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Articles

Knowledge and Perception Regarding Infertility among University Students in Ile-Ife: A view through Gender Lens. Ayobami Atijosan, Olajumoke Adeyeye & Oluwatoyin Ogungbayi	1
Determinants of Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure Practices: An Empirical study of Nigerian Listed Firms Okezie, Stella O. (PhD) & Prof. Ihendinihu, John U.	15
Social Unrest: Emerging Trends on Transnational companies and Oil-Producing Communities in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria Godwin Egbe, Frederick O. Ahmadu, David Imhonopi, Charles T. Iruonagbe, Ajibade E. Jegede	34
International Business Environment and Constraints of Small and Medium Enterprises in Nigeria Akinbola Olufemi Amos, Kowo Solomon Akpoviroro, Akinbola Omolola Sariat & Sanni Sekinat Arike	62
Developing African Management Theories: Problems and Solutions. M.O.M. Akpor-Robaro, Ph.D & O.S. Omoyele, Ph.D	77
Investigating Structural Breaks in Selected Finance-Growth Variables in Nigeria. A Saikkonen and Lutkepohl (2002) Approach. Adekunle Babatunde Sunday (Ph.D) & Oyelami Lukman Oyeyinka	93
Total Quality Management Practices and Organizational Performance. Prof. Rowland E. Worlu & Dr. James Nwoye Obi	106



Knowledge and Perception Regarding Infertility among University Students in Ile-Ife: A view through Gender Lens

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Abstract: The knowledge of infertility is a decisive and principal step to safeguard future infertility. Studies have shown that university students are at higher risk of being infertile because they are more likely to postpone parenthood due to their academic and professional pursuits. Furthermore, they have insufficient or distorted fertility knowledge, stemming from sociocultural norms, traditions and beliefs. However, not many researches have been conducted to study the knowledge and perceptions regarding infertility among university students from a gender perspective, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. Gender used in the context of this study refers to sociocultural norms or traditions that shape our behaviors, preferences and knowledge. This study investigated and analyzed gender-based perception and knowledge towards infertility amongst university students in Ile-Ife, Nigeria. The study adopted purposive sampling technique in which a total of 385 students were selected from Obafemi Awolowo University and Oduduwa University, Ile-Ife, Osun State. A questionnaire-based survey was used to assess their perceptions and knowledge on infertility. The study revealed that 59.7% of respondents believed that infertility is associated with female promiscuity and majority (53.2%) of respondents believed that infertility is a disease associated with women only. Through a gender lens, this study revealed that majority of the respondents (56%) have poor knowledge while 44% of the respondents have good knowledge regarding infertility.

Increase in knowledge in order to deconstruct socio-cultural beliefs and norms regarding infertility is recommended for university students.

Keywords: Infertility, Gender, University students, Promiscuity

Introduction

Infertility is an ailment characterized by the failure to establish a clinical pregnancy after twelve (12) months of consistent and unprotected sexual intercourse (Christine, 2018). It is a global public health problem which affects more than 10% of the world's population (Dierickx et al., 2019; Lawrenz et al., 2019; Christine, 2018; Emmanuel et al., 2018). Its frequency is higher in underdeveloped countries compared to the developed ones. In sub-Saharan Africa it is reported to be widespread, ranging from 13–17% (Infertility Survey in 27 Sub-Saharan African Countries including Nigeria) and connected with several social perceptions (Mukherjee et al., 2018; Dimka and Dein, 2013; Tabong and Adongo, 2013).

Sub-Saharan Africa is well known for its pronatalist cultural tradition, where infertile couples especially women are often seen as social deviants and face a wide range of societal problems compared to western societies (Ombelet, 2017; Dimka and Dein, 2013). Culturally, in Sub-Saharan Africa children are perceived as a mark of prestige, power and wealth (Tabong and Adongo, 2013). The result of infertility therefore, is a traumatic life burdened with suffering, personal grief, frustration, social stigma, ostracism, economic problems, mental or other health implications (Oche et al., 2018; Nahrin et al., 2017; Polis et al, 2017; Dimka and Dein, 2013; Tabong and Adongo, 2013). In Sub-Saharan Africa,

it has been reported that socio-cultural norms and traditional influences on young people's sexual development negatively impact perceptions on infertility, potentially leading to wrong information and choices on fertility (Kyilleh, et al., 2018). For example, in many sub-Saharan African cultures, it is a taboo for parents to participate in discussion on topics relating to reproductive health with their wards (Adesiyun et al., 2014). Therefore, the little but distorted information they may have is from peer groups (Adesiyun et al., 2014) and socio-cultural customs (Kyilleh, et al., 2018) thus exposing them to multiple infertility health risks.

Studies have also shown that the problem of infertility continues for a huge percentage of highly educated people because they may delay parenthood due to their academic and professional pursuits (Prior et al., 2018; Nitsche et al., 2018; Channon and Harper, 2018; Sørensen et al., 2016). Studies have shown that a significant portion of university students underrate age-related infertility and have inadequate fertility knowledge leading them to postpone parenthood into their late 30s which can lead to infertility (Smith, 2018; Chan et al., 2015) because women are most fertile between the ages of 20 and 24 (Smith 2018). This necessitate the need for continued research, as the scourge of infertility continues for a higher proportion of educated people (Smith,

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2018; Hampton et al., 2013) especially university students.

Although, several studies have established that increasing age, sexually transmitted infections, socio cultural norms, occupational and environmental exposures, and adverse impact of lifestyle factors like smoking, diet, and exercise, are important causes that can rapidly increase incidence of infertility (Alom et al., 2018; Pressman et al., 2018; Kumal et al., 2017; Van Leeuwen, 2016;). Unfortunately, the impartation of this information, especially to young people has not yet caught up with the education priorities of many low and/or middle-income countries (Rouchou and Forde, 2015). Basic knowledge of the causes and potential treatment options of infertility also appears to be absent among adolescents and young adults living in several developing countries (Kyilleh, et al., 2018; Rouchou and Forde, 2015) including university students. This is of significant importance because good reproductive health entails knowledge about fertility (Sørensen et al., 2016.) and lack of this knowledge has led to higher infertility incidence rate in developing countries (Siyez et al., 2018; Kyilleh, et al., 2018).

Furthermore, there have been very few published studies that addressed or assessed perceptions and knowledge on infertility among university students in Nigeria from a gender perspective. “Gender” used in the context of this study refers to sociocultural norms, roles or traditions that shape our behaviors, preferences and knowledge (Goldman, 2019; Mumtaz, et al., 2013; Torgrimson, and Minson, 2005).

Gender based sociocultural norms and traditions goes a long way in impacting people’s behaviors and beliefs on infertility (Mumtaz, et al., 2013; Greil, et al., 2011; West and Zimmerman 1987) especially young adults, which reflect in future fertility behaviors and beliefs.

In addition, identifying the need for public education on infertility causes and prevention in our universities is crucial. Knowing the extent of students’ knowledge and perception on infertility would be very useful in the planning of educational programs relating to infertility prevention and stigmatization due to infertility. Primary prevention of infertility has been identified as one of the key factors for decreasing infertility incidence (Rouchou and Forde, 2015) and increased knowledge level plays a key role in preventive measures (Siyez, et al., 2018).

It is against this background that this study was carried out to investigate knowledge and perception towards infertility amongst male and female university students from a gender lens. It is hoped that this study will be a springboard for providing information and creating awareness towards the prevention of infertility later in life among university students.

Methodology

Participants/instrument

A descriptive survey was used to assess gender-based perception and knowledge on infertility among male and female students in Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU) and Oduduwa University (OUI) which are the only two universities within Ile-Ife

metropolis. The study adopted purposive sampling technique and a total of 385 students were selected from OAU and OUI for the study.

A structured self-administered questionnaire was developed for the purpose of data collection. The questionnaire consists of three sections. The first section (section A) captured socio demographic information. The second section (section B) consists of questions on knowledge of infertility while the third section (section C) consists of gender-based issues relating to infertility. The validity of the instrument was established by face and content validity. The instrument was reviewed by relevant experts for its effectiveness and necessary amendments and modifications were made. The questionnaire was edited and compiled based on the amendments made.

Data collection protocol

Permission to collect data was obtained from the Research and Ethical committee of Institute of Public Health, OAU, Ile-Ife. Consent of each respondents (students) was obtained after which the questionnaire was given to the students to fill appropriately. They were informed that all the information they provided was completely confidential. They were also monitored to ensure that the

surveys were completed quietly and without collaborations.

Data analysis

Data collection from the study was subjected to computer analysis using statistical package for service solution, SPSS version 20. Descriptive statistical techniques (percentages, frequency, mean) was used to report the results of the study. Likert scale was adopted in determining factors on infertility. The knowledge of the respondents was assessed by giving a score of 1 to Yes options and a score of 0 to No options. Reverse scoring was done for negative statements. Mean score was determined and used for determining knowledge level (Good or Poor level of knowledge).

Result

Data analysis and interpretation

Socio-demographic

Table 1 shows the socio-demographic data of students in OAU and OUI who participated in this study. As detailed in table 1, most of the respondents were within the age group of 20-24(61.6%). Of the surveyed students 202 were female (52.5%) while 183 (47.5%) were male. The Yoruba ethnic group was predominant (271 respondents (70.4%)). 301 respondents (78.2%) were Christians. Institutionally, the highest respondents were students of OAU at 333(86.5%) respondents.

Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of the students.

Characteristics	Frequency N=385	Percentage %
Age (grouped in years):		
15-19	123	31.9
20-24	237	61.6
25-29	25	6.5
Gender		
Female	202	52.5
Male	183	47.5
Religion:		
Christian	301	78.2
Islam	78	20.3
Traditionalist	4	1.0
Others	2	0.5
Ethnicity:		
Yoruba	271	70.4
Hausa	20	5.2
Igbo	94	24.4
Institution:		
Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU)	210	54.5
Oduduwa university (OUI)	175	45.5

Infertility Knowledge: Basic facts

Table 2 shows the level of knowledge of infertility among the respondents. Majority of the respondents (52.7%) reported that infertility is the inability to achieve pregnancy. More than half (54.3%) responded negative to the statement that says infertility affect both men and women at the same rate.

A large percentage (80%) of the respondents supported the notion that infertility is caused majorly by sexually transmitted infections. Meanwhile 81.6% which reflect a higher percentage of the study population reported that abortion can also cause infertility.

More than half of the respondents (59.7%) believed that infertility is only

associated with female promiscuity. However, majority of the respondents (58.7%) held to the view that the use of condoms can curb infertility.

A slight majority (53.2%) agreed that infertility is a disease associated with women. While 33.5% of the respondent agree to the statement that says men are the major cause of infertility in our society.

Distribution of respondents by level of knowledge on infertility

Table 3 shows that less than half (44%) of the respondents had good knowledge on infertility while more than half (56%) had poor knowledge on infertility.

Table 2: Knowledge of infertility among male and female respondents

Knowledge items	Yes F (%)	No F (%)
Infertility is the inability of couples to achieve pregnancy after 12 months of regular, unprotected sexual intercourse in the absence of contraceptives:	222(52.7)	163(42.3)
Infertility affects both men and women at the same rate	176(45.7)	209(54.3)
Infertility is largely caused by sexually transmitted infections	308 (80)	77(20)
Abortion can cause infertility	314(81.6)	71(18.4)
Infertility is only associated with female promiscuity	230(59.7)	155(40.3)
Use of condoms can prevent some of the causes of infertility	226(58.7)	159(41.3)
Infertility is a disease associated with women and not men. Therefore, women should bear the cost	205(53.2)	180(46.8)
Most men are the major cause of infertility in our society	129(33.5)	256(66.5)

Table 3: Distribution of respondents by level of knowledge on infertility

Knowledge	Frequency	Percentage %
Mean score 5.6		
Poor Knowledge ≤ 5.6	215	56
Good Knowledge ≥ 5.6	170	44

Gender based issues on infertility

Table 4 reveals gender-based issues on infertility among respondents. Majority (51.9%) of the respondents agreed that husbands have a reason to separate from their wives if the woman cannot have a baby while 29.4% disputed this.

However, 51.3% disagreed that a wife does not have a reason to separate from the husband even if the husband is diagnosed to be infertile.

About 52.2% which reflects a majority of the respondents agreed that infertility is 100% curable when women remain as virgins till marriage, while 47.8%

disagreed. 69.6% of the respondents agreed to the statement that says anyone who is infertile must be promiscuous while 30.4% disagreed. A slight majority of the respondents (50.9%) also reported that infertility can be traced to previous abortion(s).

In addition, about half (50.1%) of the respondents believed regular menstruation is linked with fertility whereas 49.9% disagreed. Most of the respondents (64.7%) agreed that excessive alcohol intake and smoking have no effect on fertility.

Table 4: Gender based issues on infertility**SA- Strongly agree; A- Agree; D- Disagree; SD- Strongly disagree**

Gender based issues	SA	A	D	SD
A husband has a reason to separate from the wife if the woman cannot have a baby	133(34.5)	67(17.4)	55(14.3)	130(33.8)
A wife has a reason to separate from the husband even if the husband is diagnosed to be infertile	90(23.4)	96(24.9)	109(28.3)	90(23.4)
Infertility is 100% curable if women can remain as virgins till marriage	152(39.5)	49(12.7)	98(25.5)	86(22.3)
Anyone who is infertile must be a promiscuous person	131(34)	137(35.6)	58(15.1)	59(15.3)
Infertility can only be linked to previous abortion	63(16.36)	133(34.54)	87(22.6)	102(26.5)
Fertility may be linked with regular menstruation	66(17.1)	127(33.0)	105(27.3)	87(22.6)
Excessive alcohol and smoking intake do not have anything to do with my fertility	154(40.0)	95(24.7)	49(12.7)	87(22.6)

Relationships between sex of respondents and gender issues on infertility

Table 5 reveals that more men (87%) do not support the statement that says infertility affect both men and women at same rate. On the contrary, most women (91.5%) supported the statement. However, most male respondents (63.9%) supported the notion that female promiscuity is associated with infertility while only 39.1% of female respondents supported this notion.

Majority (88%) of the male respondents proclaimed infertility as a woman's disease while 78.2% of the female respondents were against this notion.

An overwhelming majority of male respondents (81%) do not accept that they are the major cause of infertility while 46.5% of the female respondents reported that men are the major cause of infertility.

An overwhelming percentage of male respondents (92.9%) agreed that a husband can separate from his wife if she is infertile while 85% of female respondents were against this.

More than half of the male respondents (54.4%) do not agree that a wife should separate from their husband even if he is infertile while 50.4% of the female respondents reported positive to this statement.

Majority of the male respondents (75.4%) reported that infertility is 100% curable only if women can be virgins till marriage, while very few female respondents (26.2%) supported the statement. Majority of the male respondents (72.7%) also reported that an infertile woman must be promiscuous while, 91.6% of the female respondents said no to this statement.

More than half of the male respondents (59.6%) reported that infertility is linked to previous abortion while 58.4% of the

female respondents were against this notion. A large percentage of the male respondents (81.4%) agreed that excessive alcohol and smoking do not

affect infertility whereas 63.9% of the female respondents agreed that it affects fertility.

Table 5: Illustrate the relationships between gender and gender issues on infertility.

Gender issues	Male F (%)		Female F (%)	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Infertility affect both men and women in the same rate	24(13)	159(87)	152(75.2)	50(24.8)
Infertility is only associated with female promiscuity	117(63.9)	66(36.1)	79(39.1)	123(60.9)
Infertility is a disease of the women and not men therefore women should bear the cost	161(88)	22(12)	44(21.8)	158(78.2)
Most men are the major cause of infertility in our society	35(19.0)	148(81.0)	94(46.5)	108(53.5)
A husband has a reason to separate from the wife if the woman cannot have a baby	170(92.9)	13(7.1)	30(15.0)	172(85.0)
A wife has a reason to separate from the husband even if the husband is diagnosed to be infertile	84(46.0)	99(54.0)	102(50.4)	100(49.6)
Infertility is 100% curable if women can remain as virgins till marriage	138(75.4)	45(24.6)	53(26.2)	149(73.8)
Anyone who is infertile must be a promiscuous person	163(72.7)	20(27.3)	72(8.4)	130(91.6)
Infertility can only be linked to previous abortion	109(59.6)	74(40.4)	84(41.6)	118(58.4)
Excessive alcohol and smoking intake do not have anything to do with fertility	149(81.4)	34(18.6)	73(36.1)	129(63.9)

Discussion

This study revealed that there are gaps in the knowledge of respondents regarding the possible causes of infertility because more than half (56%) of the respondents have a poor level of knowledge on infertility with only 44% having good knowledge of infertility. This is accordance with the work of Brittany and Martin (2015) who reported in their study that there exist gaps in the knowledge of youth regarding infertility. One area of concern is that majority of

male respondents (88%) believe that infertility is a woman's disease and that women should bear the cost. In the African culture, infertility is socially constructed in many communities, it is believed that men and women are meant to be parents but women are especially socialized to become mother (Owonikoko et al., 2018) and as a result, infertile women are blamed and stigmatized for their inability to conceive. Majority (81.4 %) of respondents also believe that excessive

alcohol and smoking do not have anything to do with infertility. Research has identified the damaging effect of some life style factors such as smoking and excessive alcohol among many others on infertility (Pressman et al., 2018; Kumal et al., 2017; Brittany and Martin 2015). From this study, majority of the respondents do not believe that this life-style factors could lead to infertility which make them to be at risk of infertility in future if their wrong perceptions are not corrected.

In addition, a greater percentage of male respondents (92.9%) compared to 15% of female respondents, believe that a man should separate from the woman if she is unable to bear children. Also 46% of male respondent compared with 50.4% of female respondents, believed that the woman should stay with the man even if he is diagnosed to be infertile. This shows higher levels of negative perception against infertile women compared to infertile men and a general perception that tends to exempt men from bearing the burden of infertility. It is also very clear from this study that women often carry the burden of infertility.

In this study, despite the fact that the respondents were educated and enlightened, a large population still believe that infertility is a problem of women alone. More than half of the respondents (53.2%) believe that infertility is a disease of women. More than half of the respondents (59.7%) believe that infertility is linked to promiscuity and 81.6% believe that it is linked to abortion. The perception of majority of the respondents is that abortion and

promiscuity are the major causes of infertility. Abortions

are often linked with promiscuity, and waywardness is often believed to be responsible for infertility rather than abortions (Okonofua et al., 1997). Although, there is the belief that infections (notably sexually transmitted infections) can cause infertility, many still feel that immorality is responsible, rather than the infections (Okonofua et al., 1997). From this study, it shows that being academically enlightened did not change the perception about infertile women being promiscuous and generally, academic knowledge did not basically influence the perception of the respondents about infertility.

