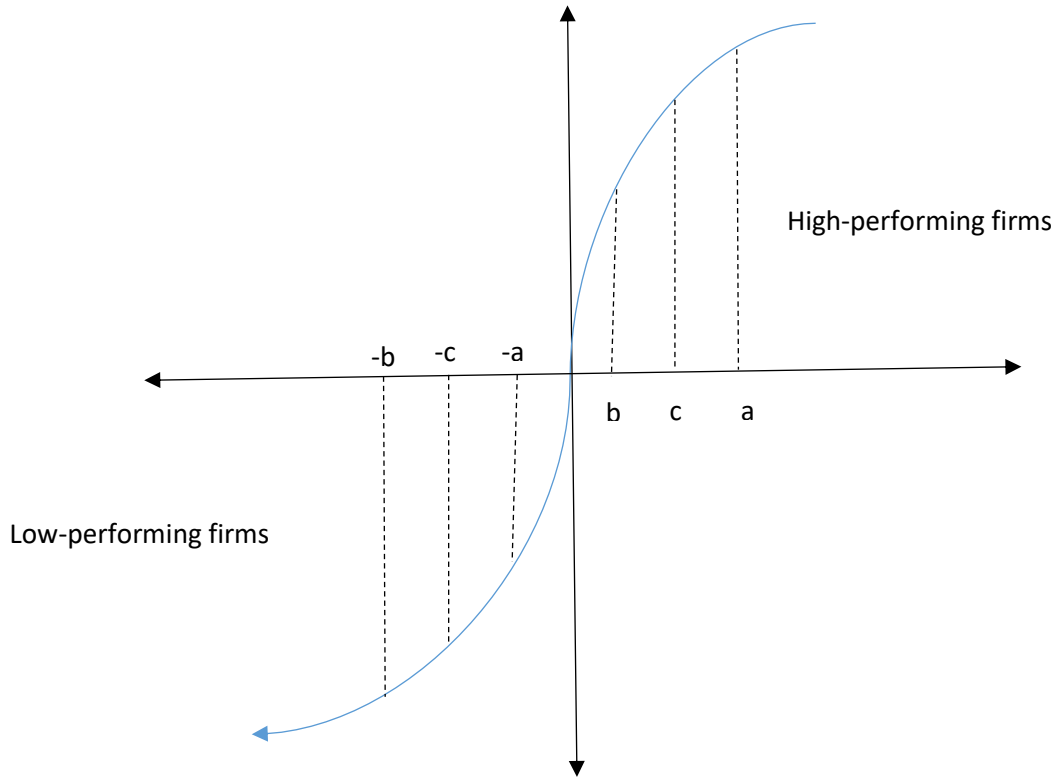
Aspiration levels are set using the performance of similar firms or the historical performance of the focal firm (Greve, 1998). According to Schneider (1992: 1053), "An aspiration level represents the smallest outcome that would be deemed satisfactory by the decision maker, given the current choice situation." Once set, performance aspiration levels become critical in determining what outcomes that are salient to a firm and thus firm action. Firms' performance aspiration level has therefore been central to research on firm risk-taking behaviour (Washburn & Bromiley, 2012; Baum, Rowley, Shipilov, & Chuang, 2005; Bromiley, 1991). Prospect theory predicts that a firm's aspiration level serves as a target or reference point for making judgements about firm performance (Bromiley, 1991). Firms risk-taking behaviour, therefore, depends on the expected level of performance relative to their performance aspiration level at the time of decision making (Greve, 1998b, 2003b; Schubert et al., 2018). Firms with expected performance lower than their aspiration level are in a "loss-situation" - considering outcomes of risky or uncertain decisions in a loss framework while firms with expected performance higher than aspiration level are in a "gain-situation" – considering risky or uncertain outcomes in a gain framework. Firms with expected performance lower than their aspiration level (low-performing firms) will be risk-seeking while firms with expected performance higher than aspiration level (high-performing firms) will, therefore, be risk-averse.

Drawing on prospect theory, we argue that firms' aspirations in the informal economy are reference points against which they compare the prospects of formalization. Informal firms will, therefore, formalize when they perceive formalization as a more favorable strategy in achieving their diverse aspirations. Specifically, we argue that while formalization provides better opportunities for improved performance for a firm relative to informality, we also assume that formalization is risky a decision, as the firm may not be able to compete successfully under the new institutional framework, and as such lead to firm failure. Thus, we assume that formalization provides the following prospect (a, x; b, y) where $x > y$, and a = outcome of successful formalization; b = outcome of failed formalization; x = probability of successful formalization; and y = probability of failed formalization.

Accordingly, we propose that informal firms' response to the risky prospect of formalization will depend on their expected performance relative to their performance aspiration. Moreover, we also argue that informal firms will perceive formalization at best as offering a > b and x = y. This is explained by the fact that the cost of formalization for an informal firm will not only be limited to the costs of registration. It will also include the "learning costs" associated with operating and competing under the new institutional framework and the investments costs of establishing the internal and external infrastructure for operating in the formal economy (Sutter et al., 2017). These costs will be perceived to decrease a previously informal firm's probability of successfully competing as a formal firm. We, therefore, expect that informal firms will underestimate the initially proposed high probability of success of formalization and overestimate the initially proposed low probability of formalization (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Tversky & Kahneman, 1992). Additionally, firms have the choice to remain informal in which their expected performance is assured. Thus, remaining informal provides the expected performance of (c, z) for high performance firm and (-c, z) for low-performing firms (we will use a positive notations to indicate an expected values above aspiration level and negative notations for expected value higher than the aspiration level- where c < a (-c >-a) and z = 1(sure probability)). We, therefore, assume that firms that consider formalizing expect it to be beneficial on average.

We summarize the main propositions of prospect theory under a high or low-performance situation graphically in Figure 1. The coordinate system represents the arguments from above, with the performance on the x-axis and the value level derived from formalizing on the y-axis. The point of intersection of the y-axis on the x-axis refers to the neutral reference point, that is, the focal firm's performance aspiration. Firms with expected performance below this reference point are therefore are in a loss-situation with relative to their reference point and are represented by the left side of the diagram. Firms faced by a loss-situation are risk-seeking and thus have a value function which is locally convex. Above the reference point, firms face a gain situation. They act risk-aversely and their value function is concave, corresponding to the right-hand side of figure 1. Informal firms whose expected performance is below their aspiration level (above aspiration level) will have an assured performance of –c (c). Hence high-performing firms will edit the prospect of formalization as (a , x ; b , y) where a , b> 0 and a > b and x = y while lower performing firms will edit the formalization prospect as (-a , x ; -b , y) and -a < -b and x = y. As demonstrated in Figure 1, therefore, both high and low-performing firms have an assured performance of c and –c respectively if they choose to remain informal and improved performance of a and -a respectively if they successfully formalize. At the same time, they have a lower performance of b (-b) if formalization strategy fails.

Figure 1: Prospect theory and performance aspirations in the informal economy



In line with prospect theory, we argue that informal firms that have expected performance below the aspiration level will be risk-seeking and prefer the probabilistic loss of formalization to the sure loss of remaining informal. This is because firms that become risk-seeking as a result of low performance are motivated to engage in a problem-driven search that often challenges the status quo and stimulates exploration of new practices, strategies and actions to erase or avoid losses (Baum et al., 2005; Lant & Shapira, 2008; Mannor, Wowak, Bartkus, & Gomez-Mejia, 2016). Low-performing informal firms will, therefore, be motivated to explore the efficiency and productivity advantages that could potentially accrue to a formal firm through access to government supported business services, contracts and access to credit, etc. Informal firms will, therefore, formalize with the intention of achieving the probably improved performance of – a (which is closer to the aspiration level) and thus avoiding the sure loss of -c. High-performing firms, on the other hand, will be risk averse and prefer the sure gains of remaining informal to the probabilistic but higher gains of formalizing their operations. This is because firms with expected performance above aspiration level are likely to see it as a good reason to avoid risky change (Greve, 2003; Baum et al., 2005). High performing informal firms will, therefore, be motivated to avoid the risks associated with the probable higher performance that comes with formalization by choosing to remain informal. Based on these arguments, we formulate our baseline propositions:

Proposition 1: *Low-performing informal firms are risk-seeking and will be motivated to formalize as a means of avoiding the certain loss of operating informally.*

Proposition 2: *High-performing informal firms are risk-averse and will be motivated to remain informal to avoid the risks associated with formalization.*

Forms of informal firm aspirations

Our arguments so far assume that firms adopt performance-based aspirations to guide their operations in the informal sector. However, this form of argument mostly mirrors the dominant form of aspiration pursued in the formal economy as evident in the various studies analyzing of firms decision making in the face of risk . However, this form of argument mostly mirrors the dominant approach to analyzing strategic decision-making anomg formal firms in the literature. We therefore take our argument further by examing the various entrepreneurial aspirations for which firms skirt formal regulations to operate in the informal economy. To achieve this we draw primarily on prior work on the informal economy and work on entrepreneurial objectives to present a typology of firms that describe the dominant forms of aspirations perused by firms operating in the informal economy. Nonetheless, research on the informal economy suggests that other forms of aspiration may be salient to informal firms (e.g. Ulyssea, 2018; Webb et al., 2019, 2009). Throughout the informal economy literature, studies have argued that informal firms are formed as a result of constraining factors such as the need to survive, provide for the family or to escape burdensome taxes or cumbersome bureaucracy (DeSoto 1989; Godfrey, 2011; Hart, 1973; Kistruck, Webb, Sutter, & Bailey, 2015; Webb, Tihanyi, Duane Ireland, & Sirmon, 2009). Other firms are also formed out of distrust for elitist system formal institutions (Williams et al., 2017, 2016) or by deliberate effort to avoid regulation and taxation that is not a result of distrust or cumbersome bureaucracy (Chen, 2013). Such firms include firms started by affluent founders with business acumen who see an opportunity to increase their wealth or achieve lifestyle and social objectives (Hall & Rusher, 2013; Webb et al., 2009). A more recently highlighted group consists of firms operating in the informally economy out of tradition (Chen, 2012; Darbi et al., 2018; Slade Shantz, Kistruck, & Zietsma, 2018). Accordingly, we classify the motivations for pursuing opportunities in the informal economy as a) subsistence aspirations; b) exploitation aspirations; c) legacy aspirations; and d) defiance aspirations.

Subsistence aspirations: First, we argue that informal firms operating primarily through a survival strategy are driven by subsistence aspirations (Webb et al., 2019). Such informal firms are started because of lack of other sources of income or employment (Garcia-Lorenzo, Donnelly, Sell-Trujillo, & Imas, 2018; Hart, 1973; Thieme, 2018; Webb, Pryor, & Kellermanns, 2015; Williams et al., 2016). They are therefore not necessarily established from the inherent desire to pursue market-based activity but on the requirements to satisfy basic needs (Webb et al., 2019). The primary focus of such firms is not growth or market expansion but to provide a "reasonably durable basis for livelihood" (Hart, 2000). In his seminal article that coined the term, informal economy, Hart (1973) presented the case of Atinga, a 28-year-old man who started a gin bar in his living quarters to finance his period of unemployment. In a more recent article, Godfrey (2011, 231-232) presented the following case: "Francis sells shirts on a busy street in downtown Accra, Ghana, where he has worked for several years. He buys shirts for about $1.50 each, has them adorned with silk-screened artwork for another $1.50, and sells the finished product for between $3.50 and $5.50…Francis has little formal education, he finished junior high school, and has no capital; he is for all intents and purposes trapped into life as a street vendor. He earns between $15 and $20 per month." As can be derived from preceding cases, firms with subsistence aspirations are usually micro-enterprises with low resource endowments (Rand & Torm, 2012; Williams et al., 2016).

Exploitation aspirations: Next, we consider informal firm operating with the goal of increasing the wealth of owners through the exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities as having exploitation aspirations (Webb et al., 2013, 2009). These firms are linked to the more recent recognition that informality can be a choice driven by recognition of entrepreneurial opportunity rather than necessity (Siqueira et al., 2016; Williams et al., 2017) or that firms may choose to remain informal to earn higher profits from the cost advantages of not complying with taxes and regulations (Ulyssea, 2018). In most cases, these firms are medium-sized manufacturing, trade-oriented, and/or online businesses (Siqueira et al., 2016). A famous example of this is the case of the launch of music streaming site, Napster (Webb et al., 2009). We, however, focus on firms whose focal opportunity can be pursued under formal regulations. In essence, we focus on firms that are sufficiently productive to survive in the formal sector but who choose to operate in the informal sector owing to perceived cost advantages of avoiding taxes and regulations (Ulyssea, 2018). Firms established for exploitation aspirations are therefore relatively more resource endowed and growth-oriented

compared to firms subsistence firms (Webb et al., 2019, 2009; Williams et al., 2017). The relative endowments and growth orientation of these firms make them relatively larger in size (Fajnzylber et al., 2011) and therefore more prone to detection (De Castro et al., 2014).

Legacy aspirations: Third, we consider firms to have legacy aspirations if they are operating in the informal economy as a result of family, ethnic, industry or social tradition (Chen, 2012; Darbi et al., 2018; Hunt, 2009; Slade Shantz et al., 2018). For example, Uzo and Mair (2014, 59) report that the Nigerian movie industry (which is recognized the second largest in the world in terms of volumes of movies produced per year) consists largely of informal firms that "consciously or unwittingly choose not to comply" with copyright laws. Other research indicates that many informal operations are a result of hereditary occupations or business activity passed down from one generation to the next (Chen, 2012; Darbi et al., 2018; Slade Shantz et al., 2018). We thus assume that some firms operate informally as a taken-for-granted way of doing business passed on through family, community or industry traditions rather than the desire to survive or create wealth. We assert that legacy aspirations will be most salient when they have implications for legitimacy or competitive advantage for the firm. De Castro et al. (2014), for example, observe that "there was a profound sense that if the entrepreneurs pursued registration, they would be outliers bucking the informal rules of the meso environment that others followed".

Resistance aspirations: Finally, informal firms may voluntary decide to operate in the informal economy as a result of resistance toward formal institutions due to a perceived lack of procedural and redistributive justice and fairness (Murphy, Tyler, & Curtis, 2009; Williams et al., 2016). This resistance stems out of the perception that existing formal institutions seek to protect or maximize economic rents for elites or are not effective in distributing social benefits (Maloney, 2004; Webb et al., 2014; Williams et al., 2017). Lee & Hung (2014), for example, present the case of Shan-Zhai phones industry in China, where 3,000-4,000 micro to small firms rebelled against the government industrial policy to produce and distribute phones between the years 1998 and 2008. Such firms, therefore, operate in the informal sector as a form of protest or activism.

According to prospect theory, firms with different aspirations will adopt different reference points in making strategic decisions and thus the formalization decision. Correspondingly, we posit that a) subsistence oriented firms will adopt 'survival' as their reference point; b) firms with exploitation aspirations will adopt 'continuous firm growth'; c) firms with legacy aspirations will adopt 'maintenance of informal legitimacy'; while d) firms with resistance aspiration will adopt 'defiance of formal institutions' as reference points. Based on this, we suggest that the inherent characteristics of the aspirations that these firms pursue will lead to differences in how these firms frame the prospect of formalization. In building this explanation, we assume that the form of aspiration that an informal firm pursues in the informal economy is a target that the focal firm is working to either achieve or to maintain. Secondly, we assume that firms that satisfied with the achievement of their aspirations will adopt the next relevant aspiration in a process similar to aspiration adjustment (Smith, 1965). We, therefore, assume for example that firms that have achieved survival aspirations will either seek to maintain this level of success or adjust their aspiration to wealth accumulation (exploitation aspiration). We do not here intimate that the forms of aspirations that firms pursue in the informal economy are mutually exclusive but discuss their influence separately for the purpose of analytical clarity. Additionally, we expect that in the cases where more than one aspiration drives a firm's operations in the informal economy, one of these aspirations will be most salient in interpretation and evaluation the prospect of formalization.

Table 1: Forms of firm aspirations and implications for formalization

Form of Aspiration	**Drivers**	**Characteristics**	**Primary reference point**	**Implications for formalization**
Subsistence aspirations	Generating a reasonably durable and predictable basis for livelihood	Usually Micro firms Low human capital and resource capabilities Highly localized geographical market	Survival	Risk averse towards the prospect of formalization hence more likely to remain informal
Exploitation aspirations	Increasing wealth of owners by exploiting opportunities in the informal sector	Usually small to medium sized firms Relatively high human capital and resource capabilities Geographically diverse markets	Continuous firm growth	Risk-seeking towards the prospect of formalization and hence more likely to formalize
Legacy aspirations	Valuable social legitimacy	Small to medium sized firms Diverse human capital and resource capabilities Middle-ranged geographical market	Maintaining informal legitimacy	Indifferent to the prospect of formalization and hence more likely to remain informal
Resistance aspirations	Perceived lack of procedural and redistributive justice and fairness	Usually small to medium sized firms Diverse human capital and resource capabilities Diverse geographical market reach	Defiance	Approach risk neutrality towards to prospect of formalization hence more likely to remain informal

Forms of aspirations and formalization prospects

The variation in aspirations that informal firms adopt for decision making mean that they will frame and evaluate the prospect of formalization differently. In the following, we discuss the implications of the different forms of aspirations for the formalization prospects.

First, firms with subsistence aspirations are established as a survival strategy and will thus operate with the focus of generating a reasonably durable and predictable basis for livelihood (Webb et al., 2019; Hart, 2000; Williams et al., 2016). The focus on producing enough to make a livelihood means that such firms have production levels close to the point of firm survival making firm survival salient (March & Shapira, 1987). Research suggests that when survival is salient to firms, firms become risk averse (Desai, 2008) We therefore suggest that informal firms with subsistence aspirations will adopt survival as their reference point. Further, we posit that firms with subsistence aspirations will edit the prospect of formalization, (a, x; b, y) where $a > b$ and $x > y$, to include a high probability of failure and lower probability of success of formalization as a strategy for survival, thus $x < y$. In simple terms, this implies that firms with subsistence aspirations will perceive it more unlikely to successfully implement formalization as a means of achieving a reasonably durable source of livelihood. This is because informal firms with subsistence aspirations are usually micro firms, with limited resources serving small geographical areas, usually neighbourhoods. The nature of their client base and the small and steady nature of these firms makes the risk pooling mechanisms or credit institutions of the formal economy relatively unimportant (Fajnzylber et al., 2011; Levenson & Maloney, 1998). They are also engaged in market-based activities that require less skill and can be easily imitated (Webb et al., 2019). Their competitive advantage, therefore, relies heavily on their embeddedness in a specific locality. The relative unimportance of formal institutions to these firms and the relative dependence of their competitive advantage on the informal institutions of their locality means that formalization presents obvious costs and less obvious benefits to the firms with subsistence aspirations. Thus, we argue that the focus survival and the relative unimportance of informal institutions to informal firms with subsistence aspirations will increase their perception of the probability of failure associated with formalization. This will, in turn, make them more risk-averse towards the prospect of formalization. Informal firms with subsistence aspirations will, therefore, be more likely to prefer the relatively assured income from informality to the probable but higher income from formalization. We, therefore, posit that:

> Proposition 3: *Informal firms with subsistence aspirations will be risk-averse towards the prospect of formalization and will, therefore, be more likely to remain informal.*

Second, firms with exploitation aspiration operate in the informal economy with the focus of increasing wealth of owners. These firms usually operate in the informal sector as a means of increasing firm performance by avoiding the costs associated with formalization or increasing the legitimacy and resource advantages of aligning with informal institutions (Webb et al., 2013, 2009; Williams et al., 2017). We, therefore, suggest that firms with exploitation motives will adopt increasing firm performance as their reference point. However, the increase in firm performance is not driven by the firm's performance below the desired level but on the desire to continuously increase the wealth of firm owners. We thus posit that firms with exploitation aspirations will be risk-seeking towards the prospect of formalization; (a, x; b, y) where $a > b$ and $x = y$. Firms that pursue exploitation aspirations in the informal economy usually have higher human capital and resource capabilities that make them able to survive in the formal economy (Ulyssea, 2018; Webb et al., 2019). Additionally, with the availability of informal legitimacy, such firms may only choose the cost advantages of informal economy as a way of focusing their scarce resources on overcoming other liabilities of newness (e.g. relationships with suppliers and customers) aside formal legitimacy (Williams et al., 2017; Garcia-Lorenzo et al., 2018). We, therefore, expect that firms with exploitation aspirations to rate success in the formal economy as a gamble. Furthermore, we expect that firms driven by a constant desire for increasing performance will become attuned to the relatively limited geographical reach of informal legitimacy. Formal institutions within one locality are commonly consistent with expectations within other localities of the same country(Webb et al., 2019). Thus, formal institutions

provide a broader market reach for the usually scalable ventures (Webb et al., 2009) pursued by growth-oriented firms. We expect that informal firms with exploitation aspirations will overtime value the broader market reach and access to a broader range of contracts, risk pooling mechanisms, government provided business development services and increased investments (Webb, Khoury, & Hitt, 2019; Fajnzylber, Maloney, & Montes-Rojas, 2011; La Porta & Schleifer, 2014; Rand & Torm, 2012) over cost savings and the limited resource access of informal legitimacy. Using increasing performance as a reference point, we are of the view that firms operating with exploitation motives within the informal economy will consider themselves in a loss situation compared to the possibilities of increasing performance in the formal economy. Consequently:

> Proposition 4: *Informal firms with exploitation motives will be risk-seeking towards the prospect of formalization and will, therefore, be more likely to formalize*.

Third, firms with legacy aspirations are firms that operate informally as a socially accepted (and possibly taken-for-granted) way of doing business passed on through family, community or industry traditions (Darbi et al., 2018; De Castro et al., 2014). We expect that firms for which this aspiration is salient will be relatively more embedded in the social context within which these norms prevail. Additionally, we expect that such firms draw some form of valuable social legitimacy from embeddedness in particular contexts and that the social legitimacy may be withdrawn or minimized with firm formalization (DeCastro et al., 2014). The valuable social legitimacy may be even more salient if it grants access to a valuable resource (Webb et al., 2013, 2009) or grants other forms of competitive advantage (de Andrade et al., 2016; Williams & Martinez-Perez, 2014). We are therefore of the view that informal firms with legacy aspiration will adopt maintenance of informal legitimacy as their reference point. Additionally, under conditions of incongruence between formal and informal institutions' perception of legitimacy, formal institutions become of little or no value in moving such firms toward their reference point on informal legitimacy. Prospect theory, however, will not automatically imply that risk considerations will always dominate decisions (Schubert et al., 2018). Thus, we expect that risk-induced effect will lose importance in the formalization decision of firms with legacy aspirations. In line with the preceding arguments, we posit that;

> Proposition 5: *Informal firms with legacy aspirations will be indifferent to the prospect of formalization and will, therefore, be more likely to choose to remain informal.*

Finally, informal firms with defiance aspirations operate in the informal economy as a way to show resistance to formal institutions. Such firms perceive formal institutions as overly bureaucratic or operating in favor of elite groups in society (De Soto 2000; Fajnzylber et al., 2011; Williams et al., 2017). These firms will, therefore, perceive successful defiance of formal institutions as a tool for making their case or changing the status quo (Murphy et al., 2009). We, therefore, argue that successful defiance will be the reference point for firms with resistance aspirations. The adoption of this reference point means that formalization provides results that are negatively related and distant to the reference point. Prospect theory holds that firms are risk-neutral toward outcomes that are sufficiently distant from the reference point. Informal firms with resistance aspirations will therefore be non-responsive to the option of formalization. In sum, we argue:

> Proposition 6: *Informal firms with resistance aspiration will be risk-neutral towards the prospect of formalization and will, therefore, be more likely to remain informal.*

DISCUSSION

In building the theory of why informal firms choose to formalize or not, prior research has primarily focused on the quasi-rational cost-benefit calculus of the (dis)incentives of formalization. This focus has however failed to explain why other firms with similar characteristics choose to formalize and perform better under similar regimes of (dis)incentives. This unexplained variance discounts the ability of present

models to explain the formalization decision of informal firms. Evidence of this weakness is present in informal firms' inertia towards formalizing in response to various reforms based on the (dis)incentives on formalization. In this study, we adopted a behavioral approach to firm decision-making to extend the current literature's reach in explaining how formalization of informal firms unfolds. The mechanisms discussed in this paper move the literature on formalization of informal firms from a focus on performance related cost-benefit mechanisms to one that integrates issues of perceived injustice, a culture of informality and the tenets of bounded rational decision-making. In so doing, the paper makes contributions that have implications for our understanding of how the formalization of informal firms unfolds.

First, earlier contributions to management theory (Greve, 1998b, 2003a) have given considerable attention to the role of firm aspirations in shaping firm behavior. The framework presented in this paper suggests that the same mechanism may be relevant to our understanding of how the formalization decision of informal firms unfolds. Second, the typology of informal firm aspirations proposed by this framework implies that different categories of firms adopt different criteria in evaluating the value of formalization. The implication of this is that if firms adopt evaluation criteria different from what is assumed by researchers, then researchers may conclude on mechanisms that deviate from the actual mechanisms that underlie such informal firms' response to formalization. Additionally, insights form the influence of performance aspiration levels and the various forms of aspirations point to the fact that informal firms are more likely to formalize if they are driven by performance-based or growth-oriented aspirations. The implication is that, for the majority of informal firms that operate with subsistence, legacy and resistance aspirations, formalization may not be a useful strategy for achieving their objectives. In essence, formalization of informal firms, like corporate social responsibility, may be a "public good"(Bagnoli & Watts, 2003; Hartmann, 2011; Mcwilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006) that informal firms may only be willing to pursue if relevant stakeholders demand it in return for relevant firm-level benefits. Finally, the performance-growth-aspiration hypothesis for formalization alluded to in the preceding discussion provides an alternative explanation for the findings, that, firms that "look formal" to begin with were more likely to formalize (e.g. Benhassine et al., 2018; Nguyen et al., 2014). The dominant explanation of such finding is that, firms that look formal to begin with are larger and more prone to detection. Our framework, however, suggests that the size of these firms may be an endogenous representation of the human capital and resource endowment of firms with exploitation aspirations. As such, the formalization of such firms may be more related to their desire to exploit the broader market reach, access to risk pooling mechanisms and other advantages that come with formalization rather than the fear of being detected. This assertion is supported by the findings of Williams et al. (2017) that suggest that some growth-oriented firms avoid the cost of firm registration and rather focus their resources on overcoming other liabilities of newness, thus laying a stronger foundation for subsequent growth after formalization.

Some issues remain. Firstly, we recognize that informal institutions are slow to change but not static (Williamson, 2000). As such, informal institutional support for the existence of informal firms may change over time thus affecting the mechanisms proposed in by the framework. The implication of this, however, is that policy efforts that are aimed at catalyzing changes in the informal norms and values that a particular society has in relation to firm formalization may be an effective long-term strategy towards the formalization of informal firms. Such interventions may be most relevant to developing country contexts, like sub-Saharan Africa, where weak institutional environments may deepen the gap between what informal institutions consider as legitimate and what formal institutions consider as legitimate. Secondly, the framework proposes two major mechanisms by which aspirations affect informal firms' response to formalization; a) the influence of aspiration levels, b) the influence of the form of aspiration. This should not be taken to mean that an informal firm may not have both a form and a level of aspiration but that whether a form of aspiration or an aspiration level is salient at the time of decision-making determines the mechanism by which the focal informal firm responds to the prospect of formalization.

CONCLUSION

The prevalence and growth of the informal economy against predictions of demise by leading scholars has led to an increased interest in understanding why firms choose to remain informal in the face of various

legal, productivity and development disadvantages. Studies have focused on the economic (dis)incentives of formal institutions in understanding the formalization decisions of informal firms. Conceptualizing the formalization decision of informal firms as a strategic decision and considering the role of firms' aspirations in shaping informal firms' interpretation and evaluation of formalization opens up important avenues for understanding how formalization decision of informal firms unfold and for management scholars to contribute to building a robust theory of the informal economy.

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CEO PREDECESSOR, CHARACTER SIMILARITY AND FIRM COMPETITIVE ACTIONS

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ABSTRACT

We examine the similarity between CEOs and their predecessor characteristics and their effect on the competitive of Kenyan firms listed in the Nairobi Security Exchange (NSE) markets. We examine the effects of CEOs and predecessor character similarities by collecting data from six middles level managers from 60 firms listed in NSE. We hypothesize that CEOs and predecessor similarities have a significant effect on the firms competitive activities. These results extend previous research by not only highlighting the importance of CEO successor similarity on firms competitiveness and also indicating how each facet of CEO character enhances firms competitiveness directly and indirectly.

Keywords: CEO-Predecessor characteristics, firms competitive actions, Upper Echon Theory

INTRODUCTION

The upper echelons theory (UET) underscore of the importance of the CEOs influence on the firm's performance. CEO direct their organization in active pursuit of opportunities, setting strategic plans, implementing them, and controlling actions to realize them (Herrmann & Nadkarni, 2014). CEOs of organizations are critical factors in its direction and performance. As a result, changes in CEO (successions) evokes a political picture with the continuity or disruption of regimes at stake. Creating fear, hope, anxiety, and winners and losers, among organization members and other stakeholders (Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2009). It is, therefore, no surprise that CEO succession has attracted a tremendous number of scholars. Examining CEO Successor origin (Georgakakis & Ruigrok, 2017), the consequences of succession (Zhao & Ma, 2017), conditions that influences and surround the departure of the predecessor (Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella, 2009), and their effects on who (Liu, Valenti, & Yu, 2012), whether, when, and how succession will take place (Shen & Cannella, 2003) and its significant implications on subsequent firm performance(Shen & Cannella, 2002).

This scholars have further have recognized the human tendency of CEO resembling their successor due to predecessor CEO narcissism (Finkelstein et al., 2009) or inertia due to power configuration, administrative routine and organization culture that exerts a significant force on executive succession (Haveman, Russo, & Meyer, 2003)(Ocasio & Kim, 1999). However, these studies have often used demographic characteristics as proxies for deeper psychological constructs. For instance, (Finkelstein et al., 2009) compare CEO and predecessor demographic similarity in terms of insider verse outsider CEO, age, company tenure, industry tenure similarities, functional truck similarity, line of business experience and education. Though the use of demographic variables captures CEOs predecessor background and expertise similarity, which are relevant to how CEOs make decisions, explaining changes in strategic actions. Empirical evidence support the contention that CEOs' cognitive biases and personality traits influence their field of vision, perception, interpretation of information and situations they face which in turn, affect their strategic choices (Hambrick & Mason, 1984)(Hambrick, 2007)(Wang, Holmes, Oh, & Zhu, 2016). The use of demographic characteristics as substitutions for CEOs' psychological similarities traits Undermines the robustness of theories (Nadkarni & Hermann, 2010) regarding the similarities between CEO and predecessor psychological characteristics and the changes in firm's, strategic actions. Therefore, drawing on UET and Psychological literature, we theorize that personality character similarity between the CEO

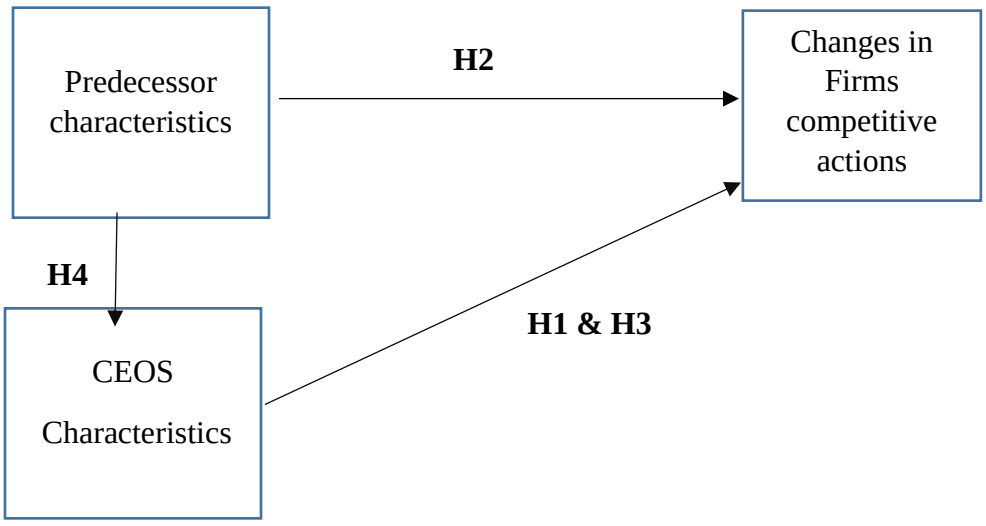
and the predecessor affects, changes in strategic actions. The more similar their personality, the fewer changes in the firm's strategic actions.

Secondly, UET scholars argue that the CEO characteristics influence future firm performance by shaping the strategic actions firms pursue (Hambrick, 2007) (Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella,2009). We extend the literature on UET by arguing that CEOs do not only shape strategic actions, but they also shape the organization competitiveness and day-to-day activities. CEO, redesigning organization competitive positioning in changing environments, identify new trends and opportunities and integrate new ideas and knowledge with the firm's existing capabilities, which is instrumental for success (Kor & Mesko, 2013). We examine the CEO and their predecessor character similarity on the magnitude of changes made on organization competitiveness and ability to adapt in the competitive environment.

While CEO characteristics on firms strategic actions research has been fertile ground in producing insights on executive personality on the firm's performance. (Wang et al., 2016) Analyzing previous studies on CEOs characteristics on firms had concluded that the CEOs age had no impact on the firm competitiveness. These outcomes may not be generalized to Kenya in particular. This is because Kenyan firms survive in an environment characterized are faced by weak institutions they are continually facing increasing competition from cheap imports, resources constraints, regulatory challenges, risk management issues, poor industry policies, industry malpractices, nepotism and lack of capital (Mbalwa, Kombo, Chepkoech, Koech, & Shavulimo, **2014**). Secondly, the power distance between the CEO and the juniors is high in Kenya; yet to a great extent, performance depends on the outcomes of empowerment practice (Oloko & Ogutu, 2012), which may be unfavorable in organization because of the power distance. We, therefore, reason that the impact of CEO characteristics on firms competitive actions will be stronger in Kenyan dynamic environments because uncertainty predisposes top executives to rely more heavily upon their frame of reference (Hu & Bettis, 2014). Hence, it seems logical for the board to consider the Age of the CEO, as older CEO are more likely to easily adapt to these environments (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) and also consider a CEO selected from within the organization to benefit from the paternalism and network of previous CEOS. We also argue that due to the high power distance index between the CEO and their juniors. CEOs agreeableness as a trait is crucial as it enables them to model employees and breaks the barrier between the CEOs and the followers; this may stimulate their learning capability, innovativeness, and competitiveness.

We test our model using data collected from middle-level managers from 60 firms listed in Nairobi Security Exchange (NSE). Our results extend previous research on succession by highlighting the role of CEO predecessor personality similarity on the firm's competitive actions.

Figure 1: Conceptual model



THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Literature review

Organizations are carriers of history; they maintain existing behavior norms and cultural patterns throughout time (David, 1994) often implemented by past organization regimes. Organization characters tend to replicates how things were at the time of the founding, most organization display inert structure that tends to evolve incrementally rather than radically. Scholars have, for a long time purposed to explain organization rigidities and structure, for instance, Hannan and Freeman (1984) established that organization structures are subject to strong inertial forces that inhibit its changes. Others scholars Beckman and Burton (2008) have highlighted cases of persistence and irreversibility in organization strategy and designs and competences by drawing on for instance on awkward routines, groupthink or fixed cognitive maps (Bettis and Prahalad, 1986). UET theory argues that firm strategies reflect the characteristics of its powerful actors, among whom the CEO is prominent (Nadkarni & Hermann, 2010)(Hambrick & Mason, 1984). CEOs' cognitive biases and personality traits influence their field of vision, perception, interpretation of information and situations which in turn, affect their strategic choices (Hambrick & Mason, 1984)(Hambrick, 2007)(Wang, Holmes, Oh, & Zhu, 2016). The experience, values, and personalities of the firm's CEO and the top management team shape their interpretation of the environment which in turn influences strategic choices (Hambrick, 2007), organization performance and employee commitment (Colbert, Barrick, & Bradley, 2014). Therefore, the CEO's characteristics are of serious consequence to the firm. CEOs confront so many stimuli, laden with so much ambiguity, complexity, and contradiction, that their personalities greatly enter into how they distill and process this information. Psychological attributes of CEOs determine how they view strategic situations, how they acquire and disseminate information, the type of information they attend to and which cues they choose to ignore, and how they evaluate and attach meaning to noticed cues (Nadkarni & Hermann, 2010). CEOs ability to respond to job requirements and positively impact organizational outcomes depends, in part, on the degree to which' his or her individual-level characteristics and 'capabilities are appropriate for the situation (Georgakakis & Ruigrok, 2017).

Changes in firms competitive activities

Firm competitiveness is the ability of a firm to sustainably meet customer requirements at a profit by offering on the market goods and services which customers value higher than those offered by competitors at a profit (Chikán, 2008). Competitive action refers to a newly developed market-based move that challenges the status quo of the market process. Status quo, this can be an ordinary routine and patterned competitive behavior (Ferrier, Smith, & Grimm, 1999). Competitive intensity is a composite construct that encompasses three critical elements: competitive propensity (the firm's likelihood to undertake a large number of competitive actions) repertoire complexity (the firm's likelihood to undertake a wide variety of actions) and competitive magnitude,(the firm's likelihood to undertake more strategic (rather than tactical actions). Firms with high competitive intensity launch a large number of actions, those actions are novel and cover a wide range of the competitive spectrum, and the actions are of great magnitude or are more strategic (Offstein & Gnyawali, 2014). New competitive actions include, a new competitive action might include the introduction of a new promotional campaign that disrupts a market by stealing market share from a rival. Or it may be the cultivation of a new upscale market segment that fragments a previous segment, leading customers to switch to the new segment and supplier.

Moreover, it can include a whole series or a simultaneous thrust of new actions implemented in a short time frame to disturb and paralyze a rival (D'Aveni, 1994). Or a manager could carefully time new actions to disrupt the intentions of a challenger. Sequences or patterns of new actions can involve either a single action on the type or different act (Ferrier, Smith, & Grimm, 1999). A firm's competitive repertoire are major functions of an executive's job; moreover, the execution of such actions is critical to organizational functioning and to the achievement of valued firm outcomes such as increasing a firm's market share (Offstein & Gnyawali, 2005). CEOs likely play a critical role in determining and driving the

volume and type of competitive actions that the firm launches (Offstein & Gnyawali, 2005) and also take the responsibility of building the top-level management team (Helmich & Brown, 1972) that runs the firms competitive actions. The CEO decides the nature and scope of the competitive actions which he is willing to accept and the rate at which he believes they are introduced. In essence, We define competitive action as observable move undertaken by a firm. We conceptualize competitive actions as change as the variation over time in a firm's pattern of resource allocation in competitive actions dimensions. Competitive activity is a collection of such actions. Thus, the level of competitive actions variation captures the extent to which a firm's pattern of resource allocation is different from its own experience. Firms that launch high volumes of competitive activities are seen as more competitively aggressive within the market.

HYPOTHESES

CEOs characteristics and experiences influence his competitive actions

Executive backgrounds reflect the firm's strategic outcomes. The heart of the UET is the portrayal of upper echelon characteristics as determinants of strategic choices and, through choices, organizational performance (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). CEOs are often involved in strategic decisions; they discover new opportunities take advantage of organizations competences and pursue opportunities, manage and eliminate threats also examine organization weaknesses identifying and bringing together the relevant bundle of resources that enables them to overcome their weaknesses. In making strategic decisions, CEOs act based on their personalized interpretations of the strategic situations they face. This personalized construal is a function of the experiences, values, and personalities (Hambrick, 2007).

CEO's characteristics are of serious consequence to the firm. CEOs ability to respond to job requirements and positively impact organizational outcomes depends, in part, on the degree to which' his or her individual-level characteristics and 'capabilities are appropriate for the situation (Georgakakis & Ruigrok, 2017). CEOs with more positive self-concept tend to be more confident, hold more optimistic outcome expectancy, and set higher goals (Wang et al., 2016). CEO dominance of extraverted CEOs generates positivity, confidence, and enthusiasm among employees who may boost the adaptive effects and reduce the disruptive effects of implementation by appeasing the anxiety and fears among employees typically generated by strategic change (Herrmann & Nadkarni, 2014). Charisma, openness to experience, and extraverted CEO personality influences firm performance by fostering strategic flexibility (Nadkarni & Hermann, 2010). CEO experience, provide much of the knowledge and values CEOs bring to bear when making judgments and decisions that affect firm strategy (Wang et al., 2016) Career experiences have a significant effect on the actions taken by a manager (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). The longer the length of service within the organization, the greater the specialization; the greater the specialization, the fewer extra organizational alternatives perceived by the inside successor, i.e., the successor recruited from within the organization (Brady, Fulmer, & Helmich, 1982). Therefore, corporate organizations experiencing inside succession in the office of the CEO exhibit less organizational change than firms undergoing outside succession (Helmich & Brown, 1972) CEO characteristics are significantly related to future firm performance (Wang et al., 2016). CEOs, over time, develop habits, establish routine information sources, and rely mostly on experience and may lead to ignoring critical new stimuli that do not fit their fields of vision (Nadkarni & Hermann, 2010)(Hambrick & Mason, 1984). We argue that the CEOs characteristics, CEO personality traits such as locus of control, narcissism and core self-evaluation (Herrmann & Nadkarni, 2014) age, experiences within, and the firm and internationally(Wang et al., 2016) influence firms strategic actions and outcomes determining the changes in the competitive actions.

Hypothesis 1 *CEOs characteristics are positively related to changes in firms competitive actions.*

CEO predecessor character similarity and its effect on changes in firms competitive advantage

The upper echelons theorist (Hambrick & Mason, 1984), organizational behavior theorists (Prasad & Junni, 2017) and dynamic capabilities scholars (Helfat & Peteraf, 2015) puts forward that CEOs characteristics (experience and traits) affects their interpretations of information which shape choices about capability development and fundamentally influence the selection, development, and orchestration of routines and resources towards a particular goal. Different CEO characteristics are echoed to affect CEO decisions in different ways. For instance, extraversion refers to the extent to which a CEO is sociable, assertive, talkative, and active, and individuals high in extraversion tend to prefer social situations in which they can interact with others this is generally considered a valuable trait (Van Hoye & Turban, 2015) they generate confidence and enthusiasm among followers(Bono & Judge, 2004). The directive and dominance of extravert CEOs in strategic decision making combined with their need for excitement and change may allow them to defeat naysayers and proponents of the status quo and create the momentum necessary for initiating strategic change (Herrmann & Nadkarni, 2014). We argue that when a CEO who is ranked as highly extraverted replaces the less extraverted one, we expect a high level of changes in a firm's competitive action and vice versa.

Similarly, we considered the locus of control the extent to which a CEO perceives that the consequences of his behavior stemmed from his efforts and not beyond his control and attributable to chance or fate. CEOs with internal focus are expected to be more task-oriented, function better in stressful situations, be less alienated from their work, and to resort more to persuasion rather than coercive power and favor a more participative work environment and lastly to possess entrepreneurial qualities (Miller & Toulouse, 1986). CEOs that have internal locus are more convinced of their abilities to influence their environments. They are risk-takers and have a tendency to be proactive, to lead rather than follow the competition, in contrast, in firms run by CEO with external locus of control tend to be associated with risk-averse behavior, a sense of helplessness and are likely to follow and imitate rather than lead the way (Miller, Kets de Vries, & Toulouse, 1982). We argue that the firm competitive actions will increases if the predecessor had an external locus of control, and the successor CEO has an internal locus of control. We also reasoned that CEO conscientiousness affects the magnitude of change in a firm's competitive actions. Conscientious individuals need to control their environment. They follow established rules rather than change them, cautious, deliberate, and intolerant of ambiguity (Herrmann & Nadkarni, 2014). We further reason that when a Conscientious CEO replaces a less Conscientious CEO, the level of firms competitive actions will increase. Lastly, CEO agreeableness. Agreeable individuals are altruistic, empathetic, kind, cooperative, trusting, gentle, and modest, also gives rise to passivity, in which leaders avoid conflicts at all costs, act modest, and are more concerned about the welfare of the employees than about accomplishing task goals (Herrmann & Nadkarni, 2014). The power distance index between the CEO and their predecessors in Kenya is high. We reason that a leader's agreeableness reduces the power distance index and increases the employee's creativity and innovativeness, increasing the level of firm's competitiveness; we further argue that when an agreeable predecessor replaces a less agreeable predecessor, the firm's competitive actions will decrease.