More than half of the respondents (52.2%) agreed to the fact that infertility is 100% curable only when women are virgins before marriage. Researches have pointed to inequality in the treatment meted out to infertile women, especially in sub-Saharan Africa (Hess et al., 2018; Chimbatata et al., 2016). Infertility is supposed to involve the couple but women are always singled out. This is basically because Africans traditionally have a patriarchal structure characterized by gender inequality between males and females. Thus, in a patriarchy structure, women's activities are largely confined to the household (Makama, 2013). In these wise, African women are expected to get married early enough, produce and care for their children (Makama, 2013). Where they fail to produce these children, the dominant male society turns against such women. This is evident in this study as indicated by the belief of an appreciable number of the male respondents (92.9%) that a man has

every reason to separate from the woman if she cannot produce children while it was agreed that the woman should stay with the man even if he is diagnosed to be infertile. A common consequence of a couple's infertility is the expulsion of the woman from the husband's house, with or without divorce. Thus, in Africa having children is clearly more important than loyalty to one's spouse, which is evidenced by the common practice of divorce due to inability to conceive (Afolabi, 2017), or forceful ejection of the wife from the husband's home, either by the husband himself or by his family members. This is as a result of wrong knowledge and cultural beliefs about infertility which is socially constructed. These social construct (i.e gender issues) regarding infertility must be deconstructed to prevent future infertility among university students.

In Nigeria, there has been a prevalent belief that women are at fault for any case of infertility. That is why in some communities in Mbano (a local government in Imo State, Nigeria), according to Uzma, 2017, there exist a name for infertile women (Nwanyiaga) but no name for an infertile man (Uzma, 2017). This is evident in this study with a great percentage of respondents (53.2 %) believing that infertility is a disease of women and not men and women should bear the cost. It was also observed in this study that culture has a stronger influence on people than academic education. Despite the fact that the respondents were university students, this did not significantly influence their knowledge and perception about infertility. This is because majority of them have internalized the gender issues

regarding infertility which must be corrected by demystifying these issues.

The poor knowledge of the respondents about infertility is of great concern because according to Smith 2018, university students are at risk of being infertile in future due to age related decline in fertility arising from their postponement of parenthood due to academic and professional pursuits (Smith, 2018). This requires urgent attention in order to prevent future infertility problems.

Despite the fact that researches have proved that male contribute up to 40% to the problem of infertility (Kropp et al., 2017; Uzma, 2017; Nwosu, 2010) men are exempted from bearing the burden of infertility in Nigeria. Only less than 20% of people in Africa believe strongly that men could be infertile (Nwosu and Friday, 2015). Various studies have revealed that men contribute to the infertility pool, some causes of infertility which have been associated specifically to men include abnormal sperm production or function, varicocele, undescended testicle, testosterone deficiency; inflammation of the prostate, urethra or epididymis; erectile dysfunction, premature ejaculation, retrograde ejaculation, blockade of ejaculatory ducts, lack of semen to transport sperm, anti-sperm antibodies and depressant drugs (Lotti, 2018; Jodar et al., 2017; Mohammed 2015). In a patriarchal society such as Nigeria, men are exonerated from being infertile due to socially constructed gender issues regarding infertility. These wrong cultural beliefs and norms are passed from generation to generation leading to delay in seeking medical help and

increase in the number of infertile couples. There is an urgent need to deconstruct gender issues regarding infertility among university student as they are within their reproductive age and have high probability of delaying parenthood due to academic and career pursuits which makes them to be at higher risk of future infertility.

Conclusion

It was observed in this study that majority of the university students who participated in this study have poor knowledge regarding infertility due to socially constructed belief passed to them from the society which may in turn jeopardize their reproductive health. It was gathered from this study that women are strongly stigmatized in Nigeria while men are exempted from issue of infertility. This may lead to increase in percentage of infertile couples especially among university students who are most

likely to delay parenthood and this poor knowledge may hinder them from seeking the right medical help. The socially constructed issues about infertility need to be corrected and policies should be put in place that will address the challenges encountered by the infertile women. General public especially university students should be educated on issues about infertility. In particular, the cultural myth that blames women solely for infertility should be unambiguously denied while correct information is provided. Adequate and accurate information on infertility should be made available and easily accessible. It is recommended that teaching modules should be incorporated into the tertiary education curriculum in Nigeria that will specifically addresses issues relating to infertility. This we believe will substantially reduce the incidence of infertility in Nigeria.

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Determinants of Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure Practices: An Empirical study of Nigerian Listed Firms

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Abstract: This paper investigated determinants of corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms in Nigeria. Data covering the period of 2010-2017 was collected from the annual report and account of Sixteen (16) listed firms on Nigerian stock exchange market. Ordinary least Square Panel regression estimator was employed owing to the cross sectional and time series nature of the data. The result showed that board independence, financial leverage and age were positively related to corporate social responsibility disclosure while profitability was found to exhibit a negative relationship with corporate social responsibility disclosure. It was however revealed that approximately 40% of the variations in the dependent variable of CSR disclosure was explained by the explanatory variables and jointly tested all the variables had a significant effect on the dependent variable as revealed by the F-statistic of 14.44 significant at 5%. This study extends the scope of previous studies by including corporate governance variables of: board independence and board size which are issues of current contention. The paper contributes to the understanding of determinants of CSR disclosure practices and offers findings which are useful for both theory and practice.

Keyword: Corporate Social Responsibility, Disclosure, Determinants, Listed firms, Nigerian Listed Banks, Leverage

1.0 Introduction

An evolving challenge faced by business firms is the issue of incorporating into their performance

indices the social and environmental concerns as part of the overall objective of the business (Aguilera & Jackson, 2003). The increase in global

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environmental awareness and the campaign for sustainable economic development has redirected the attention of firms towards social and environmental sensitivity. Dramatic economic events in recent years have emphasized the role of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and its reporting in defining the future of our society. This has prompted increased accounting and reporting interest in the CSR concept because of the clear need to restore investors' and consumers' trust in markets (Dyduch & Krasodomska, 2017). While businesses are mainly responsible for creating wealth and driving progress, they are guided by governments and regulations, societal pressure groups and consumer pressure. However, companies are now increasingly aware that commercial success and profits for shareholders do not only arise from maximizing short-term profits, but instead require an attitude that justifies and reinforces social responsibility.

No one definition adequately explains the concept of corporate social responsibility. However for the purpose of this paper we adopt the definition as given by World Business Council for Sustainable Development (1999) that states it as a company's commitment to operate in an economically, socially and environmentally sustainable manner while still ensuring that diverse stakeholders' interests are met. Companies can become socially responsible by following the law, as well as by integrating social, environmental, ethical, consumer, and human rights concerns into their business strategies and operations; and

informing stakeholders of same (i.e., companies' social and environmental performance). This information, companies can make available in their annual, integrated, and social reports, as well as on their corporate websites. The response to the growing demand for corporations to be socially responsible, has heightened corporate social responsibility disclosure by corporations of their social and environmental activities.

This is made more evident as a result of the failure of traditional corporate reporting in informing stakeholders about the impact of business activities on society (Hackston & Milne, 1996). Hence corporate social disclosure involves extending firms' accountability beyond their traditional role of providing financial account to the owners of capital, in particular shareholders. Such an assertion is based upon the assumption that companies do have wider responsibility than simply making money for their shareholders.

Corporate Social disclosure is a subject that has received increased academic attention in the time past and most importantly in today's dynamic world. People's expectation of the business and about its role in society is mounting and the research in this area shows that there has been expansion in a range of instruments that plan to develop, evaluate and communicate socially responsible practices (Golob & Bartlett 2007). Researchers have carried out studies in different countries' on CSR disclosure level to indicate the awareness of CSR practice and what often makes a company to disclose its CSR activities. Attention in this regard

have focused largely on why or what factors could influence a company or explain why a company would engage in corporate social reporting voluntarily. This heightened interest in firms corporate social responsibility reporting and what propels it has generated much study in the developed countries. An Emerging economy such as Nigeria on the contrary, has been slow in responding to the increased concern about the issue of CSR reporting (Uwuigbe, 2011). In spite of its relevance and timeliness, there is still a dearth in research in the Nigerian context on this issue, with the exception of only few notable studies; hence the interest.

The goal of this study therefore is to evaluate the determinants of corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of Nigerian companies. It is often argued that the main motivation for publishing CSR disclosure is to legitimize the company's operations, thus justifying its continuous existence and gaining stakeholders' trust. Companies adopt disclosure policies in order to achieve this legitimization that may differ according to their characteristics. The investigation of the influence of a range of company-level attributes potentially provides evidence for guiding companies' CSR disclosure. Hence, our findings may not only provide valuable insights into companies themselves, but also provide useful insights for policy-regulators. On the whole, we will be analysing the consequences for CSR disclosure of six factors: firms' size, firms' age, profitability, financial leverage, board size and board independence. The

disclosure index of four themes is used as a proxy for the level of CSR disclosure.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Corporate Social Disclosure

Companies' responsibilities towards society have expanded significantly in recent years. Omran and Ramdhony (2015) agree that the call for disclosure of non-financial information has grown in response to the awareness that financial statement omits salient information about the firm. Traditional financial reporting has often been queried for its concentration on the needs of the industry, finance and the market; hence the emergence of social responsibility accounting in addressing the needs of all the firms' stakeholders was a welcome development.

Social disclosure is the giving of account, of corporations social activities to all those affected by their activities in their financial statements. Originally businesses were accountable to their private shareholders or institutional investors in the financial markets. In recent time however, because of the increasing adverse impact of corporations on aspects of social life and on the environment, a diversity of stakeholders now demand accountability about the impact of corporate activities on the life of the society (De-Regil, 2003). The considerable emphasis placed on the societal role of business is in accordance with the spreading belief that measures of company success must go beyond profit and should relate to the needs of stakeholders and society at large. Rouf (2011), also noted that the perceived role of business firms' world over and especially in the developing

countries has changed over time from classical profit maximization approach to social responsible approach.

Most organizations are expected to be responsible to their clients as well as their immediate environment and society as a whole. Corporate social disclosure is a way to communicate that company's values are in line with public values. It could also serve as a means of managing stakeholder relationships. Others see it as having become one of the requirements for firms' usefulness to the society in which they operate (Uwuigbe, 2012). Corporate disclosure of social and environmental impacts constitutes what some advocates consider to be a critical pillar of the CSR movement. In theory, corporate disclosure pushes the CSR movement forward by providing stakeholders with actionable information that can be factored into future decisions. Investors deciding where to direct their money, employees deciding where to work, public policymakers deciding what to regulate, consumers deciding what goods to purchase; all these groups benefit from corporate disclosure of CSR-related information.

2.2 Framework of Corporate Social Reporting in Nigeria

Financial reporting practices in Nigeria is governed by several major bodies including government through company law, the Central bank, Securities and Exchange Commission, Nigerian Stock Exchange registration's requirements, and the Governance Rules. Nigeria company law states that accounting principles and practices should be in line with the Generally Accepted Accounting Principles (GAAP). These

regulatory bodies provide financial regulatory frameworks by which organizations carry out their businesses and how same is reported. Most importantly is the adoption of the IFRS by banks and other financial institutions operating in Nigeria. This was to make their reporting practices more understandable and acceptable world-wide while competing favourably with international contemporaries.

Unlike financial reporting, corporate social reporting cannot be said to have received enough standardization in terms of reporting most especially in the developing and emerging economies of the world of which Nigeria is one. Corporate social reporting has evolved in Western Europe over several decades. Today, numerous organizations, including the United Nations, the European Union, national governments, and public interest groups require corporations to publish reports on corporate social responsibility. Various reasons have been given as been responsible for the sustained drive in developed countries towards corporate social responsibility reporting. In these countries, different private, pressure group and government regulatory bodies enforce the laws and guidelines of corporate social responsibility to intensify the CSR practices of firms. On the contrary, fewer similar initiatives exist in developing countries. In Nigeria the case is not too different. Uwuigbe and Egbide (2012) observed that over the past decade, Nigeria being one of the largest producers of crude oil in Africa has witnessed tremendous economic, technological and social changes making businesses more complex and

demanding. This better economic position has also translated into higher levels of education amongst its people. Consequently, there appears to be increased public concern and awareness for corporate social environmental impact. Uwuigbe, (2012) further argued that the intense media scrutiny and coverage of environmental problems have also contributed to public concern for the detrimental effects of business operations on our natural environment. This change in public concern and awareness on environmental issues, have heightened the demands from the various stakeholders to which firms in Nigeria must respond to by providing social and environmental disclosures.

The increased corporate social awareness has however not translated into much in terms of standardization of corporate social disclosure; as corporate social responsibility reporting is still highly voluntary in Nigeria. It also appears that corporate social responsibility reporting practice in Nigeria is unregulated. Apart from the introduction and adoption of International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) and some already existing regulations such as environmental acts, code of corporate governance and the likes bodies such as Securities and Exchange Commission, Nigerian stock exchange, corporate affairs commission (CAMA), ICAN, ANAN all work towards increasing the level of accounting information disclosure; CSR reporting still appears to be low. This implies that quoted companies in Nigeria seem to abuse the weakness of the voluntary nature of corporate social disclosure. The

government on its part also lacks the political willpower to enforce compliance on disclosure of CSR information. With the trend of event in the developed countries, it is pertinent that the government of Nigeria needs to wake up to its responsibility of instituting frameworks and laws that will ensure compliance with corporate social disclosures by quoted firms and specify punishments for non-compliance.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework underpinning this study of understanding the determinants of corporate social responsibility disclosures among listed firms in Nigeria are the legitimacy and stakeholder theories. These two theories dominate the explanation of social and environmental impacts on disclosure.

Legitimacy theory

Legitimacy is 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 definitions (Suchman, 1995; Zhang, 2013). Legitimacy theory relies upon the fact that a social contract exist between an organization and the society in which it operates (Omran & Ramdhony, 2015). When there is a disparity between two value systems, there is a threat to the company's legitimacy. Guthrie and Parker (1989), opines that if the legitimacy theory holds true, then corporations will react by disclosing more information when there are major social and environmental events. Consequently, firms ensure that they operate within the bounds and norms of the societies they

operate in and legitimize their actions by engaging in corporate social disclosure to obtain approval from the society and thus guarantee their continued existence.

Stakeholder theory

The stakeholder theory sees the firm as part of a larger social system. The theory argues that the firm has a wider group of stakeholders who are affected by or affects the activities of the firm other than its shareholders. This theory advances the sole responsibility of firms beyond just making profits for its shareholders to enhancing stakeholder relationships that are mutual. Hence the success of the firm is dependent on how well these stakeholder relationships and needs are managed as it concerns corporate social disclosure. These two theories form a good framework for this paper due to their interrelatedness. While the legitimacy theory deals on communication with the society, stakeholder theory focuses on reducing information asymmetry between the firm and its stakeholder groups.

2.4 Prior Literature and Hypothesis development

Corporate social responsibility disclosure has never been more prominent on the corporate agenda than it is today. It has become a focal point for policy makers and the public, who demand that companies assume responsibility towards society, the environment, or the stakeholders in general. Considerable number of theoretical and empirical researches has been undertaken around the world. This is not unconnected to the growing awareness of the need for sustainability. However, the scanty literature in Corporate Social Responsibility

Disclosure is noted most especially in developing economies or emerging markets to which Nigeria is categorized. Extant literature has it documented that several variables jointly influence the level of disclosure among firms. Some studies have shown that positive association exist between corporate social disclosure and some identified firm attributes while others reveal a negative relationship. In Bangladesh, Arif and Tuhin (2013) evaluated the factors affecting voluntary disclosure of environmental and society related issues in the annual reports of listed banks. Using the disclosure index with 48 voluntary non-financial information disclosures on a sample of 20 listed banks, they examined the effect of three firm characteristics age (denoted in years of operation), bank size and profitability on the extent of disclosure. The result revealed that age and profitability of the bank significantly influenced the disclosure level of non-financial information of the banks while size had significant influence.

Majeed et al. (2015) investigated factors affecting the level of disclosure of information about environmental and social responsibility of listed firms in Pakistan. The study was conducted with a sample of 49 firms with annual reports from 2007 to 2011. The study looked at factors including: board size, the degree of board independence, nationality and gender of the representative on the board, the degree of decentralization, the size and the profit of the business. They found that there is a positive and significant impact of the size of the board. The level of board independence, the degree of decentralization and the

size of the business have a noticeable impact on the level of disclosure of corporate social and environmental responsibility. The results also show the reverse relationship between the representatives by genders and nationality and the disclosure level of environmental information. In Bangladesh Das, Dixon and Michael (2015) evaluated the corporate social responsibility reporting practices of listed banks. They explored the potential effects of corporate governance and company specific characteristics on CSR disclosures. Using content analysis of all listed banks operating between 2007 and 2011 and analysing with regression tools, the study indicated an increase in the disclosure level of CSR activities. The findings further revealed that firm size, board size ownership structure and independent non-executive directors had positive and significant effect on the CSR disclosure while profitability and firms' age were negatively associated. Doan and Tran (2017) reviewed and evaluated the level of social responsibility information disclosures in the annual reports of listed firms on the Vietnam Stock Exchange and identify the factors that influence this level. The results showed that the levels are low. Factors that influence the level of disclosure such as size of business, financial leverage, size of board of directors, independence of executive directors and independent auditors are found in the study. However, the study was conducted jointly for all firms in different business fields without considering the impact of those. In Nigeria Dibia and Onwuchekwa (2015) studied the

determinants of environmental disclosures in Nigeria using firms in the oil and gas sector over the period 2008-2013. A significant relationship between company size and CSR was indicated on one hand and no significant relationship between profit, leverage and audit firm type on the other. The voluntary stance of CSR in Nigeria was a factor noted as being responsible for the under reporting or non-reporting of social and environmental issues by firms in Nigeria.

2.4.1 Hypothesis development

Based on literature review of factors affecting the level of corporate social and environmental disclosure and theories concerning the disclosure level, we synthesize the factors affecting corporate social responsibility disclosure of listed firms on the Nigeria Stock exchange as follows:

Firms' Size

Previous studies have shown that the size of the firm affects the level of corporate disclosure. The larger the size of the firm the more likely it is to publish its social and environmental information. This is because larger firms tend to receive more attention from the general public and therefore likely to be under greater public pressures to be socially responsible. As a result, large companies feel the pressure to disclose more social information to obtain approval from the stakeholders for continued survival (O'Donovan, 2002). Hasan and Hosain, 2015 further observed that large firms are always confident of their prospects, and so are often willing to expend to publicize more voluntary information in order to make a difference to rival businesses

and increase its value. Moreover, for large firms, the accounting system is relatively effective; the accounting information system satisfies the demand for information in terms of quality and quantity, hence the disclosure of more environmental accounting information will be less costly than that of small firms (Nguyen, Dung, Nguyen and Le, 2017). This is measured by the total asset and is hypothesized that firms' size has a positive effect on CSR disclosure.

Firms' Age

This represents the day the firm was listed on the stock market. According to Wachira (2014), the firm's age does not affect the level of disclosure of environmental accounting information. In contrast, the study by Hasan and Hosain (2015) showed that business's age has a significant effect on the level of mandatory information disclosure. However, according to the theory of legalization, the longer the firm is listed on the stock market, the easier they will be to comply with the disclosure requirements. In terms of additional disclosure, the extra cost they have to spend is not much higher than that of young firms. So in cost and benefits theory, these firms will tend to spend cost for the disclosure of environmental accounting information. Therefore firms' age has a positive effect on corporate social responsibility disclosure.

Profitability

The relationship between profitability and the level of environmental and social disclosure has been thoroughly discussed in existing literature. Firms with higher financial performance are more likely to have a more advanced

social disclosure. According to stakeholder theory, the more profitable firms are, the more ambitious they are to meet and satisfy the information needs of the stakeholders, especially the stakeholders who are in control of the important resources of the firm. Hence firms' profitability is positively related to corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms in Nigeria.

Financial leverage

The power of creditors as a stakeholder depends upon the degree to which a company relies on debt financing. A firm with significantly more debt than equity is considered to be highly leveraged. According to Christopher and Filipovic (2008); Ma and Zhao (2009) the higher the leverage, the more the company is likely to disclose social information. Branco and Rodrigues (2008) found out that the relationship between corporate social responsibility disclosure and leverage may be significant. Therefore, it's expected that, the higher the financial leverage, the more likely the company would disclose social and environmental information. Leverage was measured by total debt over total equity. Debt financing could impact on the level of disclosure of a firm the higher the debt employed by a firm the more likely managers use an accounting method that boost the income. However for some companies who may be unwilling to spend extra cost in addition to their cost of debt may be unlikely to disclose CSR information. Based on this we hypothesize that financial leverage do have a significant effect on corporate social responsibility disclosure.

Board size

The board of directors of any firm plays a crucial role in the alignment of corporate behaviour, in ensuring compliance with legal framework and maintaining credibility in the eyes of stakeholders through proper and timely disclosures (Ezhilarasi & Kabra, 2017). The number of directors on the board (board size) is perceived to play an important role in monitoring managements' performance most importantly in the context of corporate social disclosure. Mixed results trail the different studies that have been carried out on the effect of board size on disclosures. While some argue in favour of a larger board size that brings greater number of experienced directors who can control, monitor advice and establish strategies (Xie et al, 2001; Halme & Huse, 1997). Others on the contrary, argue for smaller sized board that can monitor the management more effectively and take unanimous decisions easily (Cheng, 2008; Ienciu, 2012). We hypothesize that board size has a significant positive effect on corporate social responsibility disclosure.

Board independence

Boards play an essential role in monitoring and directing managers to satisfy the interests of stakeholders. However, the boards' monitoring effectiveness depends on its composition. Independent boards are more likely to inspire managers towards high transparency and disclosure quality levels (Foraker, 1992; AbuRaya, 2012). Agency and stakeholder theories argue that a high ratio of independent directors on the board could be an important

element of the CG structure that would help to resolve agency problems and advance the interests of other stakeholders, such as employees and local communities (Amran et al. 2009; Chen & Roberts, 2010). Empirically, a large number of studies, including Barako and Brown (2008) and Khan et al. (2013) find that appointing non-executive directors on the board positively affect CSR disclosure. Accordingly, this study believes that non-executive directors on the board are more likely to encourage managers to act socially, and thus, provide high quality CSR disclosure. Hence, the study hypothesize that Board Independence has positive influence on corporate social responsibility disclosure

3. Research Method

This study made use of the ex-post facto research design in investigating the determinants of corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms' in Nigeria. A sample size of sixteen (16) firms was drawn across various sectors for the period 2010-2017. Content analysis of the annual report of the selected firms was employed as widely used by previous studies in investigating the extent of corporate social responsibility disclosures by corporate entities. Following prior studies, a thirty-one (31) item checklist was used in measuring disclosure through an unweighted index measure where '1' is awarded if item is disclosed and '0' if not disclosed. Having drawn up the disclosure index (CSR-D-I), a scoring sheet was also developed to assess the level of social responsibility disclosure

practises. In this way, we added up all the items disclosed by each company. The following formula was used to measure the total CSR score for a company:

$$CSRDI = \sum_{i=1}^{31} di$$

Where:

CSRDI = Corporate Social Responsibility Disclosure Index Reporting Score

di = 1 if the item is reported; 0 if the item is not reported

i = 1, 2, 3... 31

The comprehensive disclosure index drawn included four themes and a total of 31 items. This was based on the selection of disclosure items upon an extensive review of previous studies. In order to increase the reliability of the index and to improve on the previous studies and models used.

Table 1. Measurement and explanation of variables

Variable	Operational definition	Abbreviations	Expected sign
Dependent			Index
Corporate Social Responsibility disclosure	CSR index 1= for disclosure 0= for non-disclosure	CSRDI	
Independent			
Age of the firm	From the date a firm was listed	FAGE	+
Profitability	ROA= PAT/TA	ROA	+
Board size	No of persons on the board	BSIZE	+
Board Independence	Ratio of non-executive directors to total no of directors	BIND	+
Firm size	Natural logarithm of Total Assets as proxy for firm size	FIRMSIZE	+
Financial leverage	Ratio of debt to equity	DER	+ or -

3.1 Model specification

The study used panel data consisting of cross-sectional and time series observation from the annual reports of sixteen firms (16) listed on Nigerian Stock Exchange for the period 2010-2017. According to Wachira (2017) panel data reduces the collinearity among independent variables and improve the efficiency of statistical estimates. Panel data can help in

detecting and measuring effects that cannot easily be observed in pure time-series or cross-sectional data and because of this it can be used to analyse dynamic changes (Gujarati, 2003). This sample size is quite acceptable and comparable with the samples used in most other CSR disclosure studies. This gave a total of 128 observations for the panel structured dataset.

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The regression model used to investigate the determinants of corporate social responsibility disclosure practices is as stated below

$$CSRDI_{it} = \alpha + \beta_1 BSIZE_{it} + \beta_2 BIND_{it} + \beta_3 ROA_{it} + \beta_4 FAGE_{it} + \beta_5 DER_{it} + \beta_6 TA_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$

Where:

CSRDI = Corporate social responsibility disclosure index

BFSIZE = size of board of directors

4. Data Presentation and Analysis

Table 2: Descriptive analysis

	CSRDI	BIND	BS	DER	FAGE	ROA	TA
Mean	24.68750	0.634219	12.70313	3.642578	26.30469	-0.009439	8.234933
Median	26.00000	0.590000	12.00000	2.655000	26.00000	0.040000	8.225517
Maximum	31.00000	0.920000	19.00000	11.72000	67.00000	0.270000	9.613021
Minimum	14.00000	0.330000	7.000000	0.170000	2.000000	-5.260000	5.682700
Std. Dev.	4.167270	0.153431	2.959994	2.766434	17.60304	0.577350	0.956978
Skewness	-0.727742	0.398143	0.009865	0.687515	0.350281	-7.508141	-0.801834
Kurtosis	2.626624	2.361882	2.277374	2.677190	2.015346	62.56888	3.151793
Jarque-Bera	12.04184	5.553408	2.787079	10.63954	7.788437	20127.68	13.83888
Probability	0.002427	0.062243	0.248195	0.004894	0.020359	0.000000	0.000988

Source: Researcher’s Compilation

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the variables in the study. Descriptive statistics for dependent and independent variables were calculated in order to help explain the behaviour of the disclosures. Such descriptive statistics included the mean, maximum, minimum, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis. Descriptive statistics explores the distribution of the variables used in the study. A look at the results reveal a 77% (24.69) mean disclosure of items examined in the study in relation to corporate social responsibility of listed firms in Nigeria. This is further explained in the minimum and maximum values respectively. The standard deviation measuring the spread of the distribution stood at a value of

BIND = proportion of non-executive directors to total directors on the board
 ROA = return on asset measuring profitability

FAGE = age of the firm from listing on the NSE

DER = debt equity ratio

TA= natural logarithm of firms’ total asset

ε = error term

0.15 to 17.6 with a Jarque – Bera probability of 0.000 - 0.24 which indicates that the variables are normally distributed when measured at critical level. This therefore implies that the possibility of outlier does not exist in the distribution. On the average the board independence among firms used in the study measures up to 63% implying a strict compliance to the code of conduct on corporate governance requiring a given level of board independence and board size at mean value of 13 persons. The size of the firm measured by log of total assets ranges from 5.682-9.613 indicating that the size of firms in the sample differs widely. The period of listing on the stock market showed a mean value of 26.3years

showing that the listed firms in the sample are not too young.

Table 3: Correlation test

	CSR	BIND	BS	DER	FAGE	ROA	TA
CSR	1.000000						
BIND	0.076337	1.000000					
BS	0.254140	-0.217930	1.000000				
DER	0.211939	-0.232452	0.598927	1.000000			
FAGE	0.331912	-0.081323	-0.045248	-0.243159	1.000000		
ROA	-0.154602	-0.076259	-0.113710	-0.247629	0.131216	1.000000	
TA	0.149022	0.151213	0.231505	0.286812	0.087259	-0.157575	1.000000

Source: Authors' Analysis

Table 3 presents the results of the correlation coefficient test between the variables. The results show that there is a variation between the independent and dependent variables of the model. The level of disclosure of corporate social responsibility accounting information has positive relationship with the

variables of board independence, board size, financial leverage, age, and firm size and negative relationship with profitability. At the same time, correlated pairs are less than 0.8 and indicating no possible problem of multicollinearity.

4.1 Regression Results

Table 4: Regression Analysis

	Constant	BIND	BS	DER	FAGE	ROA	TA	R ²	F-stat/p-value
FEM	12.0497	7.597 (0.004)	-0.1039 (0.446)	0.2396 (0.140)	0.6882 (0.000)	-0.0932 (0.781)	-1.1946 (0.2540)	0.844	33.73343 (0.0000)
REM	0.3228	10.0625 (0.000)	0.1419 (0.2361)	0.4111 (0.0064)	0.2686 (0.000)	-0.5881 (0.0673)	0.9243 (0.1834)	0.388	14.43491 (0.0000)

Source: Authors Computation

Shown in Table 4 is the result of analysis using the OLS panel data regression. Panel regression was adopted for this study owing to the cross sectional time series nature of the data set. However in determining the final estimator to use in the study, the

hausman test was carried out to ascertain whether the fixed effects model (FEM) or the random effects model (REM) would be used. The result from the hausman test accepted the random effect model (REM) as the more appropriate method to use at a

significant level of 0.01 (Prob < Chi2 is more than 0.05). The regression result reports a positive and significant relationship between board independence, financial leverage, firms' age, and corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of firms used in the study. Board size and firms' size though positive were both insignificant. Profitability on the contrary indicated a negative relationship but significant at 10%. The R² of 39% (approximately 40%) representing fluctuation in the independent variables explains the variation in the dependent variable of corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of firms sampled in the study. The F-statistics of 14.435 which determines the overall fitness of the model was significant at 5%. This gives an indication that the variables investigated in the study were well fitted for the model expressed and that jointly measured all the independent variables have a significant effect on corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms in Nigeria. The regression equation is thus rewritten as:

$$\text{CSR} = 0.323 + 10.062 \text{ BIND} + 0.142 \text{ BS} + 0.4111 \text{ LEV} + 0.269 \text{ FAGE} - 0.588 \text{ ROA} + 0.924 \text{ TA} + e$$

5.0 Discussion

The first hypothesis postulates a significant positive relationship between firm size and CSR. The result from firms' size reveals a positive but insignificant relationship with corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms in Nigeria. This finding supports the first hypothesis and lends credence to legitimacy theory. Large firms are usually more visible and accountable to the public (Cormier &

Gordon, 2001) and have huge impact on the society, as such are subjects of greater pressures than smaller companies. This is because size is synonymous with visibility. Consequently, large companies are more likely to receive more attention from the public and put under a greater public pressure to demonstrate social responsibility (Cowen et al., 1987). So to avoid pressure and reduce monitoring cost, these firms involve more in voluntary disclosure practices thereby justifying their existence in the society or environment in which they operate. The firms also perform well socially and try to avoid any mistake that could negatively hit the firms' bottom line. Hence, on the average, listed firms in Nigeria would more likely increase corporate social responsibility disclosure practices as their firms get larger. The Second hypothesis tested firms' age as a determinant of corporate social responsibility disclosure practices. It was measured as the date of listing of firm to its current date. In line with the expectation, the older the firm the higher the level of disclosures. The result showed a positive and significant relationship between firms' age and corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of firms in Nigeria. This result is consistent with that of (Alam & Deb, 2010; Yang, 2009; Akhtaruddin, 2005; Haniffa & Cooke, 2002). This implies that the longer listing time is, the higher the disclosure level of corporate social responsibility practices. Firms' would usually want to operate within the bounds and norms of the societies they operate in and legitimize their actions by engaging in

corporate social responsibility disclosure to obtain approval from the society and thus guarantee their continued existence. Older firms therefore would be seen to disclose more information on corporate social responsibility activities. This will help firms to earn greater social support and less public complaints.

The third determinant investigated in this study was Profitability. This variable showed a negative relationship with corporate social responsibility disclosure practices but significant at 10%. The implication is that profitable companies disclosed less detailed social responsibility information than less profitable companies. This stance is justified on the grounds that high profits talk for themselves. In other words, firms that achieved high levels of profits believe that this will signal to the market information about the effectiveness of corporate management and assure investors and lenders about the future of the company concerned. Consequently, there is no need to disclose detailed information. On the contrary, firms that achieved low levels of profits or sustained losses need to disclose detailed information to assure investors and creditors about the future and going concern position of their companies. It is also believed that detailed information is also required to explain to users of their information the problem and how they intend to correct it. The negative relationship may also be argued from the point that CSR is viewed as public pressures more than economic pressure and having no bearing on the firms' profitability. Furthermore, the financial leverage measured by the debt equity

ratio indicated a positive and significant relationship with corporate social responsibility disclosure. The implication of this is that firms are willing to spend extra cost on corporate social responsibility disclosure irrespective of their debt position. The higher the financial indebtedness, the more willing they are in reporting CSR activities. Thus showing a commitment towards creating a sustainable environment, this greatly enhances their chances of legitimization while still creating value. This result is in tandem with Orij, 2007; Ahmad, Hassan, and Mohammad, 2003. However this position was not supported by (Soyinka, Sunday & Adedeji, 2017; Wachira, 2017; Purushothaman et al, 2000) who argue that, because of their close relationships with their creditors, companies with high gearing level are unlikely to disclose a lot of social information. This is because they can use other means of disclosures. The variable of board size as investigated in the study represented the number of persons on the board. The result indicated a positive relationship with corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms in Nigeria. Board members represent the interest of the shareholders and as such should protect such interest by engaging in CSR and communicating their social performance through disclosure. Akhtaruddin et al (2009) in arguing that board size influences voluntary disclosure noted that the level of disclosure is a strategic decision made by the board who also formulate policies to be followed by managers. They added that a great number of directors on the

board reduce the likelihood of information asymmetry and that the size of the board is believed to affect the ability of the board to monitor and evaluate management. This result is consistent with other researchers who found a positive relationship between board size and corporate social responsibility disclosure practices. (Uwuigbe & Egbide, 2012; Alotaibi, 2016; Haji, 2013).

The last variable investigated in the study was Board independence. The results revealed that board independence was found to have a positive and significant effect on corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms in Nigeria. This result is supported by the stakeholder theory which advocates for the interest of all affected by or can be affected by the activities of an organization being taken care of. Independence of the board to a great extent acts as a check and balance mechanism in enhancing board's efficiency and play a significant role in company's monitoring system. Greater board independence acts as a powerful tool for constraining managers' behaviour. With more independent directors on the board of corporations in Nigeria, it is assumed that the diverse interest of the different stakeholders will find a right balance with important decisions taken being equitably aligned to these competing needs. This result is consistent with the findings from similar studies (Barako & Brown, 2008; Khan, 2010; Htay et al, 2012). However it contradicts with studies that have found negative relationships between board independence and corporate social

responsibility disclosure (Haniffa & Cooke, 2005; Eng & Mak, 2003).

6.0 Conclusions

The study examined the determinants of corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms in Nigeria. Sixteen (16) firms were included in the study covering the period 2010-2017, and the variables tested were firm size, age, profitability, financial leverage, board size and board independence. The findings concluded that all the variables tested in this study had positive relationship with CSR with exception of profitability. The level of significance also varied among the variables. The firms' age, financial leverage and board independence were significant at < 0.05 while firm size, board size and profitability were insignificant. The F-stat revealed a statistically significant model of 14.43491 significant at less than 1% level of significance. Thus it can be concluded that the variables investigated in this study to a great extent determines corporate social responsibility disclosure practices of listed firms in Nigeria. This is further explained with the R^2 of about 40% showing that the variables captured in this study moderately explains variations in firms CSR practices in Nigeria. Thus corporate social responsibility disclosure practice has become an important issue for companies who want to survive and thrive in the Nigerian business environment. Consequently for firms to survive, it has to take particular care on social responsibility disclosure issues both from the perspective of legitimizing its existence to balancing the varying needs of all

stakeholders. The implication of the negative relationship between profitability and CSR could well assume that profitable companies seem to believe that good news talk for itself while less profitable firms or companies that sustained losses need to disclose detailed information to assure investors, lenders and others alike to explain their performance. This paradigm of thought need to be changed as this is not always the case.

Nevertheless, this research has some limitations. Firstly, the research results

on CSR disclosure items were based on the data from annual reports of firms. There are other means by which firms report their activities such as standalone reports and websites these were not considered in this study. Secondly, one important aspect of any existing firm is its ownership structure which to a great length determines what happens in the firm. The researcher is of the opinion that further research be carried out in this area.