Hypothesis 2: *The higher the character similarity between the CEO and the predecessor, the lesser the changes in firms competitive actions.*

Hypothesis 3: *The CEO characteristic mediate the effects of the predecessor CEO characteristics on changes in the firms' competitive action*

CEO Predecessor Character Similarity Among Kenyan Firms

At the beginning of their tenure, the predecessor's assumptions, values, norms, and attitudes provide a model of how an organization should be structured and how its members should behave and react to different circumstances. Creating a consistent way in which different department within an organization deals with the environment. An established dominant logic that serves as an organizational-level, information, and competency filter and guides both managerial and employee actions and initiatives in configuring a firm's resources and competencies (Kor & Mesko, 2013).

Succession is generally seen as a disruptive event that changes the line of communication, realigns relationships of power affects decision making and generally disturbs the equilibrium of normative activities (Hart, 1991). Empirical evidence shows that corporate organizations that are experiencing inside succession in the office of the CEO exhibit less organizational change than firms undergoing outside succession (Helmich & Brown, 1972)(Shen & Cannella, 2002). We reason that this could be mainly because an in-house CEO and predecessor have a common dominant logic shaped by previous experiences, accomplishments, and failures (Kor & Mesko, 2013). Also, because of character experience and similarities between an in-house CEO and their predecessor. According to Similarity attraction theory and job, attraction theory individuals are attracted to organizations whose members are similar to themselves; regarding personalities, values, interests, and other attributes. Likewise, organizations are likely to select employees who possess knowledge, skills, and abilities that are similar to the ones their existing employees have and according to social theory over time those who do not fit in the organization well are more likely to leave (Van Hoye & Turban, 2015). Therefore, the personal characteristics of the predecessor and an in-house CEO are likely to be similar. Secondly, due to predecessors narcissism. As Hambrick, and Cannella, (2009) show in most cases during the succession process the incumbent CEO still have a dominant role in the selection of the successor, specifying both the process and the outcome. They further explain that most CEO have the desire to extend their impact on the organization through a hand further picked a successor. We theorize that people are more attracted to others who are more similar to themselves (Cialdini, 2001)(Van Hoye & Turban, 2015) and they are more comfortable mentoring others who have characteristics similar to themselves (Mcdonald & Westphal, 2013).

Kenya, like many developing countries, faces an unstable and highly bureaucratic business environment, weak institutions (Damdinjav, Garcia, Lawson, Margolis, & Nemeth, 2013) increasing competition from cheap imports, resources constraints, regulatory challenges (Kenya Association of Manufacturers, 2018). The laws governing private enterprise, especially business registration and taxation systems, are overly complex and difficult to understand. Contract and private property laws are often poorly designed or enforced. The unfavorable regulatory environment is coupled with added expenses of corruption and bribery (Adomako & Danso, 2014). The predecessor plays a major role in the selection of the CEO, and firms will choose an inside CEO to benefit from the predecessor managerial, social capital to access resources through relationships and social networks. Even though the CEO retires, they often maintain as board members or chair to the board relationship with their successors, and whenever they confront a knowledge gap they can ask retired colleagues for help, in the same way, they may ask other members of their informal networks (Appelbaum et al., 2012). Even though Retention of the predecessor CEO as board chair will be negatively related to post-succession strategic change(Quigley & Hambric, 2012). In most Kenyan firms, due to the difficult environment which they operate knowledge of the former leader may be the firm's competitive advantage. We, therefore, hypothesis that

Hypothesis 3: *There is a high level of character similarity between the CEO and their predecessor among Kenyan firms*.

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

We collected secondary data from organization websites, organization publications, and biography websites. We collected primary data from the respondents using self-administered questionnaires. We carried out a census of manufacturing firms, and service firms listed in Nairobi security exchange. The total population for the study was 60 middle and large-size service and manufacturing enterprises listed in the Nairobi security exchange. According to Finkelstein *et al.* (2009), large firms have more frequent CEO turnover than small firms due to advanced age at the time of appointment and mandatory retirement provision. These enterprises were chosen based on the fact that CEOs terms for these enterprises five years renewable a maximum of ten years. Hence, most of them had undergone a transition in management in the last ten years to fifteen years. Six middle-level managers (human managers, administration managers, strategic, marketing managers, ICT managers, and operations or their assistant managers) in each firm were used as a unit of observation to give information about CEO and their predecessors. This result in a total of

360 respondents. Those targeted were of great concern to the study because the information required in this study need employees with adequate knowledge and data about the organization strategies and performance. We made prior arrangements on how to get the managers out of their busy schedule to fill the questionnaires. Two trained research assistants were engaged to assist in data collection. The study utilized 360 questionnaires to collect data from 60 service and manufacturing firms listed in NSE (Nairobi Security Exchange). We received three hundred fifteen questionnaires from the respondents. We considered adequate to provide information for analysis and derive conclusions.

The respondent's organizations and respondents were selected using purposive sampling method, since the study was interested in collecting data from respondents who were in the middle-level management and had been in a management position for more than five years in medium or large organizations, and the organization have had leadership transition in the last ten to fifteen years. We issued questionnaires to all middle-level managers, we asked them to indicate the number of years they had been in the organization, and this question was used to determine the respondent's data used the in the study. Middle-level managers were considered to have the information needed for this study. This is because middle management forms the strategic knots that bind the top down and bottom ups models, they also synthesize the tacit knowledge of both frontline employees and top management, make it explicit and incorporate it in to new technologies and product (Nonaka, 1994)(Nonaka, Hirose, & Takeda, 2016). We only considered the questionnaires of the respondents that had been in the organization for more than five years. We rejected eleven questionnaires as the respondents had not been in the organization for less than five years.

Before we collected data, we conducted a pilot test to detect weaknesses in research instrumentation and to provide proxy data for a selection of a probability sample. The rule of thumb is that 1% of the sample should constitute the pilot test (Cooper & Schilder, 2011). Therefore, we tested 18 sample questionnaires on employees from three SMEs. We made a few corrections on the data collection instrument after the pilot test. We used a five-point Likert scale for most questions in the survey except for sections dealing with background information and a few open-ended questions. These choices represent the degree of agreement to the given question. The choices range from Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Neutral (N), Agree (A) and Strongly Agree (SA).

We collected data on CEOs age, gender, education, and experience (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). We also considered the fact that CEOs experience within the organization varies according to the duration of time one has been working in the organization. Hence, we rated this experience using a Likert scale. A rating of one was an indicator that the CEOs did not have prior experience in the organization. Two represented a CEO whose experience in the organization was less than a year. Three indicated a CEO who has experience form 1-5 years; four represented a CEOS whose experience was between 5-10 years, and five indicates the CEOs with more than ten years of experience. We ranked CEOs level of experience using a Likert scale. One represented CEOs that did not have prior international experience. Two was an indicator that the CEOs experience in the organization was less than a year; three was an indicator that the CEOs who had experience form 1-2 years, four for CEOS whose experience was between 2-5 years and five for CEOs with more than five years of experience.

Measures

We intended to establish the effects of leader's succession on the firm's competitiveness and its ability to adapt in the competitive environment in the Kenyan context. To determine this effect (Wang et al., 2016) and (Hambrick, 2007) recommends that one should access the changes in the strategic action. Mirroring these, we measured the effects by assessing the changes in a firm's competitive actions. We focus on two commonly studied dimensions of competitive behavior: aggressiveness or volume of a firm's competitive actions and the variety or range of such actions (Offstein & Gnyawali, 2005). We adopted measures used in (Dess & Davis, 1984) measurement scales but modified, as the respondents were asked to rate the extent they perceive their organization's competitive actions had changed. The scale contains the following items develop high-quality products, increased marketing communication to differentiate ourselves through advertisement, unique value propositions to distinguish ourselves, Trained employees on

how to handle customers, strong brand identity, changes in the product distribution channel, offer competitive prices for our products. The items also included if they have standardized their product, Product quality control, Procurement of raw materials at reasonable prices, charging prices lower than their competitors, production in large quantities and emphasized on cost-cutting measures and buying raw materials at reasonable prices. The other items were also adapted to measure the organization able to adapt to the competitive environment.

The measure for dynamic capabilities involved a questionnaire designed with a focus on sensing capabilities, seizing capabilities, and configuring dynamic capabilities. Based on Teece, (2007) paper that deliberated that dynamic capabilities can be disintegrated into the capacity to sense, seize and shape opportunities and the firm's ability maintain competitiveness through enhancing reconfiguring the business enterprises intangible and tangible assets. These variables include Investment in research activities and market research. Current technology adaptation; Organization knowledge management practices and learning capabilities, being responsive to market trends, identifying market opportunities, recognizing rigidities, Investment in development and commercialization activity; maintaining and investing heavily in particular technologies and designs mostly likely to achieve market place acceptance; early entry into the market. Generating market intelligence, disseminating market intelligence, and responding to market intelligence.

We measured CEOs characteristics, using the following variables previous used in CEOs personality studies(Wang et al., 2016)(Hambrick, 2007)(Hambrick & Mason, 1984) were considered leaders. We considered the following characteristics; Extraverted, Locus of control, CEO contentiousness, CEO agreeableness, and openness to experience. We also considered CEOs experience. We used the following variables to measure CEOs experience; the Age of the CEO, international experience, and CEO experience within the organization these variables are used in (Wang et al., 2016).

RESULTS

We tested our theoretical model using structural equation modeling. We used SPSS and SPSS AMOS (26) software program to analyze the data. We used SPSS AMOS to explain a series of interrelated relationships among several latent constructs and to compute the cause-effect relationship among the variables used in the models. We used Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used explored, to reduce data to a smaller set of summary variables to explore the underlying theoretical structure of the phenomena, the results of exploratory factor analysis are in Table 1.

Table 1: Factor Analysis

Construct	Variable (number of items)	Minimum Factor loading	Cronbach alpha
Competitive Actions	Cost cutting activities (2)	0.735	0.793
	Marketing activities (3)	0.809	0.758
	Sensing capabilities (3)	0.782	0.709
	Organization learning (4)	0.668	0.719
CEO characteristics	CEO Extraversion (3)	0.775	0.709
	CEO Openness to experience (2)	0.880	0.710
	CEO Conscientiousness (4)	0.711	0.718
Predecessor characteristics	Predecessor Conscientiousness (2)	0.876	0.734
	Predecessor agreeable (2)	0.767	0.672
	predecessor extraverted (2)	0.882	0.734

However, the variance of the following variable could only be explained by one major item; CEO Agreeableness, CEO Locus of control, Predecessor openness to experience, and Predecessor locus of control. The other variables had low factor loading less than 0.2, and hence we ignored them.

Measurement validity and reliability

We used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine how well the measured variables represent the number of constructs. We assessed construct validity via measurement of convergent validity and discriminant validity. As is shown in Table 2, however, the average variance extracted (AVE) values for Competitive Actions and CEO predecessor characteristics are slightly below the 0.5 thresholds.

Table 2: Discriminant and Construct Validity

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	CEO	Predecessor	Competitive Actions
CEO Characteristics	0.830	0.514	0.092	0.939	**0.717**		
Predecessor Characteristics	0.824	0.491	0.091	0.865	0.301	**0.701**	
Competitive Actions	0.759	0.461	0.092	0.859	0.303	0.175	**0.679**

Descriptive statistics and inferential analysis

Table 3: Demographic characteristics and CEO experience

Age		**Gender**		**Recruitment source**		**Functional truck**		**International experience**	
Below 30	0%	**Male**	85%	**In-house**	78%	**Throughput Function**	73%	**International experience**	33%
30-40	6.7%								
40-50	25%	**female**	15%	**Outhouse**	22%	**Output function**	27%	**Without international experience**	67%
50-60	62%								
60-above	6.7%								

CEO demographic characteristics collected through secondary data shows that 6.7% of the CEOs in companies listed in NSE are between the ages of 30-40; 25% are between the age of 40-50, 62% are between 50-60 and 6.7% are above 60 years. Gender characteristics show that 85% of these CEO are male, while 15% are female. It is also important to note that 78% of these CEOs are recruited from within the organization, while 22% are recruited from outside.73 percentage of these CEO functional areas are in throughput degrees with the majority of whom are in accountancy professionals only 27% of the CEOs are in output functional area. It is interesting to note that only 33% of the Kenyan CEOs have international experience, while 67% of these CEO has no international experience. Table 4 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations indices of the study variables.

Model fit analysis

We examined the causal linkages between the variables through regression analysis. We used SEM to test our hypothesis. Before the hypothesis test, we analyzed the fitness of the models used in our analysis. The analysis presented in Table 5 shows the first model is a poor fit model. Figure 2 and 3 shows the structural model. The study employed structural equation modeling to examine four of the hypotheses in this study (H1, H2, H3, H4).

Table 5: Model fit indices

	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI	Chi-square
MODEL 1	0.107	0.850	0.788	0.861	331.217 Df = 74
MODEL 2	0.080	0.918	0.878	0.841	155.426 Df = 53
RECOMMENDED VALUES	0.080	0.90	0.90	0.90	

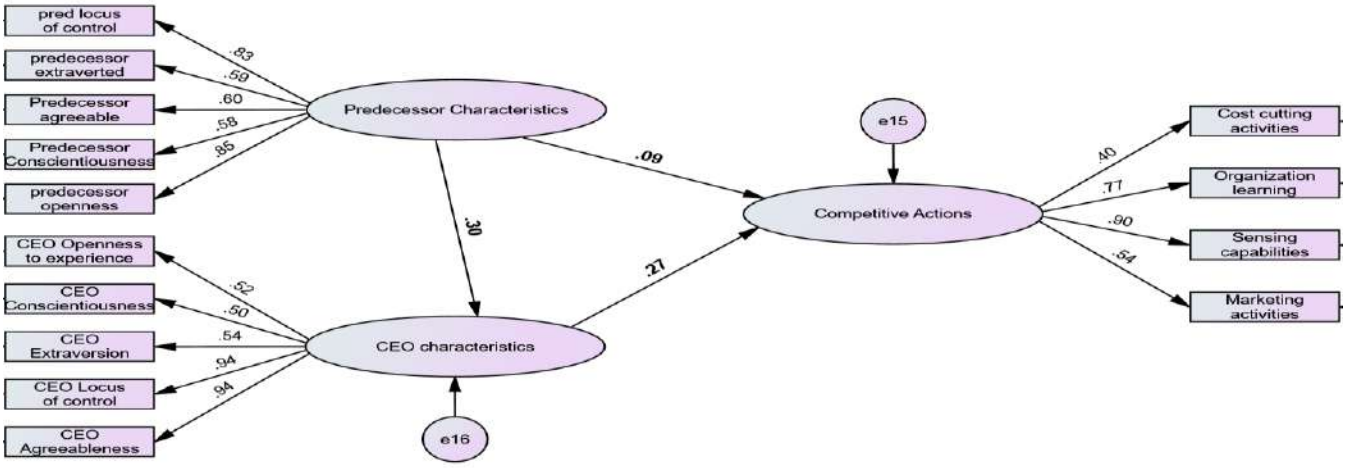


Figure 2 standardized structural coefficient for hypothesized model 1

First, we examine the relationship between CEOs, characteristics, and the changes in firms competitive actions. This relationship was positive and significant (β = 0.275, P-value = 0.001); this hypothesis was not supported. Secondly, we examined the relationship between CEO characteristics and predecessor characteristics the findings as represented in Figure 2 shows there is a substantial similarity between the CEO and the predecessor characteristics (β = 0.30, P-value = 0.000), so the data supported the two hypotheses. Finally, we examined the direct effects of predecessor characteristics and firms competitive action. The data did not support this relationship (β =0.09 P- value=0.180); the direct relationship is insignificant. We further examined the indirect effects of CEO predecessor characteristics on organization competitive action. The results were as follows predecessor characteristics on competitive actions (β =0.09 P- value=0.01); on marketing activities (β =0. 094 P- value=0.047), on cost-cutting measures (β =0. 070, P-value =0.047); sensing capabilities (β =0. 157 P- value=0.047); on learning activities (β =0.134, P-value=0.047). It is important to note that the standardized indirect (mediated) effect of predecessor characteristics on competitive Actions and the specific competitive actions are significantly different from zero at the 0.01 level (p=0.010 two-tailed) even though the direct effects are insignificant.

Table 4: Descriptive and Inferential Statistics

		Mean	STD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	Age	3.95	0.65	1																
2	years of experience in the organization	3.4	1.12	0.27**	1															
3	International experience	3.2	1.14	0.16**	0.14**	1														
4	CEO Agreeableness	3.97	0.33	-0.01	0.12*	-0.06	1													
5	CEO Locus of control	3.96	0.35	0.01	0.14*	-0.09	0.88**	1												
6	CEO Extraversion	3.98	0.44	-0.02	0.16**	-0.07	0.47**	0.49**	1											
7	CEO Conscientiousness	3.93	0.43	0.05	0.16**	0.07	0.42**	0.46**	0.50**	1										
8	CEO Openness to experience	3.99	0.41	-0.01	0.14*	-0.09	0.48**	0.45**	0.45**	0.43**	1									
9	predecessor openness to Experience	4.00	0.29	-0.07	0.07	0.10	0.17**	0.19**	0.24**	0.15**	0.20**	1								
10	Predecessor locus of control	4.02	0.27	-0.05	0.07	0.05	0.19**	0.18**	0.22**	0.16**	0.19**	0.76**	1							
11	predecessor extraverted	4.05	0.28	0.07	0.14*	0.02	0.23**	0.20**	0.29**	0.17**	0.12*	0.43**	0.42**	1						
12	Predecessor agreeable	3.98	0.31	0.04	0.06	0.02	0.22**	0.26**	0.25**	0.24**	0.20**	0.46**	0.45**	0.54**	1					
13	Predecessor Conscientiousness	3.98	0.29	0.05	0.11	-0.05	0.26**	0.26**	0.25**	0.17**	0.15**	0.44**	0.43**	0.56**	0.44**	1				
14	Marketing activities	3.80	0.45	-0.14*	0.02	-0.14*	0.16**	0.20**	0.32**	0.22**	0.31**	0.17**	0.16**	0.06	0.07	0.19**	1			
15	Sensing capabilities	3.79	0.43	-0.11*	0.03	-0.03	0.21**	0.20**	0.30**	0.28**	0.32**	0.13*	0.12*	-0.03	0.06	0.12*	0.48**	1		
16	Organization learning	3.79	0.42	0.16**	0.01	-0.06	0.22**	.197**	.319**	0.34**	.278**	0.062	0.08	0.02	0.02	0.11	0.39**	0.69**	1	
17	Cost cutting activities	3.61	0.47	0.02	0.04	-0.07	0.17**	.197**	.274**	0.20**	.250**	0.25**	0.24**	0.14*	0.17**	0.28**	0.36**	0.35**	0.25**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

We further examined the CEO relationship on organization performance in the second model. This model integrated both personality traits and prior experience. We presented the findings in model two in Figure 3.

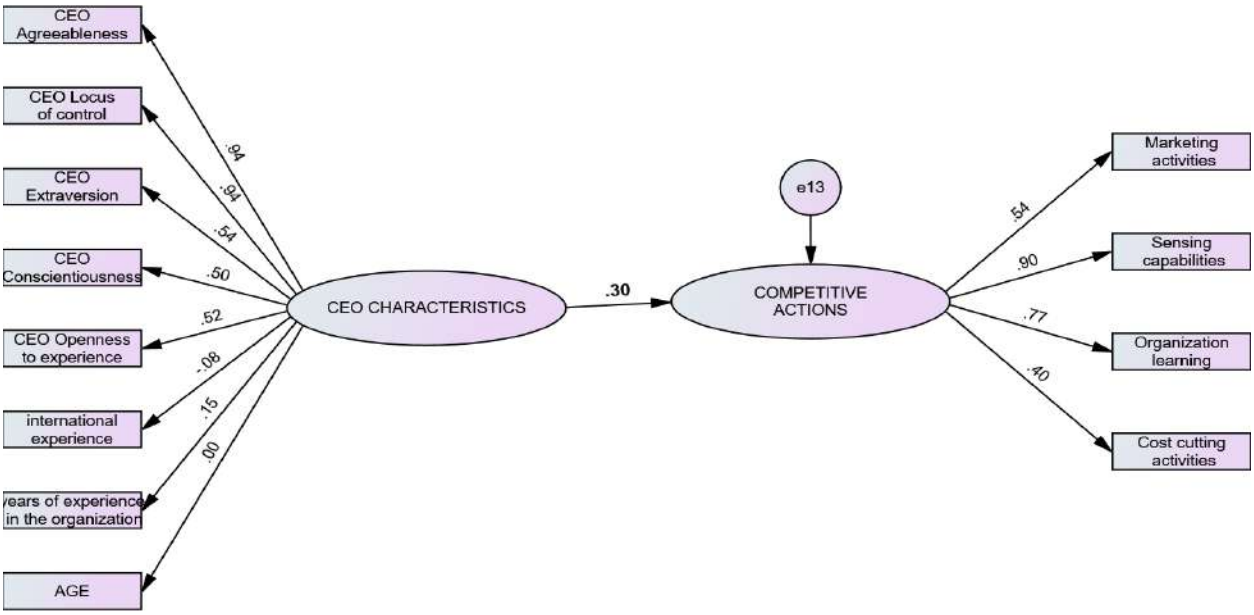


Figure 3 standardized structural coefficient for the hypothesized model

The fourth hypothesis shows the relationship between CEO characteristics and firms competitive actions, is supported. This relationship was positive significant and supported by the data. (B=-0.30, P-value=0.026). However, the structured model also tested the following relationships, specific personality traits, and experience of the CEO on the firm's competitive actions. It is important to note that the data did not support the two-variable CEOs age and international experience; hence, their contribution to firms to firms competitive actions was insignificant. However, the other variables related to CEO self-concept and personal traits and the duration of time the CEO has been in the organization were positive and significant.

DISCUSSION

Our study yielded the following significant results. CEO characteristics influenced the firm's competitive actions and their ability to adapt to the external environment. Secondly, there is a strong significant relationship between the CEO characteristics and their predecessor characteristics among Kenyan firms. Though the predecessor characteristics have no direct effect on the firm competitive action. There is a significant indirect effect of the predecessor characteristics on the firm's competitive action. We also established that the predecessor characteristics had a significant effect on various competitive actions marketing activities, sensing dynamic capabilities, learning activities, and cost-cutting activities.

The previous study had examined the effect of succession at a corporate level. However, it was essential to relook at the effects of CEO s similarities to the predecessor at a competitive level; this is because the CEOs oversees all strategies at different levels. However, contrary to our expectations, the findings concurred with previous (Wang et al., 2016) findings which indicated that CEOs age had an insignificant effect on the firms competitive action in the Kenyan context. The second findings that contradicted our expectations were the effect of CEOs international experience on firm competitiveness; these findings indicated that the CEO's international experience was insignificant to firms performance in

the Kenyan context. It was also important to note that choosing a CEO from within the organization had a positive effect among Kenyan firm significant influence.

Implications

Our results contribute to UET and CEO psychology theories in several ways. Though previous studies (Nadkarni & Hermann, 2010)(Wang et al., 2016) have paid adequate attention to the CEO personality and changes in firms strategic action as a measure of performance these studies have no focuses on changes at a strategic level. However, CEOs oversees the day to day activities of all the TMT teams and determines the operational, and competitive activities of the firm. We assessed CEO characteristics and their effect on firms competitive actions. In this context, our study extends upper echelons research by suggesting how the personality attributes of CEOs influence firms competitive actions; the findings show that CEO characteristics; locus of control, extraversion, Conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeable, have a positive effect on firm competitiveness. Previous studies (Nadkarni & Hermann, 2010) had hypothesized CEO agreeableness to have a negative effect on firms performance. We defined agreeableness personality trait in its extreme that is looking and behaving the same as others, being obedience to their norms, conforming to or accepting of their ideas. Emotionally, it shows up as politeness even if dishonest. Considering the power distance between the CEO and the juniors in Kenya, we found out that this trait has a positive influence on firms competitive advantage. This finding is in congruence with social identity theory if the CEO identify with the employees are likely to accept the CEO see him as one with them hence are open to making contributions critical to is competitiveness to the organization.

Secondly, we examined the character similarity between the CEOs and their predecessor. Succession literature had examined demographic variables (similarity in tenure, age similarity, experience within the organization, and throughput and output experience). Based on the empirical review, we argue that CEOs, demographic variables may not be appropriate proxies for personality variables (Nadkarni & Hermann, 2010). Hence we extend UET literature by examining character similarity between the CEO and the predecessor and establishing the influence of these changes on firms competitive actions. Our finding shows there was a significant similarity between the CEO and their predecessor, possibly due to predecessor narcissism or organization inertia. We further examined the effect of the predecessor characteristics on firms competitive action. Using the current CEO Characteristics as a mediator between the Predecessor characteristics and changes in firms competitive actions. Our results suggest that the influence of predecessor personality trait on firms competitive actions depends on the similarity between CEOs traits and Predecessor traits. If their traits are similar, then the changes in firm's competitive actions will be less.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The study was limited to 60 Kenyan firms listed in the Nairobi security exchange. Hence the findings may be different if applied to SMEs or medium-sized firms. Alternatively, if we increase the population of the study, the result might also vary. Though we mention the importance of former CEOS networks and knowledge on the current CEOs characteristics, the study did not examine these variables. These findings provide a basis for further research by looking into the indirect effects of the CEOs on the TMT teams actions. Such as design of marketing activities, pricing, cost-cutting measures, and organization learning activities. To what extent do changes and similarity in the CEOs activities influence these managers decisions. Scholars can look at the effect of similarity/ difference between CEO and predecessor traits and their influence on TMT teams their attention focus, board behavior change, and changes in their strategic decisions made.

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Part 4
Social Issues in Management

FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT INFLOWS AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: EVIDENCE FROM NIGERIA AND GHANA

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper is to determine the role of FDI inflows in enhancing sustainable development in the economy of Nigeria and Ghana. It adopts the multiple regression analysis with Ordinary Least Square (OLS) econometric technique on a time series secondary data from 2000 to 2018 obtained from WDI. Preliminary finding implies that Ghana performs better than Nigeria on social sustainability, which is measured in terms of education and healthcare indicators. However, on environmental and economic sustainability, Nigeria fares better than Ghana. These pre-estimation findings require further empirical inquiry.
Keywords: Foreign direct investment (FDI), Sustainable development, Ordinary Least Square (OLS)

INTRODUCTION

Demographically, Nigeria and Ghana represent the two most important Anglo-phone countries in the west-African sub-region, and they have been the leading economic powerhouses in that bloc. Although the two countries have many common features, their economic performances and developmental strides seem to have differed to a considerable extent in recent years. However, in the long-run perspective, both countries have significantly benefitted from the inflow of FDI into their respective economies.

Foreign investment inflow, especially foreign direct investment (FDI) is perceived to have a positive impact on the economic growth and overall development of a recipient country through diverse direct and indirect channels. It complements local investment portfolio, which is essential in the attainment of sustainable growth and development. Therefore, most developing countries, Nigeria and Ghana included, have offered generous incentives to attract FDI inflows and, also, undertaken macroeconomic reforms, often under pressure from Bretton-Woods Institutions, also geared towards achieving the same objective of creating an investor-friendly environment. Some multinational firms have seized the opportunity from such attractive incentives to satisfy their various motives. This is achieved through stable monopolistic control over sources of raw materials for their parent companies, access to control of local markets, utilizing low-cost labour and realizing the possibility of higher returns. Until the earlier parts of the 2000s, Nigeria and Ghana received significantly low

proportions of the world's FDI inflows, even though they are blessed with abundant human and natural resources. This is perhaps because investors perceived both economies as high-risk markets for investment.

Nigeria and Ghana in particular as well as Sub-Saharan Africa in general as a region now largely depend on FDI because it is seen as a critical stimulant to the economic growth in developing countries and its perceived capability of dealing with significant challenges such as a shortfall in savings and investment, technology and skill. The choice of FDI as economic stimulant stems from its acknowledged advantages (Ayanwale, 2007). The attempt by several African countries to improve their business climate stems from the desire to attract FDI. One of the objectives on which the New Partnership for Africa's Development was launched to raise available capital to US$64billion through strings of integrated reforms, r mobilization of resources and creation of investment friendly environment for FDI (Nsouli and Funke, 2003; Adams, 2009). Inauspiciously, the attempt by most sub-Saharan countries to attract significant FDI inflows has been generally unfruitful. The development is worrisome. Therefore, it negates every hope of achieving meaningful, sustainable growth and development in these nations. More so, the style of the FDI that exists is usually skewed towards the extractive industries, which implies that a higher proportion of FDI inflow into countries within the sub-Saharan African region has been attributed to natural resources, although the size of the local market may also be a consideration.

In the case of Nigeria, the large size of her market and natural resource base qualifies her as a primary recipient of FDI inflow in Africa and indeed is among the top three leading African nations that regularly received FDI inflow in the past few decades. However, the volume of FDI attracted into the Nigerian economy can best be described as mediocre compared with the abundant resource base of the country and potential needs. Further, the empirical connectivity between FDI and sustainable growth and development in Nigeria and Ghana remains unclear, in spite of numerous studies that have examined the influence of FDI with varying outcomes (Akinlo, 2004 and Ayanwale, 2007). Majority of the previous analysis on FDI and growth in sub-Saharan Africa are based on multi-country studies. However, recent findings affirm that the relationship between FDI and growth may be country and period specific. Asiedu and Lien (2011) submits that the determinants of FDI in one country or region may not be the same in other countries and regions.

Nigeria is a monoculture economy, depending on the oil sector, while Ghana depends on primary products in form of basic raw materials without adding value. These factors have been viewed to be responsible for the deficiency in investment capital in both countries. Amadi, Abbey and Nma (1996) opines that "With oil as the main source of foreign exchange in Nigeria, such a monoculture economy must constantly be deficient in terms of investment capital. Therefore, expected revenue from it must be subject to severe fluctuations". The above condition in the country has created a gap between savings and foreign exchange. This result is a vast difference between the real domestic investment fund and the investment capital required to stimulate sustainable growth and development in the economy. Consequently, for countries, like Nigeria and Ghana, who are struggling with issues of investment gap to achieve the desired rate of sustainable growth and development, FDI has to be given adequate attention. This is because FDI provides funds from other parts of the globe to bridge the investment gap.

Statement of Research Problem

The African economies rely on FDI inflows from the developed countries for the attainment of the much desired sustainable growth and development in the region. Though the region has recorded some impressive growth in recent times, its ability to sustain it calls for concern. This is based on the fact that one of the growth enhancing factors in the region has unfortunately slumped since 2015. Available statistical evidence (WDI, 2019) reveal that much of the countries in the region have been unable to attract adequate FDI in recent years. For instance, in 2000 Nigeria attracted US$1,140,138

FDI inflow while Ghana welcomed FDI worth of US$ 165, 900. Half a decade later, FDI inflow to Nigeria increased to US$ 4,982,534 while that of Ghana declined to US$ 144, 970. FDI inflow continued to expand into Nigeria up to 2010 when it reached US$ 6,026,232 and Ghana's case was US$2,527,350. Due to political and social challenges like insecurity and pre-electoral uncertainties, FDI inflows into Nigeria plummeted by over 50% to US$3,128,592 while that of Ghana marginally increased to US$3,192,321.

Despite the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) initiative by the African Union in 2001 to pursue new priorities and approaches to the socio-economic and political transformation of Africa for sustainable development in the region through foreign investment, the impact of the initiative has left more to be desired, which apart from being disturbing presently, it does not raise the possibility for economic development and growth in the near future.

The falling FDI inflows to the region can be linked to the low GDP, literacy rate, declining life expectancy and issues of environmental sustainability. Thus, in spite of the enormous publicity of several theories linking foreign direct investment to economic growth and development, existing evidence reveals that FDI inflows have not significantly translated to growth in emerging nations of which Africa belongs (Makwembere, 2014). Without doubt, this is a cause for concern for policymakers in government in most developing countries where annual FDI inflows have fallen substantially in the past years.

Research Questions, Objectives and Hypothesis

In the course of this paper, we intend to provide useful answers to these two pertinent questions. Is there a long-run relationship between FDI and sustainable development in Nigeria and Ghana? Does Foreign Direct Investment enhance sustainable development in Nigeria and Ghana? The findings from this paper will throw more light into the nature of the relationship between foreign direct investments and sustainable development in Nigeria and Ghana. Also, the objective of this paper is to determine the role of FDI inflows in enhancing sustainable development in the economy of Nigeria and Ghana.

Given the above, this paper specifically investigated the impact of FDI on sustainable development in both countries. It is essential to know if lagged values of foreign direct investment influence sustainable development positively or negatively in both economies. This paper tests the following hypothesis.

H0: FDI has no impact on sustainable development in Nigeria and Ghana. If our test results permit us to reject this hypothesis, it would mean that the variables are indeed co-integrated and FDI has positive impact on sustainable development between both nations. Apart from this, we shall be testing other minor hypotheses relating to unit root and serial correlation.

Research Gap and Justification

Several inquiries have been conducted to examine the relationship between FDI and economic growth in various countries, for instance, scholars such as Choi, and Baek, (2017) carried out inquiry which was titled, Does FDI really matter to economic growth in India.While Koojaroenprasit (2012) explored the impact of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) on economic growth in South Korea for the period 1980 to 2009. In the same vein, Insah and Ofori-Boateng,(2012) examined foreign direct investment inflows and economic growth in Ghana for the study period, which spanned 1980 to 2010. However, as far as we know, no studies have been carried out to succinctly examine the impact of FDI on sustainable development stemming from empirical evidence from developing countries like Nigeria and Ghana.

Review of Related Literature

Conceptual Review

Over the years, the concept of foreign direct investment has been given numerous definitions by different institutions and academic scholars, but the underlying meaning remains unchanged. The US Commerce Department defines FDI to comprise all 'foreign business enterprises in which a U.S citizen, organization or affiliated group possesses or have an ownership interest of ten (10) per cent or more'. The United Nations defines foreign direct investment as 'investment in an enterprise or business located in one country or region and effectively being managed or controlled by residents of another country or region'. This definition does not only view FDI as being a small investment, but it also emphasizes on the nature of corporate control. According to Denisia, V. (2010); the World Bank (1996) considers FDI as 'investment made to acquire a lasting management interest (normally ten per cent of the voting stock) in a business organisation being operated in a country rather than that of the investor as indicated by residency'. Consistent with the view above, the United Nations Conference on Trade Agreement and Development (UNCTAD) defines FDI as 'an investment concerning management control of a resident entity in one economy by an enterprise resident in another country'. As further classified by Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 1992), FDI is defined as a situation whereby a single investor controls less than 10% per cent or more of the ordinary or voting power to have an active voice in the management of the business organization. Todaro and Smith (2009) refer to FDI as 'a corporation or enterprise that operate and controls productive ventures in one country or more'. In affirming this position, Ojeaga, George, Matthew and Adekola, (2017) describes FDI as 'international capital flows in which an organisation in one country expands or creates a subsidiary in another'. Also, in his own opinion, Ankrah (2016) refers FDI as 'investment in business enterprises of another country, which usually takes the form of setting up domestic production facilities or the acquisition of businesses already in existence.

The leading driver behind foreign direct investments, especially in developing countries, is multinational corporations (MNCs). MNCs are enterprises whose headquarters are mostly located in developed countries and also operate in other countries, both advanced and emerging economies with net sales of $100million to several millions of dollars. FDI is the distinguishing feature of MNC; therefore, a theory of FDI is also a theory of multinational enterprise as a critical stakeholder in the world economy. Based on this proposition, FDI is not merely an international transfer of capital but also the expansion of an enterprise from its home country into a foreign-host country.

Generally, capital is assumed to flow into economies where profit maximization potential on businesses and investments are relatively higher. Foreign capital inflow in an economy occurs typically in the form of direct investment or portfolio investment. The foreign direct investment could be viewed as investments in real assets such as lands and buildings in a foreign corporation to make profits from the business. It could also take place in the form of acquiring at least 10% equity capital of a local firm. Traditionally, FDI in Nigeria has been channeled to the oil and gas as well as the manufacturing sub-sector (Ademola, Olusuyi, Ibiyemi and Babatunde 2013).

Omankhanlen (2011) opines that FDI is an investment made by an investor or enterprises in another enterprise or equivalent in voting power or other means of control in another country to manage the investment to maximize profit. In brief, FDI serves as an essential engine for growth in emerging economies through two channels of activities: expanding capital stocks in the local economy and creating employment opportunities, bringing innovation, improving managerial skills, and technology. Several frameworks have evolved to analyze the drivers and impact of FDI. Macaulay (2011) and Adeolu (2007), citing World Bank report (2006), postulated that FDI is an investment aimed at acquiring a lasting management stake in a business enterprise or organisation operating in a country other than that of the investor. The gains derived from FDI do not accrue automatically and equally across economies, industries, sectors and local communities. National policies and the foreign investment architecture matter for attracting FDI to a more significant number of emerging markets and for reaping the full benefits of FDI for development. The host countries or economies need to address the issues relating to the establishment of broad, transparent

and effective enabling policy environment for investment to thrive as well as building institutional capacities to implement such plans (Pfister, 2009). Feldstein (2002) argues that several benefits accrue to developing economies through the inflows of FDI. They include the transfer of technology through FDI, mostly through new varieties of capital inputs, which cannot be attained through financial investment or trade in goods and services.

In addition to technology transfer, FDI promotes healthy rivalry in the host country input market. Recipient of FDI usually obtains employee training while operating new businesses, which directly contributes to the development of human capital in the host country. The Profits generated by FDI forms part of the corporate tax revenues generated in the host country. Stemming from either the connotation or justification for FDI as seen from the preceding, there is little or no argument that FDI will augment the existing gap in real resources and contribute positively to the economic performance of recipient nations like Nigeria and Ghana.

Empirical Review

There is growing literature on the relationship between FDI and economic growth in cross countries and country-specific with varying submissions and conclusions. For examples, Li and Liu (2005) use the panel data of 84 countries to investigate the effect of FDI on economic growth. Their study found a significant relationship between FDI and economic growth. Additionally, a stronger correlation was extracted when FDI interacts with human capital.The reason is as a result of stronger human capital poses better absorptive capacities due to the complementary nature of the FDI and human capital, most importantly, for the developing countries.

On the other hand, Marwah and Tavakoli (2004) examined the effect of FDI and imports on economic growth in four ASEAN countries. The elasticity of the estimated production function of FDI was found to be significant in explaining the economic growth of all the four countries. PK, Ezeagba and Udeh, (2015) examined the contribution of FDI to economic growth in Africa using annual series by applying time series analysis from 1970 to 2003. He found that FDI contributes positively to economic growth in most of the countries, but it is not statistically significant. Saqib, Masnoonand and Rafique (2013) reported that Pakistan's economic performance is negatively affected by foreign investment while its domestic investment has a robust positive impact on economic growth. Sukar, Ahmed and Hassan (2007) examine the effect of foreign direct investment on economic growth in Sub-Sahara African countries. Estimating the augmented endogenous growth model using panel data for the period 1975-1999, the findings indicated that foreign direct investment has a marginally significant positive effect on economic growth. Alfaro (2015) examine Foreign Direct Investment and Growth with particular reference on the impact of the Sector. The study shows that the benefits of FDI differ significantly across sectors by analyzing the impact of foreign direct investment on growth in the primary, manufacturing, and services sectors. The empirical analysis using cross-country data for the period 1981-1999 reported that total FDI exerts an ambiguous effect on growth. Foreign direct investments in the primary sector; however, tend to hurt growth, while investment in manufacturing has a positive impact. However, evidence from the service sector shows an ambiguous effect.

Koojaroenprasit (2012) examined the impact of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) on economic growth in South Korea for the period 1980 to 2009. Using macroeconomic annual time series data and multiple regressions, the study finds that there is a strong and positive impact of FDI on South Korean economic growth while domestic investment has no significant impact on South Korean economic growth. Ahmad, Hayat, Luqman and Ullah (2012) investigate the relationship between foreign direct investment and economic growth in Pakistan. Employing a co-integration and error correction model, the results show that there is a positive relationship between foreign direct investment and gross domestic product in short as well as long run. They noted that if the government

wants to make economic progress, then there is a need to invite foreign investors because foreign direct investment increases economic growth.

Niazi (2011) also reveals that there is a positive causal relationship between foreign direct investment and economic growth in Pakistan. Their findings support the dependency theory that FDI hurts the host country economic growth. Lamine and Yang (2010) evaluate the contribution of Foreign Direct Investment on Guinea Republic's Economic growth. The Granger Causality Test is used to study the relationship between FDI and Economic Growth proxy by GDP.

They found that the level of FDI is still low to promote economic growth for the country. The Granger Causality Test demonstrated that the GDP could boost the volume of foreign direct investment, which means that if the level of GDP increases in Guinea FDI will also increase. They recommended that policies that will encourage the inflow of foreign capital should be induced by creating a well-functioning investment climate.

Ray (2013) analysed the causal relationship between Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and economic growth in India for the period, 1990 to2011. The empirical analysis based on ordinary Least Square Method suggests that there is a positive relationship between foreign direct investment (FDI) and economic growth proxy by GDP. He asserted that for FDI to be a noteworthy provider to economic growth, India would do better by focusing on improving infrastructure, human resources, developing local entrepreneurship, creating a stable macroeconomic framework and conditions favorable for productive investments to augment the process of development.

Theoretical review

The theoretical foundation of this paper is based on Dunning's Eclectic paradigm to FDI and the extended version of the Harrod-Domar two gaps model.

Eclectic Paradigm to FDI

In the late 1970s, Dunning developed one of the most comprehensive and robust theories of FDI. In his path breaking work, Dunning (1977 and 1979 integrated the imperfect market-based approach, the oligopolistic with the internalization theories and included a third dimension in the form of location theory to illustrate the reasons behind firms decisions to establish international subsidiaries. Location theory provides answers to pertinent questions of who produces what goods or services in which locations, and why? Location theory has been used frequently by researchers in an attempt to understand the determining factors that influence the decisions of MNCs. Some of the listed factors are economic profile, host country policies and programmes, MNC strategy, as well as agglomeration economies. Based on the above, Dunning (1993) put forward his theory which came to be known as the eclectic paradigm or OLI paradigm.

Dunning postulated that a firm would embark on FDI if three conditions were met:

The firm should have ownership advantages in comparison to other firms (O);

(ii)It is more gainful to internalize these advantages instead of using the market to transfer such to foreign firms (I);

(iii)There are some location advantages in using a firm's ownership advantages in a foreign locale (L).

Ownership advantages are those which are peculiar to a firm. These advantages, which are usually enjoyed over local and international competitors, appear in terms of tangible and intangible

assets. These ownership advantages bring about a significant decrease in the firm's cost of production and allow it to compete favourably against rival firms from foreign countries. Location advantages of different countries play a vital role in ascertaining which country will play host to the operations of multinational corporations. As identified above, a firm enjoys more benefits from fending-off market imperfections such as problems of control, uncertainty and lack of willingness to give symmetric information to potential customers. The gains of internalization make it more profitable to carry out transactions within the firm than to depend on external markets. The essential feature in the OLI theory means that the three types of conditions must be fulfilled if FDI must occur. Dunning (1980) noted that the "OLI triad of variables determining FDI and MNCs activities might be described as a proverbial three-legged stool; where each leg is deemed to be equally important to one another such that the stool is only functional if the three legs are evenly balanced". The implication of this is that if a firm has ownership advantage, and where there are internationalization benefits, but no location advantage is incurred by establishing a unit in a foreign country, will most likely prefer to raise its volume of production at home and export its product(s) to foreign markets.

In the same vein, a firm that has ownership and location advantages will generate more profit by producing abroad than to produce locally export its product(s); although, if there are lack gains from internalization, then the firm will be better off licensing its ownership advantage to foreign firms. The significant contribution by Dunning's eclectic paradigm to the existing literature on FDI was to amalgamate different complementary theories and identify a set of factors that determine the activities of MNCs. For this reason, his theory gained fuller acceptance than others.

THE TWO GAPS MODEL (Harrod-Domar Theory)

Sir Fredrick Harrods (1948) and Evsey Domar (1957) attributed economic growth to total national savings, capital efficiency (MEC) and depreciation in capital stock.

In their earlier analysis, the model for growth was limited to the closed economy.

Thus: $Yg = f(s,k, \delta)$

$Yg = \beta (s)- \delta$

In the review of this theory, the early model of Harrod and Domar was built on the assumption of exogenous of variables under consideration. Furthermore, technical progress was neglected as a key determinant of growth and finally, the assumption of fixed factor intensity, which does not allow factor substitution, is unrealistic.

In a revised work by the authors, the model was extended to the external sector where foreign capital inflow plays an amplifying role in achieving economic growth. This version of H-D model proves relevant to less developed countries (LDCs) like Nigeria, which lack the required savings capacity to command the minimum necessary investment for growth. But, the extension of the scope to the external sector opens up opportunities for LDCs to obtain funds from the international market for domestic investments to attain the desired growth rate.

The model of H-D with international sector consideration is:

$Yg = \beta (s+f)- \delta$

Where β…..MEC

s…..savings

f…….foreign capital inflow ((f/y))

δ…….depreciation.