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Social Unrest: Emerging Trends on Transnational companies and Oil-Producing Communities in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria

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Abstract: Every society is characterized by social relations and group interaction. However, conflict is inevitable due to the fact that human wants are insatiable. A major cause of conflict is oppression, exploitation and inequality. This paper examined youth restiveness in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The people inhabiting this geographical area are faced with life-threatening challenges such as pollution of underground and surface water, destruction of land fertility, death of aquatic life arising from oil spillage orchestrated by the activities of Transnational companies and youth restiveness. This paper employed the use of quantitative and qualitative research methods. Multi-stage and purposive sampling were adopted, 250 copies of questionnaire were administered and key informant interviews were conducted in the study area which was located in Eleme, Rivers State, Nigeria. The study focused on Rivers state, which is popularly acclaimed as the economic hub of oil companies operating in the region. The quantitative data collected from the field was presented in a frequency table while the qualitative data provided vital and first-hand details that complemented the quantitative data. Hypotheses were tested with the aid of a regression analysis which determined the nexus between the variables in the paper. Thus, findings in this study showed that there is a need to ensure that corporate social responsibilities, youth empowerment and employment are provided to guarantee the collective development of the people so as to guarantee lasting peace in the area.

Keywords: Exploitation, Niger Delta, Transnational companies, Youth Restiveness

Introduction

There have been several studies carried out on the Niger Delta region. Although the geographical area has gained global relevance through different levels of scholarly study, the bulk of academic writings has tended in relation to particularly focus on oil exploration, environmental sustainability and the dividends that host communities accrue from Transnational companies. However, an area of study that has garnered little attention is the standard of living and general well-being of the residents in the area. Therefore, there is a need to explore the living conditions of the Niger Delta people and the quality of life in the area.

No doubt the discovery of oil in Oloibiri, Ogbia Local Government Area of Bayelsa State in 1956 and its subsequent exploration brought about increase in the Gross National Income (GNI) of Nigeria. This was evident in the oil boom of the 1970s, which cumulated into widespread establishment of infrastructures in the country and earned the nation an admirable reputation as a dominant economic power in the African region and the world at large. As a result of this development, transnational companies such as Agip, Chevron, Exxon Mobil, Saipem and Shell were attracted to the country. The activities of transnational companies in the region led to a surge in Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) and in oil production (Akinyemi, 2012; Nwosu, 2017; Oyadongha & Odio, 2016). Despite the successes recorded in the Oil and Gas industry and the transformation of the Nigerian economy, various studies have shown that there was no trickle-down effect on the living condition of the Niger Delta people whose region is the powerhouse in which the crude oil of Nigeria is

derived from (Iruonagbe, 2011; Tamuno, 2012; Kadilo 2014). Ironically, the standard of living and the quality of life prevalent in the Niger Delta does not reflect the abundant riches endowed in the area (Ebuk, 2017).

According to Iruonagbe (2011), the following questions come to mind when the Niger Delta region is mentioned; Why is there enormous poverty in a region that is blessed with human and natural resources? Why is conflict and youth restiveness on the increase? What pragmatic approach can be taken to restore lasting peace? Why is inequality so pronounced? How can environmental sustainability be achieved following the continuous exploration of oil in the area? The situation in the Niger Delta is a paradox, considering the level of wealth that resides in the region; over ninety percent (90%) of the foreign exchange earnings of Nigeria comes from the sale of crude oil which is domiciled in the Niger Delta. Similarly, over ninety-seven percent (97%) of the Nigerian national budget is sponsored by the proceeds from the petrodollar product. Yet, abject poverty, pronounced squalor, high rate of unemployment, decayed infrastructures, environmental pollution, high level of insecurity and youth restiveness are largely evident in the area (Ekong, 2011). Exemplified in this regard, is a comparison between Bayelsa State, Rivers State and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). The cost of road construction in Bayelsa and Rivers State due to swampy and water logged areas located in the greater part of the both states is comparatively more expensive than in Abuja and this is because of the varying topography in the different states. However, the continuous agitation of the Niger Delta people for their share of the resources that accrues

from the region prompted the Federal Government to increase the revenue derivation formula of oil-producing states. This was purposed to empower the state governments and enable them to carry out capital-intensive projects that will affect the lives of the people. Elenwo (2013) posits that the wealth that was meant to change the fortunes of the region was hijacked by some state governors, who were interested in amassing wealth for their electioneering process.

Furthermore, the increasing unrest in the Niger Delta can be traced to over 5 decades of continuous oppression and marginalisation. Several prominent personalities have fought for the liberation of the region from the control of the Federal government and transnational companies. Notable among these agitators are Isaac Adaka Boro, who declared the Republic of Niger Delta on the 23rd of February 1966 but was subdued by the federal forces after 12 days and Kenule Beeson “Ken” Saro Wiwa, an environmentalist who was hung alongside other Ogoni activists on the 10th of November 1995 (Imhonopi & Urim, 2016; Osadolor, 2011). Subsequently, several agitation came from leaders of different “Militant groups” such as Asari, the then leader of the Niger Delta People’s Volunteer Force (NDPVF), Ateke, the erstwhile leader of the Niger Delta Vigilante (NDV), Tompolo, Soboma, Ebipodei, Ndigbara, Tubotamuno, Togo, Ebikabowei and Okah and a host of other groups that have violently expressed their grievances against the ill-treatment meted on the region (Tambari, 2012). The growing crisis in

the Niger Delta region, propelled the Federal Government of Nigeria to establish the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) on the 5th of June 2000 under the auspices of former President Olusegun Obasanjo’s administration. The mission of the NDDC was to consolidate on the gains of the Oil Mineral Producing Area Development Commission (OMPADEC) established by former military Head of State, Ibrahim Babangida under Decree No. 23 of July 1992. Also, the Ministry of Niger Delta Affairs was established on the 10th of September 2008 by the late President Umaru Musa Yara’dua’s administration. The inauguration of the aforementioned commissions and Ministry was aimed at bringing development on the doorstep of oil-producing states of the federation through the implementation of quality human capital and infrastructural development. Moreover, these developments existed only in theory and not in reality as the commissions were used by selfish politicians to enrich themselves (Okeke, 2013).

Statement of the Problem

Hopfensperger (2011) opines that the Nigerian state does not have realistic and dependable solutions for salvaging and redirecting some of the revenue it derives from the sale of crude oil for the benefit of the communities from which oil is exploited. This results in gross underdevelopment, pauperisation, marginalisation and the creation of a widespread poverty-infested zone. This implies that the wealth accrued from petroleum products by the government of Nigeria consequently does not reflect on the socioeconomic life of the

residents in oil-producing communities and their living conditions. The careless exploration of crude oil has led to many negative effects on the environment and the people living in the area. These effects stem from the emission of poisonous chemicals into the air that generate air pollution, land infertility arising from soil pollution, death of aquatic organisms and the destruction of surface and underground water. From the foregoing, it is very glaring that the production activities of transnational companies in the area have made life totally unbearable for the people. The plight of the people has been neglected and overlooked. Presently, the Niger Delta region contends with unemployment, hunger and starvation, youth restiveness and other criminal activities such as kidnapping, illegal refineries and pipeline vandalism (Dappa, 2007; Oghenetega, 2016; Spiff, 2017).

The basic features of an ideal state such as clean and potable water, regular power supply, proper medical care, standard and solidified roads, and an abundance of employment opportunities, are largely lacking in the region (Frynas, 2009). Although the Niger Delta people are generally peace-loving individuals, the pitiable standard of living and nerve-racking state of affairs in the region played a vital role in the resort of the youths to violent struggle for change. When the continuous peaceful cries for help by the Niger delta youth was met with frequent lacklustre attitude from the Federal government, they decided to engage in hostage-taking, destruction of oil facilities and pipeline vandalism to force

their demands on the government. This was due to the fact that every peaceful effort made towards imploring the federal government and transnational companies present in the region to change the ugly narrative attached to the region was ignored. Thus, the neglect and abandonment of the youths triggered the breakout of violence in the area (Hyden, 2015).

The people of the region wake up everyday to the same situation and are faced with the question of whether the natural endowment in the region is a curse or blessing. This has further aggravated the youth involvement in illegitimate activities to enable them earn a living and express their grievances since the legitimate process has been blocked by the government and the transnational companies (Ebeku, 2011). To this end, different militant groups arose and decided to take up arms to fight against what they tagged as injustice and environmental genocide meted on the Niger Delta region by the activities of transnational companies such as the Movement for the Emancipation of Niger Delta (MEND), Niger Delta Peoples Volunteer Force (NDVF) and Niger Delta Avengers (NDA). This has turned the entire region to a combat zone between the Nigerian Army and the militants resulting in heavy civilian casualties involving women and children who are most vulnerable to the continuous attack from the Nigerian military troops (Idemudia, 2017).

According to Ajegun, (2009), the transnational companies in the region have divided the oil-producing communities by giving cheap contracts

to traditional rulers and political elite thereby enriching them while the bulk of the masses remain poor. Also, corporate social responsibilities of transnational companies are neglected and memoranda of understanding are not implemented. This has triggered factional community leadership tussles which have grown into internally-generated communal crisis.

Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to identify how the issue of social unrest in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria has affected the activities of transnational companies operating in the area as well as the oil-producing communities. The specific objectives include to:

- i. Assess the effect of social unrest on the living conditions of oil producing communities in the Niger Delta.
- ii. Examine the relationship between youth restiveness and underdevelopment in the Niger Delta.
- iii. Analyse the activities of transnational companies on the environment of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta.

Research Questions

The research questions relevant to this study are:

- i. What is the effect of social unrest on the living conditions of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta?
- ii. What is the relationship between youth restiveness and underdevelopment in the Niger Delta?
- iii. How has the activities of transnational companies affected

the environment of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta?

Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses that will be tested in the study include:

H₁: There is a connection between social unrest and the living conditions of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta.

H₁: There is a relationship between youth restiveness and underdevelopment in the Niger Delta.

H₁: The nexus between the activities of transnational companies and the environment of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta.

Scope of the Study

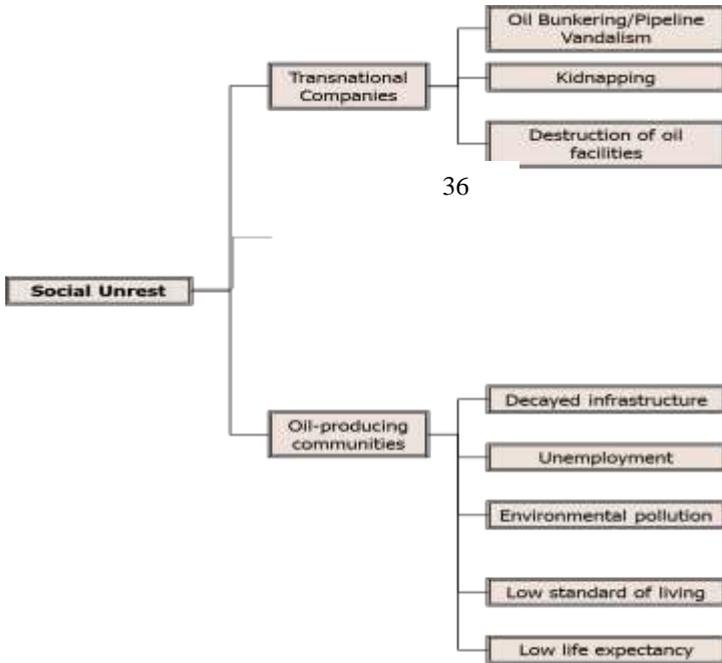
The study is limited to the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, with specific reference to Eleme Local Government Area in Rivers State. It critically assesses how social unrest and youth restiveness has affected the activities of transnational companies in the region as well as its effect on the oil-producing communities. Eleme Local Government Area is located in Rivers South East Senatorial District, with the council headquarters located at Ogale. The people of Eleme are a distinct ethnic group with a population of One thousand five hundred and seventy one (1,571) persons. The geographical area covers one hundred and thirty two kilometres square (132km²). The Local Government is divided into two main districts (Nchia) and (Odido) with ten wards that cut across the two districts; Agbonchia, Akpajo, Alesa, Aleto, Alode, Ebulu, Ekporo, Eteo, Ogale and Onne. It houses two of Nigeria's refineries at Alesa, Over 200 Transnational companies at Onne sea

port, such as: Total, Agip, Chevron, Shell, Exxon Mobil and a host of others.

Literature Review

This study encompasses the following concepts, Social Unrest, transnational companies and Oil-producing Communities. These concepts serve as

the variables of the study, however there are other variables embedded in them which reflects on their actions in the study. Below is the diagrammatic expression of the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables.



Source: Researchers, 2019

Social Unrest

The presence of social unrest can be felt by both oil-producing communities and the transnational companies. The cumulative effect of this can be in the form of decayed infrastructure, unemployment, environmental pollution, low standard of living and low-life expectancy as illustrated in the diagrammatic chart. This implies that for every increase in social unrest in the oil producing communities there will be

a corresponding increase in the listed independent variables. The same applies to the transnational companies for every increase in social unrest there will be a corresponding increase in oil bunkering, pipeline vandalism, kidnapping of transnational company workers and destruction of oil installations by the aggrieved youths of the oil-producing communities.

According to the World Bank (2009), social unrest is usually propelled by

URL: <http://journals.covenantuniversity.edu.ng/index.php/cjbss/>

tensions and restiveness in the society, this may be linked to a failure in the political system and other relevant institutions, environmental degradation, exploitation and marginalisation. The propagation of unrest can come in form of protests, riots and crisis. This may culminate into full-blown war when pragmatic approaches are not taken to curtail the ranging causal effect of it. The collapse of social structures in a society can be traceable to mismanaged social unrest and this is equally evident in the destruction of life and properties and the uneasy livelihood that residents would be faced with as a result of conflicting interest among actors (Keil, 2010).

According to Kaur (2013), the Niger Delta region has been the centre of different agitations which have fuelled tensions in the area. The chronological presentation of the various group includes:

i) Niger Delta Volunteer Service: This group was pioneered by Isaac Adaka Boro and gained visibility in February 1966. Its main aim was to carve out a separate state of the Niger Delta people. Boro believed that an independent state for the Niger Delta people would solve the human and infrastructural development problem in the area. Thus, Boro sprang into action and pursued numerous failed peaceful activisms between the Chiefs and political leaders in the area so as to realise his dream of a separate state for the region. Also, he encountered another difficulty when the Nigerian government negated to accord due recognition and attention to the region despite its rich resources. These failures led to a combat between the

groups loyal to Boro and the federal forces. After the Republic of Niger Delta was declared, this group was subdued after twelve days by the Nigerian Army.

ii) Movement for the Survival of Ogoni People: This movement was birthed on intellectual precepts and thrived on the collective foundation of intellectual struggle, dialogue, and constructive criticism. Its modus operandi revolved around frantic demands to the appropriate authorities and demonstrations against the exploitation of Ogoni land by Shell and the Nigerian Government. In 1990, under the auspices of Kenule Saro-Wiwa, the major leaders in this Movement collectively synergised their efforts and drafted a Bill of Rights which constituted of twenty points that publicised the interest of the Ogoni people. Also the movement agitated for political sovereignty, resource control and the right to utilise economic resources for the development of Ogoni land. Again they demanded that the Ogoni people should be compensated by the Federal government and Petrol-businesses as payment for the damage done on their land. They also fought for the right to take complete control over their environment so as to protect the area from future degradation. This led to the arrest, trial and hanging of Kenule Saro-Wiwa alongside other Ogoni activists by the Nigerian military government under the administration of late General Sani Abacha on the 5th of November 1995 despite various call from international organisations and human rights groups against the

execution of the activist and his colleagues.

iii) Egbesu Boys: Between 1998 and 1999 a group of youths from the oil-producing communities in consonance with the “Aleibiri Declaration” embarked on rampageous destruction of oil installations in the Niger Delta and attacks on transnational company workers. This led to total unrest in the region in view of the activities of the self-acclaimed “Egbesu Boys of Africa”. The main aim of the struggle was to ensure the dividends of the oil proceeds were given to the area where this resource was derived from. However, there was need for the empowerment of the unemployed youths in the region and the need for clean-up of the dilapidated environment.

iv) Niger Delta People’s Volunteer Force: This group was championed by Alhaji Mujahid Asari-Dokubo, an Ijaw youth leader from Rivers State. The main focus of the group was to ensure that violent struggle was perpetrated through the use of arms against the federal government of Nigeria. When the peaceful protests and other conventional means to address the Niger Delta people’s marginalisation had ended without tangible results, Asari Dokubo and his group engaged in hostage-taking of expatriates working in transnational companies and the destruction of oil installations within the region. The youths were forced to reside in the creeks due to the nature of their activities and Asari Dokubo was arrested by the Federal troops in November 2005. His arrest led to the formation of a fiercer militant group.

v) Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta: This is one of the militant groups in the Niger Delta region that was headed by Jomo Gbomo. The youths organised themselves after a famous activist and militant leader Asari Dokubo was arrested by the Nigerian federal government. Among the activities carried out by this group was the destruction of Agip oil installation in Brass Local Government Area of Bayelsa State. They went on a rampage kidnapping workers of transnational oil companies in the region and their specific targets included American, British and French expatriates. They also came up with the following demands:

- a) Asari-Dokubo should be released from detention.
- b) Oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta should be paid compensation by the transnational companies especially in areas affected by oil spillages.
- c) The people of Niger Delta should be given access to control and manage the resources in their land.
- d) All the youths from the Niger Delta held in detention by the Nigerian federal government due to their agitation in the region should be released completely.

The activities of these groups continued until government of the day released Asari Dokubo in June 2007. Other leaders in the Niger Delta such as the leader of the Pan Niger Delta Forum (PANDEF) Edwin Clark, frantically advocated for the grant of national pardon for the agitators so that peace could return to the region. Also, Clark clamoured for the institution of enhanced empowerment programmes

aimed at the rehabilitation, reorientation and reintegration of the militant youths back into the society (Ojakorotu, 2009). The administration of late President Umaru Musa Yara'dua, especially having an illustrious son of the Niger Delta as the then Vice President, Goodluck Ebele Jonathan, welcomed the pleas of Edwin Clark and took steps to actualise them.

According to Peter (2013), social unrest has ravished the Niger Delta region and made life difficult for the people. The continuous activities of Nigerian security agencies have in addition promoted criminality in the area instead of addressing the main issue of violent aggression by the youths of oil-producing communities. Nwosu (2011) enumerated the following as the effects of social unrest on the living conditions of oil-producing communities:

- i. Decayed infrastructure
- ii. Destruction of properties
- iii. Insecurity
- iv. Low standard of living
- v. Lack of basic social amenities
- vi. Poverty
- vii. Unemployment

Transnational Oil Companies

Alexander (2014) opines that transnational companies are organisations, conglomerates and ventures whose networks of operations span across more than four countries and are evident in different continents. These companies have different national headquarters situated in the countries of their operations and employees from different countries in different departments in terms of functions with clearly stated modes of operations. The Transnational companies operating in

the Niger Delta region include Shell, Chevron, Total F, Exxon Mobil and Agip. These companies have been perceived by the Niger Delta people to have opposing interests to that of the region, with regards to their foot-dragging action in implementing suitable and necessary Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) programmes and employment opportunities within their host oil-producing communities. Instead, they have been accused of utilising more expatriates and professionals from other geopolitical zones as their employees while the youths from the host communities are left roaming the streets in search of jobs (Ekong, 2009).