An overview of Sustainable Development in Nigeria and Ghana

Lele (1991) defined sustainable development as "a new way of life and approach to social and economic activities for all segments of societies, rich and poor which is consistent with the preservation of the Environment". Sustainable Development, in his opinion, could be referred to as efficient management of resources for the survival of mankind, taking into consideration both the present and future generation. Notably, some factors could be identified as obstacles to achieving sustainable development in developing countries like Nigeria and Ghana.

•The priorities of governments and individuals are usually short term due to lack of continuity in public policies and programmes e.g. meeting the basic needs of the population today. For instance, food, providing shelter, potable water, education and healthcare. Many developing countries like Nigeria and Ghana are experiencing internal conflict/natural disasters, and resources are utilized on the military/disaster relief rather than on these basic needs and longer-term sustainable initiatives;

•Corruption makes it difficult to priorities long-term issues. Many leaders are in office for short periods and are often changing;

•Lack of qualified personnel to develop and implement alternative technologies due to a weak educational system and the "brain drain";

•Lack of education about finite resources. Majority of People do not know or understand the implications of overuse of resources.

METHOD

This section is concerned with the method adopted by the researcher in gathering data and making analysis for this paper. This is aimed at determining the long-run relationship between Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) and sustainable development in the Nigerian and Ghanaian economy. This paper therefore, adopts the multiple regression analysis with Ordinary Least Square (OLS) econometric technique on a time series secondary data from 2000 to 2018 obtained from Nigeria's World Development Indicator (WDI) (2018) for the period under review represents the MDG era and the earlier stages of UN's SDG. This will enable us to reach desirable conclusions on whether there is a long-run relationship between FDI and sustainable development in the economy of Nigeria and Ghana.

Model Specification

The model specification of this study follows an earlier study by Frimpong, S. K. (2012), which examined FDI inflows and trade between China and Ghana. Our study departs from Akpo, E. S., & HASSAN, S. (2015) by extending the impact of FDI on sustainable development, which has its economic, social and environmental components.

$$lnRGDP_t = \alpha lnFDI_t + \beta lnGFCF_t + \mu_t$$

$$CO2_t = \delta lnFDI_t + \gamma lnRGDP_t + \mu_t$$

$$lnPSE_t = \theta lnFDI_t + \pi lnRGDP_t + \mu_t$$

Where $\alpha > 0, \beta > 0, \delta > 0, \gamma > 0, \theta > 0, \pi > 0$

Nature and Sources of Data

The study applies time series data drawn from Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), Real Gross Domestic Product (RGDP), Gross Fixed Capital Formation (GFCF), Carbon dioxide emission (CO2), and social development proxied by government expenditure on health and education (PSE) for Nigeria and Ghana obtained from the World Development Indicator (WDI, 2018) and the apex bank of the countries.

DATA ANALYSIS

Trends Analysis

Figures 1 through 7 depicts the behaviour of various development indicators in both countries. For instance, Figure 1 shows that FDI inflow in Nigeria is higher than that of Ghana for all years between 2000 and 2018 except 2015, where Ghana recorded a marginally higher FDI than Nigeria. This could allude to the uncertainty that surrounded the 2015 general elections in Nigeria. Figure 2 reveals that Nigeria's GDP surpasses that of Ghana within the period under consideration and in Figure 3, life expectancy at birth for Ghana outweighs what is obtainable in Nigeria despite what was obtained in Figure 2. Literacy rate trends were presented in Figure 4 for both African nations. The behaviour of the trends affirms that from 2002 literacy rate in Ghana improved and rose over that of Nigeria. However, in the pre-2002 era, Nigeria had a literacy rate advantage over Ghana. In Figure 5, the environmental dimension of sustainable development was captured using CO2 emission as a ratio of GDP. The trends reveal that between 2000 and 2006 the level was higher in Nigeria, but the trends reversed from 2006 till date with Ghana experiencing a higher CO2 emission than Nigeria. Figure 6 presents the proportion of public social expenditure (PSE) to GDP for both countries with Ghana having a more significant proportion than Nigeria except for 2003 when Nigeria marginally allotted more to PSE than Ghana. This is responsible for the better health and education indices for Ghana. Finally, figure 7 presents the gross fixed capital formation (GFCF) Nigeria and Ghana with the trends implying that Nigeria led Ghana at all times. In recent times, while GFCF in Nigeria is on the increase, that of Ghana is decreasing.

Figure1: Trends in FDI inflows to Nigeria (n-FDI) and Ghana (g-FDI) in (US$b)

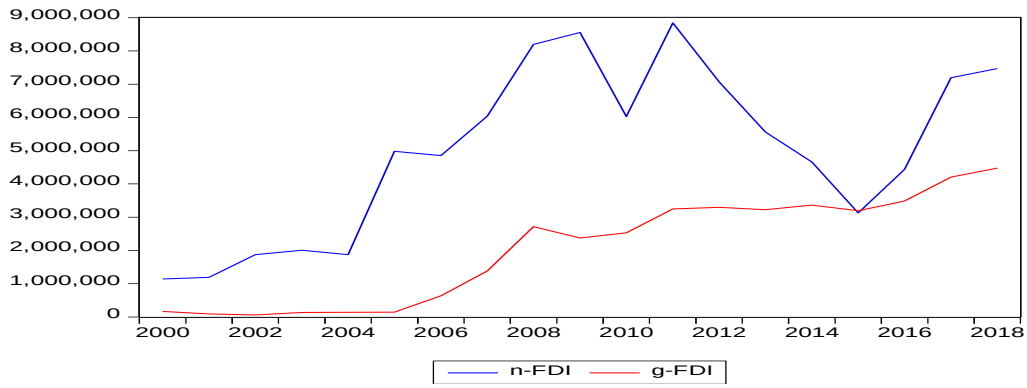


Figure 2: Trends in RGDP for Nigeria and Ghana (US$b)

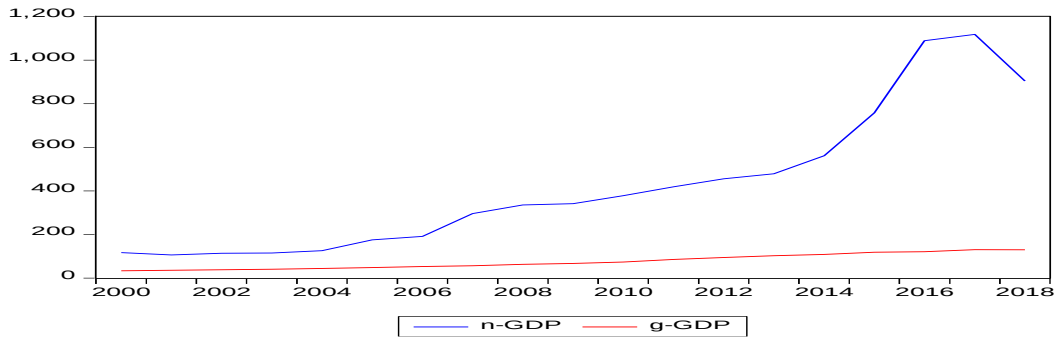


Figure 3: Trends in Life Expectancy at Birth in Nigeria and Ghana (year)

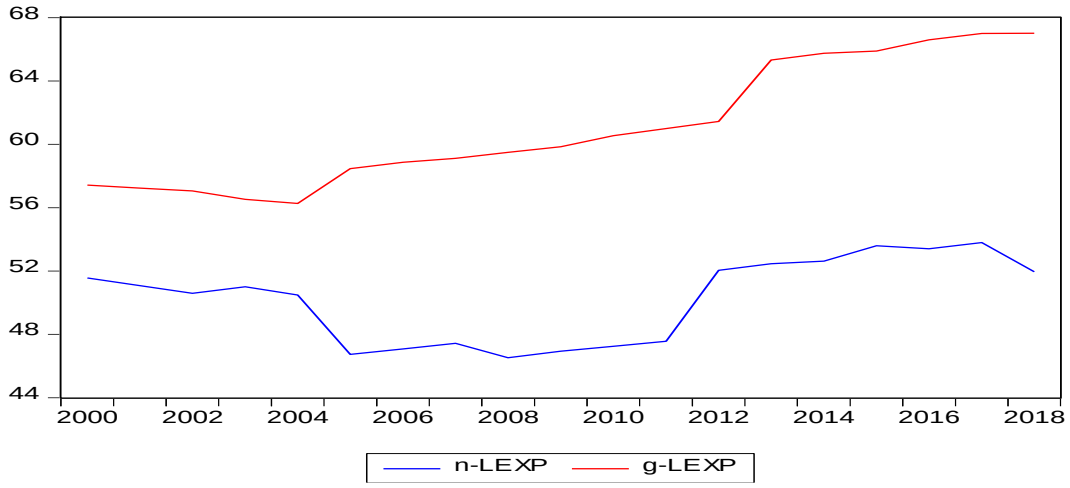


Figure 4: Trends in Literacy rate in Nigeria and Ghana (%)

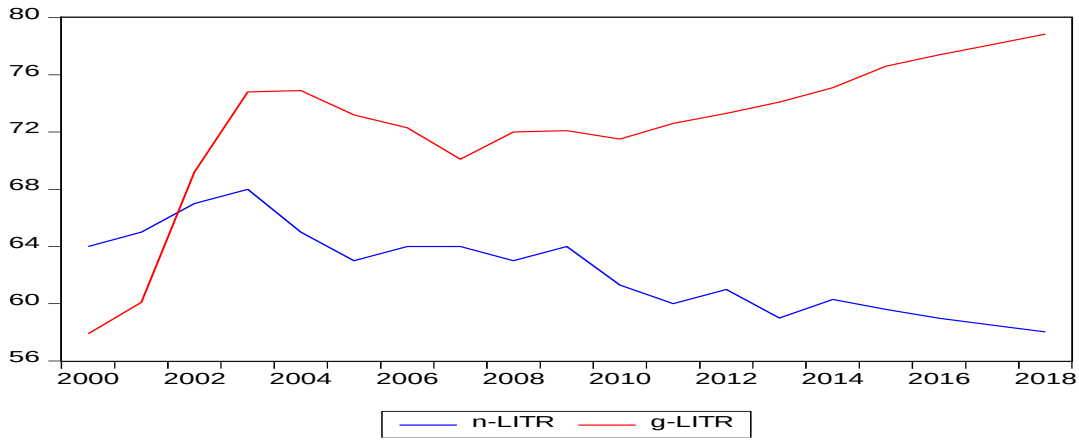


Figure 5: Trends in CO2 emission in Nigeria and Ghana (% of GDP)

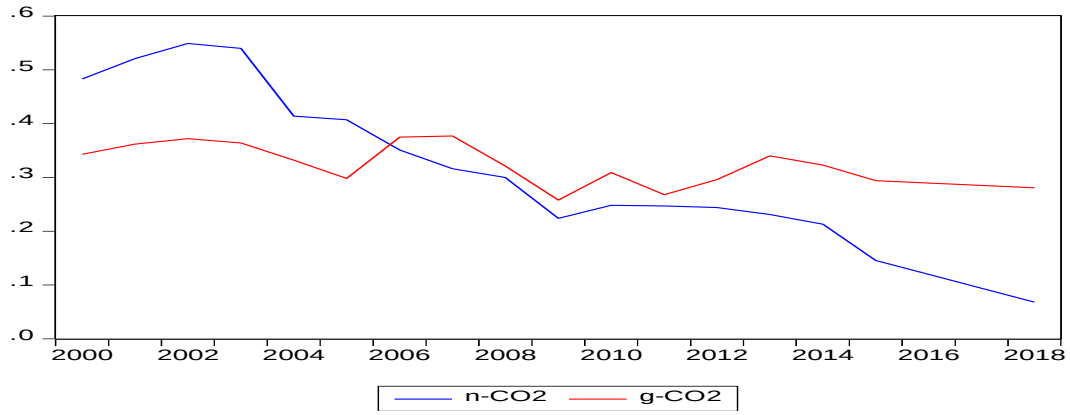


Figure 6: Trends in public social expenditure (% GDP) in Nigeria and Ghana

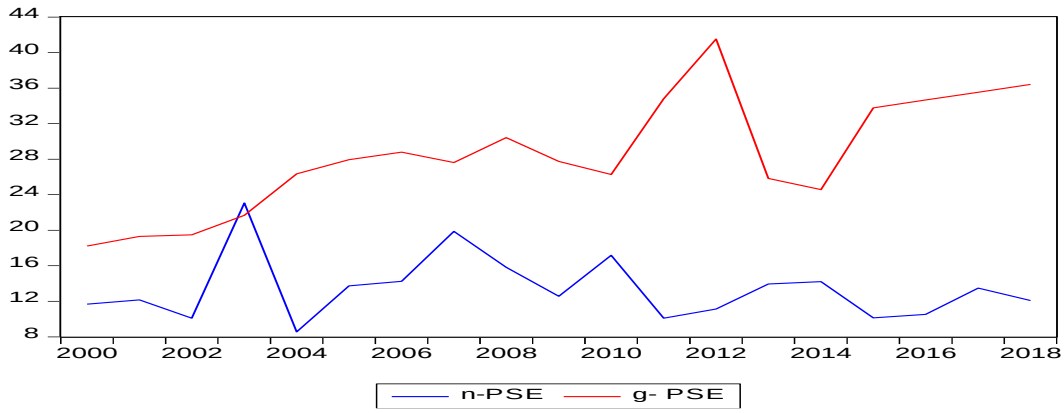
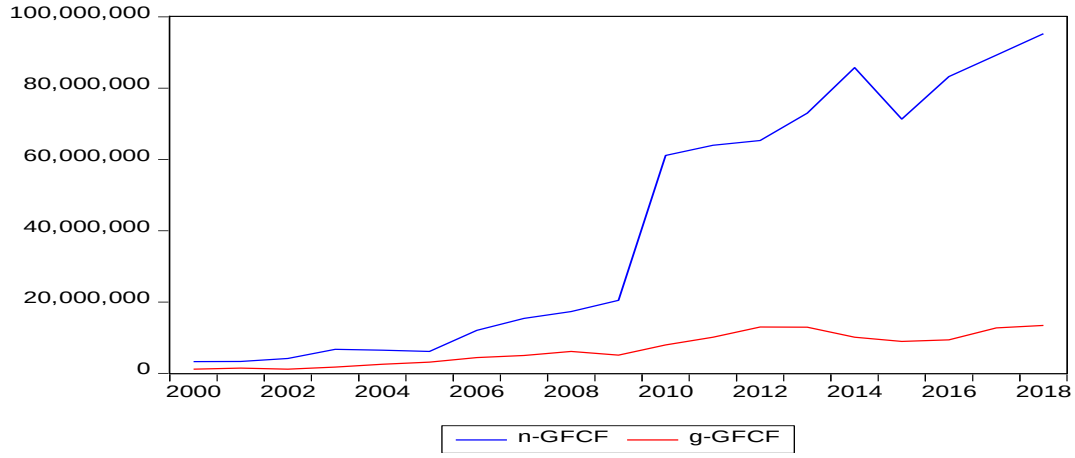


Figure 7: Trends in gross fixed capital formation (US$b) in Nigeria and Ghana



Pre-estimation Analysis

Table 1: Summary Statistics for Nigeria

	GDP	FDI	CO2	GFCF	LEXP	LITR	PSE
Mean	425.1237	5004577.	0.300805	41231984	50.21759	62.30088	13.40324
Median	341.1000	4982534.	0.248000	20487180	51.01000	63.00000	12.57173
Maximum	1118.000	8841114.	0.549000	95245835	53.80000	68.00000	23.06111
Minimum	105.9000	1140138.	0.068026	3255315.	46.53000	58.03118	8.560376
Std. Dev.	326.1090	2550740.	0.150663	35574148	2.633841	2.939225	3.599823
Skewness	0.977720	-0.130902	0.256625	0.218131	-0.211976	0.225482	1.193586
Kurtosis	2.817625	1.772730	1.978777	1.302596	1.477910	2.014490	4.085783
Jarque-Bera	3.053461	1.246664	1.034171	2.431606	1.976391	0.929891	5.444697
Probability	0.217245	0.536155	0.596256	0.296472	0.372248	0.628169	0.065720
Sum	8077.350	95086955	5.715290	7.83E+08	954.1342	1183.717	254.6615
Sum Sq. Dev.	1914247.	1.17E+14	0.408591	2.28E+16	124.8681	155.5028	233.2571
Observations	19	19	19	19	19	19	19

Source: Author's computation using eviews

Table 2: Summary Statistics for Ghana

	GDP	FDI	GFCF	LEXP	LITR	CO2	PSE
Mean	75.97191	2045486.	6861529.	61.09984	72.32412	0.320350	28.47233
Median	67.28900	2527350.	6119681.	59.85000	73.20000	0.321000	27.74000
Maximum	130.2210	4477590.	13441025	67.01699	78.84382	0.377000	41.53000
Minimum	33.47600	58930.00	1150985.	56.27000	57.90000	0.258000	18.23000
Std. Dev.	34.04930	1590291.	4420944.	3.886036	5.367263	0.037932	6.424139
Skewness	0.326231	-0.124133	0.138167	0.427894	-1.524071	0.094289	0.160497
Kurtosis	1.640747	1.457562	1.593586	1.649173	4.933670	1.760510	2.288919
Jarque-Bera	1.799676	1.932262	1.626369	2.024376	10.31561	1.244419	0.481867
Probability	0.406635	0.380553	0.443444	0.363423	0.005754	0.536757	0.785894
Sum	1443.466	38864231	1.30E+08	1160.897	1374.158	6.086650	540.9743
Sum Sq. Dev.	20868.38	4.55E+13	3.52E+14	271.8230	518.5352	0.025899	742.8521
Observations	19	19	19	19	19	19	19

Source: Author's computation using eviews

UNIT ROOT TEST

Table 3: Group Unit Root Test (Nigeria)

Method	Statistic	Prob.**	Cross-sections	Obs
Null: Unit root (assumes common unit root process)				

Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-3.58807	0.0002	7	125
Breitung t-stat	-0.99383	0.1602	7	118
Null: Unit root (assumes individual unit root process)				
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-2.70220	0.0034	7	125
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	31.6364	0.0045	7	125
PP - Fisher Chi-square	40.3892	0.0002	7	126

** Probabilities for Fisher tests are computed using an asymptotic Chi
-square distribution. All other tests assume asymptotic normality.

Table 4: Group Unit Root Test (Ghana)

Method	Statistic	Prob.**	Cross-sections	Obs
Null: Unit root (assumes common unit root process)				
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-2.52028	0.0059	7	121
Breitung t-stat	0.68340	0.7528	7	114
Null: Unit root (assumes individual unit root process)				
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-2.47730	0.0066	7	121
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	27.5592	0.0163	7	121
PP - Fisher Chi-square	22.3653	0.0714	7	126

** Probabilities for Fisher tests are computed using an asymptotic Chi
-square distribution. All other tests assume asymptotic normality.

MODEL ESTIMATION USING THE ORDINARY LEAST SQUARE ESTIMATION TECHNIQUE

MODEL 1: Economic Dimension of Sustainable Development

Table 5: OLS Result for Economic sustainability in Nigeria and Ghana
Dependent Variable : *LNGDP*

	Nigeria	Ghana
Explanatory Variables	**Parameter (P-Value)**	**Parameter (P-Value)**
C	-4.56 (0.0090)*	-3.40 (0.0125)**
LNFDI	0.03 (0.8300)	0.03 (0.7384)
LNGFCF	0.58 (0.0000)*	0.47 (0.0040)*
R-Squared	0.89	0.89
F-statistic	65.1881	68.9375
Prob-F statistic	0.0000*	0.0000*

Source: Author's computation using eviews. * and ** imply 1% and 5% significance levels

MODEL 2: Social Dimension of Sustainable Development

Table 6: OLS Result for Social sustainability in Nigeria and Ghana
Dependent Variable : *PSE/GDP*

	Nigeria	Ghana
Explanatory Variables	**Parameter (P-Value)**	**Parameter (P-Value)**
C	-9.40 (0.6719)	-17.16 (0.0831)***
LNFDI	2.25 (0.2185)	0.9779 (0.5313)
LNGDP	-1.99 (0.1948)	7.59 (0.1578)
R-Squared	0.11	0.60
F-statistic	1.0300	12.2198
Prob-F statistic	0.3795	0.0006*

Source: Author's computation using eviews. * and *** imply 1% and 10% significance level

MODEL 3: Environmental Dimension of Sustainable Development

Table 7: OLS Result for Environmental sustainability in Nigeria and Ghana
Dependent Variable : *CO2*

	Nigeria	Ghana
Explanatory Variables	**Parameter (P-Value)**	**Parameter (P-Value)**
C	1.69 (0.0000)*	0.55 (0.0000)*
LNFDI	-0.016 (0.1076)	-0.004 (0.7035)
LNGDP	0.168 (0.0000)*	-0.040 (0.2844)
R-Squared	0.95	0.43
F-statistic	176.2360	6.0898
Prob-F statistic	0.0000*	0.0108*

Source: Author's computation using eviews * imply 1% significance level

DISCUSSION

From Table 1 and 2, the summary statistics for Nigeria and Ghana are presented. The statistical evidence from the table shows that on the average, Nigeria had a better record on a gross domestic product, foreign direct investment, capital formation and co2 emission over Ghana. However, the case is the direct opposite for other variables such as public social expenditure, literacy rate and life expectancy at birth where Ghana outperformed Nigeria tremendously. This preliminary finding implies that Ghana performs better than Nigeria on social sustainability, which is measured in terms of education and healthcare indicators. However, on environmental and economic sustainability, Nigeria fares better than Ghana. These pre-estimation findings require further empirical inquiry. Thus, the paper proceeds to advanced analysis, such as the unit root test and the estimation of empirical models.

Table and 4 contain the group unit root test summary for Nigeria and Ghana, respectively. The probability values of the Levin, Lin and Chu t-test, Im, Pesaran and Shin W-test, the ADF-Fisher Chi-Square test and the PP-Fisher Chi-Square test which are less than 0.05 imply that the variables are stationary at levels for both countries. Thus, the suitable technique for the estimation parameters of the models is the Ordinary Least, Square (OLS). The study estimated three models based on the three dimensions of sustainable development- economic, social and environmental. This was done in a bid to evaluate the impact of FDI inflows on the respective dimensions.

Table 5 presents the empirical result for economic sustainability as affected by FDI for both economies. The result reveals that foreign direct investment inflow has a positive impact on economic sustainability in Nigeria and Ghana. Interestingly, the size of the impact is the same. This implies that a per cent increase in FDI inflow to these countries enhances economic growth and economic sustainability by 0.3 per cent. However, we are quick to that the positive impact is statistically insignificant. The result further shows that gross fixed capital formation has a positive and significant impact on economic sustainability in both economies. Though the size of the effects is different, Nigeria has a pronounced response of 0.58 per cent to every 1 per cent rise in gross fixed capital formation, while Ghana records 0.47 per cent response. This implies that the difference in economic growth and economic sustainability in both countries is not accounted for by FDI both gross fixed capital formation.

Model 2, as presented in Table 6, shows that social sustainability and FDI nexus in both countries. The result indicates that FDI has a positive but statistically insignificant impact on social sustainability in Nigeria and Ghana. However, the impact of FDI on social development is higher in the latter than the former. Again, the impact of economic growth on social development shows a conflicting result for both countries. For instance, in Nigeria, rising growth causes falling social development, while in Ghana, it propels social development. The case of Nigeria is so because growth is mostly not inclusive.

The summary of model 3 is contained in Table 7 on the impact of FDI on environmental sustainability gauged by the level of CO2 emission as a proportion of GDP in both countries. It is evident from the result that enhances environmental sustainability in both countries through a reduction in CO2 emission. However, its impact is not statistically significant. Furthermore, the impact of growth on environmental sustainability differs on both countries. For Nigeria, higher growth diminishes the level of environmental sustainability through an increase in the CO2 emission. However, Ghana's case is the other way round due to better environmental regulatory standards in the former than the latter. Thus, economic sustainability ultimately promotes social sustainability in Nigeria but environmental sustainability in Ghana.

Findings

This preliminary finding implies that Ghana performs better than Nigeria on social sustainability, which is measured in terms of education and healthcare indicators. However, on environmental and economic

sustainability, Nigeria fares better than Ghana. These pre-estimation findings require further empirical inquiry.

This implies that a per cent increase in FDI inflow to these countries enhances economic growth and economic sustainability by 0.3 per cent. However, we are quick to indicate that the positive impact is statistically insignificant. This reveals that the difference in economic growth and economic sustainability in both countries is not accounted for by FDI and gross fixed capital formation.

However, the impact of FDI on social development is higher in the latter than the former. Again, the impact of economic growth on social development shows a conflicting result for both countries. For instance, in Nigeria, rising growth causes falling social development, while in Ghana, it propels social development. The case of Nigeria is so because growth is largely not inclusive. Empirical result shows that there is an improved environmental sustainability in both countries due to reduction in Co2 emission within the period under review. However, its impact is not statistically significant. Furthermore, the effect of growth on environmental sustainability differs in both countries. For Nigeria, higher growth diminishes the level of environmental sustainability through an increase in the CO2 emission. However, Ghana's case is the other way round due to better environmental regulatory standards in the former than the latter.

Implications

The contribution of this paper to knowledge is three-fold. First, it extended the eclectic theory to the environmental and social conditions that affect the host economy of foreign direct investment. To this end, the result of the study supports the fact that social, environmental and economic conditions are critical considerations for the inflows of FDI. Second, the study is the first to our knowledge to have empirically ascertained how FDI influences sustainable development through health, education, environment and growth. Third, the study improved on previous studies by utilizing the ordinary least square technique. This method is simple, efficient, and consistent; it produces unbiased results that are reliable and valid for policy suggestions.

In the view of the above findings and conclusion, the followings recommendations are proposed to enhance Foreign Direct Investment inflow in Nigeria and Ghana. The state plays a critical role in the overall operations of these economies; as such the government of both countries should provide adequate infrastructure and policy framework that will be guaranteed a conducive business environment for domestic and foreign investments to thrive. Therefore, there is a need for government in both countries to be formulating investment policies that will be favourable to local investors to complement the inflow of investment from abroad.

Given the causal link among gross fixed capital formation, foreign direct investment, and sustainable growth and development in both economies, favourable interest rate policies should be formulated and implemented to enhance domestic investment and attract foreign capital inflows. This paper also recommends an improvement in state infrastructure, especially energy (power), especially in Nigeria, ensuring sound, and stable macroeconomic environment, enthroning a stable social-political environment, among others. Furthermore, technological changes through knowledge spillover should be encouraged.

Limitations

The scope of this paper is limited to Nigeria and Ghana as it looks to investigate the impact of foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows on sustainable development in both countries. It is also limited in temporal scope to 18 years during the period from 2000 to 2018 to reduce estimation bias and noises which could be generated as a direct result of the global economic downturn in 2008 and 2009. This study adopted the Ordinary Least Square method of Estimation in estimating the impact of FDI inflows on sustainable growth and development of Nigerian and Ghanaian economies; as an alternative to the

adopted methodology, this study could be carried out by employing an extensive qualitative analysis. The model estimated in this study made use of only three independent variables; further studies could include more variables to establish if the results will be more robust.

CONCLUSION

This paper investigated FDI and sustainable development, using the evidence from Nigeria and Ghana as units of analysis. Haven placed our lenses on various social and economic indicators; it is obvious that Ghana performed relatively better than Nigeria in the area of social sustainability which is measured in terms of education and healthcare indicators. This revelation validated the claims of various studies that majority of Nigerians troop out in their numbers to seek foreign education and engage in medical tourism.

As for Ghana, its social sustainability performances might be slightly more impressive than that of Nigeria; however, there is need to improve such performance through sustained long-term investment in those critical sectors. Empirical evidence from this inquiry reveals that percentage increase in FDI inflows brought about an increase in economic growth and sustainability by a meager 0.3 percent. Therefore, we are quick to note that this positive impact is statistically insignificant. This shows that the difference in the economic growth and sustainable development in both countries are not a resultant effect of foreign direct investment inflows or gross fixed capital formation.

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EXPLORING THE PROSPECTS OF SOCIAL MEDIA REGULATION AS A PANACEA FOR CURBING FACEBOOK PRIVACY INFRINGEMENTS AND THE VULNERABILITY OF USERS IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

Data protection is fundamental human-right and personal-data infringement on Facebook is becoming a matter of national and economic concern globally. Social-media regulation is perceived as a panacea for curbing Facebook privacy-infringements and vulnerability of users. World leaders and business-owners seek best practice to regulate social-media data infringements in a bid to protect citizens, the gated. Europe's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) takes a strong position for data protection compared to Nigeria's National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA)'s National Data Protection Regulation (NDPR). This discourse analysis demonstrates gate-keeping as social-responsibility of governments being media-stakeholders, identifies Nigeria's social-media protection gaps and makes recommendations.

Keywords: *Social Media Gatekeeping, Government Policy, Data Protection*

INTRODUCTION

As contemporary African businesses emerge, an increasing amount of transactions and exchange of information between organisations and individuals are done online. Still, there are unanswered questions on the online data security of individuals in business engagement are with the increasing incidence of data infringements. It begs the question on the efforts towards data protection for Africa and Nigerian businesses in particular. The data theft and misuse indicting Facebook have necessitated a re-appraisal of individual and business data protection, plus the role of government as a media-gatekeeping stakeholder.

On the 21st of March, 2018, Mark Zuckerberg, Co-founder of Facebook (FB), a social media colossus, broke his silence via a Facebook post with respect to recent reports of a data hijacking scandal in the United States of America. He stated, "We have a responsibility to protect your data, and if we can't then we don't deserve to serve you. I've been working to understand exactly what happened and how to make sure this doesn't happen again." (CNBC, 2018). Whether the Facebook founder was aware or not of the 'misuse' of subscriber's personal data is not the focus here, but the fact that it happened and millions of people around the world became vulnerable. That is a breach of TRUST.

Privacy of personal data online is a crucial ongoing conversation in today's world that's largely digital and experiencing a convergence of devices, formats etc. This is also critical due to the ubiquity of the internet and ease of acquiring, sharing, storing and manipulation of data. (Pelteret & Ophoff, 2016). Thus the matter of data privacy has received the focus of media consumers, individuals and organisations, whilst intermittently dominating media and legislative discourse across the world (Pelteret & Ophoff, 2016). Thus continents and countries have begun to look at data protection as a fundamental human right (Manolescu, 2010).

Beyond the recent data theft scandal (CNBC, 2018), the spotlight is on FB, as it is said to have more consumers than any single country's population, with over two billion users worldwide (Verdict, 2017), implying the platform has been trusted by many and has massive latent power due to its numbers. Statistics according to Zephoria Inc. (2018), a digital marketing company, indicate that FB has the highest number of social media users growing by 23% per annum, has users aged between 25-34 as the most common age demographic (i.e. the most active in any economy). The platform also has over 83 million counterfeit profiles, is the biggest online social presence of most companies, plus the application's like buttons are viewed in over 10 million third-party sites (Zephoria Inc., 2018), especially with the advent of the open authentification.

Before the FB-Analytica 2018 data scandal (CNBC, 2018), FB in an expansion move released what it called 'Open-Graph' to the developers and third-party applications. This gave those interested (i.e. third-party applications) the privilege to get personal data of FB users including names, friends details, gender, birthday, location, education, religious & political penchants amongst other info (CNBC, 2018). Facebook's document on Open Authentification, where they made their Application Programming Interface (API)'s open-source also played a contributory role to ease of other people accessing subscribers data (Facebook for Developers, 2018). Open Authentification involves developers setting up an account on FB and tying it to their own application, so that users can log in via their FB accounts, while the developers, in turn, have direct access to whatever bio-data they'd earlier put in FB and the third-party developers won't have to deal with managing the new users usernames and passwords. Thus data inputted by users on the FB platform in a bid to connect with friends was 'sold' to third parties and used for politics, adverts, rise in distribution of fake news and other forms of profiteering (CNBC, 2018) leading to Mark Zuckerberg being summoned and investigated by the US Congress (The Guardian, 2018) and other nations (The Telegraph, 2018). The above explains why the conversation on data privacy is a burning issue (Pelteret & Ophoff, 2016), leading to the drive for data protection as a fundamental human right (Manolescu, 2010). This begs the question of gatekeeping on social media , which has metamorphosed (Mai, 2016) with the advent of the internet, the identification of the gated (i.e. the general users of the media who also require protection via gatekeeping) as being a part of the media system and actively empowered for gatekeeping (Böttcher, 2014) as against the traditional models of media gatekeeping, i.e. audience gatekeeping. This also brings to question, the role of the government in gate-keeping the media. This explains why the conversation around data privacy and protection trend on social media because users have a voice, engage in citizen journalism and trigger policy changes in governments.

In lieu of the above, the EU pushed for the Lisbon Treaty in 2009, covering rights to data protection, privacy and transparency (McDermott, 2017) and took it a notch up in April 2016 by signing into law the EU General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) which replaced earlier data protection regulations. GPPR set a high standard not only for the EU but for other countries, with stiff enforcement for companies around the world who at any point will handle data of EU citizens (Allen & Overy, 2018). Again, the factor of globalisation makes it probable that numerous organisations around the world must at some point access and use personal data of EU citizens as clients or otherwise. Thus GDPR has been put in place as protection for data of EU citizens particularly online and in the prevalence of social media data infringement, specifically Facebook in this instance. Nigeria is not immune to data infringement on social media (and specifically Facebook) being heavy users of the platform, as it boasts of a whopping 26 million subscribers on FB (TechPoint, 2018), one of the largest in Africa. The Cambridge Analytica data-hijack led to a further investigation which revealed how the Cambridge Analytica team were paid to

influence the outcome of the 2007 presidential election by sharing a video on FB to discredit Mohammadu Buhari, the contender, in favour of Goodluck Jonathan, the incumbent (The Guardian, 2018). The Federal Government went further to set up a committee to investigate the involvement of Cambridge Analytica in the 2007 and 2015 general elections citing them as responsible for use of over 50 million FB profiles to sway elections in many countries (Vanguard, 2018). This contributes a dent to the credibility of the poll results in the 2015 elections. Also bringing to question just how much data has been stolen and how many cases are left untreated due to the absence of firm regulations protecting social media in Nigeria. How secure are personal data of social media platform and Facebook users in Nigeria? Some literature considers 'the gated' and equally responsible for the security of personal data (Böttcher, 2014). However, with the gated being considered a suitable gate-keeper in a digitised world, there are uncertainties about the literacy and awareness of the happenings on data breaches around the world, use and misuse of FB personal data, plus its implications, particularly in the Nigeria space. But this is supposedly where the government should exercise its duty to protect all citizens and their interests, even virtually, in the light of current-day realities.

The Cambridge-Analytica-Nigeria-election case above is a case-in-point of how data theft via the biggest social media platform in the world, FB, directly impacts the country. Hitherto, the government makes and reinforces media regulations, making them media stakeholders and gatekeepers. But is the Nigerian government sufficiently 'ready' to face this current social cum virtual incidences of data-theft and infringement, also being major gate-keepers of the media?

Here lies the gap this paper attempts to bring to light, a form of social media regulation audit. While FB may have eased filial connections, business growth and taken away the burden of repeated filling of data in some applications during sign-in/ sign-up, the security of the individual's data cannot be negotiated. Every citizen has an unequivocal right to data protection and data privacy (McDermott, 2017) necessary in our digitised era. Data protection is important in today's world, also areas of concern for consumers and organisations is information privacy (Pelteret & Ophoff, 2016). Where does Nigeria stand legislatively in effectively protecting its citizens' personal data and gatekeeping social media?

Thus this conceptual paper attempts to identify current legislation for personal data protection of social media of Nigerians. It furthermore reviews the identified regulation and makes a recommendation for contemporary social media regulation approach and data protection for Nigerian social media users.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This conceptual paper rests on two theoretical pillars viz Gatekeeping and Social Responsibility. This is discussed succinctly below in the context of social media and government obligation.

Gatekeeping and social media

On the question of possible gatekeeping in today's world mediatized by the internet and its dynamic characteristics**,** Singer (2006a) reiterated that the internet defies the entire concept of a 'gate'; as the newspaper editor, broadcast commission, radio producers, publishers and other traditional gatekeepers in the media, have limited control and powers in filtering freely published content by the internet audience. Her findings further suggest that traditional gatekeepers and editors ought to be rethinking their gatekeeping role as they become more experienced in creating content for the Internet (Singer, 2006b), as its ubiquitous nature obliterates the traditional concept of the professional journalist deciding what information people can and cannot see.

Gate-keeping is defined as a selection process where 'gatekeepers' pick and choose which news articles and/or visual images to run in the media. Looking at further definitions of gatekeeping in the media below, the inference is that all information flow requires control and the control of information connotes power with latent capacity for social change. This implies that the force controlling the flow of

information within a society inadvertently influences happenings [significantly] in that society and the definitions below corroborate this inference.

'Gatekeeping refers broadly to the process of controlling information as it moves through a gate or filter and is associated with exercising different types of power (e.g., selecting news, enforcing the status quo in parliamentary committees, mediating between professional and ethnic groups, brokering expert information)' - (Barzilai-Nahon, 2017)

"Gatekeeping, as a social scientific concept, can be traced to Lewin's (1947) writings on social planning. He observed that the most efficient way to bring about widespread social change is to concentrate on persons in key positions of influence, who function as 'gatekeepers' in the flow of goods and ideas through the society. Lewin viewed the societal impact of gatekeepers as a matter of 'group dynamics,' and hence he saw gatekeeping as a basic problem for sociology. At the same time, however, he conceived of the gatekeeping process itself in individualistic and psychological terms." (Clayman, 1998)

'A gatekeeping role "filtering out information deemed unworthy from that deemed worthy of dissemination (de Grazia, 1963)." (Beyer, Chanove, & Fox, 1995)

"Gatekeepers are those key technical professionals who are strongly networked to both internal and external sources of critical information." (Katz, 1965)

All of the gatekeeping definitions above share a common theme, it is deliberate yet selective dissemination of information, information channelling to an objective end, by a professional/stakeholder (the gatekeeper), in order to shield a group of people (the gated). Also, the delineation of obligation and power of the gatekeeper, and for a positive cause too. Furthermore, there is an anticipation of a potentially negative impact against the gated when the gatekeeper or gatekeeping not in effect.

Summarily, the gatekeeper is a power broker whose decisions on what information is going out or otherwise is influenced by broad factors, motives and values. In traditional mass media, the directors and editors in print and motion picture held this office. Institutions, asides media houses, also play gate-keeping roles. For instance, the government, via the Nigeria Broadcasting Corporation (NBC) bans music material that contravenes its codes and doesn't represent the country in a positive light (The Guardian, 2013). So indeed, not only media people are gatekeepers, but the government plays a significant role in gatekeeping the media. Two major research on the identity of the gatekeeper (Agada (1999); Klobas & McGill (1995)) describes the gatekeeper from a pluralistic and neutral standpoint. They originate from within the community in a bottom-up process and represent the needs of members in the community. Their research findings indicated the elements essentially distinguishing gatekeepers from other members of the online community are more often their information skills and not necessarily affiliation with a connection to a certain class or position power.

Gatekeepers primarily preserve culture and ideology, thus Pescosolido et al (1997) call them cultural gatekeepers. *"Cultural gatekeepers, those who determine which images will be available to the public, may be influenced by racial tensions in society. We argue that what these gatekeepers promote influences of future symbolic representations."* The government, especially in a democratic dispensation, is designed to protect and foster the interest of the people, and so are cultural gatekeepers. Looking at how vulnerable citizens have become online being also 'netizens', discerning governments have begun to devise approaches to legally and strategically ensure online data protection and privacy. Thus, this paper taking a cue from contemporary data protection laws enforced internationally takes a cursory look at the Nigerian government social media gatekeeping viz-a-viz its social responsibility.

Social Responsibility and Social Media

The evolution of the media is reflective in its functions, now social, and capable of social change. It takes root in man's need to relate and 'Mass Media', communication to many. Today, the media regarded as a social institution, fully integrated into other traditional social institutions such as churches, school, government, and family. Media systems were primarily designed for profit which informs its objectives on content development and broadcast. Thus many media platforms and programs are open-sourced, easily accessible and contain alluring content designed to attract the largest imaginable audience. In today's society, the media is even more integrated with daily living of citizens via the internet (Schrape, 2016) and social media.

Social media is today's biggest example of mass media, meso-media i.e. many-to-many (Schrape, 2016) and refers to the use of web-based and mobile technologies for interactive dialogue barring geography and spatiality and time (Baruah, 2012). The context of media in this paper is streamlined to social media.

Schulz (2004) and Krotz (2007) specified the role of the media in social change, identifying 4 processes whereby media change human communication and interaction:

i. They extend human communication abilities in both time and space

ii. Media substitutes social activities that were previously face-to-face

iii. Media instigates an amalgamation of activities, face-to-face communication combines with mediated communication

iv. Actors in many different sectors have to adapt their behaviour to accommodate the media's valuations, formats and routines

Social media can be succinctly described as applications/platforms that enable virtual interactions interpersonally and within a community, irrespective of geographic location, with dependency on internet connectivity, and use of smart devices. Examples of social media platforms are Facebook, Twitter, Snap-chat, Instagram, YouTube, Blogs, Whatsapp etc. The social in focus of this paper is FB, having over 2 billion users (Zephoria Inc., 2018) across the globe.

Facebook is a social networking website and service where users can post comments, share photographs and links to news or other interesting content on the Web, play games, chat live, and stream live videos (GFCGlobal, 1998). Shared content can be made publicly accessible, or it can be shared only among a select group of friends or family, or with a single person. Facebook as a social media platform that allows one to maintain a friends list and choose privacy settings to tailor who can see content on your profile. It also allows you to upload photos and maintain photo albums that can be shared with your friends. Facebook supports interactive online chat and the ability to comment on your friend's profile pages, sometimes called "walls," in order to keep in touch, share information or just to say "hi." Facebook's developer network delivers advanced functionality and monetization options. It supports group pages, streaming live videos, live fan pages and business pages that let businesses use Facebook as a vehicle for social media marketing. Facebook Connect allows websites to interact with Facebook and allows Facebook to be used as a universal login authentication service. This integration and social networking on FB involves so much data of users hence the need to enforce the social responsibility of the media.

Social responsibility of the Social media using media functions as identified by Harold Lasswell (1948), Charles Wright (1960) and Dennis McQuail (2005) are characterised below:

a) Surveillance
b) Correlation
c) Transmission

d) Entertainment
e) Mobilization

In essence, the media asides being a watchdog of society and sharing information is also a gatekeeper, determining what information goes out or otherwise. This entrusts social responsibility on the media in its multifacetedness. It is worthy of note that all media are extensions of some human faculty and reflection of society. The 'media' in the context of this context and tasked with the obligation of media functions like Surveillance, Mobilisation, Transmission, etc. In essence, the government via regulations determines media output, channels, stakeholders and platforms.

The government in many countries function as media regulators, media owners (fully or partly) and media gatekeepers. In this sense, they (the government) become 'watch-dogs' of other watchdogs (other media owners and platforms) within its jurisdiction and in the interest of protection of citizens, the economy and national security. To this end, the government makes media regulations, sometimes via sub institutions and parastatals, like the Federal Ministry of Communications and the National Information Technology Development Agency.

RESULTS

This section shows a textual analysis of findings on Facebook privacy issues, the Nigerian government legislation towards the protection of personal data of its citizens online.

A timeline of Facebook Privacy Issues

There are increasing studies on facebook's privacy issues and its implication on countries, organisations, businesses and individuals since its commencement 2006. The issues have been about the use and misuse of users data, tending more to exploitation and scandal, over a decade-long. Below is a chronological timeline of these issues as reported by NBC News (Newcomb, 2018), now represented to ease review herein. Watch out for a pattern throughout the incidences.

Table 1: A TIMELINE OF FACEBOOK PRIVACY ISSUES

S/N	DATES	ISSUES	FACEBOOK RESPONSE
1	September 2006	Facebook debuts news feed and about a million users joined FB news feed protest groups arguing the feature was too intrusive	Zuckerberg insisted and the newsfeed stayed on
2	December 2007	Beacon, FB first big brush with advertising privacy issues	FB- founder apologises, give users opt-out choice
3	November 2011	FB settled with the Federal Trade Commission in 2011 over charges that it didn't keep its privacy promise to users by allowing private information to be made public without warning	Facebook agrees to undergo an independent privacy evaluation every other year for the next 20 years; remains liable for a $16,000-per-day penalty for violating each count of the settlement.
4	June 2013	Facebook bug exposes private contact info (in the guise of recommendation)	Facebook fixed the bug, notifies people whose info may have been exposed. FB said it pulled the tool offline and fixed it. The company also said it had notified regulators and pledged to tell affected users

5	July 2014	Mood-manipulation experiment on more than half a million Facebook users to show how emotions could spread on social media	Facebook data scientist apologizes after publishing proceedings in the National Academy of Sciences
6	April 2015	Facebook cuts off apps from taking basically all the data they want	Developers allowed keep building apps but with 'limited access' to users data. But FB still couldn't keep track of how many developers were using previously downloaded data
7	March 2018	The Cambridge –Analytica data hijack scandal	Founder apologises. FB bans Cambridge Analytica
8	January 2018	Europe's data protection law	Facebook complies, released a set of privacy principles explaining how users can take more control of their data.
9	February 2018	Belgian court tells Facebook to stop tracking people across the entire internet	Appeal the court's ruling, saying it has complied with European data protection laws and gives people the choice to opt-out of data collection on third-party websites and applications
10	March 2018	Revealed that Facebook knew about massive data theft and did nothing	An apology tour and policy changes. Zuckerberg avoided the word "sorry" but did express partial blame for Facebook's role in not doing enough to protect user privacy.

A cursory review of the privacy issues or breaches from Facebook and their response indicates a pattern; repeated breach, excuses, immense profiteering via user data and not taking absolute responsibility for the cause and outcome of all data misuse and privacy breaching. This presupposes that gatekeepers must fashion creative measures to protect its own netizens, considering the seriality of these breaches and activities of sinister hackers.

Also observe FB response to National establishments and regulations, as it makes attempt to comply when brought to book, recognizing the interest of citizens and businesses right to be protected. The timeline of FB privacy issues, the Cambridge Analytica Data hijack and misuse of personal data during the 2015 election raises questions locally as to data protection for Nigerians and reechoes the need for social

The Nigerian Government Social Media Legislative Position; NDPR

This paper has established previously the social responsibility of the government as a media gatekeeper and stakeholder. So in furtherance to data use and protection for Nigeria, the National Information Technology Development Agency Act (NITDA Act) of 2007 empowers the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) to regulate, monitor, evaluate, and verify progress on issues around information technology, on an ongoing basis under the supervision and coordination of the Federal Ministry of Communications. To this end, the National Data Protection Regulation was proposed, in 2019, to tackle privacy concerns and personal data protection (it is yet to be approved by the NITDA board) (NITDA, 2019).

The National Information Technology Development Agency was established in 2001 and is directly under the Federal Ministry of Communication. It operates within confines of the National Information

Technology Development Agency Act (NITDA Act) of 2007. The agency's mandate is to regulate, monitor, evaluate, and verify progress on issues around information technology, on an ongoing basis.

To this end, the National Data Protection Regulation was proposed, in 2019, to tackle privacy concerns and personal data protection (it is yet to be approved by the NITDA board) (NITDA, 2019). The objectives of the NITDA Act are as follows;

The objectives of this Regulation are as follows:

a) to safeguard the rights of natural persons to data privacy;

b) to foster safe conduct of transactions involving the exchange of personal data;

c) to prevent manipulation of personal data and

d) to ensure that Nigerian businesses remain competitive in international trade; through the safeguards afforded by a just and equitable legal regulatory framework on data protection and which regulatory framework is in tune with global best practices

The regulation is broken into sections explaining the document and dealing with the subject matter. Filtering through the document, data of individuals is described as 'Personal Data' and implies '*any information relating to an identified or identifiable natural person ('data subject'); an identifiable natural person is one who can be identified, directly or indirectly, in particular by reference to an identifier such as a name, an identification number, location data, an online identifier or to one or more factors specific to the physical, physiological, genetic, mental, economic, cultural or social identity of that natural person; It can be anything from a name, address, a photo, an email address, bank details, posts on social networking websites, medical information, and other unique identifiers such as but not limited to MAC address, IP address, IMEI number, IMSI number, SIM and others'*;

The details about personal data above are inclusive of the kind of data necessarily requested and frequently assessed or made public on social media platforms like facebook e.g. email, gender, photograph, names, location, cultural identity, social preferences etc of the user. Some of the data are very mandatory and avoidance may lead to restrictions in use of the platform, therefore users are compelled to share their personal data.

In the event of a personal data breach Section_2.13.7,8,9 of NITA data protection regulation requires the data controller (Facebook, in this case) to delete the personal data without delay. This request to delete personal data is also at the instance of the data subject (user). This brings to question the role of this government agency, whether the user is enlightened on his 'ascribed' obligation and if Facebook has been notified of this regulation and agrees to be accountable by it. So far, there are no public records of any agreement or regulation from Nigeria for which Facebook can be held accountable.

"2.13.7 Where personal data are transferred to a foreign country or to an international organisation, the Data Subject shall have the right to be informed of the appropriate safeguards for data protection in a foreign country. The Data Subject shall have the right to obtain from the controller without undue delay the rectification of inaccurate personal data concerning him or her. Considering the purposes of the processing, the Data Subject shall have the right to have incomplete personal data completed, including by means of providing a supplementary statement.

2.13.8 The Data Subject shall have the right to request the Controller the delete of personal data without delay and the Controller shall delete personal data where one of the following grounds applies:

a) the personal data are no longer necessary in relation to the purposes for which they were collected or processed;

b) the Data Subject withdraws consent on which the processing is based;

c) the Data Subject objects to the processing and there are no overriding legitimate grounds for the processing;

d) the personal data have been unlawfully processed; and

e) the personal data have to be erased for compliance with a legal obligation in Nigeria.

2.13.9 The Controller who has made the personal data public and is obliged to delete the personal data shall take all reasonable steps, to inform Controllers processing the personal data of the Data Subjects request."

Furthermore, section 3.3 of the Nigeria Data Protection Regulation purportedly makes provision for 'Local and International Cooperation'. The proviso that appears like the government is subdued afraid of offending 'some entities' by demanding compliance. Again no emphasis on punitive measures to be meted upon breach of personal data-infringement. This should not be the case considering the market value of Nigerian's patronage and the social responsibility as gatekeepers and 'watchdog'. Facebook is an international platform and their cooperation is required in the protection of personal data of Nigerians. See section 3.3 below:

"3.3 Local and International Cooperation
3.3.1 In relation to foreign countries and international organisations, the Agency and relevant authorities shall take appropriate steps to:
a) Develop international cooperation mechanisms to facilitate the effective enforcement of legislation for the protection of personal data;
b) provide international mutual assistance in the enforcement of legislation for the protection of personal data, including through notification, complaint referral, investigative assistance and information exchange, subject to appropriate safeguards for the protection of personal data and other fundamental rights and freedoms;

c) Engage relevant stakeholders in discussion and activities aimed at furthering international cooperation in the enforcement of legislation for the protection of personal data;

d) Promote the exchange and documentation of personal data protection legislation and practice, including on jurisdictional conflicts with third countries."

DISCUSSION

The Nigeria Data Protection Regulation from NITDA is not 'enough as is' to facilitate the protection of Nigerian netizens and social media users, especially on facebook. The NITDA regulation is a good attempt but fails to meet contemporary social media protection realities as it does not make provision or state the obligation of social media platforms in personal data protection. Punitive measures are not stated, demand for compliance is weak and unclear. The proposed regulation also does not make provision or state the obligation of social media platforms in personal data protection. Meanwhile, there are antecedents which reemphasize the need to regulate Facebook data access and usage.

The idea of regulating FB is purely on the grounds of information privacy concerns which include secondary use of information, consumer profiling, price discrimination, identity theft and data breach. (Pelteret & Ophoff, 2016). With more consumers than any single country's population and over two billion users worldwide (Verdict, 2017), Facebook is a prime platform for businesses to leverage on. The platform provides a global audience and marketplace with 70 million businesses signed up actively (Newberry, 2018). Zephoria Inc. (2018) stats indicate that FB has the highest number of social media

users growing by 23% per annum, has users across all ages. The platform is the biggest online social presence of most companies, plus the application's like buttons are viewed in over 10 million third-party sites (Zephoria Inc., 2018), and allows content sharability. As the above data shows, tons of personal data of billions of businesses and individuals are stored on FB's database. Nigeria alone accounts for 26 million users on FB (TechPoint, 2018), one of the largest in Africa. This implies that over 26 million individuals and businesses (plus those who transact with them globally) are at potential risk of personal data-infringement via facebook.

The complexities of this fast-evolving social media sphere and vulnerability of the gated (i.e. individuals, plus businesses and nations by extension) reemphasise the urgent need to implement social media regulations across the globe. When data protection regulations are implemented by nations, businesses and individuals' data are less vulnerable. Data Protection Regulations are also in the interest of the platform because the public scandal has led to losses in FB stock, growth and revenue (Bloomberg, 2018) and now they must strive to earn public trust again. This brings to the fore the responsibility of the government as stakeholders in gatekeeping the media via legislations.

Regulating FB will also provide control being a fundamental human right to users, (Manolescu, 2010), aid businesses boost & track growth, promote trust for the platform, make data misuse punishable, reinforce respect for the people and nations, plus ensuring the protection of personal data. The possible downside of regulating facebook usage in the interest of data protection of citizens is the multiplicity of regulations from different countries demanding compliance largely difficult for FB to sustain. This may force FB to create a universal policy that may or may not favour individual users. For instance, a government may want access to all personal data of its citizens and this counter the wish of the user, entitled to freedom of expression (Mai, 2016) and quiet enjoyment. Individuals still have the right to their privacy. Meanwhile, Moor (1999) in (Pelteret & Ophoff, 2016) described 'privacy' as an elusive concept, not only because it is difficult to define, but because it is a dynamic one – it is transforming over time and is often influenced by "political and technological features of the society's environment" . It is uncertain as to whether government access to citizens personal data will guarantee data protection. This is a challenge in the proposition to regulate facebook usage with data protection laws

How then can the over 26 million (and counting) Nigerian facebook users be protected online? This paper proposes an adaptation of the European Union's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) as a test model.

NDPR can borrow from the EU's General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)

As indicated earlier in this paper, the Nigerian state via NITDA has proposed an Act, NDPR to cater for social media protection, but gaps where identified in its approach to the obligation of the social media platforms and consequence of personal data infringement. Hence the proposition of this paper for an adoption in-principle of EU GDPR model. EU's General Data Protection Regulation, GDPR, is the latest and prevalent data protection legislation, succeeding the 1995 European Data Protection Directive which predates widespread internet availability. It was approved in 2016 by the EU and signed into law on May 2018.

GDPR is the result of an effort by the European Parliament and other governmental bodies to strengthen data protection for those living in the EU, while also providing greater uniformity to existing data laws. Residents of the EU will gain a greater measure of control over their data (and how it is used), by parties both inside and outside the EU. The legislation applies to any organization that handles, processes, and especially exports EU citizens' data outside the Euro Zone, even if that company is not based in Europe. (Cusick, 2018). Meanwhile, the new regulations will make data protections more uniform across EU member states, allowing for easier compliance from outside nations. It should be noted again that GDPR is not a recommendation, but rather a law that governs the data privacy and protection of the EU citizenry (Pelteret & Ophoff, 2016). It requires wide-scale privacy changes in all regulated organisations, and regulators will gain unprecedented powers to impose fines.

Nevertheless, the GDPR also represents an opportunity to:

- transform the approach to privacy,
- harness the value of individual/corporate data, and
- Ensure the organisation is fit for the digital economy.

Some of the key changes enforced by GDPR are as follows :

i. How personal data is defined
ii. Profiling usage of personal data
iii. The rules governing consent.
iv. The right to be forgotten
v. The right to be informed
vi. Lawful processing
vii. The right to data portability
viii. The right to breach notifications
ix. Transferring data internationally
x. Privacy by design

GDPR has impacted the business world significantly while protecting the EU citizens online, including on Facebook. It represents the single largest shift in the data privacy policy in a generation. As such, it presents a significant challenge for organizations seeking to satisfy compliance mandates. For organisations to satisfy GDPR's provisions, it may require drafting a new set of procedures and closing legal loopholes. Large organizations could see significant implications with regard to budgeting, governance, IT, communications, and so on. GDPR regulations also will not have a uniform impact on all organizations or on every part of an organization, as the type of data that are handled and other variables can change how and when regulations apply.

With a comprehensive plan, organizational leaders and governments can help ensure they remain compliant with GDPR mandates—while avoiding stiff penalties and reputational harm.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Discourse analysis was based on documents online from the official website of NITDA. We acknowledge that some changes may have been made, however, this is not available to public notice. Further research may be conducted on the privacy concerns of the individual and government use of data upon adopting a national general data protection regulation. Nonetheless, Data protection remains a fundamental human right and this paper identifies gate-keeping as a social responsibility of the media while pointing to the government as the stakeholder of the media to gate-keep online data administration via legislations viz data protection regulations, in the national interest.

CONCLUSION

The break-out of news on the Facebook-Cambridge Analytica scandal exposed the breach information privacy and trust of users on the Facebook platform. Facebook has lost revenue as a result and countries are more concerned about data protection of citizens and netizens, Nigeria inclusive. Other countries like Nigeria are making efforts to also protect its citizens' data online, but with little progress.

The need for regulating social media cannot be overemphasized as we see a re-defined role for government in gatekeeping the media. The government is as strong as its people, thus the vulnerability of the people is a vulnerability of the government, as seen in the Nigerian election campaign role of Cambridge

Analytica (The Guardian, 2018). Also, organizations feed the gross domestic product per capita of the economy- this reinforces the need to protect citizens data protection. This paper thus reechoes gate-keeping as a social responsibility of the media while pointing to the government as the stakeholder of the media to gate-keep online data administration via legislations viz data protection regulations.

As per regulations, the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA), a sub of the Federal Ministry of Communications, is the government body empowered by the NITDA Act of 2007 to cater issues around online personal data protection. NITDA in 2019 proposed the Nigeria Data Protection Regulation with one of its objectives being to 'safeguard the rights of natural persons to data privacy'. The regulation is however inadequate as punitive measures are not stated clearly, demand for compliance is weak and vague. The proposed regulation also does not make provision or state the obligation of social media platforms in personal data protection. The Nigeria Data Protection Regulation from NITDA is thus not enough to facilitate the protection of Nigerian netizens and social media users, especially on facebook. Hence this paper's advocacy for a bespoke strategic adaptation of the European Union's Data Protection approach in review of Nigeria's National Data Protection Regulation.

The European Union recently launched the largest General Data Protection Regulation in history, which has provided learning points. This paper recommends the EU GDPR and proposes an adaptation, contextualisation to create a model suitable for Nigeria, a framework for Nigeria with slight adjustments to accommodate the nation's unique peculiarities and technological literacy state. The idea of regulating FB is purely on the grounds of information privacy concerns which include secondary use of information, consumer profiling, price discrimination, identity theft and data breach. Using discourse and textual analysis , the paper affirms gate-keeping as a social responsibility of the media, while advocating that the government (in Nigeria) recognises its place as a media stakeholder, and utilise the privilege to sponsor & implement an effective National Data Protection Regulation, in the face of increasing personal data infringement on Facebook and other social media platforms.

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NORTH-SOUTH PARTNERSHIPS AS DEVELOPMENT AGENTS. ASSESSING THE CHANGE POTENTIAL OF CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS

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ABSTRACT

Over the past decade, cross-sector partnerships have been praised as the new transnational governance mechanism to address international development goals. Concern has been raised as to the effectiveness of these cross-sector partnerships, but little is known about the internal properties of partnerships for development. In this paper, we shed light on the influence of commercial interest on the development potential of cross-sector partnerships by investigating a partnership between a Danish business and a Ghanaian NGO. We demonstrate that while standard partnership assessment frameworks fall short in terms of conceptualizing the conditions under which partnerships have development potential. We propose an alternative, integrated assessment framework.

Keywords: Cross-sector partnerships, Collaborative Value Creation, Impact Value Creation, Business as a development agent, development, poverty alleviation, beneficiaries.

INTRODUCTION

These years we are witnessing a reorganization of development assistance to the Global South. Indeed, a marked shift in the conceptualization of development is taking place, influenced by a managerialist and capitalist logic (Blowfield & Dolan, 2014). While international development efforts were previously focused on the role of governments and to some extent NGOs rather than the private sector, cross-sector partnerships are increasingly seen as capitalism's instrument to overcome a range of challenges associated with the unilateral action of governments and civil society (Utting & Zammit, 2008; Kolk et al., 2008; Crane, 2010). Transnational governance instruments such as the UN Global Compact and the UN Sustainable Development Goals testify to this effect.

While cross-sector partnerships have been much studied in recent years, research on partnerships in the Global South is only now starting to gain traction, while management studies are still largely silent on the issue of poverty (Utting & Zammit, 2008; Blowfield & Dolan, 2014) as well as the on the broader political implications of cross sector partnerships (Crane, 2010). Extant partnership assessment frameworks tend to focus primarily on partnership internal dynamics and assumes that the change potential of a partnership can be determined without reference to any external reality. This paper questions that assumption and asks what the relevant dimensions are for assessing the social change potential of a cross-sector partnership for development.

In order to address the need for empirically grounded knowledge concerning partnership operations in the Global South, we use a case analysis to take a first stab at addressing the question of the consequences of commercial interest for the operations of a partnership that includes a for-profit partner and its ensuing

development potential. We draw on a case of a north-south partnership comprising a Danish business and a Ghanaian non-governmental organization (NGO) which aims to alleviate poverty through employment of single mothers in Ghana.

Common cross-sector partnership (CSP) assessment frameworks, such as the Collaborative Value Creation framework and Impact Value Creation provide conceptual scaffolding and process models to describe the elements in partnership efficiency and their mutual relationship. Where these frameworks fall short, however, is in terms of conceptualizing the conditions under which partnerships have development potential. In response to the powerful discourse which "hails private sector initiatives as a solution to poverty and marginalization", Michael Blowfield and Catherine Dolan argue that in order to genuinely serve as agents of development, business must be engaged in intentional activities consciously undertaken to positively impact lives in the Global South (2014, p. 23). We apply the theoretical lens of Blowfield and Dolan's 'business as a development agent' to the partnership context in order to highlight the fundamental challenges involved when partnerships with for-profit enterprises aim to contribute to poverty alleviation. Addressing the issue of cross-sector partnership in the Global South as a question of *partnerships as development agents* allows us to center our analysis on the societal purpose of these institutions, to draw into focus the issue of poverty alleviation and to do so with reference to a broader frame of global governance, which prescribes partnerships with such a role. Our study of the internal properties of a partnership aimed at alleviating poverty in Ghana shows that while this partnership has high efficiency in terms of the interactions between partners, it does not satisfy criteria for being a development agent. This leads us to conclude that any assessment of the development potential of a partnership must concern itself with the needs and potential benefits for beneficiaries at all steps in the partnership process.

Our contribution is threefold. First, by analyzing the impact of a North-South partnership, we address the call for research that investigates partnerships in the Global South (e.g. Jamali 2009). By undertaking a micro-study of the efficiency of development CSPs, we provide empirical knowledge concerning the internal dynamics of a partnership with a for-profit actor which sheds light on the consequences of market interests for its potential as a development agent. Second, we review and evaluate key conceptual frameworks concerning CSPs from management studies. Third, we develop a an alternative CSP assessment framework which highlights the role of beneficiaries to inform future research and partnership design for poverty alleviation.

The paper is structured as follows. First, we review partnership research broadly to provide an overview of the vast diversity of partnership types. Second, as a rationale for our study, we show how cross-sector partnerships are vested with high hopes as the new governance mechanism for international development and follow this with a critical view of partnerships as development agents. Subsequently, we review two highly influential approaches to partnership assessment, which serve as model exemplaries of partnership approaches in the management literature. We add to these an account of a more critical approach to assessing business as a development agent, which leads to a presentation of our alternative 'Partnerships as Development Agents' framework. After this, our research methodology follows. The next section presents our analysis and findings in three parts, corresponding to the three assessment approaches reviewed. In the ensuing conclusion we argue for a beneficiary-oriented assessment approach and show how this enables to draw out the consequences of market interests for the development potential of a cross-sector partnership.

The cross-sector partnership

Partnerships are not a new empirical phenomenon (Selsky & Parker 2005), but research on cross-sector partnerships has gained extreme momentum in management and policy literature since the 1980's (Gray and Stites 2013). The UN Global Compact focus on partnerships in 2001 and the specific focus on partnerships as the leverage to achieve the Sustainable Development goals agreed upon on October 2016 underline the fact that cross-sector partnerships may develop into being the defining collaborations of the 21st century and are only expected to sharply accelerate in prevalence and practice (Austin 2000).

Partnerships across sectors may exist in different configurations, purpose and reach (Selsky & Parker, 2005). Interorganizational relationships (IORs), multi-stakeholder partnerships, cross-sector social project (CSSP) partnerships and public-private partnerships are but a few examples of the plethora of configurations in which they exist. They may occur as a reaction, in anticipation of or as a result of emerging social issue (Seitanidi 2008, Van Tulder et al. 2014). The rationales for partners to collaborate include legitimacy, competency, resource, and society-based reasons. (Gray and Stites 2013, see also Yaziji 2003). Partners driven to form partnerships for legitimacy purposes do so to be seen as a socially desirable collaborator in the public sphere whereas competency rationales point to the 'competitive advantage' profiles of different actors and the complementary roles that they can contribute to solving a mutual problem. (Gray and Stites 2013). Similarly, actors might be driven to partner in order to jettison costs by leveraging collective resources e.g. social capital, networks etc. (Jamali 2007, Inkpen 2002, Arya & Salk 2006). And finally, partners may collaborate for the broader social good such as for example is prevalent in NGOs and interest organisations (Gray and Stites 2013).

Despite this diversity in cross-sector partnerships, generally they are conceptualized as being bound by a common notion of shared responsibility and value creation (Austin, 2010; Austin and Seitanidi 2012) where actors seek to cooperate on complex social, economic, environmental issues, which they cannot solve alone due to missing competencies and time constraints. In a development context, from the point of view of business, partnerships may function as a necessary lever for new (base-of-the-pyramid) market opportunities with respect to access and expertise in the Global South (Richey & Ponte 2014). Moreover, NGOs are often equipped with contacts, training capacity, local embeddedness and capacity building but lack the knowledge and expertise which only businesses can offer (Kolk et al., 2008). Thus, partners may be better able to reach their common goals by leveraging joint resources and capitalizing on the respective strengths of all partners (Selsky & Parker, 2005, Jamali 2004, Nijkamp et al. 2002, Pongsiri 2002, Widdus 2001). According to this assumption, the emergent 'net positive' impact and purported added value creation reigns central in justification for businesses and non-profit organizations to collaborate on economic and social issues which are thought to result in exponentially greater value than what these actors could have achieved alone (Selsky & Parker, 2005; Austin and Seitanidi 2012). Thus, researchers and practitioners alike seem to agree that partnerships hold a potential for contributing to achieving development goals However, this potential is also currently largely unrealized (Blowfield & Dolan 2014, Jamali 2009, Reed & Reed 2009, Kolk et al. 2008).

Below, we review two highly influential approaches to the assessment of cross-sector partnerships, Collaborative Vale Creation and Impact Value Chain, respectively in order to draw out the assessment parameters that are deemed relevant by them. We show their contributions and short comings and subsequently introduce an alternative set of assessment parameters proposed in the Business as a Development framework.

Collaborative Value Creation (CVC)

In their highly influential two-part review of the partnership literature, Austin and Seitanidi (2012) examine how collaboration between nonprofits and businesses can most effectively co-create value.

The value assessed here, pertains primarily to value internal to the partnership, at the organizational and individual level. This is because, while any cross-sector partnership has as its end goal some contribution to societal welfare, parties in a partnership will most often have rationales for their engagement therein which pertain to organizational gains or interests.

This results in a conceptual and analytical framework against which to assess the value potential of cross-sector partnerships. The framework consists of two components, the *Value Creation Spectrum*, defining and analyzing value creation, and the *Collaboration Continuum* which reveals how value creation varies across different types of collaborative relationships. With *The Value Creation Spectrum* it is claimed that the potential for value creation increases when the basis for collaboration is obtaining access to needed resources different than those one possesses. This potential increases when the resources are not generic (money, reputation etc.) but organization-specific (knowledge, capabilities, infrastructure, relationships) and when they are part of a bilateral and reciprocal exchange rather than deriving unilaterally from one partner. Finally, the importance of linked interests is emphasized, stating that although collaboration motivations are often a mixture of altruism and utilitarianism, organizational or individual self-interest is a powerful shaper of behavior.

These value sources are linked to a spectrum of different value types with increasing potential. *Associational value* is a derived benefit accruing to another partner simply from having a collaborative relationship with the other organization. *Transferred resource value* is the benefit derived by a partner from the receipt of a resource from the other partner. *Interaction value,* conversely is the intangibles that derive from the processes of partners working together, while *synergistic value* arises from combining partners' resources to enable them to accomplish more together than they could have separately.

These value definitions are used to define different stages in a continuum of partnership evolution. The least evolved partnership type, termed *philanthropic*, is characterized by its unilateral flow of generic resources, as well as the fact that associational value accrues to both/all partners. In the second stage, the *transactional* partnership, the directionality of the resource flow shifts from unilateral to bilateral, and the nature of transferred resources is often more specialized assets with their greater

value generating potential (Waddell, 2000). The partners have linked interests in that creating value for oneself is dependent on creating it for the other. Associational value is more salient, and organizational compatibility is high. The third level, the *integrative*, characterizes partnerships where there is greater congruency between partners' missions, values, and strategies as a result of working together successfully and developing deeper relationships and greater trust (interaction value). The discovery of linked interests and synergistic value creation provides an incentive for collaborating ever more closely. The partners increasingly use more of their key assets and core competencies, but rather than just using them in an isolated fashion to perform an activity that produces value for the collaboration (as often occurs in transactional collaborations), they combine these key resources. The directionality of the resource flow is conjoined, paving the way for synergistic value creation. The most evolved partnership type is the *transformational* partnership in which shared learning about social needs and partners' roles in meeting those needs change each organization and its people in profound, structural, and irreversible ways. This stage represents collaborative social entrepreneurship that aims for value in the form of large-scale, transformational benefit that accrues to a significant segment of society.

In this way, the potential for value creation in the Collaborative Value Creation framework is understood as a factor of the types of resources put into the partnership and the contribution of each partner towards turning these resources into value. This resource-based understanding of value creation is carried into the authors' conceptualization of partnering processes. Partnership fit is determined primarily by identifying linked interests and resources in potential partners and thus partner selection should be based on assessment of each of the four sources of value, resource complementarity, resource nature, resource directionality, and linked interests and an assessment of what resource configuration would produce what mix of the four types of value, that is, associational, transferred, interaction, and synergistic. Partnership operations include setting objectives and structures; formulating rules and regulations; deciding organizational structures and partnership management. In order to achieve the highest social change potential, partnership collaboration needs to evolve to higher levels (i.e. transformational) to coproduce synergistic value. This stresses the need for change within the partnership facilitated by the partners' linked interests to contribute to the potential for change outside the relationship, for example, moving the relationship to the transformational stage.

Impact Value Chains (IVC)

Recognizing the scarcity of research on the societal effects of partnerships, Van Tulder et al extend the collaborative value creation approach into the impact value chain that documents the actual steps of the partnership from issue definition to impact. This framework presents a chain of results in which organizational inputs and activities lead to a series of outputs, outcomes and ultimately to societal impacts. With the social issue as first step, the process as a whole is framed in terms of solving a particular societal challenge. The second step, following issue definition, is 'mission', where partners develop an approach to addressing the issue identified. Not until the third stage, inputs, do the resources (and capabilities) of the CVC come into play as means to accomplish the partnership mission. As a consequence, the relevance of the resources and capabilities of partners is determined not only by their mutual fit, but primarily by their utility for the mission. Throughputs and outputs, the third and fourth steps, are the activities and deliverables of the partnership, which again derive from the issue, mission and inputs. The final two steps, outcomes and impact, refer to the effects of outputs outside of the partnership and are, as such, where the potential societal benefit takes place.

The impact value chain thus differs from the collaborative value creation framework, in two important ways. First, where the CVC framework is concerned with constitutive components, the impact value chain is processual and concerned with dynamics. This makes the latter better suited to pay attention to factors that may interfere with value creation. This pertains in particular to factors that lie outside of the partnership structure itself, as value creation potential in the CVC framework is a consequence only of factors pertaining to parties within the partnership. Second, since the framework of Impact Value Chains takes societal effects as its point of departure, the first step, on the basis of which subsequent steps develop, is the (shared) definition of the social issue which is addressed by the partnership.

While the CVC framework offers a useful framework for understanding the significance of partner and collaboration characteristics for its potential to create value, this framework pays relatively little attention to the characteristics which determine the potential specifically for societal value. The IVC framework, conversely, centers on societal value, although in a purely descriptive rather than normative manner. Where both frameworks -and along with them all other partnership assessment frameworks - fall short is in terms of specifying the necessary components and steps for the type of partnership, whose aim it is to address issues pertaining to international development in the Global South.

A framework for Business as a Development Agent

As a reaction against the discourse which "hails private sector initiatives as a solution to poverty and marginalization", Blowfield and Dolan argue that in order to truly serve as agents of development, business must be engaged in intentional activities consciously undertaken to improve lives in the Global South. Research into the contribution of business to development has suggested that the vast majority of businesses operating in the Global South contribute to development goals not as development agents, who give primacy to poverty alleviation and accountability, but rather as development tools i.e., organizations who create value for society as a growth-driven side- effect and without any responsibility for this effect. One of the consequences of this is that in order to benefit, intended beneficiaries are required to conform to the requirements of business rather than vice-versa (Blowfield & Dolan 2014). To assess the benefits of business engagement in the Global South, it must, according to Blowfield and Dolan, be weighed against factors such as exclusion, capital assets, and a reinterpretation of positive outcomes, benefits and beneficiaries (2014, p.23). To this end, they put forward a framework for assessing the effectiveness of business as a development agent, based on three criteria: 1) Willingness to deploy assets with expected, calculated development benefit; 2) Primacy to benefits for the poor and marginalized; and 3) Accountability in striving to address poverty.

With the first criterion, *willingness to deploy assets with expected, calculated development benefit*, the authors contend, that having a profit motive, does not in and of itself disqualify a development agent. It must, however, be willing to invest its assets for development. This involves two things. First, with this criterion, Blowfield and Dolan preclude from their notion of development agents, companies that use of others' funds (e.g. development aid) to implement development projects or use the company's surplus for philanthropic purposes. Second, development effects cannot occur as an epiphenomenon to the practices of a company but must be the result of an explicit strategy for creating development impact in place, which is based on a thorough assessment of development needs as well as of the appropriate measures to satisfy them.

The second criterion, *primacy to benefits for the poor and marginalized*, means that when management has to choose between competing interests, in order to be considered a development agent, it must give priority to the interests of the poor. This involves consideration of the selection of beneficiaries, recruitment processes as well as assessment of both direct and indirect benefits. The first challenge involved in using this criterion to evaluate actual practice, comes from defining 'the poor'. Formal, absolute definitions (such as World Bank's poverty line of 1.90$/day) notwithstanding, poverty is a relative concept. In a local context, where poverty is ubiquitous, giving priority to the poor presumably must mean giving priority to the poor*est.* (Blowfield and Dolan 2014)

The third criterion, *Accountability in striving to address poverty* states that as a development agent, the company must not only give primacy to benefits for the poor but consciously and accountably strive to address poverty and marginalization. There are two elements to this criterion. First that a development agent not only provide opportunities that would seem to benefit the poor, but also takes on the responsibility to ensure as far as possible that the poor in fact benefit from these opportunities. And second, that being a development agent requires providing an honest, fair and reliable account to itself and others of what it has achieved in development terms.

With these three criteria, the framework provided by Blowfield and Dolan is intended to serve as a metric for evaluating the pertinence of business for providing development benefits. Their framework

does, however, focus on characteristics of the institutional environment of the potential development agent, that is, on whether a given company is institutionally fit to function as a development agent. A partnership is institutionally more complex, as it unites vastly different resources and rationales, the latter potentially conflicting, which complicates such assessment. Thus, while Blowfield and Dolan's framework complement the CSP frameworks well, by explicitly addressing issues pertaining to development challenges, the CSP frameworks supply Blowfield and Dolan with necessary considerations that are specific to partnership constellations. Thus, we suggest that the theoretical insights from these three framework should be integrated in an analytical framework for "partnerships as development agents" (see figure 1), which is able to accentuate the unique characteristics needed for creating societal value in a development context, while also paying attention to the complexities of the partnership constellation.

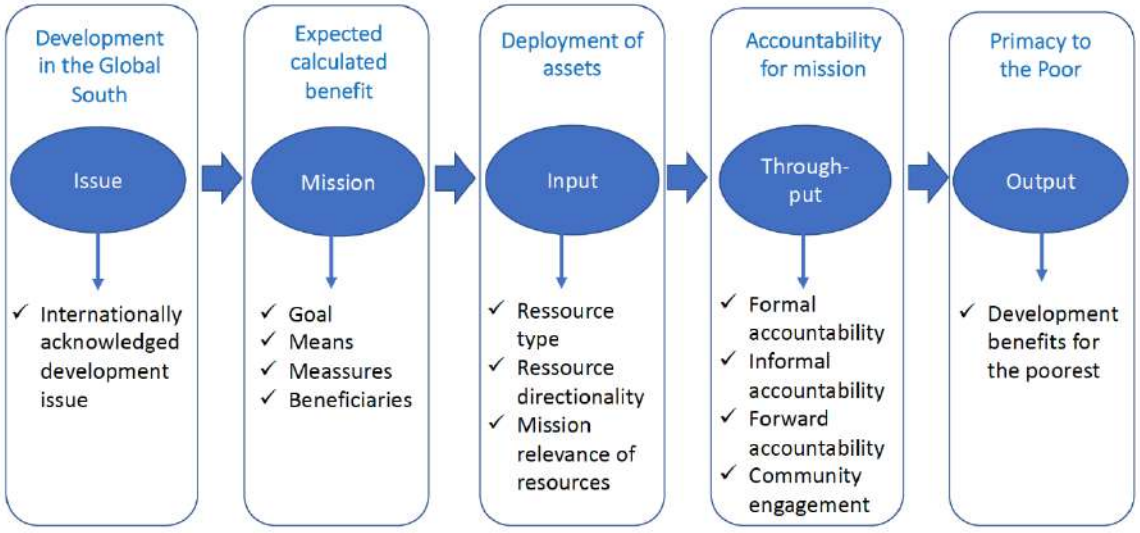

Figure : Integrated framework for assessing partnerships as development agents

RESEARCH SETTING AND METHODOLOGY

The paper draws on a single case study of a partnership between a Danish business and a Ghanaian NGO. The business partner is a design, glass and jewelry production company with headquarters in Denmark and retailers in Denmark, Norway and Sweden while the NGO is a well-established, small local organization whose mission is poverty alleviation for its district in the Eastern Region of Ghana.

This partnership represent a highly relevant case for research on partnership dynamics for several reasons. First, it is a North-South partnership, where a Danish business is partnering with a local NGO in a country in which Danish governmental development assistance is currently being phased out, which according to Danida (2017, 2) "…opens for a stronger private sector partnership". Second, the particular partnership was promoted by the Danish embassy to Ghana as a successful business-NGO partnership and has also been highlighted in a OECD development cooperation peer review report as a "success story" (OECD, 2016).

Third, the partnership has operated for more than 10 years, making it suited for a study, which aims to understand longer term collaborative dynamics.

The paper is based on three periods of field research over a two-year period (January 2015, November 2015 & March 2016) in the Eastern Region of Ghana as well as one visit to the headquarters of the company in Denmark. In Ghana, data was collected through interviews focus groups discussions and observations at the partnership site and in three surrounding communities where the employees reside. Interviews were also conducted in the Ghanaian capital of Accra with local authorities and relevant parties.

During the first phase of field research in Ghana in January 2015, the context of Danish company-NGO partnerships and the bead production and assembly were examined. Unstructured interviews with local authorities including managers of North-South partnerships at the Danish embassy, The Association of Ghana Industries (AGI), United Nations Global Compact (UNGC), Ghana in Accra were conducted. During these interviews, information was generated about the history, aims and scope of partnerships in Ghana. In addition, key policy documents regarding partnerships were collected. Open-ended interview with the business owner and partnership managers were also conducted at the partnership location. The history, motivation, mission structure and activities of the bead partnership were addressed during these interviews.

During the second phase of the field research in October 2015, a semi-structured in-depth interview was held with the owner of the business at the business headquarters in Denmark. The purpose of this interview was to generate more in-depth insights into the evolution, dynamics, resource allocation and priorities of the different partners. This interview was followed by field research in Ghana in November 2015. Three semi-structured interviews with local managers of the partnership were conducted seeking information about the governance, daily management and funding of the partnership, their specific activities, recruitment and training of employees, and prioritization of resources as well as information about the target beneficiaries. Semi-structured interviews with two female employees as well as three group discussions with small groups of bead producers and assemblers were conducted. The aim of these interviews and group discussions was to get initial insights into the challenges that the women were facing in their everyday life and the perceived benefits and challenges of being employed by the partnership.

During the third phase of the field research in Ghana in March 2016, three interviews with partnership managers where conducted to garner insights about the impact that the partnership had generated for the poor. Moreover, 16 individual interviews with employees were conducted at their homes. A refined semi-structured interview guide with 5 themes was used in order to generate knowledge about the informants' life stories, experiences of change in their living conditions, skills and competences, as a result of their employment with the partnership as well as the indirect effects on the wider community. In addition, to gain insights into wider community perceptions and viewpoints we conducted three focus group discussions with five to seven participants with community members unaffiliated with the partnership in three surrounding villages where the employees of the partnership live. A guideline containing key themes was prepared in advance, which included questions intended to prompt a broad discussion about the challenges and opportunities in the community, their knowledge about the partnership and their perceptions about if and how it had affected their lives and the community.

Because the respondents were not confident in English, a Ghanaian research assistant was used for most of the interviews and focus group discussions to translate from the local language, Twi, to English. All interviews and focus group discussions were recorded, transcribed and coded using NVivo 11. We first labeled the raw interview text according to content and then used a three-step coding of the data. We first coded the data according to the three criteria for assessing a partnership's ability to serve as a development

agent as outlined above. Second, we coded all data based on the distinction made in CSP frameworks including issue, mission, inputs and outputs as well as collaborative characteristics such as resource types, directionality etc.

DATA ANALYSIS

Since the IVC framework gives way to a step-by-step examination of the partnership process, the ensuing analysis starts here in order to provide readers with insights into the operations of the partnership. Subsequently, we will examine the partnership in terms of its value creation potential and finally we will address the conditions for partnerships as development agents.

Partnership Impact Value chain

Issue and mission

The idea for the 'Bead partnership' between the Danish company and the Ghanaian NGO arose when the Danish business owner visited a friend connected to the Ghanaian NGO. During the owner's visit to the Eastern Region of Ghana, she encountered the enormous amounts of beads made from recycled glass in bright colors at a weekly bead market in a town close to the office of the NGO. The Eastern Region is home to a long-standing beads production, in which crafts men and women wash, sort, pound and sieve scrap glass before poring it into molds made from locally dug clay. The molds are then placed into a kiln and baked, and once the beads are cooled, they are washed and strung. The business owner saw the vast potential for leveraging her knowledge about glass to start a jewelry making business in the area, which made the glass according to Ghanaian tradition but assembled them based on her own design to sell to North American and European markets. Witnessing the challenging living conditions of women in the area, she also saw the possibility of helping local women by employing them to produce and assemble the beads. For the Ghanaian NGO, the motivation to engage in the partnership was fueled by its social mission to employ and train single mothers to become financially independent. The NGO partner has local poverty alleviation as its overall objective and has prior to establishing the partnership performed a systematic assessment of local needs. In 1999-2000 the secretary general from the NGO, in collaboration with a Norwegian Anthropologist, did four weeks of fieldwork, interviewing community leaders, as well as various community members in the region. This was done with a view to identifying the population groups most in need as well as to identify the main challenges of those groups. The fieldwork resulted in the realization that although the vast majority of the region's population considered themselves farmers, most farmers were landless, having to accept very exploitative conditions in order to get access to land for their livelihood. Additionally, the work was highly weather-dependent and sensitive to fluctuations in supply and demand. The organization thus identified landless farmers as a key target group for economic empowerment initiatives and with the Norwegian anthropologist they developed the idea of alternative livelihood, which would make the population less vulnerable to these types of risks. Landless families were thus identified as the first target group for the organization. The second target group identified was single mothers, as the fieldwork uncovered that a little more than half of mothers were single mothers with an average of 4-5 children to clothe, feed and educate. Finally, due to the high occurrence of HIV in the district, the third target group was young men and women age 14-24, targeted with sex education and family planning as well as general education on health and human rights. Through personal relations with a Danish social entrepreneur, the secretary general of the NGO identified the Danish jewelry maker as a potential partner

and the partnership was established with a view to address the second of these issues, poverty alleviation for single mothers in the region.

The partnerships' mission is to address the issue of poverty in the region through employment and education, targeting single mothers. The expectation is that a better and more stable income would enable single mothers to better support the education of their children and simultaneously the single mothers themselves would be provided with education and training through partnership activities. This would, in the words if the partnership manager, contribute to "breaking the poverty cycle".

Input, throughputs and output

The input to the partnership provided by the NGO is its local knowledge and local networks, which give access to individuals with traditional bead making skills. Thus, both the individual employees as well as the basic know-how is provided by the NGO. The NGO takes care of recruitment as well as day-to-day management of the partnership and houses the partnership. Finally, the NGO provides education by having workshops on health, hygiene, civil rights etc. for employees.

Input from the business consists in both funding and expertise. The business supplies all materials and buys the jewelry from the partnership, thus paying both commission-based salaries and a handling fee, the latter of which serves to subsidize other activities of the NGO. In addition, the business provides designs and technical expertise, with the business owner developing new designs several times a year, which she teaches employees how to assemble. Beyond this technical expertise, the business partner also provides the business expertise and access to markets, necessary for the commercial viability of the partnership.

The partnership initially employed 65 women but have more recently employed considerably less. Approximately 25 women were employed in jewelry assembly, working out of the offices of the NGO. A further 10-12 women worked with bead production according to the traditional methods in the villages. The partnership is managed by two women, a quality controller, who originally worked with assembly, and a general manager, with a business school degree. The general secretary of the NGO oversees the partnership. Strategic decisions are, however, primarily made by the business owner.

From the point of view of the business, the primary output of the partnership is the jewelry, a branded product with a story to tell. Each piece of jewelry is associated with the name of the woman who assembled it, the profile of whom can be read on the company webpage. As the business owner states *"Initially, it was a bit of a marketing stunt to use single mothers. People like the story".* From the point of view of the NGO, the primary output is funding. While the NGO was initially funded entirely by the Danish development agency, after this funding was discontinued the NGO had to find ways of becoming self-reliant. The partnership contributes to the mission of the NGO in part directly by addressing the needs of one of its target groups, and indirectly, by providing funding for activities undertaken by the NGO to address the needs of its other target groups.

For employees, the most immediate output of the partnership is the employment itself. The women's employment is informal, implying that it is not regulated by the government and without any form of employment contract, social security or protection without contracts. They are salaried on a commission basis with unstable income depending on orders. Both production and assembly workers are called upon when there is demand on the Northern jewelry producer's markets. This means that income level at given points in time is unpredictable. Overall, there are 3-4 months every year without income from the partnership. As one employee expressed:

> *"The money I make, I could have said that I make more money from [the partnership] but sometimes we are home for four or five months and when that happens, we are not paid. So actually, the amount of money I earn, the majority is from farming because when we are home for five months, we will not be paid.*"

Another employee similarly stated: *"When we are home for a number of months and not working, they could give us some sort of compensation so that when we are working, they do the deduction bit by bit"*. The partnership does not, however, provide such compensation.

The second output of the partnership is technical training. This output is mentioned frequently by management, as in the below quote from the NGO manager:

> "*She [the business owner] is taking them through a lot of training in design work, color work, a lot of things so right from the start they are taught how to use various tools, design work. A main line has been the jewelry production using glass beads. Producing glass beads has been the main line so these people have been trained over the years and been through all the assembling of the jewelry that we could use for exports."*

Further, employees are regularly offered information sessions on issues such as health, family planning, domestic violence, human rights etc. undertaken by the partner NGO. The NGO manager explained: "*We also have educational workshops for them. We also have B2B programs, and apart from that we sponsored educational programs for them so we have programs on Fairtrade, health issues, business development and environmental issues especially for the villages."*

Similar outputs are provided for communities, in the form of various information and training sessions offered by the NGO. Some workshops are similar to the workshops for employees on health, family planning, civic rights etc. and some are more specific, targeted sessions concerning issues which are relevant to the particular communities. A partnership manager explained:

> "*Especially in the bead production area, they mostly use firewood in the beads production so we had talks with them on the need for replanting trees, use a kind of timber, take measures to use a type that could be easily replaced. We encourage them to replant trees that they could use within a short time".*

The impact value chain thus gives way to an analysis which shows that the shared issue and mission definition of the partnership is matched with relevant inputs from the partner organizations, giving rise to outcomes that match the partnership mission. Because the impact value chain is concerned with the processual prerequisites for producing societal impact, the framework treats the issue and mission definition as setting qualifying criteria for the relevance of inputs. This enables the analysis above to pay particular attention to the processes involved in identifying a societal issue and the development of a specified, joint mission to address it as well as assessing the compatibility of inputs and outcomes with this mission.