According to Kadilo (2014), the precipitating issue of crisis in the Niger Delta has adverse effect not only on the oil-producing communities but also on the transnational companies operating in the area as follows:

- i. Destruction of oil installations
- ii. Oil bunkering
- iii. Pipeline vandalism
- iv. Kidnapping

For example, reacting to their negligence, the youths in oil-producing communities have taken up arms severally to express their grievances against the exploitation and marginalisation meted on them by the government and the transnational companies. Considering the wealth that flows from their communities with no noteworthy development situated in the area, the whole area is suffering from huge environmental decadence, which is a recipe from the operations of transnational companies in the region. It is difficult to actually say that the transformation of the oil and gas

industry resulted in a change in the living condition of the oil-producing communities. Also, it is imperative to ask if the absence of development equally means that there is underdevelopment in the oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta? Can violence be seen as the benchmark for measuring underdevelopment in the Niger Delta? Has the poverty ratio in the Niger Delta reduced? What is the situation of unemployment? And how can income inequality be handled? These are the questions that must be answered before one can actually attest to the fact that there is an atom of development in the Niger Delta (Seers, 1973; Iruonagbe, 2011; Nwankwo, 2009). According to Jeremiah (2017), anywhere there is underdevelopment and exploitation, the weeds of restiveness grows to overshadow the peace that once existed. There is a limit to which one can be marginalised, no matter the level of conformity and containment. The attributes of violence will always spring out like smoke and if not handled at the preliminary stage it could wreak havoc and disaster on the area. The youth restiveness in the Niger Delta can be linked to the neglect of the people by the government and the continuous environmental pollution on the part of the transnational companies. This is further compounded by the lack of efforts on the accused agencies and the Federal government to ensure a thorough clean-up of affected areas in the region.

Theoretical Framework

The following theories will be used to explore and explain the scientific underpinnings of this study;

- i) General Strain Theory (GST).
- ii) Frustration Aggression Theory

The General Strain Theory was propounded by Robert Agnew in 1992. Agnew closely observed crime in societies and made valid assertions on youth involvement in criminal activities. His position was a critique of the strain postulation by R. K. Merton, which focused on goals and means within the society as the major factor driving people into crime, particularly when they cannot achieve their goals through the legally accepted means.

Agnew argued that a strain is characterised by the following:

- i. Unjust tensions
- ii. High magnitude of anxieties
- iii. Connection with poor social control
- iv. Engendered pressure, thereby making people involved in illegitimate acts

According to Agnew, people who engage in criminal activities have low social control due to the pressure that society places on them. They, therefore, join bad gangs in order to achieve their goals since they are not able to get it through conventional means. Furthermore, Agnew identified three kinds of strain-inducing stimuli which are:

- i. The helplessness to attain clearly valued goals
- ii. The elimination of positive stimuli
- iii. Inclusion of toxic stimuli

This theory, in relation to the crisis in the Niger Delta, especially when it comes to resource control and the plight of the people, explains that although the youths and the entire Niger Delta citizenry have a goal which is to attain a better life, yet they are unable to achieve

it. This is due to the negligence and abandonment they suffer at the hands of government and the transnational companies which are rather concerned about the profit they are making than the plight of members of their host communities. The corrupt government officials and politicians are after their own selfish interests by expropriating excess wealth for themselves while the entire region is steeped in abject poverty and their residents suffer poor living standards coupled with low life expectancy. This ugly scenario has remained a trigger that pushes the youths into the destruction of pipelines and hostage taking as well as engage in illegal bunkering to earn a living because they are not employed by the companies operating in the region.

The second aspect of the strain-inducing stimulus, according to Agnew, is the removal of positive stimulus. This can be likened to the withdrawal of pipeline surveillance contract offered to ex-militants and the stoppage of their monthly stipends as well as their skill acquisition training by President Mohammadu Buhari-led administration in 2015. This resulted in the uprising of Niger Delta Avengers (NDA) whose main aim was to cripple the economy of Nigeria by bombing pipelines and other oil installations belonging to international oil companies in the region. The addition of negative stimulus here involves the Federal government using the military to wipe out the militants instead of engaging in dialogue. For example, the government introduced "Operation Crocodile Smile" in the Niger Delta region which triggered more casualties on the side of

the Nigerian soldiers and the militants. The aggrieved youths were eager to engage in more attacks to disrupt oil explorations and destroy many facilities owned by the transnational oil firms which they knew would affect Nigeria's foreign exchange earnings.

Notwithstanding, Frustration Aggression theory was founded by notable psychologists in the Yale Institute of Human Relations in 1939, namely: J. Dollard, L. Doob, N. Miller, O. H Mowrer, and R. Sears. They published a Monograph which contained the experiment carried out by them that birthed the theory. The theory was developed by Berkowitz in 1989 when he published the frustration aggression hypothesis; the theory has become useful to disciplines including Psychology, Anthropology, Political Science, Economics and Sociology (Ted, 2013). The central argument of this theory is that persons who are under undue pressure become frustrated by the happenings around them. This could be propelled by external forces in the form of exploitation which eventually leads to a stimulus response of aggression or negative reaction. This negative response is capable of destroying the existing social order and as such can lead to a revolution (Beckley, 2009). According to Dollard, Miller, Doob, Mowrer and Sears, "One of the easiest lessons human beings learn, as a result of social living, is to suppress and restrain their overtly aggressive reactions". This shows that an individual who has endured deep-rooted economic hopelessness is more prone to regressively transform from a frustrated individual to an aggressive one and this

will most likely hike the propensity of such a person to engage in violent activities (Declan 2011). According to Sarabjit (2012), the various conflicts faced by the people in the Niger Delta is a reflection of the frustration that they have experienced which is as a product of their oil-motivated economic deprivation. The major beneficiaries of oil in the region are government officials and traditional rulers whose focus is torch lighted on and development of areas dominated by majority ethnic groups at the detriment of minority groups. Ajibade (2009) observes that the transnational companies in the Niger Delta have engaged in drillings, productions, refining, and distribution, a situation that has generated significant environmental stress such as the pressure on fishermen and farmers to abandon their occupations as a result of the degradation of the water bodies and land. In respect to this, the danger of oil exploration and production activities in the Niger Delta has forced the youths to engage in criminal activities, in such a way that they expressed their aggression in the form of the destruction of oil installations, kidnapping and hostage-taking. Since there is no proper structure of ensuring sustainable development in the region and the people have been exploited, violence became the order of the day, as different militants groups such as the Niger Delta Avengers (NDA), Niger Delta Peoples volunteer force (NDVF) and Movement for the emancipation of Niger Delta (MEND) emerged to confront the oppression and marginalisation.

There is a synergy between the two theories in explaining the study. Social unrest and youth restiveness occurred in the Niger Delta, because of the presence of strain which is the removal of positive stimuli. The positive stimuli include youth employment and empowerment, basic social amenities and development of infrastructure; the absence of these essential necessities within the rich oil-producing communities frustrated the youths. The aggressive nature of the youths became more visible when Nigerian security agencies were sent into the region to arrest and eliminate the violent youths. This became the negative stimuli that were introduced in the region with the aim of getting restive youths out of the way. However, this led to more crises in the region as youths armed themselves and there was increase in criminal activities.

There are several researches that have been done on issues about restiveness in the Niger Delta and this study drew some reflections from them. Most importantly, the study also identifies the gap neglected by other authors. Iruonagbe (2011), in his work, established that the situation in the Niger Delta region is paradoxical considering the level of poverty in the midst of mass wealth. Jeff (2014) opines that the level of unemployment in the Niger Delta is eighty-nine percent (89%), kidnapping is seventy-six percent (76%) and cultism is eighty-one percent (81%). In line with this, Chucks and Derrick (2012), in their study also identified that the level of social unrest and agitations in the Niger Delta is hinged on eighty-five percent (85%) of

protracted environmental decadence and ninety-three percent (93%) of oil politics played by the government and transnational companies. Furthermore the proliferation of weapons in the hands of oil-producing community youths was reported by Barida (2014) as the tactics of political gladiators in the region, to suck more wealth from the transnational companies. Seventy-six percent (76%) of the militant youths are used as armed thugs for the electioneering process of politicians in the region. Eighty-four percent (84%) of the weapons used by the youths are bought by politicians in the Niger Delta. Elechi and Nwafor (2012) opines that the transnational oil companies are responsible for eighty-nine percent (89%) of the crisis in oil-producing communities through their adoption of different factional groups from the traditional rulers, politicians and the youth movements as community representatives. The study by Elechi and Nwafor (2012) further mentions that there is a sixty-nine percent (69%) reduction in demands from oil-producing communities when there is crisis. Hence, the transnational companies tend to conserve more resources and completely neglect the basic needs and welfare of the communities.

Material and Methods

This study adopted quantitative and qualitative research methods in which a

questionnaire was designed for data collection and were administered to respondents. The qualitative data were collected through key informant interview, multi-stage and purposive sampling techniques were used in the study. The study area covers the entire Niger Delta area, particularly the oil-producing communities within Eleme Local Government Area in Rivers State. It was purposively selected as the sample for the entire region because of its strategic importance in the location of transnational companies. Data used for the study were obtained from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data were collected through the administering of 250 copies of questionnaire to respondents and key informant interviews were conducted for community leaders and transnational company workers from community and public relations unit while secondary data were obtained from the relevant published works done by other authors. Respondents were residents in the study area who fell within the age groups of 16- 45 years.

The quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) where they were arranged and presented in the form of tables and regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses. The qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis.

Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

Table 1: Social demographic characteristics of respondents.

Sex of Respondents	F	%	Marital Status of Respondents	F	%
Male	116	55	Single	58	27.5
Female	95	45	Married	45	21.3
Total	211	100	Divorced	32	15.2
			Widowed	41	19.4
Age of Respondents	F	%	Separated	35	16
16-25	73	34.6	Total	211	100
26-35	85	40.3			
36-45	53	25.1	Religion of Respondents	F	%
Total	211	100	Christianity	139	65.9
			Islam	65	30.8
	F	%	African Tradition Religion	7	3.3
	23	10.9	Total	211	100
Academic Qualification	F	%	Occupation	F	%
Informal Education	23	10.9	Civil servant	23	10.9
Primary Education	57	27	Trading	35	16.7
High School	51	24	Teaching	31	14.8
Bsc/HND	42	19.9	Fishing	54	25.7
Post Graduate Degree	38	18	Farming	49	23
Total	211	100	Student	19	9
			Total	211	100

Source: Researchers, 2019

Table 2: Response on Social unrest in the Niger Delta

Variables	SD		D		U		A		SA		Total
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
Social unrest on the living conditions of oil-producing communities											
Decayed Infrastructure	23	10.9	27	12.9	31	14.8	63	30	67	31.4	211
High level of Unemployment	14	6.7	19	9	27	12.9	78	37.1	73	34.3	211
Low-standard of living	9	4.3	17	8.1	29	13.8	74	35.2	82	38.6	211
The relationship between youth restiveness and underdevelopment											
Increased pipeline vandalism	23	10.9	29	13.8	43	20.5	58	27.5	58	27.5	211
High rate of oil bunkering	17	8.1	23	10.9	38	18.1	64	30.5	69	32.4	211
Kidnapping	21	10	28	13.3	31	14.8	51	23.4	80	37.6	211
Destruction of oil facilities	13	6.2	15	7.1	27	12.9	69	32.9	87	40.9	211
The activities of Transnational companies on the environment											
Oil spillage	4	1.9	11	5.2	35	16.7	87	41.4	74	34.8	211

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water pollution	11	5.2	19	9	26	12.4	69	32.9	86	40.5	211
Death of aquatic life	7	3.3	13	6.2	33	15.7	75	35.7	83	39.1	211
land infertility	15	7.1	21	10	29	13.8	71	33.6	75	35.3	211
Air contamination	19	9	25	11.9	32	15.2	64	30.5	69	32.4	211
Low-life expectancy	8	3.8	17	8.1	28	13.3	73	34.8	85	40	211

Source: Researchers, 2019

Findings of the Study

The First table shows that 45% of the respondents were females while majority of the respondents which constitute 55% were men. About 25.1% of the respondents were within the ages of 36-45 years, 34.6% of the respondents were within the age bracket of 16-25 years, while majority of the respondents which comprises 0.3% were within the ages of 26-35 years. Respondents that were divorced stood at about 15.2%, 16.6% were separated, 19.4% were widowed, 21.3% were married while 27.5% which constitutes majority of the respondents were single. While 3.3% of the respondents were devotees of African Traditional Religion, 30.8% were Muslims and the majority of respondents (65.9%) were Christians. Regarding education, 10.9% of the respondents were not educated formally, 18% were postgraduate degree holders, 19.9% had Bachelor degrees, 24.2% had high school certificates while many more (27%) were primary school certificate holders. The occupation of respondents as indicated in the table shows that 9% were students, 10.9% were civil servants, 14.8% were teachers, 16.7% were traders, 23% were farmers and the majority who were into Fishing were 25.7%.

The second table reveals that low standard of living, high level of unemployment and decayed

infrastructure in the Niger Delta, were the triggers for youth restiveness. The response for Decayed infrastructure indicates that 10.9% and 12.9% of the respondents did not consider Decayed infrastructure as an instigator of youth restiveness, 14.8% were undecided while 30% and 31.4% affirmed that Decayed infrastructure propelled youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. Regarding High rate of unemployment as a source of social unrest, 6.7% strongly disagreed, 9% disagreed, 12.9% were undecided, 37.1% whom were the majority agreed, and 34.1% strongly agreed. For low standard of living, 4.3% and 8.1% of respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively, 13.8% were undecided, 35.2% agreed while 38.4% strongly agreed.

In corroboration with the quantitative data presented, key informant interviews with community leaders of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta, explained the alarming level of infrastructural decadence within their environment. Transnational companies were accused of being interested in the profit they made from oil exploration without considering the living conditions of their host communities. The community leaders explained that youths from the area were not employed by transnational companies, rather people from other regions and

expatriates were usually absorbed as employees in the companies. They further regretted that the living standards of oil-producing communities were low in spite of the wealth in their environment. Transnational companies' representative explained that, although they carry out corporate social responsibilities in their host communities, it is left with the community leaders to substantiate it, since they serve as the representatives of the community. Factional leadership and chieftaincy tussles were identified by the transnational companies' representative as factors affecting the oil-producing communities. Most times they are confused with whom to liaise with as community representatives, when it comes to employment opportunities for the oil-producing communities.

The table also shows the relationship between youth restiveness and underdevelopment, for pipeline vandalism 10.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed that it has been on the increase, 13.8% disagreed, 20.5% were undecided and 27.5% agreed and strongly agreed simultaneously. It was revealed that 8.1% of the respondents strongly disagreed on the high rate of oil bunkering, 10.9% disagreed, 18.1% opted out with undecided positions, 30.5% agreed and 32.4% who were the majority strongly agreed. While 10% of the respondents strongly disagreed on Kidnapping in the Niger Delta, 13.3% disagreed, 14.8% stood on the fence with undecided stance, 23.4% agreed and 37.4% strongly agreed. For the destruction of oil facilities, 6.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed, 7.1%

disagreed, 12.9% claimed to be undecided, 32.9% agreed whereas 40.9% of the respondents strongly agreed.

These were supported by the outcomes of the interview respondents from the oil-producing community, who enumerated that by virtue of the challenges that the people were confronted with some of the youths, out of frustration and anger, resorted to the illegitimate activities for survival such as pipeline vandalism, kidnapping, destruction of oil installation facilities and oil bunkering. This forced the government to send the military into the Niger Delta creeks with the aim of wiping out the militants. The representative from the transnational companies explained that their operations in the Niger Delta have been affected by the activities of youths. Several of their workers have been kidnapped and huge ransoms demanded by their abductors. However, some of their facilities have been destroyed while others were vandalised. They went further to say that the rate of kidnapping is very high in the region and the transnational companies have to pay heavily for the security of their workers, although it got to a point when they had to relocate from the entire region because of the level of restiveness.

The table reveals that 1.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed that oil spillage is a reflection of the activities of transnational companies on the environment of oil-producing communities, 5.2% disagreed, 16.7% remained undecided, 41.1% agreed while 34.8% strongly agreed. For water

pollution, 5.2% strongly disagreed, 9% disagreed, 12.4% were undecided, 32.9% agreed and 40.5% strongly agreed. The death of aquatic life is illustrated in the table with 3.3% of respondents, who strongly disagreed, 6.2% disagreed, 15.7% indicated that they were undecided, 35.7% agreed, 39.1% strongly agreed. For land infertility, 7.1% of the respondents strongly disagreed that it was caused by the activities of transnational companies on the environment of oil-producing communities, 10% disagreed, 13.8% chose to be undecided, 33.6% agreed and 35.3% strongly agreed. While 9% of the respondents strongly disagreed on air contamination in oil-producing communities, 11.9% disagreed, 15.2% were undecided, 30.5% agreed, and 32.4% strongly agreed. The distribution for low life expectancy is revealed in the table, as 3.8% of the respondents strongly disagreed that it was the byproduct from the activities of transnational companies, 8.1% disagreed, 13.3% did not decide, 34.8% agreed, while 40% strongly agreed.

In consonance with this, the community leaders through an interview explained that the activities of transnational companies in the Niger Delta have generated environmental hazards that are unhealthy for the people of the region. The respondents agreed that oil spillage, water pollution (both underground and surface water), death of aquatic life, land infertility, air pollution and low-life expectancy were

major challenges facing oil-producing communities, as a result of the activities of transnational companies operating in the region. The community leaders explained that oil spillage sites have been left untouched for over three (3) decades and that this has affected the entire environment. Representatives of the transnational companies explained that eighty percent (80%) oil spillage at their operational bases were caused by youths who indulged in illegal oil refinery, oil bunkering and pipeline vandalism. They mentioned that although there were plans to clean up most of the affected areas, such were a collaborative effort between the companies and the government. They, however, cited government's lack of readiness to provide the required support. They believed that when government provides the need input, the transnational companies would have no choice than to take pragmatic response. Thus, the submitted that the current challenge involving regular attacks on oil facilities by restive youths could further frustrate the clean-up process.