Collaborative Value Creation

The partnership is characterized by a high degree of resource complementarity and it is this complementarity which was the rationale for the collaboration from the offset. As shown above, through the partnership the business gains access to methods and means of production, which it would have been difficult to achieve without the partnership. The NGO gets access not only to funds but also to expertise,

which it would not have otherwise had. It is clear that in terms of these organization specific resources, the flow is bilateral and reciprocal and the linked interests are evident.

Several types of value are produced for the partners. *Transferred resource value* derives from the exchange of resources described above. Further, the business gains moral legitimacy on its Western markets from partnering with a Southern development NGO, while the NGO gains legitimacy for collaborating with a Northern business, which is seem as testifying to its professionalism, thus accruing *associational value*. The relatively close collaboration between the partners gives rise to *interactional value* from the point of view of the NGO in particular. With her insights into management, the business owner provides advice and guidance on many aspects of the NGO's operations and strategies. The partnership also opens up new spheres of possibility for the NGO. As the business owner puts it: "*For them, it was mostly about landing their funding [from the Danish aid agency], but then they have this bead project and it opens their eyes to the fact that it is possible to make money in other ways.*" However, except from a failed and abandoned project with a poultry business, this new sphere of possibility has not materialized in substantially changed activities in the NGO. With these types of value creation, the partnership places itself somewhere between a transactional and an integrative partnership on the collaborative value creation spectrum. However, changes induced by the partnership are confined to what goes on within the partnership itself and the ambitions of the partnership remain at the micro-partnership level. The transformational potential of the partnership remains unrealized, with limited synergistic value creation in that the practices of the individual partners remain relatively unaffected by the partnership.

For the purpose of assessing the potential of partnerships for development it is a critical shortcoming that the Collaborative Value Creation framework pays no attention to the suitability of partner resources with respect to solving the particular development problem at hand. However, the assessment framework offered by the CVC model draws attention to the fact that the nature of collaboration plays a critical role for its ability to produce change. This means that the complementarity of resources and the reciprocity of their exchange have crucial implications for the sound functioning and internal value creation of the partnership and thus ultimately also for its potential to contribute to societal change. Substantial internal value creation, according to this logic, is a prerequisite for societal outcomes and it follows that the more synergistic the partnership exchange becomes internally, the greater its change potential externally. Thus, combining the CVC model with the Value Impact Chain allows us propose that the more the individual partners are willing to let themselves transform by the issue and mission, the greater their internal and external value creation potential.

Partnerships as development agents

As mentioned above, Michael Blowfield and Catherine Dolan define a development agent as an entity that "consciously strives to deliver, and moreover be held to account for, developmental outcomes" (Blowfield and Dolan, 2014, p. 414). They identify the structural dimensions of business as a development agent, how the embodiment of a development agent differs from other development related roles associated with the private sector and the different types of instrumental interaction business has with development issues such as poverty and marginalization. Below, we assess the bead partnership according to the three institutional criteria proposed by Blowfield and Dolan.

Willingness to deploy assets for expected, calculated development benefit

It is unclear whether partnership activities and investments are oriented toward an expected, calculated benefit. The bead partnership was established, at the initiative of the NGO rather than the business, with a view to assist single mothers in the area and at its inception single motherhood was a requirement for employment. In this sense, from the point of view of the partnership (if not the business), the expected development benefit is an integral part of the raison d'etre. Where a key critique of business engagement in development is that in diagnosing the scope of intervention, business tends to recognize only those problems for which a solution within the competence of the enterprise can be produced, in fact this partnership is established on the basis of a problem diagnosis made by the NGO. That said, no systematic consideration of the benefits expected by the particular intervention made by the partnership was ever made and thus the expected development benefit can hardly be considered 'calculated'.

The NGO has not been able to find business partners to support their other goals, i.e. providing assistance for landless farmers and youth with HIV. Clearly, Ghanaian single mothers are a good fit branding wise for accessories for European women. Identifying a similarly attractive fit for landlessness and HIV is a bigger challenge. Thus, although the partnership was initiated by the NGO on the basis of thorough needs assessment, commercial imperatives still do determine the development benefits provided. In sum, the partnership is based on a thorough assessment of development needs but no explicit strategy for creating development impact is in place, and the partnership's activities have not been chosen primarily because they are the appropriate measures to satisfy those needs.

It is equally unclear whether the bead partnership exhibits a willingness to deploy assets to achieve a development benefit. Initially, the partnership was funded by Danida, and thus in the initial phase it was not deploying its own assets, but rather development aid. However, after this phase, with the partnership operating solely by commercial means, it remains questionable whether assets are deployed for development benefits. First, employees - the partnership's primary beneficiaries - are paid salaries based on the fairtrade standard of 20% above average salary in the area. In addition, the business partner pays a surplus to the NGO for managing the operation. This is currently the main income for the NGO, with which its services are financed. Nonetheless, it is highly unlikely that the aggregate cost of this for the business partner exceeds the costs of equivalent production in Denmark. In addition, the partnership is arranged such that financial risk to the business partner is minimal. Salaries are commission based and materials are kept safe on the premises of the NGO. The business owner has, however, provided some loans to the NGO as well as to select, individual workers and this involves some financial risk, but these are personal loans and not formally part of the partnership. Factors such as these seem to point to the business interests of the partnership being fenced in and protected to such an extent that it would seem unlikely that assets would be deployed to secure a development benefit.

Primacy to benefits for the poor and marginalized

As indicated above, the partnership was established based on an assessment of needs in the local area, which pointed to single women as a group in acute need. However, poverty varies greatly between different villages in the area in which the partnership operates. The villages from which beneficiaries are chosen for the partnership do, according to our respondents, not belong to the poorest communities. In addition, for members of the local communities the definition of the needy is more ambiguous. For many, rather than single mothers, it is unemployed youth and orphans who are in greatest need. Further, within the group of single mothers, some are in more need than others. It is clear, however, that no intentional effort is made to include the poorest segment of the single mothers in the production since they typically do not come with the necessary competences, skills and assets to work efficiently. On the contrary, the bead

partnership selects the most resourceful of the single mothers. One women, who was not involved in the partnership stated "*If I get the opportunity, I would work for then, but I feel that because I don't have proper educational background, that would fight against my chances of getting employment with them*".

The selection process is facilitated by community leaders who identify the most viable employees. One employee narrated *"I went to church and my community chairman told me if he knew someone who was educated and knew how to produce beads, they would send him to Denmark. So he gave me a call and sent me to the organization"*. In addition, tests are undertaken by partnership management to identify the most capable women. One employee explained: *We were many. They gave us training and after the training we were supposed to know what they taught us so those that were able to remember what they were taught were picked and the others were dropped*. In this sense, the efficiency of the production process - and thus ultimately the profitability of the partnership – is given priority over benefits for the poorest. Ironically, from the point of view of the NGO, the use of community leaders to mediate the recruitment process is a key accountability measure, thought to ensure that recruitments are sound from a community point of view. However, not only partnership, but also community representatives are concerned with the fitness of beneficiaries for commercial operations or, in Blowfield and Dolan's terms, *"with a particular categorization of beneficiary – 'the viable poor' –enterprising entrepreneurs who are capable of being integrated into the market and consumer society"*.

While the recruitment process officially takes place through this selection by community leaders, interviews make apparent that in practice recruitment takes place in varying ways. While some employees were indeed selected by community leaders, others wrote formal applications to the NGO, some were picked due to personal/family relations and some were transferred from other engagements with the NGO. Indeed, not all employees are single mothers. This lack of consistency and transparency, which testifies to practices of convenience rather than primacy to poverty alleviation, causes confusion and disables the individual initiative of potential beneficiaries.

Accountability in striving to address poverty

Due to the small size of the operation, in the bead-partnership there is a close relationship between the individual employees and management, so there is ongoing informal insurance of the actual benefit to the women involved and to their children. One partnership manager stated: "*sometimes we come, listen to them, we get to know the things that bother them. And just by observing them too. Just by observing them you can tell*". However, there is no systematic monitoring of impact on the direct circumstances of employees and neither formal nor informal monitoring of benefit beyond these individual women to the wider communities around them.

For the NGO, accountability is higher. The NGO has over the years done extensive reporting to Danida required due to the funding relation, an intricate governance structure is in place and annual meetings are held with a whole range of stakeholders. As the general secretary of the NGO puts it *"We follow up. We monitor. We write reports"*. Reporting on the specific intervention by the partnership, however, does not exist. This means that just like the activities of the partnership are not the result of proactive calculated efforts, there is little systematic retroactive evaluation to fortify the accountability of the partnership. In addition, forward accountability in the partnership is highly limited. Information levels from the partnership towards the women and local communities, who are intended to benefit from it are low, bordering on opaque. The employees are, however, to a certain extent endowed an influence on elements of their engagement with the partnership. One partnership manager noted "*we are working out a*

policy for them, based on corporate social responsibility because we want to see how their transformation is affecting their children and we want to see how we can support them, so here in the office they bargain, they have admittance to bargain". Employees have over the years managed to influence their wage as well as to ensure that they would not be called into the office unless there was enough work there to make the trip worthwhile (including covering their transportation costs). Above and beyond these types of elements of the direct relationship between employees and partnership, beneficiaries are not included in the decision-making processes; they are not positioned as partners but merely take the role as contract workers. In sum, the partnership performs neither upward nor downward accountability in any systematic way.

To conclude, the framework of Blowfield and Dolan has proven useful for teasing out characteristics of the bead partnership, which render its quality as a development agent questionable.

CONCLUSION

It is not the purpose of either of the three assessment frameworks presented above to assess the partnerships in terms of their outcomes or impacts, societal or otherwise. In each their way, these frameworks are aimed at providing a conceptual framework for assessing the impact *potential* of partnerships, thus looking only at the partnership internal processes which chronologically precede outcomes. Surprisingly, perhaps, the vast majority of research on cross-sector partnerships is of this kind. A modest, albeit growing, literature exists which addresses the key question concerning the extent to which the highly celebrated cross-sector partnerships in fact deliver on their promise of societal impact. However, it is not only the question of actual impact assessment, which is crucial to answer in relation to development contexts. It is equally important to address the question of the development potential of partnerships, or in other words to develop conceptual frameworks for assessing whether a given partnership constellation has the necessary properties to produce development benefits. The CVC framework points to crucial factors pertaining to the fact that as a collaborative effort, the success of a partnership depends critically upon its collaborative dynamics. It also highlights that in order to be successful in terms of external value creation, the partnership must produce a substantial amount of internal value. This framework, however, is blind to factors beyond collaborative ones, which influence a partnerships societal change potential. The IVC framework, on the other hand, emphasizes that the societal issue and partnership mission determine subsequent steps in a partnership process, but this framework does not take into account neither the collaboration dynamics of CVC, nor the particular factors that delimit issue and mission definition, when the partnership goal is the creation of development benefits in the Global South.

The insight that grows clearly out of the inclusion of Blowfield and Dolan's criteria for the development agent, is that a partnership that has poverty alleviation as its objective cannot be evaluated without integrating into analysis a concern with the beneficiary. The change potential of a partnership which has poverty alleviation as its goal, is dependent on its clear definition of its beneficiaries and its accountability for and towards beneficiaries. In the analyzed case, we see that according to the criteria for change potential outlined in the CVC framework, the change potential of this partnership is relatively high. Because the actual change aimed for is a blind spot in this framework, it is not possible to see the consequences of for-profit interests on the partnership's ability to deliver on its mission. Bringing the development agent into play, makes it clear that there are important and critical such consequences in this partnership. First, market driven interests come to determine, who will be the beneficiaries and with what measures their needs will be addressed. Second, because of the commercial need for efficiency, the partnership cannot address the needs of the poorest, but only those of 'the viable poor'. Third, because the partnership is ultimately driven by commercial interest, accountability for its development effects is absent.

While the bead partnership follows the prescribed logic of the governing bodies of Western economies according to which relations between Northern and Southern partners should be reciprocal and benefits shared and mutual, our framework for the assessment of partnerships as development agents brings into question whether indeed such a partnership can have the structural properties necessary for a development agent. As membership of cross-sector partnerships is becoming global mainstream among public and private constituencies, our findings indicate that there is a an urgent need to understand better how the needs of beneficiaries are supported, repressed or possibly even ignored in such partnerships.

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UNDERSTANDING THE DETERMINANTS OF ACADEMIC MISCONDUCT: A STUDY FROM A BUSINESS SCHOOL IN GHANA

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ABSTRACT

While unethical practices among students in business schools are gaining research attention, surprisingly sub-Saharan Africa is least represented in the discourse. However, Ghana represents one of the good cases within the sub-region to shed light on the topic. The present study uses hierarchical and logistic regression analyses to examine the determinants of academic misconduct in a business school. The study employs a survey data based on 300 sample size from one of the leading business schools in Ghana. The results of both the hierarchical and logistic regressions show that the role of faculty in higher education setting with regard to students' academic misconduct operationalized as frequency of cheating, suspected misconduct, reporting cheating and consideration of cheating and intention to cheat is a panacea in combating the canker in higher education. Consequently, the implications of the study on public policy, empirical literature and practice are suggested.

Key words. Business schools, misconduct, academic misconduct

INTRODUCTION

As a result of publications of ethical scandals in various corporations being blamed on business schools, studies on academic misconduct and ethical behavior of students in institutions of higher education in general are gaining research attention (Miranda & Freire, 2011). It is argued that the involvement in academic misconduct by students will most likely lead to unethical behavior at their workplaces when they enter the job market (Salleh et al, 2013; Fell & Mabey, 2011). Stakeholders of higher education are more likely to lose confidence and hope in the degrees conferred on graduates, and their corresponding competences if academic misconduct continues to persist and become rampant in institutions of higher learning (Resurreccion *et al*, 2012). For example, the global competitiveness of a nation depends highly on the quality of its educational system; therefore, academic misconduct is a major factor that can undermine the quality of education system in any country (Miranda & Freire, 2011). Academic misconduct can diminish and lessen the academic integrity institutions of higher education (Salleh et al, 2013).

Empirical evidence from several studies suggest that culture of academic misconduct among students is on rampage (Gallant, 2008; Lee & Wen, 2007). According to Melgoza and Smith (2008), a survey data from Center for Academic Integrity reported that almost 70 percent of undergraduate students have in one way or the other be involved in academic misconducts in their course of study. Bates et al. (2010) maintained that academic misconduct is so common to the extent that students do not regard it as being morally wrong, unethical and unacceptable. Also, Gallant (2011) maintain that more than 90 percent of students indicate that their classmates usually plagiarize another individual's material to enhance their academic standing.

Previous studies have explored personal characteristics and contextual factors to explain academic misconduct, but this study extends Teodorescu and Andrei (2009). It employs demographic, personality and contextual factors to explore the issue by grouping the contextual factors into faculty and peer influence. Mainly, the paper aims to examine the factors that determine academic misconduct among students. A key related objective was to explore the relative strengths of the correlates of academic misconduct (i.e. demographic, personality, faculty influence, peer influence, situational factors) to shed light on extant empirical literature as well as to inform public policy and practice. In the light of the objectives the following research question is explored:

- By controlling for individual characteristics, how do faculty and peer influences explain academic misconduct among students

By addressing the main research question the present study seeks to make three contributions to the field. First, because existing empirical front regarding the topic remains inclusive, scattered and divergent, a key drive behind the study is to contribute to extant empirical front to clarify existing findings. Second, unethical practices among students (e.g. academic misconducts) is one the critical challenges in most institutions of higher education in general. However, this study deviates from existing studies and explores the issues from a business school context. The reason is that business schools are among the growing units within the institutions of higher education all over the world; for example, programmes in business schools are in higher demand compared to other programs in institutions of higher learning. Coupled with the higher demand of their programmes, business schools have one of the expensive programmes among the institutions of learning. Consequently, business schools have become a topic of academic research and media discussions in recent times because most of the incessant corporate scandals in the corporate world are being blamed on them for failure to instill ethical values among their students. In the light of this the present study uses a business school as its empirical context. Thirdly, with the growing debate regarding unethical challenges in higher education institutions globally, sub-Saharan Africa is least represented in the academic discourse. However, Ghana represents a good case study on the topic from Africa viewpoint. In recent times, Ghana has witnessed a huge growth in its higher education sub-Sector, especially then growth of business schools. Further, unlike the South Africa, Ghana is not yet one of the BRICS group of countries, but Ghana is described as one of the beacons of democratic countries in Africa. Therefore, evidence from Ghana offers much inspiration to similar context in most developing countries. Consequently, the study responds to calls to address the dearth knowledge on the topic from Africa's viewpoint (Oredein, 2012; Nkomo, 2015; Olibie *et al.* (2015).

To address the topic, the rest of the paper is structured as follows. The next section reviews literature on past studies for the development of hypotheses. The second section describes the method and econometric technique used in the study. The third section is dedicated to findings, discussions and conclusions whilst the last section looks at the implications of the study

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual framework and hypotheses development

Academic Misconduct

The term academic misconduct and academic dishonesty are usually used synonymously to represent all kinds of unethical behavior which students are engaged in while completing their studies in higher education institutions (Hugbes & McCabe, 2006). According to Mullens (2000), anything that gives student undue advantage over their colleagues can be termed as academic misconduct. Academic misconduct includes "purchasing an essay; plagiarizing paragraphs or whole texts; impersonating another to take a test; sneaking a peek at another student's answers; smuggling crib notes into a test; padding a bibliography; fudging laboratory results; collaborating on an assignment when the professor asks for individual work; or asking for a deadline extension by citing a bogus excuse". (Hugbes & McCabes, 2006; p.23).

Demographic factors

Gender and academic misconduct

Several studies have shown that demographic variables such as gender, year of study and field of study can influence the involvement in any type of academic misconduct (Kisamore et.al, 2007; Gerdeman, 2000). For instance, study conducted by Teodorescu and Andrei (2009) revealed that males are more likely to cheat than females in Romania. Similarly, McCabe and Trevino also examined the influence of individual and contextual influence on academic misconduct. They found that males are more likely to be involved in academic misconduct than females. Salleh et.al (2013) also reported that males are more likely to be involved in academic misconduct than females in Malaysia. Iyer and Eastman (2006) also found that men are more likely to indulge in academic misconduct than women. On the contrary, the findings from Simon et.al (2004) revealed that incidence of cheating among women were on the rise and women interviewed in their study were less likely to report incident of academic misconduct. Studies conducted by Center of Academic Integrity (2005) revealed that females cheated as commonly as male students and were more likely to be involved in academic misconduct. Hafeez, Khan et al. (2013) also found that females were more likely to cheat compare to males in Pakistan. This clearly shows the findings on the influence of gender on academic misconduct are inconclusive, Based on this the following hypothesis is posed.

Hypothesis 1: Gender will significantly influence academic misconduct defined as frequency of cheating (1a), suspected misconduct (1b), consideration of misconduct (1c), likelihood of reporting misconduct (1d) and intention to cheat (1e).

Age and academic misconduct

A number of studies have also examined the influence of age on academic misconduct. Most of these studies have shown that younger students are more likely to be involved in academic misconduct (Kisamore et.al, 2007; Salleh et.al, 2007). Study conducted by Kisamore et.al (2007) revealed that matured students were less likely to be engaged in academic misconduct. Salleh et.al (2013) also found that younger students were more likely to be engaged in academic misconduct in Malaysia. Simon et.al (2004) also found that mature students have conservative attitude towards cheating. On the contrary Khodaie et.al (2011) also found that mature students are more likely to cheat. Crown and Spiller (1998) also found mixed results on the effect of age on academic

misconduct. This clearly shows that there are currently mixed empirical results on the effect of age and academic misconduct. Hence, the following hypotheses is presented.

Hypothesis 2: Age will negatively influence frequency of cheating (2a), suspected misconduct (2b), likelihood of reporting misconduct (2c), consideration of misconduct (2d) and intention to cheat (2e).

Faculty influence and Academic Misconduct

Several researchers have reported that faculty variables such as faculty dishonesty, unfairness, faculty student interaction and quality and relevance of instruction significantly influence the possibility of committing academic misconduct (Resurreccion, 2012; Teodorescu & Andrei, 2009). Ressurreccion (2012) found that quality assessment learning put up by faculty significantly reduces the likelihood that student will engage in academic misconduct. On the contrary, Teodorescu and Andrei (2009) found that grading unfairness, faculty dishonesty and faculty student interaction has no significant influence on the intention to cheat. This present study investigates the effect of faculty influence operationalize as grading unfairness, faculty dishonesty, faculty-student interaction and quality and relevance of instruction offered by faculty on academic misconduct. Therefore, the following hypotheses are posed:

Hypothesis 3: Quality of instructions will significantly influence frequency of cheating (3a), suspected misconduct (3b), likelihood of reporting misconduct (3c) and consideration of misconduct (3d), intention to cheat (3e)

Hypothesis 4: Faculty dishonesty will significantly influence frequency of cheating (4a), suspected misconduct (4b), likelihood of reporting misconduct (4c) and consideration of misconduct (8d), intention to cheat (4e)

Hypothesis 5: Faculty-student interaction will significantly influence frequency of cheating (5a), suspected misconduct (5b), likelihood of reporting misconduct (5c), consideration of misconduct (5d), intention to cheat (5e)

Peer Influence and Academic misconduct

Several studies have examined the influence of peers on academic misconduct (Teodorescu & Andrei, 2009; Chapman, Davis et.al, 2004). On one hand, Resurreccion (2012) found that students are more likely to be engaged in cheating when they notice that most of their colleagues are engaged in it. On the other hand, Teodorescu & Andrei (2009) found that peer's cheating has no significant influence on the likelihood of engaging in academic misconduct. Also, Teodorescu & Andrei (2009) found that peers' dishonesty in the college significantly increases the likelihood that student will engage in academic misconduct. However, Resurreccion (2012) found that peers' dishonesty in the college has no significant influence on the likelihood that students will be engaged in academic misconduct. Miranda and Freire (2011) also reported that environment-peer pressure and normalized attitudes towards academic misconduct are the main factors that influence the likelihood of cheating among undergraduate students in Portugal. In that study the author found that peer pressure positively influences the intention to cheat and reporting misconduct. This clearly shows the findings on the effect of peer influence on academic misconduct are inconclusive, hence the hypotheses is stated as follows.

Hypothesis 6: Peer cheating will significantly influence frequency of cheating (6a), suspected misconduct (6b), likelihood of reporting misconduct (6c) and consideration of misconduct (6d), intention to cheat (6e)
Hypothesis 7: Peer engagement in academics will significantly influence frequency of cheating (7a), suspected misconduct (7b), likelihood of reporting misconduct (7c), consideration of misconduct (7d) and intention to cheat (7e)
Hypothesis 8: Attitude towards cheating will significantly influence frequency of cheating (8a), suspected misconduct (8b), likelihood of reporting misconduct (8c), consideration of misconduct (8d), intention to cheat (8e)

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

The study used a structured questionnaire, self-administered questionnaire to gather data from the respondents. Students from one of the leading business schools in Ghana were given the opportunity to participate in the study. A convenience sampling technique was used to select 300 students for the study. The questionnaire was divided into four parts with the aim of addressing all the variables in the hypotheses. First part of the questionnaire focused on the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Measures

Dependent variable

The study used five different variables, namely frequency of cheating, suspected misconduct, likelihood of reporting, intention to cheat and likelihood of considering misconduct as dependent variables.

Independent variables

The independent variables which were adopted from researchers (e.g., Teodorescu & Andrei, 2009; Kisamore, Stone, Jawahar, 2007; Hogan and Hogan, 2007). The independent variables were categorized into three namely, demographics, faculty and peer influence. Table 1 presents details of the operationlisation of the variables

DATA ANALYSIS

The study employed both logistic and hierarchical regression model to achieve the objectives of the study. The hierarchical regression is used to test the following hypotheses (1a-1d, 2a-2d, 3a-3d, 4a-4d, 5a-5d, 6a-6d, 7a-7d, 8a-8d). The logistic regression is used to test the following hypothesis (1e, 2e, 3e, 4e, 5e, 6e, 7e, 8e, 9e, 10e, 11e, 12e). The logit model is employed in the study because the outcome variable is dummy which takes the value of "1" if respondent has the intention to cheat and "0" if otherwise. The logit model assumes an S-shaped responds curve such that in each tail of the curve, the dependent variable [$F(Y= 1)$], response slowly to changes in the independent variables while towards the middle of the curve, [i.e. towards the point where $F(Y= 1)$ is closest to .5], the dependent variable responds more swiftly to changes in the independent variable. The logit model assumes that while we only observe the values of 0 and 1 for the variable Y, there is latent, unobserved continuous variable Y* that determines the value of Y. That is from Nagler (1994), the general logit regression equation where y represents likely to cheat and x is a vector of explanatory variables that capture factors that influence cheating.

Assuming that the model is linear in the set of parameters, the estimated model is specified as:

$$P_r(y=1|x_i) = F(a + b_i X_i + f_i Z_i + q_i H_i + e_i) \quad \text{..... (1)}$$

where X_i, Zi, Hi is a vector of variables such as demographic factors, faculty influence and peer influence. The operational definition is specified as:

$$\Pr(Y=1|X) = F(\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Sex_i + \alpha_2 Age_i + \alpha 3FD_i + \alpha_5 FSI_i + \alpha_6 QI_i + \alpha_7 PC_i + \alpha_8 PEA_i + \alpha_9 ATT_i + e_i)$$

Where FD represent Faculty Dishonesty, FSI represent Faculty-Student Interaction, QI represent Quality of Instruction, PC represent Peer Cheating, PEA represent Peer Engagement in Academics and ATT represent Attitudes and behavior. e_i caters for all potential variables that could have affected students' academic misconduct, but were excluded from the study. Table 1 below presents information on description of each of the variables and their source

Table 1: operationalization of variables

No	Variable	Measure	Type of Variable	Source
1	Frequency of Cheating	5 Likert point (1=Never; 7= Very often)	Dependent	Kisamore, Stone Jawahar (2007)
2	Suspected Misconduct	5 Likert point (1=Never; 7= Many Times)	Dependent	Kisamore, Stone Jawahar (2007)
3	Likelihood of reporting	5 Likert point (1=Very Unlikely; 7= Very Likely)	Dependent	Kisamore, Stone Jawahar (2007)
4	Intention to cheat	(1 = Yes; 0 = No)	Dependent	Kisamore, Stone Jawahar (2007)
5	Considering of misconduct	(1 = Very Unlikely; 5 = Very Likely)	Dependent	Kisamore, Stone Jawahar (2007)
6	Gender	(1= Male; 2 = Female)	Independent	Teodorescu & Andrei (2009)
7	Age	(1 =Below 21 yrs; 2 = Above 21	Independent	Teodorescu & Andrei (2009)

Table 1 Continued

	Faculty Factors			
8	Faculty dishonesty	(1=Never; 5=Many Times)	Independent	Teodorescu & Andrei (2009)
9	Faculty-Student Interaction	(1=Never; 5=Many Times)	Independent	Teodorescu & Andrei (2009)
10	Quality of instructions	(1=Very Poor; 5=Excellent)	Independent	Teodorescu & Andrei (2009)
	Peer influence			
11	Peers Cheating	(1=None; 5=90%)	Independent	Teodorescu & Andrei (2009)
12	Peer engagement	(1=Never; 5=Many Times)	Independent	Teodorescu & Andrei (2009)
13	Attitude toward cheating	(1=Yes; 0=No)	Independent	Teodorescu & Andrei (2009)

RESULTS

First Table 2 presents the results of the hierarchical regression analysis and addresses following hypotheses (1a-1d, 2a-2d, 3a-3d, 4a-4d, 5a-5d, 6a-6d, 7a-7d, 8a-8d)

Table 2: Overall results of hierarchical regression analysis

	Variable	**R2**	**ΔR2**
Model 1	**Frequency of Cheating**		
	Step 1: age, sex, year of study	.006	.006
	Step 2: adjustment, prudence, integrity culture	.029	.023 *
	Step 3: Faculty dishonesty, quality of instruction, faculty-student interaction	.109 ***	.080 ***
	Step 4: Peer cheating, attitudes, peer engagement in academics	.122 ***	.013
Model 2	**Suspected Misconduct**		
	Step 1: age, sex, year of study	.026 *	.026
	Step 2: adjustment, prudence, integrity culture	.033	.007
	Step 3: Faculty dishonesty, quality of instruction, faculty-student interaction	.094 ***	.061 ***
	Step 4: Peer cheating, attitudes, peer engagement in academics	.138 ***	.044 ***
Model 3	**Reporting misconduct**		
	Step 1: age, sex, year of study	.005	.005
	Step 2: adjustment, prudence, integrity culture	.019	.014
	Step 3: Faculty dishonesty, quality of instruction, faculty-student interaction	.029	.011
	Step 4: Peer cheating, attitudes, peer engagement in academics	.223 ***	.194 ***
Model 4	**Consideration of misconduct**		

	Step 1: age, sex, year of study	.013	.013
	Step 2: adjustment, prudence, integrity culture	.038 *	.025 *
	Step 3: Faculty dishonesty, quality of instruction, faculty-student interaction	.143 ***	.104 ***
	Step 4: Peer cheating, attitudes, peer engagement in academics	.149 ***	.007

From Table 2, Model 1 used frequency of cheating as dependent variable. As indicated in table 5, age and sex were entered at step 1, explaining 0.4% of the variance of perceived frequency of cheating. After entry of age and sex, faculty dishonesty, faculty student interaction, quality and relevance of instruction were entered at step 2, explaining 7.8% of variation in the perceived frequency of cheating. The additional three variables for faculty influence explained 7.4% of the variation in perceived frequency of cheating after controlling for demographic and situational factors (ΔR^2 =.074; ΔF (3, 290) = 7.780; Sig.F = 0.000). Attitudes, peer cheating, poor engagement were entered at step 3, explaining 11.1% of the variation in 3.3% perceived frequency of cheating. Peer influence variables explained additional of the variation in perceived frequency of cheating after controlling for demographics, personality trait and faculty influence (ΔR^2 =.033; ΔF (3, 287) = 3.534; Sig.F = 0.015). Based on the R square change value, it was revealed that faculty influence explained the largest variation in frequency of cheating, followed by peer influence. Demographic factors made insignificant contribution to the variation in frequency of cheating. The ANOVA table indicates that the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (8, 287) =4.466; Sig.F =.000). The result also shows that faculty and peer influence were statistically significant in predicting perceived frequency of cheating. Of these variables entered in the model, faculty dishonesty (β = .215, t = 3.673, P = 0.000), attitudes (β =.124, t = 2.197, P = .029) and peer cheating (β =.142, t = 2.430, P = .016) explained significant variance in perceived frequency of cheating

Model 2 also used Suspected Misconduct as the dependent variable. Gender and age were entered at step 1, explaining 0.00% of the variance of perceived suspected misconduct. Faculty dishonesty, faculty student interaction and quality of instruction were entered at step 2, explaining 6.6% of the total variation in perceived suspected misconduct. The inclusion of faculty influence accounted for additional 6.6% variation in perceived suspected misconduct (ΔR^2 =.061; ΔF (3, 290) =6.812; Sig = .000). Peer cheating, poor engagement in academics and attitude were entered in step 3, explaining 8.8% of the variation in perceived suspected misconduct. The inclusion of peer influence accounted for additional 4.7% in perceived suspected misconduct (ΔR^2 =.044; ΔF (3, 287) =5.075; Sig. F = .002). Based on the R square change value, it was revealed that faculty influence explained the largest variation in frequency of cheating, followed by peer influence. Demographic factors did not play significant contribution in variation in frequency of cheating. The ANOVA table indicates that the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (8, 287) =4.575; Sig.F =.000). Of these variables entered in the model, quality of instruction (β = .131, t = 2.216, P =.027), faculty student interaction (β =.115, t =1.886, P = .060), faculty dishonesty (β =.117, t = 1.997, P = .047) and peer cheating (β = .210, t =3.600, P = 0.000) explained significant variance in perceived suspected misconduct.

Model 3 also used likelihood of reporting misconduct as the dependent variable. Sex and age were entered at step 1, explaining 0.5% of the variation in the likelihood of reporting incidence of cheating. Faculty dishonesty, faculty student interaction, quality of instruction was entered at step 2, explaining 1.7% of the total variation in perceived likelihood of reporting. The inclusion of

faculty influence accounted for additional 1.2% variation in perceived likelihood of reporting (ΔR^2 =.012; ΔF (3, 290) =1.161; Sig.F = .325). Peer cheating, poor engagement in academic, attitudes was entered in step 3, explaining 20.9% of the variation in perceived likelihood of reporting incidence of misconduct. The inclusion of peer influence accounted for additional 19.3% in perceived likelihood of reporting (ΔR^2 =.193; ΔF (3, 287) = 23.318; Sig.F = .000).
Based on the R square change value, it was revealed that peer influence explained the largest variation in likelihood of reporting misconduct, followed by faculty influence. The ANOVA table indicates that the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (8, 287) = 9.507; Sig.F =.000). The result also shows that only peer influence was statistically significant in predicting likelihood of reporting misconduct. Of these variables entered in the model, only quality of instruction (β = .093, t =1.656, P =.099) and attitudes (β = -.436, t =-8.221, P = 0.000) explained significant variance in perceived likelihood of reporting misconduct.

Lastly, model 4 used considering misconduct as the dependent variable. Sex and age were entered at step 1, explaining 0.5% of the variation in considering misconduct. Faculty dishonesty, faculty student interaction and quality of instruction were entered at step 2, explaining 11.3% of the total variation in considering misconduct. The inclusion of faculty influence accounted for additional 10.8% of the variation in perceived likelihood of considering misconduct (ΔR^2 =.108; ΔF (3, 290) =11.748; Sig.F = .000). Peer cheating, poor engagement in academics, attitude was entered in step 3, explaining 11.6% of the variation in perceived likelihood of considering misconduct. The inclusion of peer influence accounted for additional 0.3% in perceived likelihood of considering misconduct (ΔR^2 =.003; ΔF (3, 287) = .379; Sig.F =.769). Only faculty influence was statistically significant in predicting perceived likelihood of considering misconduct.Based on the R square change value, it was revealed that faculty influence explained the largest variation in likelihood of considering misconduct. The ANOVA table indicates that the model as a whole was statistically significant (F (8, 287) = 4.722; Sig.F =.000). The result also shows that only faculty influence was statistically significant in predicting likelihood of considering misconduct. Of these variables, only faculty dishonesty (β =.300, t = 5.148, P = .000) and quality of instruction (β =.121, t =2.041, P =.042) significantly influence the likelihood of considering misconduct

Logistic Regression

To investigate the effect of individual, peer and faculty influence on the intention to cheat, we built several logistic regression models with intent to cheat as the dependent variable. The operational definition for cheaters refers to student who responded that they would like to copy exams from colleagues. Following Teodorescu and Andrei (2009), demographic variables such as gender, age were entered first as block 1, and faculty influence variables such as faculty dishonesty, faculty-student interaction and quality of instruction were entered in as block 2 and peer influence variable such as peer cheating, peer engagement in academics and attitude were entered in block 3.

According to Teodorescu and Andrei (2009), the decision to enter faculty variables before that of peers was because it is expected that students are affected by the quality of faculty and instruction. According to Teodorescu and Andrei (2009), entering variables in separate blocks also enable the researcher to compare the nestled model using a likelihood ratio test. Also, such approach will help the researcher to examine the separate effects of faculty and peer influence on intention to cheat.

Table 3: Logistic regression results

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)	B	Exp (B)
Constant	-2.819	.060 ***	-4.321	.013 ***	-8.377	.000 ***
Gender	1.939	6.954***	1.938	6.948 ***	2.051	7.778 ***
Age	-.709	.492 *	-.724	.485 *	-.606	.546
Faculty influence						
Faculty Dishonesty			.082	1.086 **	.081	1.084 *
Faculty Student			.025	1.025	.012	1.012
Quality of Instruction			.055	1.057	.031	1.032
Peer Influence						
Peer cheating					.101	1.107
Poor engagement					-.035	.965
Attitudes					.468	1.596 ***
Model Chi-Square	25.488***		30.274***		44.528 ***	
Df						
Cox & Snell R^2	.081		.097		.140	
Nagelkerke R^2	.161		.190		.274	

Table 3 presents the coefficient and the odds ratios for intent to cheat across the three models. Model 1 includes only the demographic variables which consist of gender and age. Model 1 was statistically significant, χ^2 (4, 291) =25.488, P<0.001 indicating that model was able to predict the intention to cheat. Model 1 was able to explain between 8.1% (Cox & Snell R square) and 16.1% (Nagelkerke R square) of the variation of intent to cheat status, and correctly classified 88.7% of the cases. From Table 3 gender and age in model 1 significantly predict intent to cheat. The study shows that men are 6.954 times more likely to cheat relative to women. Younger students (below 21yrs) are .492 times more likely to cheat than mature students (Above 21 yrs). Model 2 added faculty variables to the demographic variables in model 1. The model contained 5 independent variables. Model 2 was also statistically significant, χ^2 (7, 297) =30.274, P<0.001 indicating that model 2 was able to predict the intention to cheat. Model 2 was able to explain between 9.7% (Cox & Snell R square) and 19.0% (Nagelkerke R square) of the variation of intent to cheat, and correctly classified 87.2% of the cases. The study revealed that only three out of the five variables significantly predict intent to cheat. The study shows that men are 6.948 times more likely to cheat

relative to women. Younger students (below 21 years) are .485 times more likely to cheat in exams relative to mature students (above 21 years) and a unit change in faculty dishonesty score leads to 1.086 times more likely to cheat in exams.

Model 3 also added peer influence variables in model 2. The model contained 8 independent variables. Model 3 was also statistically significant, χ^2 (10, 297) =50.157, P<0.01 indicating that model 3 was able to predict the intention to cheat. Model 3 was able to explain between 14.0% (Cox & Snell R square) and 27.4% (Nagelkerke R square) of the variation of intent to cheat, and correctly classified 88.9% of the cases. The study revealed that gender, faculty dishonesty and attitude significantly predict intent to cheat. The study shows that men are 7.778 times more likely to cheat relative to women. All things being equal, students aged below 30 years are .546 times more likely to cheat in exams relative to those above 30 years. A unit change in attitude scale leads to 1.596 times more likely to cheat in exams. The researcher chose model 4 as the most appropriate one for the study since it was the one that was able to predict largest variation in intention to cheat based on the R square.

DISCUSSION

Using the hierarchical regression model, the study revealed demographic factors do not significantly influence any of the four dependent variables thereby rejecting hypotheses (1a-1d). The finding support researchers (e.g. Teodorescu and Andrei, 2009; Kisamore et.al 2007) who found that gender is unrelated to academic misconduct, likelihood of reporting cheating and consideration. However, the logit estimation revealed gender significantly influence the intention to cheat leading to the acceptance of hypothesis 1e. This supports Piece and Sweeney (2010) who found that gender has significant effect on ethical decisions of students and males are more likely to engage in cheating than female students. Men more likely to cheat in terms of intentions may be due to the aggressiveness of men compared to women in nature. However, the logit estimation revealed that age significantly influence the intention to cheat thereby leading to the acceptance of hypothesis 2e. The logit estimation shows that younger students are more likely to cheat in exams relative to matured students. A plausible reason for this is that most of the matured people who come to school are usually already working and so their prime objective is passing not just making an "A" or B grade compared to younger students who are yet to start work in the job market. Also a unit change in faculty dishonesty score leads to 1.086 times more likely to cheat in exam, implying that faculty play a significant role in students' misconduct. Again with regard to the hierarchical regression it can be learnt that faculty influence impact significantly on all the four dependent variables measuring academic misconduct (i.e. frequency of cheating, suspected misconduct, reporting cheating, considering misconduct). It can therefore be concluded that in the light of academic misconduct among students, situational factors , that is what the school is made up of in terms of how reflect in the life style and behavior of the faculty. This was supported both in the hierarchical regression and the logit model as regards the intention to cheat.

IMPLICATIONS

Contribution to theory

The study contributes to empirical literature by validating students' demographic factors and its effects on academic misconduct as well as faculty and peer influence. Exploring these issues from a business school perspective and in an under-studied geographical context, enhance our existing understanding in a significant way.

Contribution to practice

Results of the study show that as far as academic misconduct among students is concerned, a key contextual variable, that is the culture, behavior and attitudes of faculty are panacea for success in combating the canker. The reason for this is that in the undergraduate level most students are averagely and therefore, they are prone to emulation compared to senior adult who may formed their character in advance before embarking on higher education. Consequently, management of business schools must be alert on their internal factors especially the general orientation of their faculty when it comes to ethics and integrity. Therefore, both processes and reward factors could be put in place to motivate faculty to be involved in ethics and integrity orientation of the school.

Contribution to policy

Public policy must step up their investment drive towards higher education, especially the public universities by expanding facilities and employing more lecturers. Expanding facilities and employing more lecturers will lessen the burden of huge students' numbers on lecturers in order to manage students effectively in the light of ethics and integrity and manage misconduct among students. This is because the results show that more of responsibilities is with the lecturers.

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DOES HIGHER EDUCATION EQUIP GRADUATE STUDENTS WITH THE EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS EMPLOYERS EXPECT OF THEM? THE PERCEPTIONS OF EMPLOYERS IN GHANA

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ABSTRACT

Recent changes in the labour market and higher education sector have placed graduates' employability on the agenda of researchers, policymakers and employers in both advanced and developing economies. Yet, the question of whether higher education equips graduate students with the employability skills employers expect remains under-studied particularly in a developing country like Ghana. Using survey data based on paired t-test analyses, our findings reveal that whilst the employers perceive graduate students to possess various critical skills which match industry demands, the graduate students fall short in these critical skills. The differences were statistically significant indicating that there are still gaps between what higher education is offering its students and what industry expects from graduates at the entry-level. Based on the findings, implication on theory, policy, and practice are discussed.

Keywords: Employability skills; Gap analysis; Employers perception

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the labour market and higher education sector in both advanced and developing countries have witnessed considerable changes and this has placed the discourse of employability on the agenda of researchers, governments, and employers (Bridgstock, 2009; Moreau and Leathwood, 2006). Universities and other higher education institutions are under increasing pressure to produce 'employable' graduates, and the graduates themselves are encouraged to incessantly develop their personal qualities, skills, and experiences to compete in the graduate labour market (Moreau and Leathwood, 2006). Consequently, there is a growing interest about graduates' employability (see Sumanasiri et al, 2015 Smith et al, 2015; Finch et al, 2013; Wickramasighe & Perera, 2010; Chandrasiri, 2008; Pool & Sewell, 2007; Knight & Yorke, 2004;). For instance, studies have examined the trends and impact of graduate attributes on

employability (Osmani et al., 2015); graduate attributes and career management skills (Bridgstock, 2009); graduate employability and competencies (Cox, Al Daoud, & Rudd, 2013; Jackson, 2014)

Although this body of literature is insightful, it overlooks other insightful graduate employability issues creating a lacuna which still limits our understanding of the employability skills required by employers. First, while a considerable amount of the literature addresses employable skills that are needed to be embedded in graduate education (Osmani et al., 2015), prior literature is still unclear about how higher education equips graduate students with employable skills to prepare them for the job market. Specifically, the extant literature is inconclusive about the nexus between the acquired graduate skills from university and the required skills by employers (Davies, 2000; Finn, 2000; Lindsay, 2002; Osmani et al., 2015; Wickramasighe & Perera, 2010). Second, there is a poor understanding of employability within the context of a developing country particularly in the context of Sub-Saharan Africa. Our scan of the literature reveals that research on employability skills is heavily skewed towards advanced economies like the UK, USA, Australia and Europe (Cranmer, 2006; Bridgstock, 2009). This lacuna exists despite despites the efforts by management of Universities and other higher institutions in Africa to ensure that graduates acquire employable skills that meet industry demands. Further, research on employability skills in Ghana is chiefly underexplored. i.e. the question about whether higher educations in Ghana are able to arm graduate students with employable skills is yet to be fully explored and answered despite the increase in higher education.

In this paper, we contribute to these gaps by answering the overarching research question: *does higher education equip graduate students with the employability skills employers expect of them?* Using survey data on managers and executives of public and private firms in Accra and employing a paired t-test as the main analytical tool, the study attempts to respond to the following specific research questions: *which skills do employers perceive to be important when employing graduates at the entry-level? How evident are these important skills in the graduate students at the entry-level? Is there a significant difference in the skills employers perceive to be important and how evident they are in graduates at the entry-level?*

Our empirical approach is noteworthy and useful, because extant works on employability skills are largely based on theoretical or conceptual analyses and offers policy recommendations and prescriptive advice (e.g. Davies, 2000; Ranasinghe, 1992; Raybould and Sheedy, 2005; Wickramasighe & Perera, 2010) that, unfortunately, do not provide a better understanding of the lived experiences of managers concerning employable skills of graduates students. Our findings reveal that whilst the employers perceive that the graduate students should possess various critical skills needed mostly in industry (i.e. knowledge, enterprise leadership, team working and technical management), the analysis shows that graduate students fall short in these critical skills. The differences were statistically significant indicating that there are still gaps between what higher education is offering its students and what industry expects from graduates at the entry-level. These findings provide new insights into graduate employability skills in developing countries particularly in the underexplored context of Ghana. The remaining part of the paper is structured as follows. In the next section, we present the theoretical background and hypotheses of the paper. we describe our methodology. Subsequently, we present and discuss the findings to highlight their contribution and practical relevance. Finally, we conclude and present some implications.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Employability and employability Skills

The concept of employability has been discussed for a number of years and there continue to be a growing interest in employability over the last decade. There is no uniform definition for employability (Dearing, 1997; Yorke, 2006). Employability is defined as the ability of graduate students to gain employment relevant to his or her educational standard (Dearing, 1997). Yorke (2006, p.8) also defined employability as "a set of achievements – skills, personal attributes and understandings – that make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their occupations, which benefits themselves, workforce, community and the economy at large". Employability skills refer "to those basic skills relevant for getting, keeping and performing well on a job" (Robinson, 2000, p.1). According to Robinson (2000), employability skills are learnable skills and categorize them into three, namely, personal qualities, basic academic skills and higher-order thinking skills. Harvey et al (1997) listed detailed breakdowns and taxonomies of particular skills and attributes required to promote employability such as core skills; key skills; common skills; transferable skills; essential skills; functional skills; skills for life; generic skills and enterprise skills.

Employers across the world have expressed worry about the poor development of graduate skills that are relevant in the corporate world (Australian Chamber of Commerce & Industry, 2002;). Graduate Skills deficient is prevalent in Science, mathematics, engineering and technology. Rising unemployment can be attributable to a deficiency in graduate skills. Employers are generally looking for graduates who possess employability skills, especially communication and interpersonal skills, skills in problem-solving, and the ability to adapt to all kinds of situations in the workplace (Kearns, 2001; Chang, 2004). No matter what kind of job the employee has to perform, these employability skills can be considered as the underpinning skills applied across the board. Chang (2004) revealed that employers search for certain types of employability skills, attitudes, and behaviours in their potential employees.

Knowledge skills

Several studies have explored the perception of employers regarding the level of proficiency employers perceive graduates to possess at the entry-level. Direito et.al (2012) found that although graduate students possess some level of proficiency in information skills, employers significantly rated the importance they attach to the skills significantly above students' level of proficiency. Collet et.al (2015) reported that graduate students' proficiency in knowledge skill was significantly below the expectation of their employers. Based on the empirical finding, the study hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to knowledge skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

Enterprise Leadership

Hodges and Burchell (2003) found that employers significantly rated the importance they attach to skills such as leadership, ability to inspire and influence others above their proficiency level in the same skills. Direito et.al (2012) found that employers significantly rated the importance they attached to leadership skills significantly above graduate student's proficiency level in the same skills. Similarly, Collet et.al (2015) reported that employers were not satisfied with the level of enterprise skills that graduate students possess. Awang and Makhbul (2011) found that

employers rated the importance attached to leadership skill was significantly higher than their proficiency in the same skills in Malaysia. This implies that employers perceive students not able to meet their expectation of the kind of skills they perceive to be important. This led to the hypothesis that:

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to enterprise leadership skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

Leadership Antecedence

Direito et.al (2012) found that the importance employers attach to skills such as oral and written communication were significantly higher than how proficient graduate students are in the same skill at the graduate level. Similarly, Wickramasinghe and Perera (2010) found that the importance employers attach to oral and written communication skills were significantly rated above graduates' level of proficiency in the same skill. Pitan and Adedeji (2012) also found that the importance employers attached to communication skill were significantly above graduate students' level of proficiency in the same skill. Based on the above review, the researcher hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to leadership antecedence skills and the level of proficiency graduates possesses in these skills.

Team Work

Direito (2012) found that that graduate's level of proficiency in teamwork skill was significantly below the importance that employers attach to the same skills. That is, graduate students do not meet the expectation of employers. Hodges and Burchell (2003) also found that the graduate student's level of proficient in teamwork skill does not meet the expectation of employers in New Zealand. Finally, Collet et.al (2015) also reported that employers were not satisfied with the level of team skill that graduate students possess. Awang and Makhbul (2011) also reported that employers rated the importance attached to teamwork skill was significantly higher than their proficiency in the same skills.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to teamwork skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

Interprofessional collaboration

Husain et.al (2010) found that the importance employers in Malaysia attaches to interpersonal skills was significantly higher than student's proficiency in the same skills. Pitan and Adedeji (2012) found that the importance employers attach to interpersonal skills was significantly above students' level of proficiency in the same skills. Awang and Makhbul (2011) also reported that employers rated the importance attached to interprofessional collaboration skill was significantly higher than their proficiency in the same skills. Lastly, Hodges and Burchell (2003) also found that employers rated the importance they attach to interpersonal skills significantly above students' proficiency in the same skill.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to interprofessional collaboration skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

Improve (Learning) Skills

Wickramasinghe and Perera (2010) found that graduate's level of proficiency in learning skill was significantly below the importance that employers attach to the same skills. Pitan and Adedeji (2012) found that the proficiency level of graduate students in learning skill was significantly below the expectations of employers in Nigeria. That is, the importance employers in Nigeria attached to learning skill was significantly higher than graduate students' proficiency in the same skills. Lastly, Direito et.al (2012) found a mismatch in the importance employers attached to learning skills and how proficient graduate students are in the same skills.

Hypothesis 6: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to learning skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

Creativity and Innovation skills

Wickramasinghe and Perera (2010) found that the importance employers attach to creativity and innovative skills were significantly above students' proficiency in the same skills. Similarly, Direito et.al (2012) found that employers rated graduates' level of proficiency in creativity and innovation skills to be lower than the importance they attach to the same skill. Similarly, Collet et.al (2015) also found that the importance employers attached to creative skill were significantly higher than graduate students' level of proficiency in the same skill. That is, graduates do not meet the satisfaction of employers in terms of creative and innovative skills. All the above empirical review shows that graduate students do not generally meet the satisfaction of their employers. Therefore the next hypothesis is presented as follows.

Hypothesis 7: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to creativity and innovation skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

Business Function

Wickramasinghe and Perera (2010) found that the importance employers attach to arithmetic was significantly above the level of student's proficiency in the same skill. Pitan and Adedeji (2012) also found that the importance employers attach to numeracy skills was significantly above student's proficiency in the same skill. Lastly, Collet et.al (2015) found that students' proficiency in business function skill was significantly below the expectations of employers. This resulted in the hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to business skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

Progress

Husain et.al (2010) found that the importance employers attach to systems and technology skill was significantly above graduate students' proficiency in the same skills. Hodges and Burchell (2003) also found that the importance employers attach to computer literacy was significantly rated above graduate students' proficiency in the same skills. Similarly, Pitan and Adedeji (2012) also found that the importance of employers in Nigeria attaches to informational technology was significantly above graduate students' proficiency in the same skill. Lastly, Collet et.al (2015) reported that the importance employers attach to progress skill was significantly higher than graduate students' proficiency in the same skill. The above literature depicts that employers were not satisfied with the skills graduates possess in this area hence the hypothesis is stated as:

Hypothesis 9: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to progress skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

Technical Management

Pitan and Adedeji (2012) explored the perception of Nigerian employers regarding skills mismatch among graduate students. The study found that employers perceive graduates not possessing the skills that they perceive to be important. Collet et.al (2015) also found that the importance that employers attached to technical management was significantly higher than the proficiency of students in the same skills.

Hypothesis 10: There is a significant difference between the importance employers attach to technical management skills and the level of proficiency graduates possess in these skills.

METHOD

Study Context

Ghana is a country located in the West African country sub-Region along the Gulf of Guinea. It shares borders with Burkina Faso (602km) to the north, Ivory Coast (720km) to the west, and Togo (1098km) to the east. After over a century under the colonial rule of the British, Ghana finally gained its independence in the year 1957 under the leadership of Kwame Nkrumah. The major activities contributing to the development of the economy are industry work, agriculture and service provision. The industry encompasses mining, energy production, manufacturing and construction. Ghana is Africa's second-largest gold producer after South Africa (Asanko, 2018). The agriculture sector supplies raw materials for use in the manufacturing industry and contributes immensely to Ghana's foreign exchange earnings (World Bank, 2018).

The Policy goal of Tertiary Education in Ghana drives at increasing equitable access to high-quality tertiary education whilst ensuring that young adults pursue relevant courses within Colleges of Education, Polytechnics and Universities (Ministry of Education, 2017). The National Accreditation Board under the auspices of the Ministry of Education is the board that oversees tertiary education in Ghana. Currently in terms of accredited tertiary institutions, Ghana boasts of (10) public universities, eighty one (81) private tertiary institutions offering degree programs, eight (8) tutorial colleges, two (2) public polytechnics, and one (1) private polytechnic, thirty nine public colleges of education, seven (7)private colleges of education, one regionally–owned (West Africa) tertiary institution, five(5) chartered private institutions, eight (8) technical universities, five(5) registered foreign institutions and seven (7) public universities/ professional institutions respectively (National Accreditation Board).There are close to forty-three schools offering business programs at the tertiary level.

Sample and Procedure

The study employed the survey design. The study comprised of all university graduate employers across all sectors in Ghana. Purposive sampling technique was used to select 200 managers in the Greater Accra Region that work in both the private and public sectors. The decision to use Greater Accra as the case study was because it is the economic centre of the country and where most of the university graduates are employed. Using purposive sampling technique, the sample size was restricted to only managers and other executives that have supervised fresh graduates in their organizations. The researcher administered questionnaires to managers at the lower, middle and higher levels that have supervised graduate students at the entry-level. The questionnaire approach was adopted as a suitable method because it was the most practical way to assess the information perceived by employers.

Measures

The instrument used in the study is a questionnaire adopted from Collet et.al (2015). The Skills used in their questionnaire cut across disciplines and were based on reports from government, industry, academic and policy areas. Managers were asked to respond to how important the employability skills are to their organization and how evident they perceive the graduates to be performing at the skills. The 42 skills were measured on a 4-point Likert scale (1 =None; 2 =Weak; 3 =Considerable; 4 = Strong). The gap between importance and evident skills were further analyzed using the paired T-test. The paired T-test enables the researcher to determine if there is a gap between "mean perceived importance" and "mean perceived evident". Based on this, the difference between the mean importance and the mean evident (i.e., Mean IMP – Mean EVD) which represents the gap is the focus of this study. Internal validity of the constructs was done using the Cronbach Alpha. The 42 skills were categorized into 10 skills constructs based on Collet et.al (2015). The 10 constructs used were Knowledge, Leadership enterprise, Business function, Technical management, Team Worker, Interprofessional collaboration, Leadership antecedence, improve, progress and creativity

RESULTS

Perceived employability skills needed

To understand the employability skills employers perceived important, we employed mean ratings to analyze the employability skills. The study made use of scalers, hence, it was expedient to test for reliability. The reliability test which measures the internal consistency of our constructs (Awang & Makhbul, 2011) was carried out using Cronbach Alpha (Nunnally, 1978). Table 1 depicts the Cronbach Alpha values and the descriptive statistics for perceived importance managers attach to these employability skills and their respective Cronbach Alpha. Regarding skills importance, employers demonstrated higher importance to "knowledge" (M = 21.445; SD =3.985), "enterprise leadership" (M =20.616; SD =3.916), "team worker" (Mean = 17.905; SD = 4.248), "technical management" (M = 17.660; SD =3.845), "interprofessional collaboration" (M = 17.575; SD =2.485) and "business function" (M =12.803; SD =2.546). Employers demonstrated lower importance to "leadership antecedence" (M = 10.745; S.D =1.569), "creativity" (M =10.21; S.D =1.732), "progress" (M =10.121, SD =1.771) and "improve" (M =7.06; S.D =1.057). The mean importance ratings ranged from 21.445 (Knowledge) to 7.06 (improve).

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the perceived importance of Employability Skills

Skills[a]	Rank	Mean	S.D	Cronbach Alpha
Knowledge	**1st**	**21.445**	**3.985**	**0.632**
Enterprise Leadership	**2nd**	**20.616**	**3.916**	**0.592**
Team Worker	**3rd**	**17.905**	**4.248**	**0.839**
Technical Management	**4th**	**17.660**	**3.845**	**0.404**
Interprofessional Collaboration	**5th**	**17.575**	**2.485**	**0.756**
Business Functions	**6th**	**12.803**	**2.546**	**0.814**
Leadership Antecedence	**7th**	**10.745**	**1.569**	**0.779**
Create	**8th**	**10.21**	**1.732**	**0.816**
Progress	**9th**	**10.121**	**1.771**	**0.797**
Improve	**10th**	**7.06**	**1.057**	**0.743**

[a] individual items measuring each skill are not shown

Note: Scale 1 = none; 2 = weak; 3 = considerable; 4 = strong

Employees Perception on how evident employability skills are in graduates (not clear)

To answer our second research question, we employed mean ratings to analyze the employability skills. The output of this analysis is presented in Table 2. Regarding skills proficiency, employers demonstrated higher ratings for "knowledge" (M =18.673; SD =3.880), "enterprise leadership" (M =18.035; SD =4.443), "technical management" (M =15.06; SD=3.47), "team worker" (M =15.552, SD =3.148) and interprofessional collaboration (M =15.61; SD =3.355) and "business functions" (M =12.803; SD = 2.546). Employers demonstrated lower ratings for "leadership antecedence" (M =9.63; SD =2.015), progress (M =9.09; SD =2.113), improve (M =6.46; SD =1.373) and "creative" (M =9.19; SD =2.028).

Table 2: Employers perception of employability skills evident in graduates

Skills[a]	Mean	S. D	Cronbach Alpha
Knowledge	**18.673**	**3.880**	**0.775**
Enterprise Leadership	**18.035**	**4.443**	**0.699**
Interprofessional Collaboration	**15.61**	**3.355**	**0.703**
Team Worker	**15.552**	**3.148**	**0.876**
Technical Management	**15.06**	**3.47**	**0.881**
Business Functions	**12.803**	**2.546**	**0.860**
Leadership Antecedence	**9.63**	**2.015**	**0.844**
Create	**9.19**	**2.028**	**0.866**
Progress	**9.09**	**2.113**	**0.865**
Improve	**6.46**	**1.373**	**0.803**

[a] individual items measuring each skill are not shown
Note: Scale 1 = none; 2 = weak; 3 = considerable; 4 = strong

Employability Skill Gap Analysis

The third of objective of this paper was to examine whether there is a gap in the skills employers perceive graduates possess and importance they attach to same skills. Following Collet et.al (2015) we employed the Gap analysis to determine the gaps between desired (importance) levels and actual (evident) levels. The gap level was determined by using the formula GAP = D – A where D means perceived importance and A being the perceived evidence of skills respectively (Collet et.al, 2015). A positive answer would mean that graduates do not meet the skills the employers expect, otherwise, a contrary answer would mean graduates do possess the skills employers require at the entry-level. Following Awang and Makhbul (2011) and Collet et.al (2015), paired t-test was conducted to evaluate perceptions of employers on employability skills of the graduates. The paired t-test was used because the study collected information on the same managers on two different questions. The gap analysis revealed that employers were not satisfied with the employability skills Ghanaian graduates possess since all the gaps exhibited a positive value as illustrated in Table 3. The paired t-test shows a significant gap is perceived between the skills considered to be important for industry success and those evident in graduates at the entry-level. In other words, the employers perceive the graduate skills to be below their expectation. From

Table 3, it was revealed that "knowledge" (rank 1; gap =2.756), "technical management" (rank 2; gap =2.591), "enterprise leadership" (rank 3; gap =2.540) and "team worker" (rank 4; gap =2.367) had the highest skills gap among the 10 skills.

Table 3: Skills gap analysis

Variables	D	A	GAP	Rank of gaps	t value	Sig
Knowledge	21.445	18.673	2.7588	1	8.318	0.000
Technical Management	17.651	15.061	2.591	2	8.343	0.000
Enterprise Leadership	20.616	18.035	2.540	3	7.048	0.000
Team Worker	17.905	15.552	2.3668	4	6.561	0.000
Interprofessional Collaboration	17.578	15.613	1.964	5	8.092	0.000
Business Functions	12.803	11.035	1.7676	6	8.123	0.000
Leadership Antecedence	10.749	9.638	1.1105	7	7.748	0.000
Progress	10.121	9.09	1.030	8	7.056	0.000
Create	10.21	9.19	1.02	9	7.401	0.000
Improve	7.0603	6.4523	0.6080	10	6.349	0.000

Gap analysis of each Item

The study further investigated the gap between each of the items used in the study. Among the Knowledge, the highest gap was recorded in "ability to communicate effectively" (gap value =0.62), followed by "ability to accurately report information" (gap value = 0.47). "ability to evaluate information and data" had the lowest gap in knowledge construct (gap =0.37). In terms of enterprise leadership construct, the highest gap was recorded in "ability to negotiate" (gap value =0.52), followed by "willingness to take risk" (gap value =0.49) and "ability to inspire" (gap value =0.45). The lowest gap under enterprise leadership was recorded in "ability to identify key people in a venture" (gap value =0.32). Table 4 presents the gap analysis of each of the item considered in the study.

Table 4: Gap analysis of each item

Skills	D	A	GAP
Knowledge			
Ability to evaluate information and data	3.56	3.19	0.37
Ability to accurately report information	3.61	3.14	0.47
Ability to accurately document information from a different source	3.55	3.12	0.43
Ability to communicate effectively with discipline specialists	3.71	3.09	0.62
Ability to understand essential concepts relating to specific discipline	3.49	3.03	0.46
Ability to retrieve information from different sources	3.52	3.13	0.39
Enterprise Leadership			
Ability to lead a new venture	3.59	3.19	0.4
Ability to identify key people in a venture	3.45	3.13	0.32
Ability to inspire others	3.51	3.06	0.45
Ability to negotiate	3.47	2.95	0.52

Willingness to take risk	3.36	2.87	0.49
Plan business ventures	3.23	2.84	0.39
Business Functions			
Knowledge of accounting	3.12	2.76	0.36
Knowledge of financial systems	3.29	2.72	0.57
Knowledge of general principles of law relating to business	3.21	2.68	0.53
Knowledge of marketing	3.20	2.90	0.3
Technical Management			
Manage a project	3.40	2.94	0.46
Reach a timely independent decision	3.47	2.85	0.62
Apply knowledge in practice	3.54	3.04	0.5
Build positive customer relations	3.60	3.16	0.44
Apply discipline knowledge to solution of problems of an unfamiliar nature	3.66	3.05	0.61
Team Worker			
Respond positively to feedback	3.55	3.17	0.38
Appreciation of culture diversity	3.54	3.18	0.36
Reflect on own performance	3.47	3.07	0.4
Interpret team dynamics	3.66	3.01	0.65
Awareness of roles and responsibilities of team members	3.68	3.13	0.55
Interprofessional Collaboration			
Adapt one's own skills and knowledge to fit with other professionals	3.44	3.12	0.32
Work collaboratively with other professions	3.56	3.21	0.35
Work in an interdisciplinary team	3.49	3.08	0.41
Communicate effectively with non-experts	3.51	3.05	0.46
Appreciation of the client's perspective	3.57	3.18	0.39
Leadership Antecedence			
Effective written and oral communication skills	3.62	3.29	0.33
Strong action orientation	3.53	3.14	0.39
Drive to succeed	3.60	3.20	0.40
Progress			
Knowledge of commercialization	3.34	3.02	0.32
Understanding of technology valuation	3.36	3.04	0.32
Understanding of new product/service development processes	3.42	3.04	0.38
Improve			
Responsibility for continuing professional learning	3.52	3.24	0.28
Initiative for continuing professional learning	3.54	3.23	0.31
Create	**10.21**	**9.19**	
Acquire new external knowledge	3.46	3.11	0.35
Assimilate new external knowledge with existing knowledge	3.44	3.08	0.36
Create new knowledge	3.32	3.00	0.32

DISCUSSION

The first objective of the study was to investigate the employability skills employers perceive to be important in the industry in Ghana. Among the skills considered in the study were knowledge, enterprise leadership, business functions, technical management, team worker, interprofessional collaboration, leadership antecedence, progress, improve and create. The findings revealed that employers demonstrated higher importance to knowledge, enterprise leadership, team worker, technical management, interprofessional collaboration and business function. Employers demonstrated lower ratings for skills such as technical management, team worker, interprofessional collaboration, leadership antecedence, progress, improve and create.

In this current dispensation, information is the engine of business growth. It is not surprising that employers rated "knowledge" as the most important skills. Quality information drives the success of every business. Ability to accurately evaluate and report information will enable firms to make good decisions. For business to get accurate and reliable information, they look forward to recruiting employees who are equipped with these skills. Such skills are needed to ensure efficiency and growth of businesses. This finding is consistent with that of Awang and Makhbul (2011) who also reported that employers in Malaysia considered "knowledge" as the most important skills needed in the workplace. Similarly, Husain et.al (2010) also found that employers in Malaysia rated "knowledge" as one of the most important skills needed in the workplace. Whiles employers in Ghana rated "knowledge" as the most important skills needed in the workplace, studies by Husain et.al (2010) found that employers in Malaysia rated it as the fifth most important skills. The result is also consistent with that of Awang and Makhbul (2011) who found that employers in Malaysia rated "knowledge" as the most important skills needed in the workplace.

It is not surprising managers rated leadership skills among the most important skills they expect graduates to possess at the entry-level. Businesses are always in need of leaders with track records to occupy management positions. However, they also seek to recruit employees who have the potentials to replace the current managers in future, hence every employer search for employees who have such leadership skills. This is consistent with that of Awang and Makhbul (2011) who also found that employers in Malaysia considered leadership skills as one of the most important skills needed in the workplace. Similarly, Singh et.al (2013) found that among skills that employers perceive to be important, leadership was rated as the fifth most important skills needed.

A plausible reason for employers rating improves (learning) skills among the most important skills needed is that the business world is always changing, new technologies are always coming up. Firms are constantly coming up with new ideas on best practices, hence firms are always in need of employees who can embrace change and learn new skills. This finding is consistent with that of Hodges and Burchell (2003) who also found that employers in New Zealand considered willingness to learn as one of the most important skills needed in the workplace. With regards to team skills, most organizations today expect employees to possess teamwork skills because it is more of collaborative vibe that generates energy throughout the workplace. Additionally, teamwork enables employees to share ideas which always help to minimize the rate at which organizations make mistake. This finding is consistent with Hodges and Burchell (2003) rated teamwork as one of the most important skills employers in New Zealand perceive to be important in the workplace. Similarly, Direito (2012) found that employers rated teamwork among the most important skills they perceive to be important in industry.

The second objective of the study was to assess student's proficiency in the skills that employers perceive to be important in the workplace. The findings from the study revealed that

employers believe that graduate students have some level of proficiency in the skills they perceive to be important. Regarding skills proficiency, employers demonstrated higher rating knowledge, enterprise leadership, technical management, team worker and interprofessional collaboration and business functions. With regards to teamwork, it wasn't surprising students possess some level of proficiency in teamwork skills. A possible reason for this is that students are usually allowed to do assignments and term papers in groups and this mostly improve their teamwork skills. This is consistent with that of Direito et.al (2012) who also found that graduate students in Portugal were more proficient in teamwork. Similarly, Wickramasinghe and Perera (2010) also reported that among the 15 skills employers perceive to be important, employers rated graduate's proficiency in teamwork skill in the third position. Hodges and Burchell (2003) also found that among 25 skills perceive to be important, employers rated student proficiency in the skill in the fourth position.

The last objective of the study was to examine whether there was a statistically significant difference between skills perceived to be important and how proficient graduate students are in the same skills. The researcher hypothesized there was a significant difference in skills perceived by employers and how evident these same skills are in the graduates. Skills gap were identified for all the ten-skills construct considered in the study. A comparison of mean importance and proficiency score for each skill gap shows there is statistically significant difference. The study accepted the null hypothesis that there is significant difference in mean importance of skills and mean evidence of proficiency. The employers perceive the graduate skills to be below their expectation. The gap analysis revealed that employers were not satisfied with the employability skills Ghanaian graduates possess since all the gaps exhibited a positive value. It was difficult for the researcher to make direct comparison of skills gap with previous literature. However, observation of similarities with past studies is possible. Collet et.al (2015) found that employers in Australia were not satisfied with the employability skills graduates possess since the importance attached to these skills were ranked above how evident it is in the graduates. Direito et.al (2012) also found that employers in Portugal rated the importance they attach to the skills significantly above the proficiency of graduate students in the same skill. Additionally, studies conducted by Pitan and Adedeji (2012) also found that there was a mismatch in skills perceived to be important and how evident the same skills in graduate students in Nigeria. Awang and Makhbul (2011) also found that employers in Malaysia were not satisfied with the performance of graduate students at the entry-level

Implications

The study contributes to empirical literature in the field. For instance, it identified that although graduate students possess some degree of skills (e.g., knowledge, enterprise leadership, team working and technical management), yet they fall short in all the dimensions from the expectation of employers. This study is comprehensive compare to existing studies in that it examines first the general existing skills at the graduate entry level in the job market, second, which of these existing skills do employers perceive to the be most important to industry, third, how employers perceive the present-day graduates possess the skills they deem to be most important in industry and four the extent to which whether or not the level of skills graduate students possess either fall short or otherwise of what is expected of them from employers (i.e., four in one). Finally, the study has examined the issues from an under-studied context, by offering a new insight from a new and fresh geographical context. Overall, our present understanding is enhanced.

CONCLUSION

There is the general perception that the students that our universities produce do not possess the employability skills that are needed to effectively work in the corporate world. This study employed a survey design to investigate the perception of Ghanaian employers regarding the importance they attach to some selected employability skills and how evident these same skills are in graduate students at the entry-level. Employers were asked to respond to how important the employability skills are to their organization and how evident they perceive the graduates to be performing at the skills. The 42 skills were measured on a 4-point Likert scale (1 =None; 2 =Weak; 3 =Considerable; 4 = Strong). The gap between importance and evident skills were further analyzed using the paired T-test. The paired T-test enables the researcher to determine if there is a gap between "mean perceived importance" and "mean perceived evident". The study revealed that among the skills considered in the study were knowledge, enterprise leadership, business functions, technical management, team worker, interprofessional collaboration, leadership antecedence, progress, improve and create. Regarding skills proficiency, employers demonstrated higher rating knowledge, enterprise leadership, technical management, team worker and interprofessional collaboration and business functions. The gap analysis revealed that employers were not satisfied with the employability skills Ghanaian graduates possess since all the gaps exhibited a positive value.

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UNDERSTANDING THE DYNAMICS OF POWER AND POLITICS IN PUBLIC POLICY IMPLEMENTATION: A SENSE-MAKING PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the dynamics of power and politics in public policy implementation from a sense-making perspective. Premised on a Nigerian Health policy case study, it analyses individual and distributed sense-making across key actors involved in the implementation of the Nigerian Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS). It contributes to the extant sense-making literature through its demonstration of the critical impact of power and politics in actor sense-making. Furthermore, it extends the concept of power distance through espousals of the role of power distance orientation in sense-making. The implications of the findings for policy practice is also discussed.

Key Words: Policy Implementation, Power, Politics, Sense-making

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is two-fold. First, to empirically present the shaping influences of power and politics on the sense-making of policy implementation actors, in order to make a contribution to the knowledge base in this domain of studies in which scholars have identified as theoretically deficient in the literature. Second, to contribute to policy practice development by providing policy makers with deeper insights into the broader dynamics of the policy implementation process, with a view to support improved policy making processes as well as interventive approaches.

Cognitive policy implementation theorists have demonstrated that the conventional top-down (compliance model) of policy implementation is fundamentally flawed because it pays scant attention to the link between the sense-making processes of implementing actors and deviations from policy intentions (Spillane et al., 2002; Peck and 6, 2006). Put differently, the sense-making of implementing agents results in evolution of policy during implementation (Browne and Wildavsky, 1983; Spillane et al, 2002). This paper is an outgrowth of the author's case study research, which investigated individual, and collective/distributed sense-making among a spectrum of NHIS implementation actors in the course of formal and informal interactions. In line with the focus of the paper – empirical findings pertaining to power and political dynamics from the case study are privileged.

The paper starts with a discussion of relevant theoretical perspectives, especially on the literature on policy implementation research, sense-making theory and some of its related constructs; power and politics, and its linkage with sense-making theory. It then gives an overview of the context of the case study, conceptual approach and research methods. Finally the study's empirical findings are presented followed by a discussion of implications for theoretical development and policy practice.

Policy Implementation Research: The Debates

Policy implementation research is rather complex. This complexity is reflected in the clashes of perspectives and deeply polarized scholarly positions in the domain of policy implementation studies in the existing literature. Deeply divergent views between the prevailing schools of thought has made theoretical consensus elusive in the field (O'Toole, 2004). The literature on policy implementation is made up of theories from three generations of research (deLeon and deLeon, 2002). First generation researchers or the 'top-down camp', viewed implementation through a hierarchical and bureaucratic prism that focused mostly on why implementation did not automatically follow authoritative decisions, whereas second generation or ('bottom-up') group of implementation researchers were more theoretically driven in explaining implementation failures across single or multiple policy sites. In the bottom-up camp, Lipsky's (1980) work in particular, brought to the fore the limitations of conventional understandings of policy implementation. His seminal thesis that policy implementation is dependent on the discretionary power of frontline professionals whom he labelled as street-level bureaucrats is widely acknowledged as a paradigm-shifting contribution. The efforts of third-generation researchers to bridge conceptual gaps in top-down and bottom-up perspectives through the generation of hybrid theories by synthesising ideas from both camps have been modestly successful at best.

Sense-Making Theory: An Introduction

The use of sense-making as an interpretive concept in social research is growing rapidly. One reason put forward for the growth in sense-making focused research is that ' over time, sense-making has been refined and explicated so that in addition to its use as a stand-alone theoretical framework, it is now being used as a method of analysis' (Mills et al., 2010:182). Sense-making, described by Brown et al. (2015:266), as 'an enormously influential perspective' has been variously presented as a 'concept, theory, lens or approach, although references to sense-making theory by authors (Holt and Cornelissen, 2013; Jensen, Kjaergaard and Svejvig, 2009) are predominant. Sense-making at its core is about how people think, but the larger quest of sense-making research is to empirically reveal co-constructions of reality as well as the consequences of such actions (Smerek, 2009). Sense-making theory facilitates the interrogation/interpretation of the actions of individuals and agents in organisations. Craig-Lees (2001, citing the work of Magala,1997) suggests that the academic utility of Weick's (1995) sense-making theory lies in its capacity to espouse and validate the role of *the agent* in organisational research.

The sense-making literature however suffers from a lack of cohesion due to major 'disjunctures and disagreements' that remain unresolved (Brown et al., 2015:267). According to Brown et al. (2015), there is no agreement as to whether sense-making should be regarded as individual-cognitive (mental schemas), collective-social (people interactions), or discursive (linguistic-communicative). There is also an academic dispute that questions if sense-making is a moment-to-moment or ongoing process that is triggered by specific cues that occur at puzzling times or times of crisis – event though Weick (1995:43) suggests that sense-making is ongoing and lists this feature as one of its seven properties including six others : grounded in identity construction, retrospective, enactive of sensible environments, social, focused on, and by extracted cues and driven by plausibility rather than accuracy. There are also contentions about whether the concept is prospective or retrospective. Most researchers, no doubt influenced by Weick, have a retrospective orientation about sense-making.

Policy Implementation and Sense-Making: The Theoretical Linkage

Brown et al.'s (2015:266) definition of sense-making as 'those processes by which people seek plausibly to understand ambiguous, equivocal or confusing issues or events' illuminates our understanding of the role of sense-making in policy implementation, especially in the context of the NHIS initiative. Peck

and 6 (2006:16) argue that policy implementation should be seen as sense-making and settlement because sense-making 'necessitates a set of sufficient capabilities within and between organisations and […] enough willingness among key players to contribute to, or at least to acquiesce and not actively obstruct the use of those capabilities', is persuasive. Extending the perspective, Coleman et al (2010, posit that 'actors (individuals and groups) in policy implementation have agendas and frames of reference of their own and that these factors, along with local contexts, often have a substantial role in shaping what is actually enacted'

Theoretical incompleteness identified in sense-making theory include the resonant criticism is that the theory neglects the role of broader societal factors (such as the political context) and that it is too focused on individual actors (Brown et al., 2015; Taylor and Van Every, 2000; Weber and Glynn, 2006; Vardaman 2009). Led by these gaps in the literature, the case study research that this paper drew upon, investigated the role of power and politics to address a major under-theorisation in the sense-making literature (Weick, Sutcliffe and Obstfeld, 2005).

The power-political dynamic of the NHIS presented in this the paper is guided by the study's conceptual apparatus which was broadened to cover individual sense-making (cognition and affect), collective sense-making in context (situated, distributed, social and political), as well as the concepts of sense-giving (the dialectic of sense-giving) and gatekeeping.

Power

It is hard to disguise the negative connotation that the definition of power conveys. One perspective on the nature of power is the radical view (Lukes, 1974) which posits that in the landscape of organisations, those who wield power are dominant actors who through their deployment of power, control socialisation and political agendas by shaping ideologies and definitions of issues and beliefs. This view also suggests that power may be 'exercised subconsciously — disconnected from any notion of intent' (Huzzard, 2003:6). The rival post-structuralist/relational view, (Balogun et al., 2005) – argues that power is located in relationships, and as such, power does not reside in any one individual. By that same logic, it follows that a shift in relations will typically alter balances of power. Hardy (1996) identified and located three forms of power:

1. Power of resources: That is the power over control of resources.
2. Process power: This pertains to how outcomes are influenced by control mechanisms employed to select those who participate in decision-making.
3. Power of meaning: This form of power is essentially about information 'designed to legitimize one's owns actions and delegitimize those of opponents' (Balogun et al., 2005:263).

Huzzard (2003:6) argues that it is wrong to view the notion of power as a straight choice between the radical (realist ontological) view and the relational (post-structuralist) view. He argues that accepting one view over the other is mis-directed The thrust of this perspective is that there is a material (real) world out there that exists independently of discourse, and there is also a socially constructed world where discourse is the means by which the interests (or agential intent) of dominant groups is communicated via reality construction (Huzzard, 2003). In other words, whilst power may be relational, parties, whether dominant or sub-ordinate, have relative power of resources that can be deployed/leveraged in interrelationships.

Politics

Power and politics are inherently linked given that politics is the process by which power is mobilised**.** Hodges and Gill (2015:424) reason that politics is a mechanism for creating legitimacy for certain initiatives/objectives to influence 'the acceptance of change'. If we recall that sense-making is all about

'meaning construction and reconstruction' by key actors or 'change recipients' (Gioia and Chittipeddi, 1991:442; Balogun, 2006), then Hardy's third form of power [of meaning] suggests an association between power/politics and sense-making/sense-giving.

The Relationship between Power, Politics and Sense-Making

To reiterate, the negation of the role of power and politics in sense-making is the focal point of this paper. Patriotta et al. (2016) identified several inter-relationships between power and sense-making, and regard the scant literature attention paid to them as lost opportunities to expand the frontier of knowledge in this sub-field of research. As previously discussed, current sense-making theory is that it is yet to recognise and explore the political processes and manoeuvrings behind the multiple competing accounts seen in organisations, in crisis and change situations, through which some interpretations become legitimised while others are subjugated (Huzzard, 2003; Weick et al., 2005; Mullen et al., 2006; Weber and Glynn, 2006; Vlaar et al., 2006; Hope, 2010; Mills et al., 2010; Maitlis and Christianson, 2015). Weick et al. (2005:418, citing Mills, 2003:153, and Pfeffer, 1981) acknowledge the theoretical deficiency in sense-making theory in the realm of power and politics, emphasising their criticality as follows:

> 'Sense-making strikes some people as naïve with regard to the red meat of power, politics, and critical theory. People who are powerful, rich and advantaged seem to have unequal access to roles and positions that give them an unequally strong position to influence the construction of social reality [...] '. (2005:418)

Power and politics are relevant to sense-making because the 'creation of new understandings is not free of power issues and self-interested behaviour' (Vlaar et al., 2006:1629). Similarly, Zilber (2007:1037) affirms that group sense-making is a highly political process because in the process of 'reconstructing reality', policy actors are actually engaged in the 'redistribution of power itself'. Abolafia (2010:350) also noted that policy makers in their sense-making are mostly concerned about the legitimacy of authoritative action because such actions are not taken in neutrality. Authoritative sense-making, he argues, is an act of power that ultimately wins the consent of those it has dominion over.

Context and Subject of Inquiry

Context

The Federal Republic of Nigeria is a West African country of over 923,768 square kilometres (National Geographic, 2018). With a population of 184 million, Nigeria is the eighth most populous country in the world (World Bank, 2016). Its economic strength as the 12th leading oil-exporting country in the world (CIA, 2014) makes it a relatively wealthy country. Despite the appreciable revenue that Nigeria derives from oil exports, the level of poverty in the country remains significantly high, with some reports indicating that as many as 61% of Nigerians exist on less than US$1.00 per day (UPI, 2012). Nigeria's GDP per capita in 2014 was US$2,177.99 (World Bank, 2016). This poverty level correlates with Nigeria's low human development index (HDI) position of 152 out of the 188 countries ranked (UNDP, 2013). Reports also put the percentage of the population with access to improved water sources and sanitation facilities at 68.5% and 29% respectively (World Bank, 2015). Politically, Nigeria is a federation of 36 states, 774 local government areas (LGAs), and 9,555 wards as micro-political units. The country is composed of six geo-political zones: North-West, North-Central, North-East, South-West, South-South and South-East. Nigeria was under military rule for the most part of its post-independence history. There has been some degree of peaceful co-existence in the country since the era of civilian rule began in 1999. The polity, however, remains unstable due to sectarian violence in the North-east and ongoing unrest in the oil-producing communities in the South-South zone.

Subject of Inquiry

The key goal of national health policies, regardless of the wide variance in health systems across countries, is to improve health care delivery across populations with an underlying aim to ensure access, equity, quality and cost containment (Blank and Burau, 2010). These goals are congruent with the ideal values of Universal Health Care (UHC). Taken together, the fundamental elements of UHC (equity, quality and financial protection) ensures that all persons have access to health services without undue financial hardship from the burden of out-of-pocket payments (OOP) for health care (WHO, 2014). Notwithstanding all the benefits of UHC, competing budgetary priorities compel policymakers to be efficient in the allocation of resources. Implicitly, tough choices and trade-offs must be made in order to balance the use of resources fairly (Nicholson et al., 2015).

The main driver for the NHIS reform was the Nigerian government's recognition of the limitations of existing health care arrangements in terms of equitable access and financial protection for citizens. Policy makers at the conception of the NHIS envisaged that the scheme would leverage the benefits of fund pooling (mobilised through pre-payment schemes) and risk-sharing to protect vulnerable persons from the burden of out-of-pocket payments (OOP), and also provide equitable and efficient access to health services. Nigerian runs a fragmented, weak and poorly structured health care system. The public health sector is not well managed, and the private health sector inadequately regulated. The country's health system has been sub-optimal on several metrics for over three decades. Taking into account Nigeria's unique health sector circumstances, the country opted to implement a social health insurance system (the NHIS) as a major step towards achieving UHC. Following the enactment of the NHIS Act 35 of 1999, implementation of the NHIS was formally launched in 2005. The implementation of the NHIS as it is currently structured is delivered through three main programmes: The Formal Sector Social Health Insurance Programme (FSSHIP), the Urban Self-Employed Social Health Insurance Programme (USSHIP) and the Rural Community Social Health Insurance Programme (RCSHIP). Implementation of the scheme involved a broad spectrum of stakeholders shown in Table 1a.

Table 1a: Key NHIS Stakeholders

Stakeholders	Interests
NHIS	The NHIS policy operator, fund holder for formal sector contributions and scheme regulator
Federal Ministry of Health (FMOH) and Minister of Health	Key reform programme of the FMOH
Health Maintenance Organisations (HMOs)	Intermediary (third-party) operators of the scheme
Health Care Providers (HCPs)	Health service delivery
Federal government employees (i.e. civil servants' unions or labour unions)	Beneficiaries of the FSHIP
Private employers/National Employers Consultative Association (NECA)	Representing interests of employers as co-contributors to NHIS premiums
Banks	Safe custody of operational funds accruing to HMOs

Insurance Companies	Provide malpractice and Indemnity insurance cover to HMOs and HCPs
Insurance Brokers	To ensure insurance compliance by HMOs and HCPs
International and collaborating developmental partners	Providing Technical and financial support

Source: Fawehinmi, 2018 (Adapted from Onoka, 2014)

The goals that enactors envisioned at the launch of the scheme have however not materialised. Dutta and Hongoro (2013) reported that as of 2012, just 3% of the population (equivalent to approximately 5 million individuals) were covered by the scheme. The problems of the NHIS are, however, not limited to scaling-up challenges. Policy analysts have questioned the rationale for an implementation arrangement that allowed the NHIS the dual capacity to function as scheme regulators as well as to act as a quasi-implementor/operator of the scheme. Another policy design flaw identified is the failure of the enactors of the NHIS to make the scheme mandatory across the country given that the 36 states under the constitution of the Nigerian Federation have political and financial autonomy. However, recent developments, specifically the growing push by sub-national governments (states) to set up State Social Health Insurance Schemes (SSHIS), indicates that the issue of poor state participation in the NHIS is now being boldly addressed (Care Net, 2018).

Conceptual Approach

The thrust of this paper is directed at presenting and analysing findings from the case study pertaining to the understated question:

What role did power and politics play in the sense-making and sense-giving processes of actors in the implementation of the NHIS?

Findings revealing power-politics dynamics emerged from analysis of data of political bearings collected in the case study. The interrelationships between the political context as an analytical variable and other conceptual elements in the study's conceptual framework is shown in Figure 1a below.

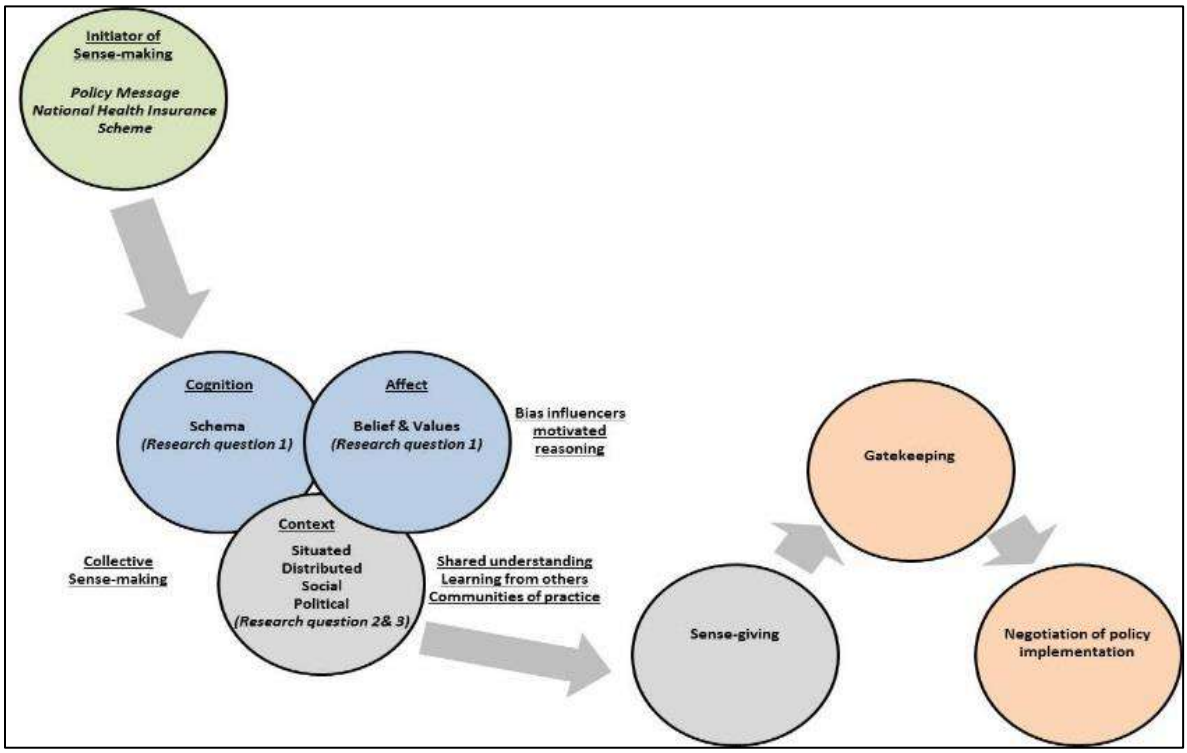

Figure 1a: Conceptual Framework NHIS Study

METHOD

The NHIS inquiry was conducted by a qualitative case study research design. Semi-structured interviews were the key data collection instrument. Data collection began in April 2015 and ended in December 2015. A total of 29 key actors (28 in person and 1 by telephone), drawn from the ranks of key participants in the implementation of the NHIS were interviewed. Pointedly, some of the policy actors had boundary-spanning roles. For example, some Health Maintenance Organisation (HMO) executives had dual roles as decision makers in the Health and Managed Care Association of Nigeria (HMCAN), the HMO trade association. Similarly, some Health Care Practitioners (HCPs) were also proponents of HCPAN (Health Care Practitioners Association of Nigeria), the HCP trade body. Following the study's conceptual framework, the policy actors interviewed were purposively sampled from the following three participant frames:

Macro-level/Government frame:

- Group 1 - Health ministry/NHIS officials
- Group 2 - Community (CBHI) scheme officials

Meso-level/Purchaser Frame: Executives of HMO organisations.