Hypotheses Test

Hypothesis 1: There is a connection between social unrest and the living conditions of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta.

Results

Multiple R is represented as 0.711

R Square is represented as 0.657

Adjusted R Square is represented as 0.648

Table 3

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.711 ^a	.657	.648	631.212

a. Predictors: (Constant), High level of unemployment

b. independent Variable: Low standard of living

From the table, it is evident that the R value indicates some levels of correlation. However, the R square explains that high level of unemployment in the Niger Delta has

resulted in the people having low-living standards, which has made the youths in the area to embrace violence as the means of improving their condition.

Table 4

Anova						
Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	63.364	1	21.121	21.055	.000 ^b
	Residual	179.565	210	1.003		
	Total	242.929	211			

a. Independent Variable: Low-standard of Living

b. Predictors: (Constant), High level of Unemployment

The table shows that the regression indicates the dependent variable which is significant at 0.00 levels.

Table 5

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.675	.160		3.876	.000
	High level unemployment	.611	.176	.618	6.724	.000
	Low-standard of Living	.288	.168	.265	3.879	.000

a. Dependent Variable: High level unemployment

$$Y = b_0 + b_1c_1 + b_2c_2 + b_3c_3$$

This model can be explained as follows:

Y = (Response variable)

b₀ = (Independent variable)

b₁, b₂, b₃, represent the coefficients

c₁, c₂, c₃ are the values of the term

The table shows that the coefficient for high level of unemployment is 0.611,

standard error remains at 0.176 and beta coefficient is 0.618. Therefore it is statistically significant because the P. value is at .000 level of significance which is less than (<) .005.

The coefficient for low-standard of living is 0.288, standard error is 0.168

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and beta coefficient is stated as 0.265. Therefore it is statistically significant because the P. value is at .000 level of significance which is less than (<) .005.

This means that for every unit increase in the level of unemployment, a 0.29 unit increase in Low-standard of living is predicted, holding all other variables constant.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between youth restiveness and underdevelopment in the Niger Delta.

Results

Multiple R is represented as 0.688

R Square is represented as 0.638

Adjusted R Square is represented as 0.634

Table 6

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.688 ^a	.638	.634	693.587

a. Predictors: (Constant), Increased Pipeline vandalism

b. independent Variable: High rate of oil bunkering

The table reveals that the R value indicates some levels of correlation. However, the R square explains that increase in pipeline vandalism in the

Niger Delta has a relationship with high rate of oil bunkering by the youths of oil-producing communities.

Table 7

Anova

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	61.292	1	19.179	20.133	.000 ^b
	Residual	167.421	210	1.004		
	Total	361.735	211			

a. Independent Variable: High rate of oil bunkering

b. Predictors: (Constant), Increased Pipeline vandalism

The table illustrates that the regression specifies the dependent variable which is significant at 0.00 levels.

Table 8

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
		1	(Constant)	.642		
	Increased pipeline vandalism	.637	.192	.629	6.938	.000
	High rate of oil bunkering	.316	.183	.425	2.637	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Increased Pipeline vandalism

$$Y = b_0 + b_1c_1 + b_2c_2 + b_3c_3$$

This model can be explained as follows:

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Y = (Response variable)

b₀ = (Independent variable)

b₁, b₂, b₃, represent the coefficients

c₁, c₂, c₃ are the values of the term

The table reveals that the coefficient for Increased Pipeline vandalism is 0.637, standard error remains at 0.192 and beta coefficient is 0.629. Therefore, it is statistically significant because the P. value is at .000 level of significance which is less than (<) .005.

The coefficient for high rate of oil bunkering is 0.316, standard error is 0.183 and beta coefficient is stated as 0.425. Therefore, it is statistically significant because the P. value is at 0.00 level of significance which is less than (<) .005.

This means that for every unit increase in Pipeline vandalism, a 0.32 unit increase in oil bunkering is expected, provided that all other variables remain unchanged.

Hypothesis 3: The nexus between the activities of transnational companies and the environment of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta.

Results

Multiple R is represented as 0.645

R Square is represented as 0.629

Adjusted R Square is represented as 0.618

Table 9

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.645 ^a	.629	.618	671.425

a. Predictors: (Constant), Oil spillage

b. independent Variable: Land infertility

The table shows that the R value indicates some levels of correlation. However, the R square explains that a rapid increase in oil spillage in oil-

producing communities has an association with land infertility within the affected area.

Table 10

Anova

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	72.441	1	23.392	24.496	.001 ^b
	Residual	246.397	210	1.027		
	Total	483.648	211			

a. Independent Variable: Land infertility

b. Predictors: (Constant), Oil spillage

The table illustrates that the regression specifies the dependent variable which is significant at 0.01 levels.

Table 11

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.619	.231		4.598	.000
	Oil spillage	.622	.187	.571	5.721	.000
	Land infertility	.417	.179	.439	3.859	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Land infertility

$$Y = b_0 + b_1c_1 + b_2c_2 + b_3c_3$$

This model can be explained as follows:

Y = (Response variable)

b₀ = (Independent variable)

b₁, b₂, b₃, represent the coefficients

c₁, c₂, c₃ are the values of the term

The coefficient for oil spillage is showcased in the table as 0.622, the standard error is 0.187 and the beta coefficient is 0.571, it is regarded as statistically significant because the P. value is at 0.00 level of significance.

The coefficient for land infertility is 0.417, standard error is 0.179 and the beta coefficient is 0.439, this is statistically significant since the P. value is at 0.00 level of significance and is less than (<) 0.05.

Therefore, for every unit increase in oil spillage there is a 0.42 increase in land infertility, when all other variables are considered constant.

Discussion of Findings

The following were observed after the analysis of the data from the field. High level of unemployment is appropriate and has a positive relationship with low standard of living. Therefore, the two are significantly related because the ‘b’ coefficient is positive and it is statistically significant at 0.0%.

Consequently, from the above analysis, the hypothesis is accepted. This is because there is a significant

relationship between high level of unemployment and low standard of living, which are seen as the forces that propel youth restiveness in the Niger Delta. In consonance with this discovery, the oil-producing community leaders explained that the level of unemployment in their community among youths has skyrocketed and this has trickled down to the living standard of the people which is low. But this restiveness is more glaring because of the frustration of the youths who cannot secure jobs especially when they are surrounded by companies that can provide lucrative employment.

Also, increased pipeline vandalism has a positive relationship with high rate of oil bunkering; the two variables are statistically significant at 0.0% with the ‘b’ coefficient in positive. This means that a rise in pipeline vandalism in the Niger Delta leads to an increase in oil bunkering because once the pipeline is vandalised, the next step is to bunker the petroleum product. In line with this, a representative of the transnational firms affirmed that several times when the oil pipelines were vandalised by the restive youths, they set up illegal refineries in different locations in the creeks.

The nexus between the activities of transnational companies and the

environment of oil-producing communities in the Niger Delta was tested in the study, showing that oil spillage has a positive relationship with land infertility. These variables are statistically significant at 0.0% and the 'b' coefficient is positive. Also, for every increase in oil spillage in the Niger Delta, the fertility of lands becomes destroyed. The community leaders expressed their grievance in their inability to cultivate crops on their lands as a result of soil pollution and land degradation. This has further impoverished the people as no compensation has been paid.

Conclusion

The Niger Delta is a region blessed with the abundance of natural resources, yet the people are living in abject poverty. Many of the indigenes in the region cannot access quality education and basic social amenities. The environment has been negatively affected, to a large extent, by the activities of transnational oil companies operating in the area leading to low-life expectancy for most of the residents. Their situation is further compounded by the activities of corrupt politicians in government, who

deprive their people of the dividends that should have accrued to them as a result of the blessing of nature on their land. The situation has, therefore, forced the youths to embrace violence as a means for survival. This study, therefore, concludes that to turn around the fortunes of the afflicted and affected people of the Niger Delta region, government needs to be committed more to the improvement of the human development indices of the people. This can be done by providing them with the basic things of life such as good and potable water, modern infrastructure befitting the sacrifices the people have been forced to pay due to oil exploration and exploitation activities in the area and granting more economic benefits, including employment opportunities, to the people. Transnational oil corporations should also commit more resources to their corporate social responsibility programmes towards the Niger Delta people and ensure that these benefits get to the people. These corrective measures, if implemented, will surely bring about a win-win situation for all the parties concerned.

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Upon the findings made in this study, the following recommendations are proffered:

- i. The government should ensure that proper dialogue is made with the people and the transnational companies operating in the area so that issues that would enable lasting peace would be addressed.
- ii. The government and the transnational oil firms should implement the agreed memorandum of understanding to the oil-producing communities.

- iii. There should be provision of essential basic infrastructures prominent of which are clean water, good roads, healthcare facilities and standard educational facilities in the area.
- iv. Youths who are qualified professionals and skilled artisans from the Niger Delta and are living in the region should be absorbed into the transnational oil-companies as a way of engaging the unemployed populace in that area.
- v. There should be rapid response of cleanup in areas affected by oil spillage in order to reduce the level of hazards on the ecosystem.
- vi. The transnational companies should not be involved in internal community issues such as sponsoring factions of traditional, political and youth leadership. This will reduce the level of crisis in the oil-producing region.
- vii. The community development committee should be neutral and accountable in the discharge of their duties towards bringing development to the grassroots instead of acquiring wealth and enriching themselves at the expense of the people.

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International Business Environment and Constraints of Small and Medium Enterprises in Nigeria

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Abstract: The extent to which environmental factors affect small and medium and enterprises (SMEs) in emerging markets has been controversial in recent time. Also, the internationalization of businesses appear to achieve advance reckoning as a result of the influence of globalization on most national economies giving rise to decrease in environmental barriers and government-imposed barriers due to continuous improvement in technology. The population of the study consisted of randomly selected employees of selected manufacturing and services SMEs, in Nigeria. A total sample of 334 respondents was considered through the administration of a structured questionnaire. The statistical tools included multiple regression and correlation analysis through the SPSS computer packages. The results showed that foreign legal systems (FLS), has significant relationship on the businesses' survival rate (at $P=0.00$). It was also found out that cultural differences (CD) has significant relationship with business sales (at $P=0.00$). Hence, the study recommends that Businesses must ensure they carry-out proper environmental analysis before entering the international market as this will help in identifying critical issues that needs to be solved before eventually entering the international market that is even more competitive than the local market.

Keywords: International Business, Environmental Contraints, Small and Medium Enterprises.

JEL CODES: M1, M16

Introduction

The quest for rapid growth and sustainability of international businesses has been one of the major significant world trends in recent time. Emerging businesses or Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are companies whose number of employees or turnover are within certain limits as described in definitions by governmental policy making body. SMEs are the major creator of jobs and contribute immensely to economic and social growth (Audretsch, Thurik, Verheul and Wennekers, 2002). The internationalization of SMEs seem to gain further reckoning due to globalization influence on most national economies resulting to decline in environmental barriers and government-imposed barriers due to continuous advances in technology (Jane and Beamish, 2009). The study on international business focuses on the multi country peculiarity problems and opportunities that emerging SMEs can take competitive advantage on to achieve internationalization status because an emerging internationalizing firm operates beyond the shores of their country of incorporation (DiTella and MacCulloch, 2005). Many environmental constraints that affect businesses such as climate, foreign exchange rate volatility, legal system and cultural differences have emerged as a result of this. The peculiarity of international firms is their dynamism to operate in environments that are highly uncertain with ambiguous rules subject to rapid change mitigating the freedom to act as compared to the domestic environment (Akinbola, Sanni and Akinbola, 2018). Managers who are committed to identifying new ways of satisfying the changing priorities of foreign markets have competitive

advantage over competitors who cannot easily adapt.

Statement of Research Problem

Emerging businesses are often ignorant about the legislation that governs their activities or do not understand what is required which has resulted in difficulties in understanding what compliance involves. Low level of competence and capacity to adapt to environmental legal systems and sustainable techniques in industrial development is a key factor affecting the compliance behavior of emerging businesses. As a result of variance in legal systems, many frameworks have been developed to help companies identify opportunities and problems within global market with reference to cross-country comparison (Doole and Lowe, 2004).

Also, cultural differences, is one of the most difficult problems in international business. SMEs going international often encounter problems arising out of the differences in the languages, beliefs, norms and values (Terpstra and Sarathy, 2000). Even when the same language is used in different countries, the same words of terms may have different meanings. As such, when these cultural differences are not taken into account, they may affect the business sales and profit.

To this effect, this research tends to appraise the international business and the environmental constraints of small and medium enterprises through these hypotheses;

H₀₁: Foreign legal systems does not significantly affect emerging markets businesses survival rate.

H₀₂: Cultural differences do not significantly affect business sales

Review of Literature on concept of International business and Environment

International business includes any typography of commercial doings that crosses state borders. Nonetheless, an amount of definitions exist in the organization texts whereas there is no universally traditional description for the dub global business. Overseas multinational refers to domestic operations contained by a strange country. Comparative concern focuses on similarities and differences surrounded by countries and concern systems that focus on similarities and differences amongst countries. The affair operations and comparative responsibility as fields of enquiry perform does not comprise the foremost cape of relevance which causes the extraordinary harms that come up as soon as SMEs go across state boundaries. The distinguishing features of intercontinental affair is that intercontinental firms manage in environments that are very in doubt and whose set of laws of the game are habitually ambiguous, contradictory, and subject to speedy change, as compared to the domestic environment (Bernadine, 2015). Environmental constraints are limitations on businesses on looseness to act or get something done as a consequence of limitations on the role of the surrounding or getting environment to handle with subsequent impacts, as compared to the domestic environment (Wenman, 2012). As a product of this, there are countless environmental constraints that impinge on crucial aspects of company such as climate, climate change, weather,

pollution, and availability of non-renewable possessions or resources.

Framework for analyzing international business environment

Environmental examination is clear as the means by which strategists televise the economic, lawmaking or legal, sell or competitive, supplier or technological, geographic and group settings to resolve opportunities and threats to their firms. The explanation of environmental examination agreed above has been ended in the environment of the strategic management procedure for an accessible firm. It is, however, extremely palpable that environmental psychoanalysis is the basis of new firm break scrutiny too. Kotler (1996) describes marketing environment check as the initial factor of a Marketing Audit, but in the beforehand editions of his book, the explanation of Marketing assess does not inflict with any character reference to the environment. An psychotherapy of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) is precise a lot necessary for the small business plan formulation. Precisely as the time and victory of an individual depend on his inherent capability, counting physiological factors, character and skills, to hack it with the environment, the survival and star of a matter compact depend on its native concentration.

How to measure internationalization of SMEs

For policy decision makers, it is insightful to understand the degrees and level of SME internationalization economies. A proper understanding of internationalization could assist policies

to be more specific and directed. In some climes, Internationalization is closely linked with strategies of industrial development for economic competitiveness. In actual fact, European Commission (2003) discovered that innovation and internationalization share a positive causal effect on competitiveness. Successful born-global SMEs are good examples of this. On the other hand, business patterns are constantly evolving and this makes it difficult to find a sound methodology to measure the degree of internationalization across time.

Inference to Porter Five Forces Analysis Theory of Competition

The competition SMEs probably meet in their internationalization is described by using “Porter five forces analysis in relation to other factors” (Porter, 2006), which includes; the threat of substitute products, the threat of the entry of new competitors, the intensity of competitive rivalry, the bargaining power of customers and the bargaining power of suppliers.

Also, some socio-economic factors, such as age, education, experience, culture, business profile, investment and skills have been indicated to have an influence on the success of small business (Ibidunni and Ogundele, 2013). In Nigeria, it was found that socio-cultural factors do have an influence on the management of small businesses (Kowo, Sabitu and Popoola, 2018). Furthermore, education and the type of SME are additional factors that significantly influence the intention, by the SME industry in Nigeria, to use new technology (Dittella and Macculloch,

2005). On the other hand Porter and Krammer (2006) state that the level of education usually determines the rate and extent to which individuals can assimilate and apply different concepts. At the same time, the authors mention skills as important in enhancing the development of business performance to enable them to successfully fulfill their business management responsibilities within their communities. The literature review stated above suggests that it is very important for SMEs to take account of socio-cultural factors such as age, education levels as well as experiences when bringing products to customers. SMEs need to understand their customers’ socio-cultural factors as these factors play a big role in terms of products consumption and business patronage by consumers.

Empirical Review on foreign legal systems emerging businesses’ survival rate.

Some studies have been conducted on the various legal systems and their effects on international business on emerging businesses in Nigeria and other countries in the world. However, after thorough examination of these researches carried out, it has been established that emerging businesses are deeply affected by these laws. A study carried out by Berg and Cazes (2007) showed that average tenure of emerging SMEs in a high regulated market was approximately 6.2 years, costs associated with labour regulations increase the cost of production and have been blamed for the growth of the informal sector in many economies. In addition, it is well established that a significant proportion of the population

in most developing economies is unemployed or is employed in the informal economy. They argue that if these regulations do not exist or are not harmonized then flexible labour regulation may have an adverse or no effect on employment levels in the economy. In addition, Rodrik, (2000) affirmed that countries with rising or high incomes and good legal systems that calls for equity are more likely to have better regulatory environments which attracts international SMEs.

Methodology

The method espoused for carrying out this research is the survey with reference to ex-post facto. Opinions were gathered by administering questionnaire as well as personal interviews. The sample of the population of the study is based on complete enumeration of the employees of the internationalizing firms since they have the global market exposure and the sample is purposive in nature. The sample consist of three hundred and thirty four (334) employees of 40 internationalizing SMEs in Lagos state gotten from the Lagos State Chamber of Commerce and Industry Databank and based on the criteria that the firms reflected the characteristics of international businesses (All the firms operates globally), they have interacted with more than one country in the course of their operations, and they have been into business from more than 10 years. Ethical issues were considered by protecting the interest of the firms by not declaring the business names on the subject matter.

Data presentation

The research questionnaire was administered to three hundred and thirty

four (334) employees which is the sample size representing the chosen study sample of the SMEs. Of this lot, two hundred and fifty three (253) questionnaires representing 75.5% were returned, and eighty one (81) questionnaires representing 24.5% were not returned.

Frequency Distribution of the Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

The frequency distribution of the respondents' demographic characteristics is presented in table 4.1 below. The table shows that out of the two hundred and fifty three (253) respondents, 159(62.8%) are male, while 94 (37.2%) are female. Which means, constituted more male respondents than male respondents in the sample. In addition, out of the two hundred and fifty three (253) respondents, 87(34.4%) are single while 166 (65.6%) are married. Which means, most of the respondents are married. Also, there are 56 M.SC, M.BA and PhD holders (21.1per cent), 154 NCE/HND/BSc holders (60.9 per cent)and 43 are SSCE holders (17.0 per cent) in the sample. Which means, the respondents have high NCE/HND/BSc educational qualifications.

Again, out of the two hundred and fifty three (253) respondents, 31 (12.3%) are 51 years and above, 53 (20.9%) are between 41 and 50 years of age, 64(25.3%) are between 31 and 40 years, and 105 (41.5) are between 21 and 30 years. Which means most of the respondents are between the age of 21 and 30 years and are economically efficient in contributing to organizational success. Further, 45

respondents (17.8%) have been in the organization for years between 1 – 5, 167 (60.0%) which shows that majority of the respondents have been in the

organization between 6 – 10years while only 41 (22.25) have been in the organization for 11years and above.

Table 4.1 Frequency Distribution of the Respondents’ Demographic Characteristics

Characteristics	Categories	Frequency	Percentages	Cumulative percent
Sex	Male	159	62.8	62.8
	Female	94	37.2	100.0
Marital status	Single	87	34.4	34.4
	Married	166	65.6	100.0
Age	21-30years	105	41.5	41.5
	31-40years	64	25.3	66.8
	41-50years	53	20.9	87.7
	51 years and above	31	12.3	100.0
Education	SSCE	43	17.0	17.0
	NCE/BSC/HND	154	60.9	77.9
	MSC/PhD	56	22.1	100.0
Work experience	1 – 5years	45	17.8	17.8
	6 – 10years	167	60.0	77.8
	11years and above	41	22.2	100.0

Source: Authors’ Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Descriptive Statistics of the Respondents’ Perceptions

In table 4.3 below, concerning legal system (LS), 253 respondents constituted the range of Legal system (LS) from 1 to 3.80 points, with a mean of 1. 09. Which means, the respondents, on average, agreed with questions on legal system (LS). On business survival, constituted 253 respondents; the range of business survival is from 1 to 4.80 points, with a mean of 2.00 and standard deviation of 0.76. This means, the respondents, on average, agreed with questions on Business survival. Concerning foreign exchange market, constituted information from 253 respondents; the range of foreign exchange market is from 1 to 4.80 points, with a mean of 2.03 and standard deviation of 0.66. This means,

the respondents are, on average, agreed with questions on foreign exchange market. Growth of overseas market constituted information from 253 respondents; the range of growth of overseas market is from 1 to 4.60 points, with a mean of 2.00 and standard deviation of 0.68. This means, the respondents are, on average, agreed with questions on growth of overseas market. Cultural differences, constituted information from 253 respondents; the range of Cultural differences is from 1 to 4.39 points, with a mean of 1.92 and standard deviation of 0.55. This means, the respondents, on average, agreed with questions on cultural differences. Business sales/profit constituted information from 253 respondents; the range of Business sales/profit is from

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1.05 to 4.15 points, with a mean of 1.99

and standard deviation of 0.55.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics

VARIABLES	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Legal System	253	1.00	3.80	1.9043	.52932
Business Survival	253	1.00	4.80	1.9984	.75572
Foreign exchange market	253	1.00	4.80	2.0308	.65574
Growth of overseas market	253	1.00	4.60	1.9968	.67939
Cultural Differences	253	1.00	4.30	1.9158	.55364
Business Sales and profit	253	1.05	4.15	1.9947	.55419
Valid N (listwise)	253	-	-	-	-

Source: Author’s Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Data Analysis Based on Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the study are: (1) Foreign legal systems and cultural differences does not significantly affect emerging businesses’ survival rate; (2) There is no significant effect of foreign legal systems and cultural differences on Business Sales and profit. To test these hypotheses and achieve the objectives of the study, multiple regression analysis was used. Multiple regression is based on correlation but allows a more sophisticated exploration of the interrelationship among a set of variables. It makes a number of assumptions about the data which are normality that assumed that the dependent variable is normally distributed (i.e. Small and Medium Enterprises’ performance), multicollinearity that assumed that the independent variables (Entrepreneurship capacity programs i.e Entrepreneurship

training and Information provision) are not highly correlated, also Homoscedasticity which assumed that the variation among observations is even and linearity which assumed that the relationship between dependent and independent variables is linear.

Test of Normality

A normal curve was generated to test for normality of the dependent variable (i.e. businesses’ survival rate and business sales and profit). Fig 4.4.1.1 to 4.4.1.2 presents a normal curve of Emerging Business scores. Many of the parametric statistics assume that the scores on each of the variables are normally distributed (i.e. follow the shape of the normal curve). In this study, the scores are reasonably normally distributed, with most scores occurring in the centre, tapering out towards the extremes.

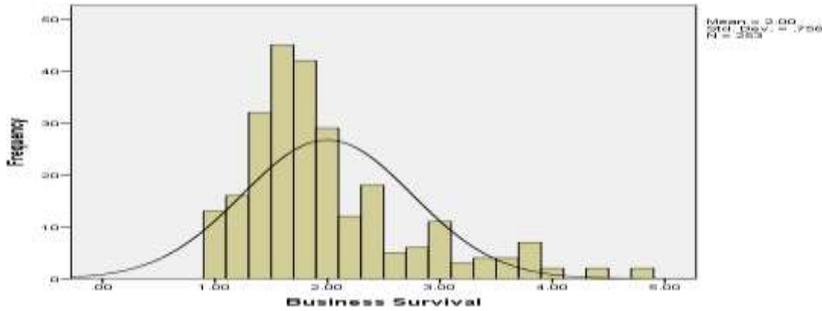


Fig 4.4.1.1: Histogram of Perceived Business survival Scores.
 Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

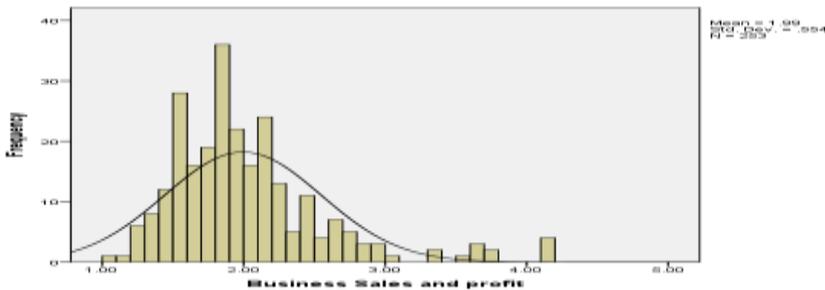


Fig 4.4.1.2: Histogram of Perceived business sales and profit Scores.
 Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Test of Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity exists when the independent variables are highly correlated (that is $r = .7$ and above). To check for multicollinearity, bivariate correlation was conducted in Table 4.4.2.1 below. In the table, the highest

correlation was 0.521. It shows low multicollinearity problem among sales promotion variables (Foreign legal systems, foreign exchange market and cultural differences). Therefore, all the variables are retained.

Table 4.4.2.1: Correlations among International Business and environmental constraints variables.

Correlations			
		Legal System	Cultural Differences
Legal System	Pearson Correlation	1	.461**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	253	253
Cultural Differences	Pearson Correlation	.461**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	253	253

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

4.4.3. Test of Homoscedasticity and Linearity for Hypothesis One

A scatter plot could be drawn to test for homoscedasticity and linearity of the relationship between dependent variables (i.e. business survival and business sales/profit) and independent

variables (i.e. Foreign legal systems and cultural differences). Fig 4.4.3.1 and 4.4.3.2 present the output of scatter plots. From the output below, there appears to be a moderate, positive correlation among the variables.

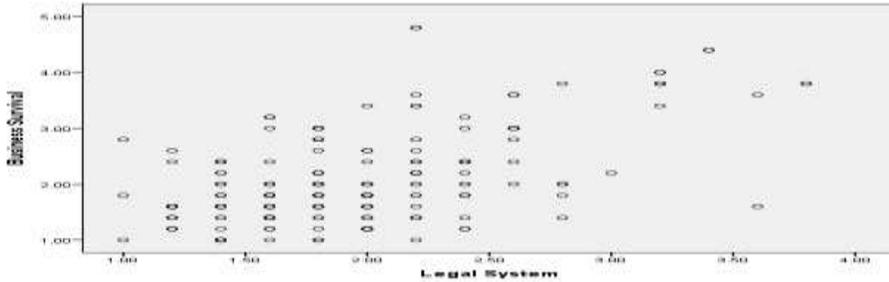


Fig 4.4.4.1.: Scatter Plot of Perceived Legal system and business survival Scores.
Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

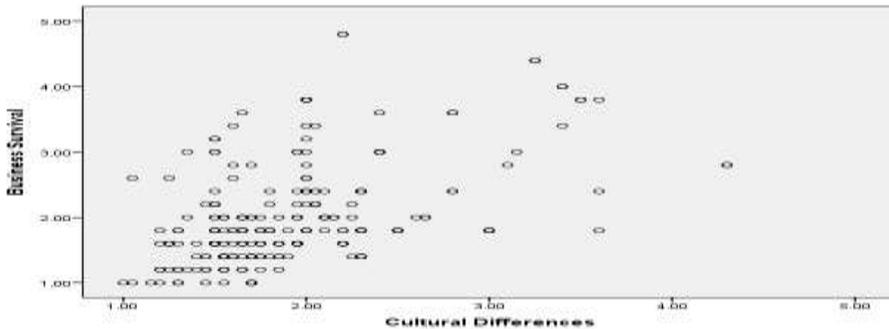


Fig 4.4.4.2.: Scatter Plot of Perceived Cultural differences and business survival Scores.
Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Test of Hypothesis One

H_{01} : Foreign legal systems and cultural differences does not significantly affect emerging businesses' survival rate. Standard multiple regression was used to explore the effects of foreign legal systems and cultural differences on business survival rate. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no

violation of the assumptions of normality, Multicollinearity, homoscedasticity and linearity. The result of regression as contained in Table 4.4.4.1: ANOVA, shows that the F-test was 76.225, significant at 1 percent (< 0.00). This showed that the model was well specified.

Table 4.4.4.1 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	68.898	3	22.966	76.225	.000 ^b
	Residual	75.022	249	.301		
	Total	143.919	252			
a. Dependent Variable: Business Survival						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural Differences, Legal System						

Source: Authors' Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Also, the result of regression as contained in Table 4.4.4.2: Model Summary, shows that the R Square gave a large value of 41.8 per cent. This means that the model (which includes

Foreign legal systems and cultural differences) explained about 47.9 percent of the variance in perceived business survival.

Table 4.4.4.2: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.692 ^a	.479	.472	.54890
a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural Differences, Legal System				

Source: Authors' Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Specifically, the result of regression as contained in Table 4.4.4.3 Regression Coefficients, tests the first hypothesis of this study. From the output below, there was positive relationship between perceived legal system and perceived business survival such that a unit increase in legal system scores caused about .628 unit increases in perceived business survival scores which was statistically significant at 1 per cent with the aid of the p value (0.00). Based on the result, the null hypothesis is rejected; thus, there was positive

relationship between legal system and business survival. lasty, there was a positive relationship between perceived cultural differences and perceived business survival such that a unit rise in perceived cultural differences scores induced about .021 unit increase in perceived business survival scores but was not statistically significant at 1 per cent going by the p value (0.824). Based on the result, the null hypothesis is accepted; thus cultural differences does not affect business survival.

Table 4.4.4.3 Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.009	.053		.168	.867
	Legal System	.168	.026	.160	6.432	.000
	Foreign exchange market	.460	.027	.545	17.044	.000

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	Cultural Differences	.382	.034	.381	11.143	.000
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a. Dependent Variable: Business Sales and profit

Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

4.4.6. Test of Homoscedasticity and Linearity for Hypothesis Two

From the output below, there appears to be a moderate, positive correlation among the variables. Respondents that are highly affected by legal system, and cultural differences experience low levels of business sales/profit factors.

On the other hand, firms that are less affected by legal system and cultural differences have high levels of business sales/profit. There is no indication of a curvilinear relationship (test of linearity) and the scatter plot shows a fairly even cigar shape along its length (test of Homoscedasticity).

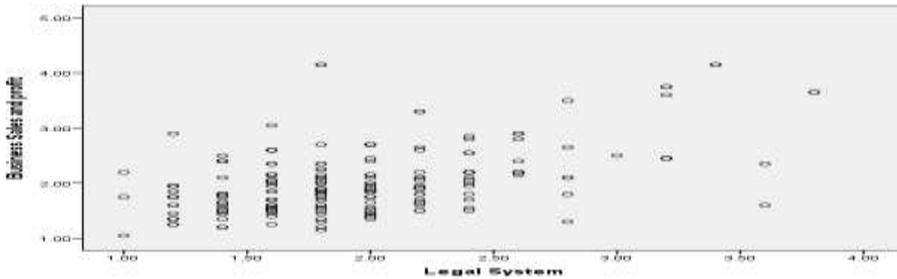


Fig 4.4.6.1.: Scatter Plot of Perceived legal system and business sales/profit Scores. Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

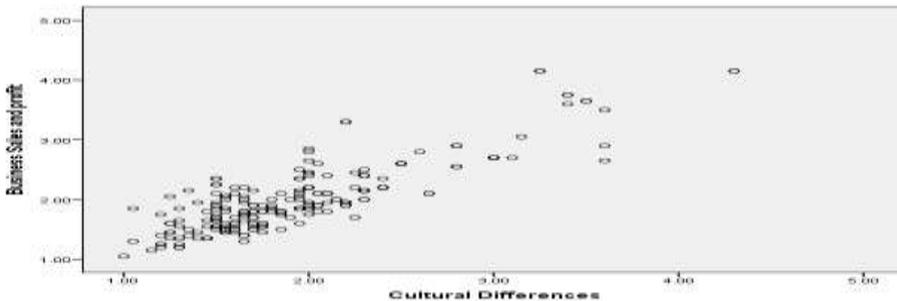


Fig 4.4.6.2.: Scatter Plot of Perceived cultural differences and business sales/profit Scores. Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Test for Hypothesis Two

Ho₂: Legal system and cultural differences does not significantly affect business sales/profit. Standard multiple regression was used to explore the effects of Legal system and cultural

differences on business sales/profit. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, Multicollinearity, homoscedasticity and linearity. The result of regression as contained in

Table 4.4.6.1: ANOVA, shows that the F-test was 598.39, significant at 1

percent (< 0.00). This showed that the model was well specified.

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	67.966	3	22.655	598.292	.000 ^b
	Residual	9.429	249	.038		
	Total	77.395	252			
a. Dependent Variable: Business Sales and profit						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural Differences, Legal System, Foreign exchange market						

Source: Author’s Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Also, the result of regression as contained in Table 4.4.6.2: Model Summary, shows that the R Square gave a large value of 40.4 per cent. This means that the model (which includes

legal system and cultural differences) explained about 87.7 percent of the variance in perceived business sales/profit.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.937 ^a	.878	.877		.19459
a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural Differences, Legal System					

Source: Author’s Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Specifically, the result of regression as contained in Table 4.4.5.3 Regression Coefficients, tests the third hypothesis of this study. From the output below, there was positive relationship between perceived legal system and perceived business sales/profit such that a unit increase in legal system scores caused about .168 unit increases in perceived business sales/profit scores which was statistically significant at 1 per cent with the aid of the p value (0.000). Based on the result, the null hypothesis is

rejected; thus legal system significantly affects business sales/profit. Lastly, there was a positive relationship between perceived cultural differences and business sales/profit such that unit rise in perceived cultural differences scores induced about .382 unit increase in business sales/profit scores which was statistically significant at 1 per cent going by the p value (0.000). Based on the result, the null hypothesis is rejected; thus cultural differences affect business sales/profit.

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Table 4.4.6.3

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.009	.053		.168	.867
	Legal System	.168	.026	.160	6.432	.000
	Foreign exchange market	.460	.027	.545	17.044	.000
	Cultural Differences	.382	.034	.381	11.143	.000
a. Dependent Variable: Business Sales and profit						

Source: Author's Fieldwork Computation, 2018

Discussion of Findings of Hypothesis One

The findings of this study have shown that the legal system inherent in a country determines the rate of business survival. In order to ensure the survival of businesses the legal system/framework must not be too harsh for businesses. This implies that legal framework that is favorable allows business owners to carry out their business activities without too much issue from the government. This is in line with the study of Aghion, Fally and Scarpetta (2007). Their results suggest that agency problems between outside investors and corporate insiders keep firms smaller in countries with weak legal and financial systems. Firms thus, stay smaller in countries with underdeveloped financial and legal systems. On the other hand, access to financial services can help new entrepreneurs survive beyond the first year and can help enterprises innovate at a faster rate.

Discussion of Findings of Hypothesis Two

The finding of this study is also in consonance with Ibadunni and Ogundele (2013) which revealed a positive relationship between cultural differences and business sales. Hence, cultural

differences significantly affect business sales. This means that when the culture of different people either increase the sales of business or reduce it depending on their belief and ways of life. Moreover, the way of life of the people determine whether a particular goods or services will enjoy high sales or bring about huge profit to the business. This means that the quality of diverse or different cultures, as opposed to monoculture, the global monoculture or a homogenization of cultures, akin to cultural decay.

Empirical Findings from the Study

The summary of findings from the empirical study is presented in the following sections relative to each objective and findings in the study:

- i. The study found that legal system significantly affect business survival indicating that legal framework that are favorable allows business owners to carry-out their business activities without too much issues from the government. In order to ensure the survival of businesses the legal system/framework must not be too harsh for businesses.
- ii. The study also found out that cultural difference significantly affects business sales/profit. This means that the quality of diverse or different

cultures, as opposed to monoculture, the global monoculture or a homogenization of cultures, akin to cultural decay.

Conclusion

International business and environmental constraints are critical to business success. One of the most dramatic and significant world trends in the past two decades has been the rapid, sustained growth of international business. International business help increase sales, profit and outreach of products outside national boundary. In order for any business to participate fully in the international market all the environmental constraints must be critically analyzed. This study was able to identify legal system, cultural differences and foreign exchange market as the major international market environmental constraints that affect businesses in the emerging market.

Policy Recommendations

Following the findings and conclusion, the study made the following recommendations:

- i. Government should make all necessary effort to make the business environment to be favorable for both local and foreign businesses. This can be in terms of formulating good policies and regulations and ensuring institutional quality by good leadership.
- ii. Businesses must ensure they carry-out proper environmental analysis before entering the international market. This will help in identifying critical issues that needs to be solved before eventually entering the international market that is even more competitive than the local market.
- iii. The businesses must also try to comply with the legal rules/system of the country in which they carry-out their businesses if they wish to survive the turbulent business environment.