Micro-level/Provider Frame: HCPs (CEOs of Medical Hospital/Clinics)

In addition, three external policy advisors who were active participants in the formulation and implementation of the NHIS were also interviewed. Significant weightings were attached to the views of

these external policy advisors given that they had a neutral economic interest in the scheme. The neutrality of their position/views, through confirmation or disconfirmation of the evidence, provided considerable credibility to interview data. The duration of the in-depth interviews ranged between 45 minutes and an hour. Questions were open-ended, allowing the interviewees to tell their stories as freely as they chose.

Collection of interview data focused on unearthing cognitive perspectives of NHIS policy actors to espouse their sense-making. Interviewees were asked about their prior views of the concept of health insurance to understand their cognitive frames (cognition), and the extent to which those frames were shaped by their values and beliefs (affect). They were also asked to recount events or situations that were challenging or surprising, premised on the notion that sense-making is a 'process of structuring the unknown' (Waterman,1990:41). To elicit distributed sense-making during actor interactions, cross-interviewing was employed to find out what the focal issues at various meetings were. It was sometimes necessary during interviews to ask unstructured probing questions whenever it was necessary to confirm or clarify statements or comments.

The interviews were digitally recorded with the consent of each respondent, and the data was then transferred individually as audio files on to a password-protected computer and transcribed shortly after. Thereafter, transcripts were imported into NVivo 11 Pro, a qualitative research data software package for the analysis of findings. Table 2a summarises the Data Collection Methods of the study.

Table 2a: Summary of Data Collection Methods

Data Sources	Approach
1. Data Source: Semi-structured interviews	Approach: Interviewed 29 NHIS policy actors including 3 external policy advisers (28 in-person and 1 telephone interview). This provided the primary data (subsequently used to triangulate secondary data sources) to elicit themes of individual and collective/distributed sense-making, as well as expositions of wider themes relating to other theoretical constructs in the conceptual framework.
2. Document review	Approach: Conducted inductive analysis of various health policy publications, especially those pertaining to the NHIS initiative, and official memos. Reviewed the academic literature (journal articles) on the NHIS.
3. Media Review	Approach: Reviewed newspaper articles on the NHIS and privately published health insurance newsletters (Health Insurance Affairs; Care Net in particular). In addition, these materials were supplemented with publicly available information from the websites of participating institutions and professional bodies (the NHIS, Health and Managed care association of Nigeria (HMCAN), and the Health Care Providers Association of Nigeria, HCPAN). These materials constituted part of the secondary data, subsequently cross-referred to in an effort to triangulate the interview data.
4. Researcher	Approach: Useful information obtained from pilot interviews in the field was helpful in snowball-targeting informants. More critically, the exercise signalled likely pitfalls in accessing primary data.

Data analysis was guided by Braun and Clarke's (2006) approach to thematic analysis. This approach combined both inductive and deductive approaches. The inductive approach was a bottom-up data-led process, implying that I allowed themes and patterns to emerge from the data set. The deductive approach was top-down — given that I imposed certain predetermined concepts and ideas contained in my conceptual framework and employed it's components to code and interpret the data. The first step involved open line-by-line coding of interview data to elicit references to themes of power and politics in the sense-making of actors to generate initial and non-hierarchical codes. Further abstraction led to the development of higher-order categories to identify clustering among the subject matter(s) and issues of power and politics, to gain

granular insights about divergent and /or consensus views, attitudes and beliefs, and to check if a theme is consistent with the entire data corpus. The coding process was enhanced by the code-and-retrieve capacities of Nvivo 11 software.

DISCUSSION

The case study revealed that individual sense-making variations (based on cognition and affect) and collective/distributed sense-making (in social and political contexts) resulted in different framings of the [NHIS] policy message. With regards to the political context — the focus of this paper, expositions of the influences of macro and micro political dynamics on actor sense-making was a key finding. Table 2b captures the categorised cross-views of respondents with regards to the political dimensions of the scheme's implementation. As the table shows, not all the respondents viewed the exercise of power (without due process) in a negative light.

Table 2b: Political Cross-views of Respondents by Representation Type (tabular view)

Number of political elements by participant type	NHIS Official (20)	HMO Executive (11)	Health Provider (2)	Health Policy Adviser (5)
HMCAN, the HMO interest body, had the power to influence policy implementation	4	9	1	0
Political power negatively influenced scheme implementation	3	0	0	2
Political power positively influenced scheme implementation	5	1	0	1
Power and politics played a significant role in scheme implementation in both formal and informal NHIS sectors	9	3	1	3
Risk to scheme sustainability if supportive political person departs office	2	1	0	0

Some of the actors found them justifiable in as much as such actions achieved objectives that were aligned with their interests. Findings also revealed that power and politics influenced the sense-giving processes of actors — affording some key actors the latitude to impose on the sense-making of others to drive certain objectives. These findings are summarised below.

Sense-Making and Power: HMCAN's Asymmetrical Power of Meaning

HMCAN's (the HMO trade body) asymmetrical power of meaning (information control) based on its superior knowledge of the business of health insurance, gave it the leverage to influence the scheme's implementation more favourably in its interest. HMCAN effectively exploited this advantage to influence the implementation of the scheme in favour of the HMOs. The actions of HMCAN are entirely consistent with Principal-Agent theory (Jensen & Meckling, 1976), that advances the view that principals and agents in a contract cannot because of information asymmetry are constrained to ensure that the terms of the contract are pareto-optimal for both parties (Halachimi, 2003). The proponents of HMCAN's agenda at the

start of the NHIS, were mostly medical entrepreneurs who had identified an opportunity to maximise financial gains in the business of HMOs. HMCAN/HMOs for the most part interpreted, enacted and processed information pertaining to the scheme through the prism of their business interests.

Sense-Making Revealing Negative Political Influence on Scheme Implementation

Findings revealed examples of executive power overreach which some respondents deemed as unacceptable conduct, inimical to the success of the scheme. These include power concentration, financial misappropriation, politically motivated appointments of under-qualified individuals, and premature termination of the service tenure of out-of-favour NHIS chief executives. Also seen as negative by some respondents were certain politically expedient actions by the executive to drive through aspects of the implementation process by fiat.

Veto Actors

The resolve of the central government to get the programme rolled out as a matter of political priority led to certain expedient actions by policy actors that could be described as *Veto actors* – because of their substantial political leverage in the implementation process. Some of these actions were arguably altruistic while others were regarded as motivated purely by the pursuit of self-interest. The actions of these Veto actors are insightful for understanding the role of power and politics in sense-making.

Sense-Making Revealing Positive Political Influence on Scheme Implementation

Some respondents recalled cases of actor sense-making suggesting positive receptivity to the direct use of political power by influential actors with immense power over resources. Some respondents cited instances where direct use of power, mostly by government officials, favoured their implementation objectives. This explicitly demonstrates that the sense-making of these implementing agents had been altered so much so that they found themselves agreeable to interventions. Such endorsements suggest a *power distance orientation* that accepts such actions as legitimate — validating the empirical position that in high power-distance cultures such as Nigeria, 'institutionalised injustice' may be accepted as normal in deference to 'hierarchical order' (Khatri, 2009:5). Others raised concerns about the legitimacy of such actions but normalised them in deference to the power of authority.

Theoretical Contributions

This paper addresses the charge that sense-making theory is deficient in the realm of power and politics. It validates the view that it is naïve to think that new understandings (sense-making) will be free of power dynamics and self-interested motives (Vlaar et al., 2006). The contributions to the understanding of role of power and politics in sense-making are in three strands:

1. It demonstrates that power derives from resource control (financial), as exhibited by the actions of NHIS officials, and technical knowledge (power of meaning) which HMOs/HMCAN possessed as a result of the superior industry expertise they had over other stakeholders.

2. It contributes to recent research advancing the notion that sense-giving is a political process (Maitlis and Lawrence, 2007; Filstad, 2014). In empirical terms, the privilege HMCAN had to exercise power without a broad mandate of HMOs supports the perspective that sense-giving (the dialectic of sense-making) is a political process.

3. It extends the concept of power-distance (Hofstede, 1980, 1984; Mulder, 1977) by drawing out the linkage between sense-making and the notion of power-distance orientation (Kirkman et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2013). This contribution is novel in the sense that there has been little academic exploration of the interrelationship between power-distance orientation and sense-making to date. The paper elaborates Helpap's (2016) perspectives on the association between individual values, power distance and change commitment by demonstrating that the receptivity of some NHIS actors both towards positive and negative use of power by high calibre, resource-controlling health officials derived from their cognitive frameworks or schemas (person and role schemas). Implicitly, the conclusion can accordingly be drawn that power-distance orientation influences the sense-making of actors. This is a significant contribution to a nascent subfield of inquiry.

Implications for Policy Practice

This paper, beyond contributions to the sense-making and policy implementation literature, highlights significant implications for policy and practice that policymakers should draw lessons from. The NHIS study in the main, uncovered the existence of a chasm between policy as enacted and practice (its implementation). A major factor in this study had to do with the policy message itself – most especially the way it was framed by various implementing agents.

The study brought to light several instances of unequal distribution of power or power asymmetries in play when certain key decisions were taken in the course of the NHIS implementation. It is important for policy makers to understand that such power dynamics can contribute to policy failure on several levels. Also significant is the finding relating to power-distance orientation. The study suggests that power-distance orientation (that accepts or normalises negative use of power by executive fiat) may contribute to policy failure by weakening effective policy implementation and enjoins policy makers to be mindful of this (Khatri, 2009).

Finally, this paper directs the attention of policy makers to the criticality of contextual factors in policy design and implementation by demonstrating that such factors can constitute barriers to successful policy implementation. Further research will be required to expand the frontier of knowledge in this sub-field of policy studies.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, the insights from this paper boldly questions some established orthodoxies in policy studies. It contributes to the literature on two important levels: Theoretically, it extends the frontier of the concept of sense-making , and in the policy practice space, it draws the attention of policy makers to the intrinsic dynamics of the policy process — providing them with new capacities to design and implement policies better and also to identify useful leverage points for interventions.

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INVESTIGATING INEFFICIENCIES IN A PENSION FUND MANAGEMENT SYSTEM, SOUTH AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

The central argument was whether clients serviced by a pension fund system were dissatisfied. Traditional and behavioural management theories were *combined. Quantitative research approach was adopted. Perception of employees and beneficiaries based on service quality, information quality and system quality influences pension fund management systems' operation. The study found poor services were offered by none-permanent employees. The research established, concerns raised by customers, inefficiencies in the system cannot be attributed to system design but management of the operating system. The research conclude, management and administration inefficiencies were caused by the poor management of none permanent employees operating the system.*

Key Words: *Pension fund management systems, administrative inefficiencies, operational inefficiencies,*

Disclaimer: *This article is an extract from MBA mini-dissertation submitted to the North West University Business School, South Africa*

INTRODUCTION

Management of pension fund systems have received lots of attention in the recent past (Hunter, 2017:11). Literature on pension management systems in South African are limited and have not focused extensively on system efficiencies. The central argument to this research was whether beneficiaries serviced by the Government Employees Pension Fund (GEPF) system in South Africa were dissatisfied with the system. The research focussed at analysing management factors affecting efficiency GEPF system in South Africa. Schawrz et al., (2014:1868) defined pension as the sum of funds that an employee invests during his employment and derived benefits at the end of employment period in the form of a lump sum or monthly payments. Antoin et al., (2010:1178) further defined a pension system as "a benefit plan" in which a fixed contribution is invested which is accessed upon retirement of the employee. Literature on pension fund management systems exists (Tessarimatis, 2010:222) but most notable of such pension regimes were employment pension funds, social and state pensions as well as disability pension. Angelis et al (2010:167) further define an employment pension scheme as a scheme in which the employee has a contribution plan invested into the fund in order to save for retirement. These authors argue that the pay as you go system is among the common methods that is applied in most countries around the world. In this paper;

Pension fund *is referred to a non-profit making institution that administers employees and employers provisions for when employees are no longer physically or mentally able to work (Fourie, Falkena and Kok 1999: 33). Van Wyk, Botha and Godspeed (2012: 122) added that they are organisations whose members become entitled to benefits upon the occurrence of certain events such as resignation or retrenchment, death or retirement. All retirement funds must be registered in terms of the Pension Funds Act 24 of 1956 (Van Wyk et al 2012:16). Juta's Statutes Editors (2013:14) added that,* ***pension fund organizations*** *are any association of persons established with the objective of providing annuities or lump sum payments for*

members, former members of such association upon them reaching retirement dates, or for the dependants of such members or former members upon the death of such members or former members.

Globally, the use of technology and innovative practices has become instrumental in enhancing the performance of institution, contributing to an emergent model of doing business (Loudon and Loudon, 2012: 375; Shaikh and Karjaoluoto, 2015: 550). Lippi, (2016: 23) is of the view that investments in systems infrastructure have evolved in many functional areas of business operations so do the pension case management system of South Africa. While Andersen et al., (2014: 1050) agreed that it is a development resulting in improved and efficient performance of the pension systems across the world which cumulatively have resulted in improvement in delivery benefits to recipients.

The researcher combined traditional management theories and behavioural theories to explain the multi-faceted nature of the Government Employees Pension Fund (GEPF) system as an organisation that manages pension funds in South Africa. Traditional management theories emphasis is on production, management, organisation, technology and science within organisations but the behavioural nature of employees and how they interaction with none human components of an organisation affects organisations effectiveness and efficiencies. The current research study focus on three main traditional management theories- Bureaucratic management theory which focuses on a rigid system with a set hierarchy, a clear division of labour, and detailed rules and procedures. The administrative management theory which concerned with how an organisation operates by distinguishing basic managerial functions. The scientific management theory which focus on improving work methods through scientific observation and analysis. According to Angus and Kwok (2014: 28-40), traditional theories focused primarily on production, management, organisation, technology and science, but little attention was paid to how people might be impacted, the way in which they react and are likely to react to organisation in future.

However, the extent to which the North West Provincial GEPF fares when rated against the eight parameters as identified by Wang (1995: 1-5), cannot be immediately ascertained in the absence of a research study on the problem GEPF beneficiaries encountered. The pension administration in the North West province also has challenges with regard to type of old-age protection, range of coverage, unit of pooling, source of funds, method of financing, qualifying conditions for benefits, benefit formula and management of funds. Wang (1995: 6) posit that pension administration and pension provision involve diligence on the part of the government, the staff, and the ICT solutions for customers to get good service. There is need for proficient and standardized provision and administration parameters outlined for an effective integration and efficient administration and operation of a pension fund system.

Problem Statement

Since the legislation of the South African Government Employee Pension Act in 1956, the administration and operations have been characterised by some undesirable problems as it was designed to cater for a small privileged segment of the population as opposed to the entire population. Mamabolo (2015:7) further posit that, some of the fractures exibited by the administration and operations of the pension system can be attributed to the post democratic dispensation amendments of the original legislation which makes the GEPF system inclusive of all citizens and permanent residents of South Africa. The modes of funding pre-democratisation further create a gap between social old age grant for the poor and tax incentivized private pension sector that is favourable to high income earning individuals as opposed to low income individuals (Mamabolo 2015:13). The means test applied by government is not consistent and as a result present a challenge to the poor for the little that they save precluding them from accessing the government grant and diminishes their income while the tax incentive for the rich rises in value as lifetime income increases. However, eligibility requirements do not stipulate that recipients are prevented from gainful employment at age over 60 years and as a result low barriers to access the fund. More than 90% of South African citizens and permanent residents over the age of 60 years are eligible to receive a benefit grant and the increase in the number of beneficiaries handled by the system put strain on the operational capacity and capability of personnel operating the system. Mamabolo (2015:8) argues in a study that the

Government Employee Pension Fund cannot continue to accommodate a large number of retirees due to the social security funding model of South Africa which is not contributory in nature to the fund and such a practice which is unsustainable.

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

In South Africa, old age pension was introduced in 1928 for providing income to poor elderly whites at retirement (Muchiri & Garen 2018:55). Post-apartheid South Africa saw the system extended to Africans, but pension pay-outs were not determined by race (Muchiri & Garen 2018:56). Legislations with regard to pension fund systems in South Africa began with Pension Funds Act No. 24 of 1956. Since its promulgation in 1958, the Act was only amended in the Government Gazette 41549 on 29 March 2018 (Nevondwe, 2010:167; Nevondwe, Odeku, and Raligilia, 2017:33). van der Merwe (2004:320) argues that pension is an important aspect of social security system and social insurance entails programmes that provide some insurance against life's contingencies, such as disability, unemployment and old age (van der Merwe 2004:322). Lloyd-Sherlock and Agrawal (2014b:1571) add that pensions are important for two main reasons - increased personal income to boost consumption and assist older people afford direct and indirect costs of treatment and medication. There exists various retirement legislations in South Africa and those legislations are different from the Pension Funds Act, 24 of 1956 which also include the Pension Funds Amendment Act 11 of 2007 and the Financial Services Laws General Amendment Act, 22 of 2008. The focus of these amendments were on the principle which allows the non-member spouses to withdraw pension interest on the date of the divorce order as opposed to the date when the member exited the fund either as a result of resignation/retrenchment/dismissal, disability, death and retirement (Nevondwe 2010:310). Further legislation to pension fund systems in South Africa include the Government Employees Pension Law, 1996, Transnet Pension Fund Act and the South African Post Office Retirement Fund Act.

In addition, Sigwadi and Sigwadi (2009:1030) posit that pension funds are usually established by governments with the objective to provide retirement income for their members and beneficiaries. Hence, pension fund benefits are protected and that members, dependants, or beneficiaries are able to receive their benefits after the retirement or death of a member. The provisions that protect retirement fund benefits are contained in section 37A of the Pension Funds Act of South Africa and states that 'pension benefits may be reduced, transferred, ceded, pledged, hypothecated, or attached only to the extent permitted by section 37D of the Pension Funds Act 24 of 1956, the Income Tax Act 58 of 1962, the Maintenance Act 99 of 1998, section 65 of the Magistrates Courts Act 32 of 1944, and the Divorce Act 70 of 1979' (Sigwadi & Sigwadi 2009:1038). Mangammbi (2015:344) reports that, the Financial Services Board of South Africa issued a Pension Funds Circular 130 on good governance for retirement funds. Circular 130 requires that trustees put in place a documented code of conduct, an investment statement, communication strategy to members, and have a performance appraisal system for trustees. The circular also obliges new board members to receive comprehensive training and all board members to be trained on a continuing basis. Although the circular extensively covers elements relevant to the sound operation, conduct, duties and obligations of boards of trustees, it is not enforceable.

Fourie et al., (1999: 40) and Van Wyk et al., (2012:179) in his study break retirement funds in two forms, namely, defined benefit funds determined by a formula based on salary and years of membership and defined contribution like a "normal savings product where the member and sponsor contributions are invested by the retirement fund. System quality in this research refers to system reliability, accessibility, adaptability, integration, response time and privacy (Ji-fan Ren, Fosso Wamba, Akter, Dubey & Childe, and 2017:122) while Ji-fan Ren et al, (2017:124) defined information quality as the completeness, accuracy, format and currency of the information. Since the inception of GEPF pension fund system in South Africa, Zwetsloot (2003:205) argues that, for the system to work efficiently, the South African Pension Fund Quality Management and Management Systems approach adopted ISO 9000.

Such a massive change in a system can be described as a revolutionary change rather than evolutionary or transformative change as it came with excessive pressure in the demand for services post-apartheid. The increased demand for services invariably affects the quality of services offered to beneficiaries caused by

human factors such as skills, accessibility, geographic location, information dissemination, quality of products and procedures applying for benefits. Technology was invested into the system as a key solution to challenges, specifically with regard to management, administration and operational processes to bring about efficiency within the system. The GEPF adopted the Pension Case Management (PCM) approach as the national Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) solution referred to in this research as the GEPF system. The effectiveness of customer service and operations therefore hinges on the effectiveness of the GEPF system. According to the Government Employees Pension Funds Report (2014:10), the GEPF was mandated to perform a number of reforms which, among others, were aimed at ensuring effective, reliable, and timely provision of services with focus on funds such that beneficiaries are socially and economically well supported (Sigwadi 2013: 1099). The enactment of the Retirement Act of 2014 as part of the GEPF system was to ensure that, retirees are efficiently supported and their well-being properly looked after.

Several studies (Lloyd-Sherlock & Agrawal 2014:1575; Chatz, Gómez-Olivé, Ralston, Menken & Tollman 2012:1577) in South Africa posit that the rapid increase in poor households can be attributed to the increasing number of retirees who depend on their retirement benefit for survival. In spite of these legislations, fewer studies have focussed on the factors affecting the efficiency in the management, administration and operations of the Government Employees Pension Funds System (GEPF) of South Africa. Most studies in South Africa have instead focus on the social safety nets in general (Harenberg, Ludwig & Maus 2013:8; Lloyd-Sherlock, Barrientos, Moller & Saboia, 2012:12) to the neglect of how inefficient implementation of the GEPF system can affect beneficiaries. Furthermore, research associated with factors entrenching inefficiencies in pension fund management systems to ensure adequate safety net of beneficiaries are scarce especially at provincial level in South Africa. Wang (1995:3) argues that, new challenges that arose from the use of information communication system (ICT), notably operational failures in the ICT system, complexity in ICT system, ease of accessing documents, tracking of files, time used to complete forms online, requisite skills to operate systems and training of staffs are key to system efficiencies. The argument was based on reports of a highly defragmented Chinese government pension fund which gives an insight into the complexity relating to the administration and provision of pension contrary to the simplistic assumptions made by many citizens and experts. Wang (1995:1-5) identifies key pension administration variables which if not properly handled lead to poor quality of services. They include enumeration, record keeping, contribution, collection, benefit determination, benefit payments and other clientele services, regulating pension funds, supervising the operation of the system and protecting insured persons from errors and abuse.

The GEPF is a service organisation constituting of both hardware systems that are operated by people for effectiveness and efficiency. The current research linked the traditional theories to behavioural theories which emphasizes employee's influence on an organisation and focuses on two competencies – communication and teamwork. Central to the behavioural theories are the increase attention to the human factors in the management of organisations. In this study, three main behavioural theories were explored, namely, Follett (1868 – 1933) in her work as explained in Clegg et al., (2005) gave recognition to the importance of involving workers in solving problems and argues that management is dynamic and not a static process. Follett as further quoted by Angus and Kwok (2014: 20-40) defined management as "getting things done through people" and noted that: (i) people closest to the action make the best decisions; (ii) subordinates should be involved in the decision-making process; (iii) coordination is vital to effective management; (iv) communication between managers and employers improves decisions; and (v) managers should find ways to resolve the interdepartmental conflict.

Furthermore, Barnard (1886 – 1961) work as discussed in O'Connor (2012) and Wolf (1974) remarked that, social systems require employee cooperation if they are to be effective, and introduced the idea of examining the organisation's external environment and adjusting its internal structure to balance the two. In this research the pension fund as an organisation has both internal (employees and systems) and external (beneficiaries, clients) environment that need to interact in an efficient and effective way to produce optimum outcomes. Barnard (1886-1961) observed that, the manager's main roles are: (i) to communicate with employees; (ii) to motivate them to work hard to help achieve the organisation's goals; and (iii)

successful management depends on maintaining good relations with people outside the organisation with whom managers deal regularly. Angus and Kwok (2014: 28-40) explained, Abraham Maslow's pioneering work on human behaviour laid the foundations for the later development of behaviour management theories. Maslow suggested that there are five sets of human goals which may be called basic needs. These are: (i) physiological; (ii) safety; (iii) love/sense of belonging; (iv) self-esteem; and (v) self-actualisation or self-fulfilment, and they are arranged in order of importance. Man's basic needs are physiological, for example, hunger, thirst, sleep, etc. When these are satisfied they are replaced by safety needs reflecting his desire for protection against danger or deprivation Maslow (1908 – 1970).

The researcher further adopted aspects in the work of traditional theorist and behavioural theorists in investigating efficiencies of pension fund management systems in South Africa as the theoretical basis for this research. The researcher undertook an extensive literature review to assess pension fund management systems and focuses on the quality of the GEPF system; factors responsible for the poor service quality offer to beneficiaries; and question whether the poor service quality offer are due to management, administration or operational system inefficiencies. The study explore the legislative framework and the effects on eligible beneficiaries of the pension fund systems and focusses on the frameworks used by other researchers to analyse pension fund management systems across the world and its impact thereof on the lives of beneficiaries. The study focuses on the work of Ojo (2017:62), Dumais, Cutrell, Jancke, Sarim and Robbins (2016:30), Choi et al., (2015:8), Petter et al., (2008:240) and Sederal and Gable (2004:37).

The study was designed with the intention of investigating factors affecting efficiency in the provision of quality service by the Pension fund Administration System at a provincial in South Africa. Dumais, Cutrell, Cadiz, Jancke, Sarin and Robbins (2016:29) found that most information retrieval systems are designed to facilitate information discovery. Hence, good quality and efficient system must enable users to determine what clues, where information is available for the system to retrieve such information. DeLone and McLean (2016:78) are of the opinion that when investigating a system such as the pension fund management system of South Africa, there are six important dimensions that need to be considered for effectiveness. In the study, "quality (technical level); information quality (semantic level); use of the system; user satisfaction; individual impact and organizational impact (influence level)" are key important dimensions to consider. The study further posits that these dimensions and related measures are not independent success measures, but are interdependent variables. Therefore, in the measurement of a system success, all constructs must be considered and controlled for the system to be efficient.

Hypothesis

The research hypothesised that, the level of GEPF system effectiveness and efficiency is determined by the employees operating the system. South African citizens and permanent residents over the age of 60 with an annual income below R47, 400 and assets worth below R792, 000 living in South Africa are eligible to receive the pension grant. In practice, the income but not the assets criterion is normally used as argued by Abel (2013:5) in the means test due to difficulties to ascertain the valuation of assets. In a situation where there is failure in one of these constructs, there is a possibility of confounding results or an incomplete understanding of the system under investigation (DeLone & McLean 2016:79). The current research adopts the model by DeLone and McLean (2016:80) in the analysis of the stated objective (determine if the poor quality service is cause by management and administration inefficiencies or operational system failure) based on whether "(1) the constructs of the model provide a classification for the many information system evaluation measures reported in the prior literature, (2) their approach begins to identify relevant stakeholder groups in the process of evaluation, and (3) they suggest a model of interdependencies among the constructs as shown below.

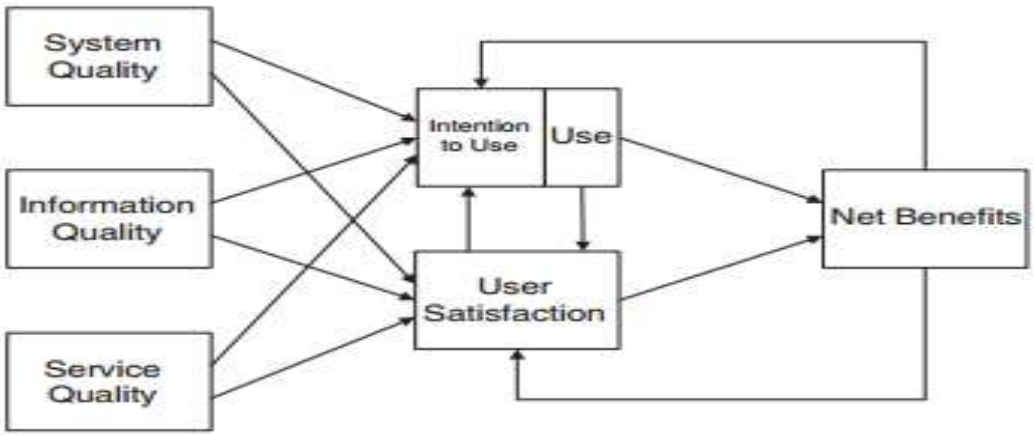

Figure 1: **DeLone and McLean (2003:75) Model**

In the DeLone and McLean (2008:75) model, the dimensions were as follows:

System quality: This describes the desirable characteristics of an information system which include aspects such as ease of use, systems flexibility, system reliability and ease of learning, system features of intuitiveness, sophistication and response times.

Information quality: This describes the desirable characteristics of the system outputs which include aspects of management reports and Web pages as well as relevance, understand ability, accuracy, conciseness, completeness, currency, timeliness and usability.

Service quality: Service quality describes the quality of the support that system users receive from the information system (IS) department and information technology (IT) support personnel which regard to responsiveness, accuracy, reliability, technical competence and empathy of the personnel staff.

System use: This focusses on the degree and manner in which staff and customers utilize the capabilities of an information system (IS) and include aspects of amount of use, frequency of use, nature of use, appropriateness of use, extent of use and purpose of use.

User satisfaction: It focuses on users' level of satisfaction with reports, Web sites, and support services.

Net benefits: This focuses on the extent to which the system is contributing to the success of individuals, groups, organizations, industries, and nations in aspects of improved decision-making, improved productivity, increased sales, cost reductions, improved profits, market efficiency, consumer welfare, jobs creation and economic development.

According to Petter *et al.* (2008:9), there is an abundance of methods to measure net benefits of a system at both the individual and organizational level as well as perceived usefulness of which job impact is the most common measure at the individual level. Furthermore, Torkzadeh & Doll (1999:101) as cited in Petter *et al.* (2008:12) further created an instrument to measure different aspects of impact and task productivity, task innovation, customer satisfaction, and management control. In the study, Petter *et al.* (2008:8) argues that at the organizational level, a variety of measures are employed but profitability measurements seem to be preferred. Ojo (2017:63) further supports the six dimensions of DeLone and McLean (2016:80) in analysing a system to include:

System quality which measures the desirable characteristics of an information system such as perceived ease of use, system features, response time and flexibility;

Information quality focuses on the content issues and characteristics of the information systems output and it is measured by examining the output of an information system in terms of timeliness, accuracy, reliability, and trustworthiness;

Service quality is measured in terms of the quality of support rendered by the information system's developer and assesses the service quality dimensions, such as assurance and responsiveness by the systems support department, as well as the provision of user training;

Intention to use/Use is concerned with assessing the manner in which an information system is used and focus on the attributes of actual usage or sometimes, the frequency of use;

User satisfaction is considered one of the most important measures of system success, often measured by overall user satisfaction and can be assessed by capturing overall user satisfaction with an information system and

Net benefits is one of the most important measures of information system success, and constitutes the extent to which an information system contributes to the success of various stakeholders, whether positive or negative and is measured by assessing individual impact or organizational impact. This classification is similar to that of DeLone and McLean (2016:79).

Furthermore, Sedera and Gable (2004:40) proposed the following attributes for measuring system quality, information quality, individual impact and organisational impact.

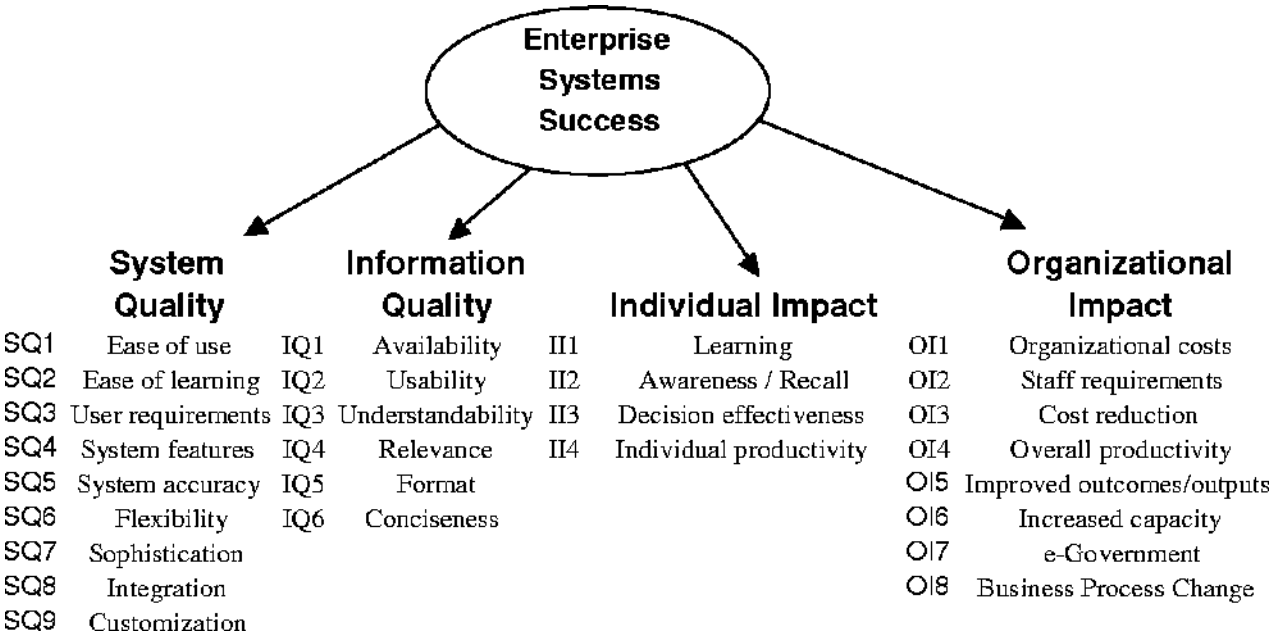

Figure 2. Enterprise systems success (Sedera & Gable, 2004:45)

On the other hand, Petter *et al.* (2008:123) report that Li (1997:87) in a study found that accuracy of output, reliability of output, relationship between users and the information systems staff, user's confidence in the

systems, and timeliness of output were the most important factors. The work by Li introduces the need to examine the relationship between the staff using the system and the organisation's Information System Department. Choi, Kang and Moon (2015:2) highlighted that the most widely applied service quality framework is SERVQUAL, "which articulates customers' salient perceptions about a vendor's service reliability, assurance, empathy, and responsiveness as well as the tangible aspects of the vendor's infrastructure or appearance." Service quality is defined as a customer's global, subjective assessment of the quality of an interaction with a vendor, including the degree to which specific service needs have been met (Choi *et al.* 2015:44). The relationship factor is again evident as there is need to examine the nature of the relationship between the operator of the system and the beneficiaries as end users.

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

The research adopted a quantitative research approach to analyse data using a survey-based research design. The research utilised cross-sectional data obtained from employees and beneficiaries of the GEPF system. Triangulation was used to validate the cross-sectional data for accuracy, diligence, rigour and reliability. Information, gaps and weaknesses from an extensive literature review were used to develop the study instrument. The study instrument was a five-point Likert scale questionnaire and a probability sample process was followed and responds identified. The data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25.0 and suitability tests performed. Inferential statistics tests were performed and results from the analysis used to explain the gap in literature.The researcher employs elements of DeLone and McLean (2016: 228) model and six important dimensions were considered for analysing the effectiveness of the GEPF system. The adoption of a cross-sectional study design was as a result of the non-availability of panel data with regard to the specific constructs use to investigate the factors causing inefficiencies in the management and administration or operations of the GEPF system in the North West province of South Africa.

The target population includes all employees and customers of GEPF system in the North West Province of South over a specific time frame. The researcher purposively sample all the employees of a particular GEPF service centre and every client who visited the GEPF service centre within the specified time frame. A total of 140 employees were sampled from an estimated 150 employees and approximately 300 beneficiaries who visit the centre daily over the stipulated period. An estimated 450 questionnaires were distributed to customers and staffs respectively in a week and an overall response rate of 92.8%. The researcher adopted inclusion criteria to be a GEPF employee and or a GEPF beneficiary resident in the North West province of South Africa and visit the GEPF centre during the data collection week. Pre-testing of the questionnaire were perform prior to the actual data collection week and challenges identify with regard to completion of the questionnaires, clarity of questions and construct were fixed before the final instrument use to collect data.

Descriptive and inferential statistics were performed and frequency tables and percentages derived from the analysis used to present the findings. A t-test analysis and analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also performed. The results of the study were compared with the literature on the administration and operational inefficiencies in the pension fund system in the North West province of South Africa.The reliability was tested using Cronbach's Alpha to determine how well the different items in a research instrument are correlated to one another. The reliability analysis test revealed Cronbach's alpha values of 0.921 and 0.919 respectively.

RESULTS

The objectives of the paper were to established personal characteristics of customers and employees using the GEPF system; quality of GEPF system in used in South Africa; factors responsible for poor quality services provided to beneficiaries; poor quality service a result of administration inefficiencies or operational system failure and the impact of system inefficiencies on beneficiaries. In analysing the personal

characteristics of beneficiaries and employees involved with the Pension Case Management System, 64.9% of respondents were males compared to 35.1% females. The analysis reveals more males beneficiaries participated in the survey compared to females. However, 54.1% GEPF employees were females compared to 45.9% males. The finding have demonstrated that female employees dominated the male employees but the majority of client they serve are males. This findings concur with a Public Service Commission report (PSC, 2016) on the assessment of the service termination and pension pay-out in the public service which found that the majority of employees' respondents were females. However, there were more males beneficiaries who participated in the study than females this finding is consistent with a study by Muchiri & Garen (2018:60) in South Africa which found around 1944, pension pay-outs were determined by race and gender and was skewed in favour of males. The paper has established that despite policy changes in the GEPF legislations in South Africa, irrespective of the race, persistence of males benefiting from the fund compared to females in South Africa persist.

The paper have also established that, the majority of beneficiaries who visit the GPAA centre for services are in the age range 36-46 years old, followed by 25-35 years of age, 47-57 years and 58-68 years of age respectively. The results have shown that, approximately 64.8% of beneficiaries are of age below 46 years and the least being above 58 years constituting 8.1% of the sample. Analysis by age grouping of GEPF employees found 59.4% of the employees falls in the age category of 47 years and below while those of age group 58 to 68 year constitute 8.1%. This finding is contrary to public perception in South Africa that GEPF services are mostly utilised by pensioners. However, the analysis have found newly employed citizens, employees working but not close to retirement and employees (age group 58-68 years) close to retirement utilised the services most. This finding shows that the factors impacting the efficiency of the pension fund system not only affect the young people but also affects older people who are about to exit the fund (Mamabolo, 2015:10).

The study also found a total of 88.6% of beneficiaries have matric, 29.7% have junior degree, 13.5% have honours degree and 8.1% have Master's degree. This finding is consistent with findings in age distribution who visited the GEPF centre in South Africa although the reason of their visits was not interrogated. Level of education of GEPF employees was also analysed.The study found 51.3% of the employees have some form of formal tertiary qualification and the balance as oppose to 48.7% with matric certificates (High School qualification). This findings is in accordance with that of the Public Service Commission report report (PSC, 2016) which found majority of GEPF human resource practitioners managing the termination process have a Grade 12 matric as their highest qualification. The study found 57.4% of all respondents have some form of formal tertiary qualification compared to 48.6% respondents with matric.

The nature of employment by types of employment contracts by beneficiaries who visited the GPAA centre during the week when the survey was conducted were also established. Results shows 59.5% are employed on a permanent basis compared to 37.8% and 2.7% on contract basis and internships respectively. Furthermore, the nature of employment of GEPF employees and the results found 64.9% of GEPF employees are permanently employed basis compared to 32.4% employed on contract basis while 2.7% were serving as interns. The study also found 48.6% of beneficiaries are designated client service agents compared to 27.0% and 16.2% supervisors and middle managers respectively while only 8.1% clients are service by managers. Analysis with regard to ddesignated employees to beneficiaries reveals ddifferent levels of designated employees were provided to beneficiaries ranging from client service agent to middle manager. Findings reveals 64.9% of beneficiaries were designated client service agents, followed by supervisors (24.3%), and lastly middle managers (16.2%). This findings is in contrast to a study by Njuguna and Arnolds (2010) on the financial efficiency of pension funds in Kenya found that the majority of the respondents were found to be middle managers. This finding contradicts that by Njuguna and Arnolds (2010) studies on the financial efficiency of pension funds in Kenya which found majority of clients are serviced by middle managers.

Access to GEPF systems by beneficiaries were also analysed and the result found 91.7% and 8.3% of beneficiaries' access the system with and without assistance respectively. This finding has proved that,

delays in the pension pay-outs attributed to inefficiency in accessing the GEPF system is unfounded. Access to GEPF systems by the employees for efficient provision of services to beneficiaries were analysed. The results 91.9% of employees easily access the system without assistance compared to 8.1% who need some form of assistance to access the system. The results found access to the system to be very high without assistance from employees. This findings is in line with comment by Sedera and Gable (2004:44) which found accessibility as a key attribute that measure system quality and impact on individuals and organisations. The model by DeLone and McLean has been adopted (2016:82) in the analysis of these objectives in determining if the inefficiency of the system could be attributed to operational issues; however as per the findings operational issues remain not a problem as 91.7% of users can operate the system independently.

Statistical analysis based on three perceived constructs (service quality, system use, and information quality and user satisfaction) by beneficiaries and employees were perform. The constructs were measured using a seven point likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. To assist in the interpretation of the results, the researcher used the following interpretive scale for the results: at most 1.50 = strongly disagree; 1.51 – 2.50 = disagree; 2.51 – 3.49 = somewhat disagree; 3.50 – 4.49 = neutral; 4.5 – 5.49 = somewhat agree, 5.50 – 6.49 = agree and at least 6.50 = strongly agree. The results are summarised in the table below. The focus therefore dictates that any mean value less than 3.50 is considered as not agreeing and mean value greater than 4.49 is considered as concurring.

Table 1: Analysis on the perception beneficiaries based on three constructs

Analysis of service quality by customers/employees			
Statements	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**N**
Is ICT support personnel responsive	5,62	1,738	63
Is ICT support personnel reliable	5,41	1,518	63
Is ICT support personnel competent	5,44	1,501	63
Is ICT support personnel empathic	5,55	1,287	61
Analysis of system use by customers/ employee			
Statements	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**N**
I'm a frequent user of the system	6,38	0,982	63
I use the system to meet my requirements	5,92	1,256	63
I make appropriate use of the system	6,38	0,681	63
I make adequate(enough) use of the system	5,95	1,490	63
I use the system for the intended purpose	6,64	0,593	62
Analysis of user satisfaction by customers/employees			
Statements	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**N**
The system generates satisfactory reports	5,03	1,833	63
I'm satisfied with web services	4,84	1,878	63
I'm satisfied with user support services	5,70	1,392	63

Source: *Researcher own data*

Results in Table 1 reveal majority of respondents scored an average above 4.49 indicating that they concur with all the statements that ICT support personnel are responsive, reliable, competent and empathetic. The study also found most customers scored an average 4.49 and above indicating that they concur with all the statements that they are frequent users of the system; they use the system to meet their requirements; they make appropriate use of the system; they make adequate use of the system; and they use the system for the intended purposes. Analysis of user satisfaction by beneficiaries found most scores had an average 4.49 and above indicating that they concur with all the statements that the system generates satisfactory reports; they are satisfied with web services; and lastly they are satisfied with user support services.

GEPF Employees Based on Six Constructs

The analysis focussed on the general questions on 'whether the GEPF system is efficiency in managing pension administration" and this question was divided into six sections, namely, System quality, Information quality, Service quality, System use, User satisfaction and Net benefits. According to DeLone and Mclean (2016: 78). These constructs need to be considered when analysing the efficiency of a pension fund management system. Suffice to say that this study used the model to investigate factors affecting the efficiency of the pension fund system in the North West province. The results are summarised in the following Table 2. The focus therefore dictates that any mean value less than 3.50 will be considered as not agreeing and mean value greater than 4.49 will be considered as concurring.

Table 2: Analysis of perception by GEPF employees based on six constructs

Analysis of system quality by employees			
Questions	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**N**
Do you consider the system easy to use?	5,95	1,353	67
Does the system offer flexibility?	5,73	1,367	67
Is the system easy to learn?	5,92	1,256	67
Do you consider the system reliable?	5,30	1,431	67
Does the system offers sophistication in your task performance?	5,18	1,507	64
Is the system response time good?	5,88	1,130	55
Analysis of information quality by employees			
Statements	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**N**
Does the system produce relevant information	5,57	1,324	67
Does the system produce understandable information	5,78	1,109	67
Does the system produce accurate information	5,05	1,649	67
Does the system produce concise(brief but comprehensive) information	5,14	1,456	67
Does the system produce complete information	5,30	1,469	67
Does the system produce current information	5,68	1,415	67
Does the system produce timely information	5,58	1,228	66
Does the system produce usable information	6,11	0,966	67
Analysis of service quality by employees			

Statements	Mean	Standard deviation	N
Is ICT support personnel responsive (respond quick)	5,51	1,304	67
Is ICT support personnel reliable (can depend on)	5,24	1,480	67
Is ICT support personnel competent (knowledgeable)	5,62	1,320	67
Is ICT support personnel empathic (Understand one's feeling)	5,05	1,632	67
Analysis of system use by employees			
Statements	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**N**
I'm a frequent user of the system	6,22	0,787	67
I use the system to meet my job requirements	6,14	1,058	67
I use the system for private use	3,95	2,285	67
I sometimes use the system after hours	4,29	2,236	64
I use the system during office hours only	5,36	1,570	66
Analysis of user satisfaction by employees			
Statements	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**N**
The system generates satisfactory reports	5,24	1,690	67
I'm satisfied with web services	5,30	1,469	67
I'm satisfied with user support services	5,54	1,282	67
Analysis of net benefits of system use by employees			
Statements	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**N**
The system has improved decision making	5,92	1,090	67
The system has improved cost reductions	5,68	1,396	67
The system has increased production	5,84	1,167	67
The system has improved the turnaround time	6,14	1,159	67
The system has improved efficiency	6,00	1,291	67
The system has improved customer welfare	5,95	1,201	67

Source: *Researcher own data*

Analysis of system quality by GEPF employees

Analysis of system quality by employees found majority scored of an average above 4.49 indicating that most GEPF workers concur with all the statements that, the system easy to use; offers flexibility; easy to learn; reliable; sophistication in their task performance; and response time is good. The finding is explained by the objective which alludes to the investigation of the quality of the GEPF system used in the North West Province. DeLone and Mclean (2003:75) model describes the system quality as desirable characteristics of information system that encompass variables such ease of use, system reliability and response time. According to the findings the majority of the respondents concur with this model in relation to the system quality.

Analysis of information quality by GEPF employees

Findings reveals, the majority of respondents scored an average above 4.49 agreeing with all the statements that the system produces relevant, understandable, accurate, concise, complete, current, timely, and usable information. Information quality according to DeLone and Mclean (2003:75) is described as characteristics of system outputs which relate to relevance, concise, completeness and time lines. The findings pertaining to information quality are explained by the research objective that alludes to determining if poor quality service is caused by administration inefficiencies or operational failure in the system. The majority of the respondents share the same view with DeLone and Mclean model.

Analysis of service quality by GEPF employees

Results shows that, the majority of employees scored an average above 4.49 indicating that they concur with all the statements that ICT support personnel are responsive, reliable, competent (knowledgeable) and empathetic (understand one's feelings). The finding relates to the research objective about determining the cause of poor quality service. According to Delone and Mclean (2003:75) service quality refers to the support received by users from the information systems department. The findings attest to the notion that IT personnel are responsive and reliable which shows that their performance conforms to the model.

Analysis of system use by employees

The paper have established, majority of employees scored an average above 4.49 indicating that they concur with three statements that they are frequent users of the system; they use the system to meet their job requirements; and that they make use of the system during office hours only. The two statements which obtained an average score of between 3.50 and 4.49 reveal that the respondents were indecisive on the constructs that they use the system for private use, and that they sometimes use the system after hours. This finding concurs with what DeLone and Mclean (2003:75) describe with regard to system use. The model indicates that system use focuses more on the capabilities of the information system concentrating on the appropriateness of use, frequency of use and the purpose of use. The finding explains the objective on the quality of the GEPF system. In terms of this aspect, the majority of users confirm the model of DeLone and Mclean that they use the system to meet their job requirements.

Analysis of user satisfaction by GEPF employees

Further findings shows that, the majority of employees scored an average above 4.49 indicating that they concur with all the statements that the system generates satisfactory reports; they are satisfied with web services; and that they are satisfied with user support services. The finding is explained by the objective that sought to determine the overall satisfaction in using the GEPF system in the North West province. According to DeLone and Mclean (2003:75) model user satisfaction focuses on users' level of satisfaction with reports and support services. As per the findings the majority of the respondents expressed their satisfaction with regard to satisfactory reports produced by the system. This is indicative that they agree with the explanation of the model.

Analysis of net benefits by GEPF employees

Analysis have shown that, the majority of respondents scored an average above 4.49 indicating that they concur with all the statements that the system has improved decision making, cost reductions, production, the turnaround time, efficiency, and customer welfare. This finding is explained by the objective which talks to the impact of the system on the lives of the beneficiaries and the overall satisfaction in using the GEPF system. DeLone and Mclean (2003:75) explain that net benefits focus on the actual benefits derived by individuals, groups, and organisations from the use of the system. According to the findings the respondents attest to the explanation as per the model. The findings indicate that they concur that the system contributes positively to improved turnaround time, efficiency, informed decision making which are benefits that the GEPF gain from using the system.

Means score test on customer perception

In order to determine the difference in pension fund management system of South Africa mean scores and demographic variables, the t-test and analysis of variance test (ANOVA) were computed and the results presented in Table 3. The t-test was computed in the gender category only. ANOVA was not appropriate for gender since gender has only two variables (female and male).

Table 3: Means scores tests on customer perception using personal characteristics

Means score test by gender on customers/beneficiaries perception		
Factors	**t-value**	**P-value**
Service quality	-1.521	0.137
System use	-0.539	0.593
User satisfaction	-0.239	0.813
Overall	**-0.566**	**0.575**
Means score test by age group on customers/beneficiaries perception		
Factors	**F-value**	**P-value**
Service quality	0.288	0.834
System use	1.438	0.249
User satisfaction	2.534	0.074
Overall	**1.467**	**0.241**
Means score test by level of education on customers/beneficiaries perception		
Factors	**F-value**	**P-value**
Service quality	1.018	0.397
System use	0.775	0.517
User satisfaction	0.990	0.410
Overall	**0.837**	**0.483**
Means score test by nature of customer/beneficiaries employment		
Factors	**F-value**	**P-value**
Service quality	0.915	0.410
System use	0.603	0.553
User satisfaction	4.265	0.022
Overall	**2.349**	**0.111**
Means score test by designation to customers/beneficiaries		
Factors	**F-value**	**P-value**
Service quality	0.319	0.812
System use	1.647	0.197
User satisfaction	1.963	0.139
Overall	**1.295**	**0.292**

Source: *Researcher own data*

Means score test on gender of customers

The results presented in the above Table 4.3 revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between the gender of the respondents and their perception on pension fund management system. Therefore, the gender of the respondents does not have a bearing on how they responded to the questions on pension fund management system.

Means score test by age group of customers

According to the results in Table 4.3, there were no statistically significant differences found in the mean scores of the age group of the customers and their perception on pension fund management system.

Means score test by level of education of customers

Table 4.3 revealed that the respondents' perception on pension fund management system with the highest qualification has no significant difference recorded between the highest qualification of the respondents and their perception on pension fund management system.

Means score tests by nature of employment of customers

Table 4.3 shows that, with nature of employment, there is a significant difference recorded in customers' user satisfaction, since the p-values of 0.022 is less than 5% level of significance. This means that nature of employment has a bearing on how the customers responded on the questions on their user satisfaction. The results further revealed that there is a statistically insignificant defference between service quality, system use and the overall scale of pension fund management system with the nature of employment.

Means score test by designation to customers

Using the 5% level of significance, the results in Table 4.3 reveal statistically insignificant differences in the mean scores of the designation and the perception of respondents on pension fund management system.

Mean scores of employees perception

In order to determine the difference in pension fund management system of South Africa mean scores and demographic variables, the t-test and analysis of variance test (ANOVA) were computed and results presented in Table 4. The t-test was computed in the gender category only. ANOVA was not appropriate for gender since gender has only two variables (female and male).

Table 4: Mean scores of employee's perception using personal characteristics

Means score test on perception by gender of GEPF employees		
Factors	**t-value**	**P-value**
System quality	-0.119	0.906
Information quality	1.196	0.240
Service quality	0.292	0.772
System use	0.071	0.944
User satisfaction	0.481	0.634
Net benefits	-0.686	0.497
Overall	**-0.099**	**0.922**
Means score test on perception by age group of employees		
Factors	**F-value**	**P-value**
System quality	0,251	0,860
Information quality	0,666	0,579
Service quality	0,562	0,644
System use	1,762	0,174

User satisfaction	1,065	0,377
Net benefits	0,941	0,432
Overall	**0,839**	**0,482**
Means score test on perception of level of education by GEPF employees		
Factors	**F-value**	**P-value**
System quality	0.255	0.776
Information quality	0.401	0.673
Service quality	0.612	0.548
System use	0.261	0.772
User satisfaction	0.094	0.911
Net benefits	0.033	0.967
Overall	**0.300**	**0.743**
Means score test on perception of the nature of employment by GEPF employees		
Factors	**F-value**	**P-value**
System quality	2.378	0.108
Information quality	6.393	0.004
Service quality	3.921	0.029
System use	1.582	0.220
User satisfaction	3.482	0.042
Net benefits	2.762	0.077
Overall	**8.120**	**0.001**
Means scores test on perception of designation of GEPF employees		
Factors	**F-value**	**P-value**
System quality	0.339	0.715
Information quality	1.970	0.155
Service quality	1.549	0.227
System use	0.306	0.738
User satisfaction	1.461	0.246
Net benefits	2.422	0.104
Overall	**0.918**	**0.409**

Source: *Researcher own data*

Means score test by gender of GEPF employees

The results reveal that there a statistically insignificant difference between gender of the respondents and their perception on pension fund management system. Therefore, the gender of the respondents does not have a bearing on how they responded to the questions on their perception on pension fund management system.

Means score test by age group of employees

There were no statistically significant differences found in the mean scores of the age group of the respondents and their perception on pension fund management system.

Means score test by level of education of employees

Table 4.4 displays that there is a statistically insignificant difference found between the highest qualification of the respondents and their perception on pension fund management system.

Means score test by nature of employment of employees

Using 5% level of significant, the results revealed that there is a statistically significant difference recorded between information quality, service quality and user satisfaction with the nature of employment. There is also a statistically significant difference recorded between the overll scale of pension fund management system with the nature of employment. The results further show that there is a statistically insignificant difference between system quality, system use and net benefits with the nature of employment.

Means score test by designation of employees

The results in Table 4.4 revealed a statistically insignificant difference in the mean scores of the designation of the respondents and their perception on pension fund management system.

DISCUSSION

The paper investigates the quality of the Government Pensions Administration (GPAA) system used in the province. Quality of the GEPF system used was found to be preferred by employees as the majority of employees are able to use the system without any assistance. Employees implementing the GEPF system found the system to be easy to use, offered flexibility, was easy to learn, reliable but sophistication in the performance of task and a quick response time. Using the system for private use defeats the purpose of why the pension case management system was acquired. In 2017, there was an acknowledgment by the Public Service Commission and the Public Service and Administration Performance Monitoring and Evaluation Committee in the South African National Assembly that there were delays in the pay-out of pension benefits to retirees in South Africa (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2017:10). Hunter (2017: 5) adds that in South Africa there exist a large number of retirees who are witnessing delays in unpaid pension fund benefits that can be attributed to inefficiencies in the administration of the pension fund system. However, the paper have found these allegations not to be completely but found approximately 8.1% of employees are either intern who are inexperienced or employees who use the system for private purpose. This may account for the lack skill to operate the system efficiently which may have negative impact on the efficient operation of the system resulting in the delays in the payouts.

Analysis to determine factors responsible for the poor service quality provision to beneficiaries found, the quality service provided to beneficiaries was good. The finding was supported by the data that revealed, ICT support personnel are responsive, reliable, competent and empathic. The staff also confirmed that the system produce relevant, understandable, accurate, concise, complete, current, timely, and usable information. According to Wang (1995:1-5), there are administrative variables that if not handled properly can lead to poor quality service. These variables include contribution collection, benefit determination, benefits payment. The survey conducted shows that these administrative variables were taken care of in the Government Pensions Administration Agency hence the results confirm that the service provided by staff to beneficiaries is of good quality.

Furthermore, to determine if poor quality services are offered as a result of administration inefficiencies or operational system failure, findings based on analysis of employees' perceptions revealed that the users of the system emphasised that the support fromr the ICT division of the GEPF is of good standard. The notion was supported by the data which clarified that the ICT support personnel are responsive (respond quick), reliable (can depend on), competent (knowledgeable) and empathic (understand one's feeling). The results are in line with the views by DeLone and McLean (2016) who indicated that the use of technology lead to good quality service. As Purce (2014:11) highlights, delay in pension pay outs are caused by employees who lack skills to operate the system but in terms of quality, the majority of users are in agreement that the system gives accurate, concise, complete, understandable and timely information. This attests to the notion that the factors impacting on the efficiency of the pension fund system is not related to the system.

The paper also examined the impact of the system inefficiencies on the lives of beneficiaries based on analysis of employees' perceptions. Results revealed that, staff members of GEPF are of the view that the system has more benefits than the negatives. The notion is supported by the data revealing that the system has improved decision making, cost reductions, production, turnaround time, efficiency, and customer welfare. This finding contradicts the study by Hunter (2017: 5) which reported that, there is an existence of large number of retirees South Africa who are witnessing delays in unpaid pension fund benefits attributed to inefficiencies in the administration of the pension fund system.

The overall satisfaction of the Pension Administration Agency (GPAA) system was determine. Findings from both beneficiaries and employees' perceptions revealed that the overall satisfaction on the use of the Government Pensions Administration Agency (GPAA) system in the North West province were good. The notion is supported by the data which revealed that the system generates satisfactory reports, that they are satisfied with web services, and lastly, they are satisfied with user support services. The literature reveals that the core function of Government Pension Administration Agency (GPAA) is to ensure that members and pensioners get quality service, peace of mind about their financial security after retirement (Zwetsloot, 2003:205). This statement supports the finding which shows that the customers and staff are satisfied with user support services which ensures the efficient functioning of the system. With regard to management implications, DeLone and Mclean (2016:78) argued that, there exist six dimensions to be considered when analysing the efficiency of a pension fund system. In order to prove that a system is efficient, it has to satisfy the following dimensions: system quality, information quality, service quality, system use, user satisfaction and net benefits. Findings from analysing data in this study have shown that, the majority of the respondents agreed the system is flexible and reliable. This in itself would assist management in producing quality data that can be relied upon. The users also concur that the service quality which describe the support from information system is good. This is one aspect that could help management and the organisation to perform well with the system that produces accurate, concise and reliable information within time lines.

Implications

Lloyd-Sherlock and Agrawal (2014) found that in South Africa, there are a number of studies that found pensions have a positive and significant effect on the health status of older citizens. In their study, a sampled 300 households in the Langeberg Health District of the Western Cape was considered in 1999. The results of found that older people in receipt of non-contributory state pensions reported a significantly better health status compared to other household members. The finding reveals that the availability of a pension fund improves the lifestyle of pensioners and inefficiencies in terms of management and administration as well as operations may have adverse effects on beneficiaries. Duplo (2003:1) confirms that "more than a quarter of black South African children under age five live with a pension recipient." This highlights the indirect impact pension grant have on the South African's wellbeing. Further impact extends to accessibility of proper nutrition, health and education of the majority of South African families. The current study focussed in the North West province of South Africa. As a results, its findings was local and contextual base. However, findings from similar studies (Duplo, 2003 and Lloyd-Sherlock and Agrawal, 2014) pointed that, inefficiencies in the management, administration and operations of pension fund systems may have adverse effects on beneficiaries. These findings are in line with the present research and its findings. Hence, despite contextual limitations, the study has close a gap in literature and have contributed to the body of knowledge specifically to the management and operation of a pension fund system.

Limitations and Future Research

The study is limited in the sense that, we focussed on a national organisation but at a provincial level. In addition, data was collected from employees and beneficiaries that access a pension fund system in a single province. Furthermore, the data was cross-sectional and not longitudinal which the study may not be able to establish trends. Finally, the study suggests future research examine similar topic at a national level and utilises longitudinal data to establish trends. The establishment of trends may share more light to the

management of a pension fund system and behaviours of employees and beneficiaries making use of the system.

CONCLUSION

The study investigated the efficiency of a Pension Fund Administration System in the North West Province of South Africa. Five key objectives were state on the commencement of the study. Contrary to public perceptions that pension fund systems are slow, inefficient and provide poor services to clients. The research found both the employees and beneficiaries of the GEPF confirm it is easy to use. Although the organisation experienced quiet a number of disgruntled members citing inefficiency of the system as a cause of delay in service provision, data analysis has revealed the opposite.

The central argument was whether clients were dissatisfied service provision and attributed that to management and administration inefficiencies? However, findings from the study reveals both employees and customers agreeing the system is efficient. The problem was not with the management and administration neither nor the operating system but increase client volumes, inexperienced interns and non-permanent employees, working with the system to service clients.

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Part 5
Sustainability and Green Management

VALUE RELEVANCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY REPORTING LENGTH: EVIDENCE FROM NIGERIAN QUOTED COMPANIES

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the Value relevance of Corporate Social Responsibility Reporting Length among quoted companies in Nigeria. This study is based on ex-post facto research design and employed a panel data set collected from seventy three (73) non-financial companies over a six year period ranging from 2012 to 2017 financial year. We analyzed the data set using Summary Statistics, Correlation Matrix and Panel Random Least Square Regression Technique. The random effect model established that Corporate Social Responsibility Reporting Page Length has an indirect effect on share price. This finding suggests that managers do modify earnings per share and book value per share with social responsibility activities. The findings from this study supports the argument that corporations in Nigeria pay more attention to how much profits are generated and how much dividends are paid, and not necessary social issues and its reporting. Hence one among the various recommendations that we proffer is that the notion of implementing corporate social responsibility activities as a complementary service must be discouraged. In so doing firms must report corporate social responsibility activities that aim not only to comply with rules but also such that will create good reputation for the public and investors as it affects the value relevance of firms financial report.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility reporting length, share price, earnings per share and book value of shares.

INTRODUCTION

Corporate Social Responsibility reporting hereafter called (CSR) has grown exponentially during the last ten years. Notably, in 1999 the Global Reporting Initiative recorded only twelve firms that adopted its reporting standard but in year 2012 this number had reached more than 2000. Substantial empirical evidences suggesting that firms could benefit from CSR activities both financially and non-financially abound in the literature. (Famiyeh, 2017; Hategan & Curea-Pitorac, 2017) Generally referred to as "enlightened shareholder approach" Harpreet, (2009) noted that maximization of long-term financial returns (stock returns) is a function of a set of social and environmental matters being considered by corporate management, and this have been met with stiff debate and criticism. However, the fact that there is an increased consideration for corporate social reporting accounting by shareholders worldwide suggest that there are inherent advantages

in adopting CSR practices especially when it comes to accessing financial resources. Miralles-Quirós; Miralles-Quirós, & Arraiano (2017) Gómez-Bezares; Przychodzen & Przychodzen (2016) Charlo; Moya & Muñoz (2016) According to Robinson; Kleffner,; Bertels (2011) the benefits of shareholders in a company carrying out CSR activities depends on how that information affects stock market value of the shares.

Akanfe, Michael & Bose (2017), document that firms communicate social responsibility activities to host communities most effectively through its financial statements. Therefore management are charged with the responsibility of including such information in their financial statement to satisfy the informational needs of all stakeholders including host communities, consequently adding value to their financial reports and contribute to the development of their companies. However, such information are considered to be relevant when it influences the users' decisions to form predictions or help in confirming or correcting past evaluations, and reliable if it can be depended upon to faithfully represent the transactions or events that it aims to represent without any undue error or bias Financial Accounting Standard Board, (FASB). According to Barth et al. (2001) value relevant information should have both features of relevance and reliability.

Hence following this opinion and in line with standard accounting view point, the researcher argue that CSR of companies and their associated voluntary reporting are inseparable but in any case host communities should conclude on whether a company performs better or worse by assessing those social programs, activities and projects embarked upon and reported by it.

Advocates of CSR as value relevant argue on the basis that performance of the company will be improved through high quality corporate social reporting. They support the argument that firms should operate within a CSR perspective far broader and longer than their own immediate, short-term profits. This lends credence to the opinion of Wahba and Elsayed (2015) who note that a key benefit of CSR investment is that it aid in stockpiling reputational capital, and create some organizational capabilities which would help the firm in achieving some kind of competitive advantages, and financial boost. Overall, this suggests that the associated cost of CSR activities is less than its benefits. Robins (2011) suggest aggressive CSR activities for significant stock market benefit which in turn could reflect in firm's stock price thus improving the profitability of stock option. According to Akano, et al. (2013) commercial banks in Nigeria have found that social disclosure is useful in satisfying stakeholders' interest and this corroborate the study of Effiong; Akpan and Oti (2012) who support the opinion that, good corporate citizenship sequel to responsible corporate behavior encompassing social reporting is an important component to achieving corporate economic mission.

However, critics of CSR as value relevant argued with the conventional view that CSR distracts from the fundamental economic role of businesses, which is just nothing more than superficial window-dressing preempting the role of governments as a watchdog over powerful multinational corporations (Harpreet, 2009; Testa & D'Amato, 2017) Furthermore, Obi (2013) declares that although firm social responsibilities are still at an elementary stage in Nigeria, their social responsibility activities is merely a philanthropic gesture.

This study is initiated firstly by the view that corporate social disclosure practices is in its infant stage in Nigeria (Dobers and Halme 2009b John; Daniel and Angel 2012) which is consistent with the argument that corporate organizations in developing countries (such as Nigeria) are more concerned about how much profits are generated and how much dividends are paid, with less

regard to social issues and reporting (Iyoha 2010; Uadiale., & Fagbemi 2012). Secondly, while there are numerous studies on CSR among developed countries, related evidence from the perspective of a developing country like Nigeria is still sparse and concentrated on multinational firms particularly the oil and gas firms in the Niger Delta region of the country. According to Oluyemi et al. (2016), the demand for CSR among non-financial firms in Nigeria is imperative noting that these firms are instrumental to the development of the country.

Consequently, we follow the study of Carnevale; Giunta and Cardamone (2015) and make another vital contribution to existing literature by examining the impact of the interaction between social responsibility report page length and accounting variables of earnings per Share and Book Value per Share on stock price. This lends credence to the argument that social responsibility engagements may indirectly impact on stock price formation process, through interacting with other accounting variables. We employ a more reliable information of social report page length as employed by Nguyen (2018) rather than socially responsible index. Hence, this study is poised to expand existing empirical evidence by considering the value relevance of CSR reporting length in Nigeria. Based on the researchers' knowledge, this study becomes first among related studies in Nigeria to carry out such an analysis.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In Financial literature parlance, it is generally believed that the market value of equity is an adequate indicator of the value of a company. In this regard, Ohlson 1995 developed a valuation model for quoted companies. According to Ohlson, market value of equity is a function of the company's financial information (specifically, its book value and accounting results) plus other non-financial company information that may be considered relevant but the content of this additional information was not specified. Nevertheless, Ohlson valuation model have been given credence in the field of corporate social responsibility reports research by using information on social responsibility as this additional information Miralles-Quirós; Miralles-Quirós; and Arraiano (2017). The model is based on fundamental analysis principles which are a combination of the discounted cash flow approaches, and the book value of assets methods. Ohlson (1995) model, expressed the market value of a firm as a linear function of its book value, the abnormal earnings together with another information dynamics variable. The Ohlson model was described under the following assumptions:

The Present Value Relation: This assumption implies that the market value of the firm's equity equals the present value of its expected future dividends discounted at the risk-free interest rate, and this assumption was based on the original classic dividend discount model.

The Clean Surplus Relation: This assumption implies that all changes in the book value of equity are reported either as accounting earnings or dividends. According to that the relation between book value of equity, earnings, and dividends can be expressed as follows:

$$b_t = b_{t-1} + \chi_t - d_t \qquad (1)$$

Where b_t = book value of equity at date t; χ_t = earnings for period t; d_t = dividends paid at date t. According to Ohlson, book value of equity at date t_{-1} multiplied by the risk free rate is considered as the normal earnings of the firm. Then the earnings for the period t minus the normal earnings can be defined as abnormal earnings.

$$\chi_t^a = \chi_t - rb_t \qquad (2)$$

Where χ^a_t = abnormal earnings for period t,

The Linear Information Dynamics: This assumption is the most controversial assumption which imposed a time-series structure on the abnormal earnings (that is, the relationship between the current and the next period's abnormal earnings) as linear and stationary. Ohlson defines this abnormal relation as the difference between accounting earnings and normal earnings. Normal earnings are the net book value of equity multiplied by the risk free rate. However, the linear information dynamic (models) which assumes a time-series structure on the abnormal earnings are as follows:

$$\chi^a_{t+1} = \omega_{11}\chi^a_t + \nu_t + \varepsilon'_{1t+1} \quad (3)$$

$$\nu_{t+1} = \gamma\nu_t + \varepsilon'_{2t+1} \quad (4)$$

Where:

χ^a_t : Abnormal earnings of year t ($\chi^a_t = \chi_t - rb_t$)

υ_t : Other information variable at time t

ω_{11}: Persistence of abnormal earnings ($0 < \omega_{11} < 1$)

$\acute{\varepsilon}_{1t}$, $\acute{\varepsilon}_{2t}$: Error terms.

Following the discussion on abnormal earnings structure, Ohlson (1995) shows that with the standard assumptions underlying the dividend discount model together with the above mentioned Equations (1) and (2), his model equation can be written as follows:

$P_t = bv_t + \alpha_1\chi^a_t + \alpha_2 V_t$ (5)

Where:

P_t: Is the market value of the firm's share equity for the fiscal year-end t,

bv_t: Is the book value of the firm's share equity at the end the fiscal year-end t,

χ^a_t: Is the abnormal earning per firm's share during the year t, (defined as above),

V_t Is other non-accounting value relevant information for the fiscal year-end t,

α_1, α_2, Are coefficients taking values that are a function of the linear information dynamics models and the risk free rate for the firms.

However, following existing literature, this study adopt Ohlson's model and employ the share price accruing to the 4th quarter of each year in the sample to test Ohlson's model as proposed by Barth and Clinch who conclude that scale effects is been mitigated more effectively in a model that uses share price specification while it also maintains the financial significance of the variables being studied.

HYPOTHESIS

Corporate Social Responsibility Reporting Page Length (Frequency) and Value Relevance of Financial Statements

Corporate social responsibility reporting has been conceptualized in a variety of ways. For instance, Parker (2002) describes corporate social reporting as documentation by corporations of social impact of corporate activities, and effectiveness of corporate social programs, which is a medium whereby corporation's discharges its responsibilities, and the stewardship of its social resources. In the views of Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD, 1999) corporate social reporting is viewed in a holistic perspective to include the reports of continuing commitment by business organizations into their ethical behavior which contributes to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families together with the quality of life of the local populace and that of the society at large. From the stand point of Esa and Mohd

Ghazali, (2012) corporate social responsibility reporting provides information about a firm's products, philanthropic, employee's welfare, community involvements and environmental concerns. It provides information to the public regarding companies' interaction with the community, environment, its employees, its customers and energy usage Said; Zainuddin & Haron (2009).In the views of Parker (2002) corporate social responsibility reporting frequency, is the volume, extent or intense of corporate social responsibility components which is been reported in the company annual statement. Although the intense of such information is meant to improve shareholder value, it has been shown to be influenced by political, Social Religious Norm and Economic factors.

Conceptually, relevant value: which is an accounting value have been defined as value-relevant if it has a predicted association with equity market values. This concept is not new in the literature as Miller and Modigliani, (1966), used the term as "value-relevance" Based on the conceptual framework, the purpose of financial reporting is to provide useful information for users, especially investors and creditors in making investment decisions. The scope of financial reporting includes the financial statements and reports separate from the financial statements that are the products of accounting. Studies on the usefulness of financial information for investment decisions often employ the term 'A study on the value relevance of accounting information', since accounting information is relevant in determining the intrinsic value of securities/stocks and subsequently used for investment decisions as reflected in the stock market price. Therefore, the study on value relevance of accounting information is often carried out by examining the relationship between information in financial statements and/or reports outside of the financial statements, called accounting information, and stock prices or stock returns. An early study that examined the usefulness of accounting information was undertaken by Ball and Brown (1968) which was then followed by many subsequent studies. Sinkin et al. (2008) and Hassel et al. (2005), among others proposed vital applications of value relevance as it relates to non-financial variables vis - a- vis corporate social responsibility reporting. Sinkin et al. (2008) argue that eco-efficient business strategies has a positive relationship with firm value.

Uwuigbe and Uadiale (2016) noted that corporate social environmental disclosure among selected listed firms in Nigeria is generally low and still at its nascent stage. The study applied the legitimacy theory to examine whether a significant difference exists in the level of corporate social environmental disclosure between building material and brewery industries. Their finding suggests that there is a significant difference in the level of corporate social environmental disclosures among selected firms.

Gras-Gil et al (2016), document that investment in socially responsible activities improves stakeholder's satisfaction. The study tends to explain the reasons for companies involvement in socially responsible activities. Furthermore, CSR indicator was found to correlate significantly with ethical and moral issues which relates to corporate decision-making. The authors also found that CSR affect corporate reputation positively leading to effective use of resources.

The results of Schadewitz and Niskala (2010) were conclusive in demonstrating that the information made available by GRI has a positive influence on the value of the companies quoted on the Finnish stock market. The study was intended to analyses the behavior of a very small number of socially responsible companies in Finland.

The study of Cardamone et al. (2012) show that investors did not value non-financial information and concluded that the relationship between financial and sustainability information was negative. This finding is drawn from the analysis of 178 companies listed on the Italian stock market over the 2002–2008 periods.

Using Canadian data, the result of Berthelot et al. (2012) after investigating 146 companies listed on the Canadian stock market, show that investors valued companies that adopted CSR practices and, in turn, the companies benefited financially for adopting such practices. Out of the 146 studies companies, 28 of them published sustainability reports in 2007.

Carnevale et al. (2012) analysed all European-listed banks in the Euro-12 zone over the 2002–2008 period. The analysis for the entire sample does not provide evidence that investors attribute value relevance to social reporting. However, the cross-country analysis shows that in some countries the social report positively affects the stock price and in others negatively affects the stock price.

By employing GRI criteria, as well as the information extracted from the KPMG report De Klerk et al. (2015) studied 69 largest companies quoted on the British market in 2008 and concluded that British investors valued socially responsible companies.

Subsequently, Bowerman and Sharman (2016) analysed UK and Japan markets and observed that only investors in the UK consider CSR disclosure information in their total information set for their investment decision making. Whereas investors in Japanese firms do not appear to find that CSR disclosure provides incremental value to the valuation of the firms.

Murray et al., (2006) conducted a study on the level of social and environmental disclosure among UK firms. The researchers do not find any association between stock returns and corporate social responsibility reporting.

De Klerk & De Villiers, (2012) studied corporate social responsibility disclosure level of the top 100 South African firms by employing a KPMG dataset and their findings reveal that CSR disclosure is significantly and positively related to share prices. Their results indicated that the combined effect of CSR disclosure and financial accounting information explained South African market attributes better than an exclusive focus on financial accounting information.

Uadiale and Fagbemi (2012) examine the impact of CSR on the financial performance of selected quoted firms in Nigeria. Their results suggest that CSR impacts positively on firms' return on equity (ROE) and return on assets (ROA). The study recommends that CSR should be employed to boost firm reputation especially for firms whose business operations impact on the environment negatively.

Considering evidence from previous studies we intend to carryout a research on corporate social responsibility reporting length and value relevance in the Nigerian context. Thus, we hypothesized that:

$H0_1$ *Corporate social responsibility reporting length has no significant effect on the value relevance of firms financial reports in Nigeria*.

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

This study basically seeks to investigate the value relevance of corporate social responsibility report length among quoted companies in Nigerian based on ex-post research design. The population of this study comprises of 117 quoted non-financial companies, taking a sample of seventy three (73) covering a period of six (6) years (2012-2017). The choice of this period is anchored on availability and consistency of relevant data. All the data collected from relevant annual reports will be analysed using panel least square regression technique.

Content analysis is defined as a method in which qualitative data are converted to quantitative data systematically to aid analysis. Clarke, and Gibson-Sweet (1999). Similarly, the method is defined as a research technique that aid in making replicable and valid inferences from data and assumes that the extent of disclosure signifies the importance of the disclosed topic to the reporting entity. Campbell. Craven, and Shrives (2003). Gray, Kouhy and Lavers (1995b) states that content analysis generally follows two paths: Number of disclosure and Amounts of disclosure. However, to determine the volume of disclosure, various units of measurement are employed in social responsibility disclosure studies. Word counts, sentence counts, average lines and proportion of pages Hassan, (2012) Roca, and Searcy (2012) Hackston, and Milne, (1996) Alonso-Almeida; Llach, and Marimon (2014) are employed and a researcher is free to choose the method considered most appropriate Bollen., Skully, and Wei, (2010).

Reporting levels via number of words give the information of interest in greater detail and are easier to be categorized. However, this method does not provide sound basis of coding social responsibility reporting since word alone without sentence or sentences has no meaning Gray, Kouhy and Lavers (1995b). Therefore, sentence count is more appropriate being the conventional unit of speech and writing, from which meaning can be discerned than words Doucin (2013). Nevertheless, it has been criticized for the possibility of ignoring differences in the use of grammar in the same message using similar words and space that could be conveyed in different number of sentences Campbell, Craven and Shrives (2003).

Consequently, the most preferred unit of measurement is the proportion of page/pages as it reflects the total amount of space devoted to a topic, thus, portraying the importance of the topic to the reporting entity (Doucin 2013; UK Parliament 2006). However, this method is also criticized as pages of annual reports and accounts may differ in terms of column and print sizes from one company to another. However, from the forgoing, this study adopts proportion of page/pages content analysis based on its merits and the argument that a researcher is free to choose from the methods. Campbell, Craven and Shrives (2003).

Furthermore, we subject the secondary data set to summary statistics, correlation matrix and regression analysis. The summary statistics is used to evaluate the characteristics of the data: Mean Maximum, Minimum, and Standard Deviation. The correlation analysis is used to evaluate the association between the variables of interest. Panel Least Square Regression Analysis is used to evaluate the relationship, degree and direction of impact of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

In this study our model supports the proposition that value relevance of financial statement information will be fully complete if and only if corporate social responsibility information is enclosed. This study takes inspiration from previous related research studies on value relevance of non-financial information of social responsibility performance authored by Hassel et al. (2005). In

the light of the methodological knowledge gathered and following the review of empirical literature in our previous chapter, a panel regression model is specified. We adopt and modify the model of Carnevale; Giunta & Cardamone (2015) allowing a control variable of firm size in the equation. However, we present an econometric model for the study below:

Interaction Effect Value Relevant Model

$SP_{it} = \partial_0 + \partial_1 PL_{it}*EPS_{it} + \partial_2 PL_{it}*BV_{it} + \partial_4 FSIZE_{it} + U_{it}$ …….. (1)

Where:

SP refers to Stock Price

PL refers to Corporate Social Report Page Length

EPS refers to Earnings per Share

BV refers to Book Value per Share

FSIZE refers to Firm Size

PL*EPS refers to indirect effect (interaction effect) of Corporate Social Report Page Length and Earnings per Share on Stock Price

PL*BV refers to indirect effect (interaction effect) of Corporate Social Report Page Length and Book Value per Share on Stock Price

∂_0 refers to the slope (intercept) of the models

∂_1 to ∂_4 refers to the expected coefficients of the independent variables of interest.

Table 1 Operationalization of Variables

Variables	Types of Variable	Measurement of variables
Stock price	Dependent	4th quarters stock price returns
Corporate social responsibility report length	Independent	No of annual statement pages where issues of CSR activities are reported
Earnings per share	Independent	Profit after tax divided by outstanding shares
Firm size	Independent	The natural logarithm of total assets of the companies.
Book value per share	Independent	Value of equity divided by outstanding shares.

Source: Researcher's Compilation

DATA ANALYSIS

The study investigates the impact of board characteristics on corporate performance using samples from

Table 2 Summary Statistics

```
. tabstat sp_q4 eps eps_plength p_length f_size bkv_pshare bkv_plength,
statistics( mean median max min sd var cv sum )
```

stats	sp_q4	eps	eps_pl~h	p_length	f_size	bkv_ps~e	bkv_pl~h
mean	57.32344	2.63179	15.38004	1.645614	7.309825	15.43782	62.4333
p50	5	.53	0	0	7.31	4.02	0
max	1555.99	143.96	1151.68	42	9.22	815.78	6526.24
min	.5	-24.2	-40.46	0	0	-5.12	0
sd	166.4034	10.3479	88.88794	3.685338	.8912301	52.28871	412.099
variance	27690.08	107.0791	7901.067	13.58171	.7942912	2734.109	169825.6
cv	2.902885	3.931888	5.779437	2.239491	.1219222	3.387052	6.600628
sum	15993.24	750.06	4383.31	469	2083.3	4399.78	17793.49

Author Computation

Table 4.1 above shows the mean (average) for each of the variables, their maximum values, minimum values, median, standard deviation, variance, standard error of mean, and the sum statistics of the data set used in the study. The result provides some insight into the nature of the selected companies' adopted for the study. Firstly, we find that the mean value of stock price rose from N45.30 to N67.72 which show a 33.12% rise during the period. We also observed that stock price surged to 56.61 and ended around 64.50 in 2017 which show a positive year end of about 12.23% increase for investors. However, during the period under review we observe that stock price of most of the companies stayed around a mean of N57.32. Growth in EPS is an important measure of management performance because it shows how much money the company is making for its shareholders, not only due to changes in profit, but also after all the effects of issuance of new shares (especially important when the growth comes as a result of acquisition). On the average, the sampled companies performed well in terms of EPS during the period under investigation since it grew from N2.29 to N4.64. We observe that most of the sampled companies fared well since they could maintain positive average values even in the face of economic recession which the country witnessed during the period between 2015 and 2017. The summary statistics result reveal that the variable of corporate social responsibility report length had a maximum of 42pages and an average of two pages during the period under investigation. This implies that most of the companies in the sample showed little or no concern for social responsibility issues.

Table 3 Correlation Matrix Table

```
. correlate sp_q4 eps eps_plength p_length f_size bkv_pshare bkv_plength
(obs=279)

             |   sp_q4     eps     eps_pl~h p_length f_size bkv_ps~e bkv_pl~h
-------------+---------------------------------------------------------------
       sp_q4 |   1.0000
         eps |   0.6048   1.0000
 eps_plength |   0.6277   0.8599   1.0000
    p_length |   0.4212   0.2889   0.5524   1.0000
      f_size |   0.3251   0.2690   0.2239   0.3780   1.0000
  bkv_pshare |   0.3299   0.5536   0.7659   0.1921   0.2378   1.0000
 bkv_plength |   0.3663   0.4520   0.9107   0.4256   0.2169   0.8923   1.0000
```

Authors Computation

From the results above, we observed that all the independent variables of interest associated with the dependent variable positively. Furthermore, no association was seen to be statistically too high so as to suspect the problem of auto correlation. Notably the variable of stock price and earnings per share had an association of about 60% while social responsibility report length and earnings per share had an association of 28%. The correlation matrix further reveal that book value per share and the variable of social reportng page length associated loosely to about 19% while book value per share and firm size associated to the tune of about 23%.

Table 4 Regression Analysis

```
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
       sp_q4 |      Coef.   Std. Err.      z    P>|z|     [95% Conf. Interval]
-------------+----------------------------------------------------------------
 eps_plength |    2.370354   .1674645    14.15   0.000***    2.04213    2.698578
     f_size |    36.33371    7.16356     5.07   0.000***   22.29339    50.37402
 bkv_plength |   -.3661657    .034241   -10.69   0.000***  -.4332768   -.2990546
       _cons |   -224.0343   52.40416    -4.28   0.000***  -326.7446   -121.3241

R-Squared                     = 0.68
Wald chi2 {F-Statistics}      = 295.43
Prob > chi2                   = 0.000
Hausman                       = 1048.60
-------------+----------------------------------------------------------------
     sigma_u |  27.925822
     sigma_e |  53.926311
         rho |   .2114623   (fraction of variance due to u_i)
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
```

Author 2019 **Note: *** is 1% level of significance.**

Preliminary findings

H0$_1$ *Corporate social responsibility reporting length has no significant effect on the value relevance of firms financial reports in Nigeria*.

In the panel random regression analysis result above, we observe an R-squared value of 0.68 which shows that about 68% of the systematic variations in the dependent variable among the sampled companies over the period of investigation were jointly explained by the independent variables.

This implies that dependent variable of stock price cannot be 100 per cent explained by all the variables used in this study. The unexplained 32% is captured in the error term. The F-statistic value of 295.43 and its associated P-value of 0.000 reveal that overall the regression model is statistically significant at 1% level; this means that the regression model is valid and can be used for statistical inference.

DISCUSSION

The result from this study is discussed as thus;

Orlitzky, Schmidt & Rynes (2003) Margolis; Elfenbein & Walsh (2007) Fulton: Kahn & Sharples (2013), Aupperle et al., (1985) Barnea and Rubin (2010), Marsat and Williams (2014) emphasized that the detrimental effects of engaging in corporate social responsibility is revelaed in companies who conduct such activities improperly. On the one hand, such activities will most probably increase their costs, consequently reduce their profits and in the long run impair financial performance and put shareholders on an unfavorable position. However, the result obtained from this study supports the conclusion of Dobers and Halme 2009b John; Daniel and Angel 2012 who maintained that activities relating to corporate social responsibility reporting is still at an elementary stage in Nigeria which is also consistent with the findings from other corporate organizations in developing nations. In their arguments they posit that corporations in Nigeria pay more attension to how much profits are generated and how much dividends are paid, and not necessary social issues and its reporting (Iyoha 2010; Uadiale., & Fagbemi 2012). However, the indirect impact of corporate social responsibility reporting length on stock price suggest that managers of the sampled companies do modify earnings per share and book value per share with social responsibility activities. Hence, while the impact on value relevance from the former is positive, the impact from the later is revealed to be negative. The later result implies that CSR disclosure is performed by companies merely as a defense strategy to cover up some accounting information as it (relates to Book Value) that have been manipulated which go a long way to damage stakeholders' interests. Hence it reveals that only a few of the companies that perform CSR activities do so out of social responsibility and caring. This finding agrees with that of Carnevale; Giunta and Cardamone (2010) whose study reveal that the publication of a social report impact stock prices indirectly, by interacting with other accounting variables (Earnings per Share and Book Value per Share in this study).

Implications

As evidenced from our research, we are aware that if not conducted properly, corporate social responsibility activity can be very costly. Therefore, we recommend that managers should endevour to balance the costs of implementing sustainable business practices against their benefits. Furthermore, we recommend considerable funding in other to produce numerous, varied CSR activities. A careful plan in allocating such funds should be laid out, well defined activities and program to be carried out should be rolled out. The notion of implementing CSR activities as a complementary service must be discouraged. In so doing firms must report CSR activities that aim not only to comply with rules but also such that will create a good image for the public and investors.

Limitations and Future research

The current research is restricted only to the listed non-financial firms. Furthermore, this research was mainly conducted based on the secondary data collection. The other data collection methods had not been

considered. As a result they may not be 100% accurate. In addition to these, data representing the period of 2012 to 2017 were used for the study. The research has compiled a large database of listed non-financial firms accounting data that demonstrate what can be done even with the limitations of currently available data.

More so, the data used in this study were prepared on a historical basis which is one of fundamental problem associated with presenting accounting information. This thus makes it impossible for current causation to be inferred. However, the use of regression analysis which tries to establish causation effect between the dependent and independent variables in the analysis of data helped to validate this study's findings to greater extent but further research can be done to ensure that more recent data is inculcated.

Thus further research should be conducted using a different research design and methodology than the one employed here. Also, the length of year coverage and firm coverage should be extended.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of our research is to identify the relevance of the publication of a company's corporate social responsibility report length on stock price formation process. The aim is to establish whether the price at which an investor is willing to buy stock is influenced by the publication of social responsibility report. However, drawing from prior existing literature, we observe that we cannot deny the fact that conducting corporate social responsibility activity has many benefits such as enhancing their reputation. But sometimes, it is still very hard for companies to obtain a balance between the costs and benefits of such actions. Our study indicate that investors are not keen on page length of corporate social responsibility activities hence no relevance on stock price formation, but stock price reacts adversely when corporate social responsibility activities is employed to modify accounting information (as it relates to book value).

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