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Developing African Management Theories: Problems and Solutions

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Abstract: The paper examined the problem of developing indigenous management theories in Africa and the solutions. It employed the narrative analysis approach using the inductive analytic process. The data for the analysis were qualitative data generated from a review of the relevant literature and a survey of opinion of scholars in management studies. The paper identified two categories of the problem, viz, inherent socio-cultural problems and externally induced problems. It noted that although there is now some awareness about the need for African Indigenous management theories, and some effort has been made over the years by some African scholars to introduce African philosophies into management of organizations in Africa, these efforts have not yielded any visibly concrete result; there is yet to be any formalized African oriented management theory. The paper concluded that for African societies to make progress in industry, they must tailor their management approach according to their own needs and behavioural peculiarities. It recommended that concerted efforts must be made to overcome the challenges bedeviling the development of African indigenous management theories by committing to positive ways of thinking about African philosophies and evaluating them through research for management theories development; and re-engineering the existing paradigms of African educational systems to include local contents that would lay the foundation for research leading to development of indigenous theories. It emphasizes that theory builders must visit the African traditional cultures and harvest the positive values for the development of African theories of management.

Keywords: Indigenous, Management Theory, Problems and solutions, Africa, Developing

1. Introduction

“The dearth of indigenous management theories in Africa is no doubt a major challenge to effective management practice in the continent. The critical role of effective management practice in organizational performance and industrial growth, and the impact of these on economic development, cannot be over-emphasized. Therefore, for the purpose of these parameters, if effective management practice is desirable and it is to be achieved in Africa, emphasis must be on the development of indigenous management theories.” (Akpor-Robaro, 2018).

Adeoti, George and Adegboye (2013) asserted that "the evolution and development of indigenous African Management philosophy is very essential for the development of Africa because the philosophy is rooted in African culture, value system and beliefs, and the derived management knowledge would help the African organizations function more effectively and efficiently." Sustainable organizational stability and Industrial vibrancy is a function of management quality, in terms of effectiveness and efficiency of organizational managers. Such effectiveness and efficiency are enhanced by the quality of theories and principles (in terms of their relevance) that managers rely on as guides for actions and decisions.

Considering the low level of managerial efficiency and organizational development in Africa, scholars in African countries should be much keen in developing theories that would enhance the practice of management and hence improve organizational

performance and industrial development in their societies, using the peculiarities of their societies. Unfortunately, this has never been the case (Akpor-Robaro, 2018). Instead, there has been dearth of management theories by native scholars in African countries, that are specific to these countries, particularly with regards to human resource management and organizational behaviour (Osigweh, 1985).

Akpor-Robaro (2018) observed that, only few African scholars (e.g. Inyang, 2008; Eze, 1995; Ejiofor & Aniagoh, 1997; Edoho, 2001; Fashoyin, 2005; Khozi, 2006; Ifechukwu, 2010; Horwitz, 2002; Nzeribe 1986) have made some attempts at developing indigenous African management theories by espousing the relevance of African values and philosophies and their potential utilities in organizational management. Specific reference is made to the 'Ubuntu' management system in South Africa which has been greatly advocated by scholars to set the revolutionary agenda for evolving an indigenous African management that emphasize communism, and participatory decision making in organizations, (Adeoti, et.al, 2013). The 'Ubuntu' management approach is founded on the traditional understanding and perception that the individual as a human being cannot function outside or without the community. It is the community that gives him/her 'humanness'. 'Ubuntu' is a word in Nguni language which in English means "humaneness or being humane " (Khozi, 2006: 6 in Adeoti, et. al, 2013). Mangaliso (2001) defined Ubuntu as “humaneness- a pervasive spirit of caring

and communal life, harmony and hospitality, respect and responsiveness that individuals and groups display for one another.”

The ‘Ubuntu’ system exemplifies the basic values of African people and the way they think and behave towards people. Poovan, Du Toit and Engelbrecht (2006) explained that the Ubuntu philosophy is a veritable means to utilize African values to build work teams and reinforce team spirit among workers for organizational effectiveness. Similar communal systems are found among other African tribes and ethnic groups. For instance, in Isoko tribe in Nigeria, the ‘ORUA’ system has similar characteristics and philosophy with the Ubuntu system. The Orua system in Isoko tribe is a communal system which advocates cohesion among members of the community as one big extended family. The objective is to enhance social oneness and it drives on the principles of participation through joint decision making, conflict resolution by negotiation and mediation, abundant spirit of care giving and ensuring community harmony. Similarly, in the Yoruba tribe in Nigeria, there is the socio-cultural system known as “ASA-ILE YORUBA” with similar objective and modus-operandi as the Buntu and Orua systems. The ‘Orua’ and ‘Asa-Ile Yoruba’ philosophy of social system management, as in the Ubuntu system also emphasizes teamwork, attention to relationships, mutual recognition and respect, and empathy between leaders and the followers. The principles of the Ubuntu system and the Orua and Asa-Ile Yoruba system are fundamental ideals of effective organizational management and

they provide tools for African indigenous management theorization.

While the need for the development of indigenous African theories have been identified in some African scholars’ works, and a few recommendations made on the way forward in the past two decades or more, no significant theories or models can be considered to have been perfected and widely applied from these works (Adeoti, et.al, 2013). African philosophies and values are yet to find in road to formal organizational process. Several factors have been attributed to this situation and these range from economic to socio-cultural factors.

This paper attempts to explore the factors which constitute difficulties in developing indigenous management theories in Africa from a collation of views from the literature and opinion pool of management educationists; and discusses the implications of the situation for management practice in Africa. The objective is to open the minds of stakeholders to these factors and lead them to think about possible ways of reducing the difficulties through attitudinal change and positive reorientation towards research in management and indigenous theories development that will have beneficial impact on management practice in Africa. The ultimate goal is to chart a path for promoting organizational effectiveness in Africa through effective management practice that can emerge via the development and application of indigenous management theories that are relevant to African environment and circumstances.

2. Methodology

The paper is a theoretic exposition of the difficulties in developing indigenous management theories in Africa. Specifically, qualitative research method was employed using data generated from the existing literature and opinion survey of management scholars, by narrative approach. The data consisted of opinions from various individuals who have had some experience in research aimed at developing theories to address aspects of management in African context. The paper adopted analytic approach to the discussion of the problems in order to provide its audience a firm understanding of the limitations and the causative factors.

The narrative analysis was carried out using analytic induction process. Analytic induction is the intensive examination of a purposively selected research case (s) so as to empirically establish the causes of a specific phenomenon (Johnson, 2004). The data were categorized into two strands or levels to further the process of examination. Thus, fundamentally, the data are characterized by arguments from different perspectives by management scholars with African interest, who have offered criticisms of the African environment with respect to its inhibitions to the development of management theories. The publications from which the data were generated predated twenty-five years, to reveal the fact that the need and search of African indigenous management theories did not just begin yesterday.

In accordance with the requirements of analytic induction approach, the foundation for the narrative analysis was

laid with an explanation of the concept of indigenous (African) management theory in order to situate the context of the analysis and discussion, and to easily navigate the path to clear fulfilment of the objective of the paper. A probe on the cultural characteristics common to African peoples and African shared history of colonization, and the existing paradigms of values and management orientations, provided a source of a number of factors that form the basis for generalization.

3. Literature Review

3.1 Concept of Theory and Management Theory

The concept of theory has been widely explained in the literature, and there is no need to overstretch the explanations. Whitley (1996) definition summarizes the explanations, stating that a theory is 'a set of statements about relationships between variables that offer explanation about a phenomenon.' A theory is simply an explanation of the cause and effect relationship between variables in a given phenomenon. According to Miner (1978) cited in Hamilton, (2017), a theory pulls together existing knowledge, explains events or relationship and in the end predicts what is yet to occur. "Theory is the mechanism that enables the creation of pigeon holes into which we put our knowledge of the natural and social world" (Hamilton, 2017) such that we can conveniently and effectively identify, classify and explain social phenomena within given environments and social settings (Ibid).

We assume that the concept of management theory is also not new in the literature. Any theory that is aimed at explaining cause and effect relationship

between variables in organizations is a management theory. That is, a management theory is a theory that is designed to explain organizational phenomenon (Jackson, 2004).

The benefits of management theory have also been extensively discussed in the literature. Inyang (2008) summarized the benefits that it increases managerial efficiency by providing the guidelines to help managers solve problems in organizations. He stated that management theory also helps in crystalizing the nature of management in terms of analyzing management task and the training of managers. In general, management theorization brings about improvement in management practice, which leads to the attainment of social goals and human development. As Porth and McCall (2001) put it, management theories emphasize the importance of an organization's ability to acquire and leverage knowledge that produces meaningful change and innovation. A critical point to understand is that every managerial action is based on a theory, even though such theory may not be formalized in writing. In other words, a theory must not necessarily be in a formal statement (Wehrick & Koontz, 2003). It is the lack of this understanding by many scholars that is the source of argument that traditional management practice is not theory based particularly in Africa where there are no documentations of theories prior to the period of colonization. To put it in proper perspective, what is missing in African management practice is not the absence of theories per se, but rather, it is the absence of formally written and documented management theories and

guidelines (Ifechukwu, 2010). From the accounts in African history, it is evident that management theories exist informally in Africa (ibid). Thus, the African challenge in the context of indigenous management theory development is that of formalizing the formulation of indigenous management theories in Africa.

3.2 Concept of African Indigenous Management Theory

Inyang (2008) cited in Uzo, Shittu & Meru (2018) explained that indigenous management is a management approach that embodies indigenous knowledge. Thus, in the context of Africa, indigenous management “incorporates those management principles, theories and practices that recognize and accommodate Africa’s cultural, social, political and environmental factors” (Uzo, Shittu & Meru, 2018). ‘Indigenous knowledge’ implies information or understanding of the facts about the way of life and existence of the inhabitants of a place.

The concept of African indigenous management theory, particularly with regards to its usage in this paper, flows from the above premise. In general, the concept of indigenous management theory refers to a management theory that is developed by native scholars in a given society specifically to address management practice in that society (Ogundele, 2005). Thus, the use of the word “African indigenous” ordinarily suggests that we are referring to management theories developed by African native or indigenous scholars. But this is not the whole meaning of our usage of the concept. Holistically, “the concept is used to describe a

management theory developed by scholars of African management perspective, whether they are of African origin or not, for African management situations, based on African environment” (Akpor-Robaro, 2018). That is, a theory that is based on the knowledge of African society and the way of life of Africans, including their cultures and social systems. ‘Indigeneity’ is used to refer to the applicable environmental context and not necessarily the nativity of the theorist. Essentially, an African indigenous management theory in our usage refers to a theory that is designed to address the peculiarities of African societies and management contexts, i.e. management challenges in the context of African society and the way of life of Africans based on the knowledge about Africans. This definition can be narrowed to individual societies in Africa so that we can talk about indigenous management theory with respect to a particular society of interest in Africa, such as Nigeria, South Africa, Kenya, Benin, etc.

3.3 The Need for the development of African Indigenous Management Theories

The quest for African indigenous management theories started for back in the 80s upon realizing that the application of western oriented management theories was failing to meet the needs of organizations in African society, i.e. the theories are unable to solve African organizational problems. Theories are developed to address problems in organization (Akpor-Robaro, 2018) and therefore it is expected that the application of a given theory will solve the problem for which

it is applied. The general opinion by the proponents of indigenous management theory for African Organizations is that western theories of management have been greatly unsuccessful in the context of African environment. A theory is unsuccessful if its application does not help the user-manager to achieve set organizational goals, or solve identified problems to which it is applied (Akpor-Robaro, 2018).

A theory is built based upon certain assumptions, that is, that certain conditions exist, and its success upon application is subject to the fulfilment of the underlying assumptions. The theory would fail if these assumptions or conditions are violated or cease to exist, particularly with changes in environment and circumstances under which it is applied. The failure of western management theories in Africa is therefore explained by the fact that they are inconsistent with African environment (Ogundele, 2005). The theories are developed based on the environment of the western societies and applied in African societies with entirely different characteristics and circumstances. As pointed out in Akpor-Robaro (2018), the Western and African environment and circumstances are greatly different in many ways and therefore, the application of western based theories in African organizations suffers lack of circumstance/environment contingency with great potential for failure. It is against this background that the need for African based management theories has arisen and being pursued by African scholars. However, the pursuit and realization of this dream has been stunted by a number of factors.

4. The Narrative Analysis and Discussion of the Problem

4.1 Factors inhibiting the development of African indigenous management theories

As Oghojafor, Idowu & George (2012) noted, indigenous perspectives are ignored or denigrated today and this according to Dia (1996) is due to a structural and functional separation between informal, indigenous institutions rooted in Africa's history and culture and formal institutions mostly transplanted from outside. As a pointer to the African situation, Ejiofor (1987) charged Nigerian management experts to take up the great challenge of evolving management principles and styles which are tailored to meet the needs of Nigerian environment as a necessity. He noted that Nigerian education system was dominated by foreign principles, concepts and background. This sentiment was re-echoed by Udo-Aka (1987) in his foreword to Ejiofor's (1987) *Management in Nigeria: theories and issues*, and he emphasized the urgent need to develop indigenous curricular for Nigerian education systems that would take cognizance of the peculiarities of Nigerian society. Unfortunately, many years after these observations were made, there has been no significant change in management orientation and practice in Nigeria. "There is no obvious change in paradigm as much of our management theories, principles and practices are still western oriented (Inyang 2008). This situation has affected tremendously the progress in management research that focus on Nigerian and African environment,

thereby retarding the pace of indigenous management theory development.

The problems militating against the development of indigenous management theories in Africa are multiple and diverse in nature according to Ogundele (2005). Many of these problems have been referred to in discussions at many formal and informal occasions, as well as in academic works by scholars dealing with African management (Akpor-Robaro, 2018). The critical problems suggested in the literature can be grouped into two categories, the inherent problems and the externally induced problems:

4.1.1 The Inherent Problems

The Inherent problems have been discussed extensively in Africa management literature by a number of authors (e.g. Inyang, 2008; Kiggundu, 1991; Nzeribe, 1986; Ogundele, 2005; Oghojafor, Idowu & George, 2002; Ifechukwu, 2010; Ejiofor, 1987; Dia, 1996; and Akpor-Robaro, 2018). The following factors were identified as problems inherent in African environment that make it difficult for Africans to develop management theories for Africa:

- i. There is an inherent lack of tradition in basic and applied research that are usually for the purpose of discovering Knowledge that provide input for theory formulation (Akpor-Robaro, 2018).
- ii. Lack of Finance and Facilities for Research. Governments in Africa as well as industry have failed to play their roles towards encouraging research for theory building by not providing the required research facilities and grants to enhance both

- basic and applied research (Ogundele, 2005; Inyang, 2008; Akpor-Robaro, 2018).
- iii. Lack of interest by scholars in serious research activities due to several reasons including lack of recognition and reward for research works (Akpor-Robaro, 2018). This results in research output that are derived from cut and paste of existing works in matters that have been over flogged and have become irrelevant. African scholars are not interested in long term and time-consuming research aimed at breaking new grounds for the development of a theory that is relevant to a management problem in African environment. In many cases research findings in research institutions in Africa are recycled results of existing research works
 - iv. Environmental volatility. African social and business environments exceedingly volatile. Essentially, environmental instability makes it difficult to track the inter-activeness of variables of interest within the environment, to have a reliable research result that can be used to build a valid and enduring theory. The African environment suffers this weakness (Ogundele, 2005). Instability of relevant factors makes it difficult to measure effectively the degree of interaction among variables. (Akpor-Robaro, 2018).
 - v. Ethnic and Cultural heterogeneity. African societies are heterogeneous with a multiplicity of ethnic groups and culture. This makes it difficult to develop a theory that explains human behaviour in African organization (Ogundele, 2005), since persons from different cultures converge as employees in the organization, with each person having his own values and perceptions according to his background; and reacting to research stimuli differently. A theory of human behaviour is more successful in homogenous society than in heterogeneous society (Jaeger, 1986). African societies and organizational environment suffer cultural heterogeneity problems, which make it difficult in research effort to discern a pattern of behaviour that can form the basis for generalization and theorizing. Inyang (2007) explains that cultural differences in Africa “have made it difficult in having a common idea or front in the area of development of a consistent and acceptable management practice.” He explains that aside religious differences, other factors which have affected the development of management thought is tribal allegiance or ethnicity. The inter-tribal view that a particular tribe is superior to the other has affected the acceptability of a culturally bound theory of management over the other (Inyang, 2008)
 - vi. Inappropriate mode of thinking that is supportive of research and theorization. In Africa the mode of thinking is associative (Akpor-Robaro, 2018). In this mode of thinking, in contrast with abstractive thinking, people utilize associations among events that may not have much logical basis (Hofstede, 1991)

and Trompannar, 1993). It was clearly argued in (Akpor-Robaro, 2018) that the associative mode of thinking of the African societies inhibits research and theorization, because it does not allow for scientific process of verification of cause and effect relationship between the variables in a given situation.

- vii. Lack of feedback from industry. Management theory development and management practice are mutually interactive and provide input for one another. Management practice provide the source of information for research towards theory development. Such information can only be generated through documentation of managerial experiences. African managers are unable or do not realize the need to document their experiences as feedback to theory developers for assessment, in the search for indigenous management theories. As Jaja and Zeb-Opibi (1999) put it “the managers themselves did nothing to encourage the development of the management principles and theory.....”
- viii. Dysfunctional academic curricula in African Universities. The curricula of management discipline in African academic institutions are greatly lacking in providing the impetus towards developing African indigenous management theories. Theories are developed from knowledge gained from learning about the entities of interest. In social sciences and management, such entities include the socio-

cultural system of a people, value system and beliefs, motivations and environmental circumstances. Individuals are activated to behave as a group in particular pattern in organizations according to the influences of these factors.

Unfortunately, academic curricula in Africa are almost entirely foreign based, and therefore lack indigenous contents, such that, rather than provide knowledge about African peoples’ behaviour and values as a basis for indigenous theories, they are teaching African students who are the scholars of tomorrow, western oriented behaviour and the organizational culture of the western world. There is therefore no stock of indigenous knowledge and information on African ways of life and economic system, to rely on for African indigenous theory development to propel organizational behaviour in Africa. Local curriculum in management study in African academic systems has not enjoyed credibility and acceptability. As Inyang (2008) put it, management curriculum in Africa “has not evolved as a local curriculum but a curriculum wholly transferred from foreign university programmes or brochures.” He argues that “the study of management has suffered from lack of indigenous literature that would propagate African management rather than the management theories and practices of the west.”

4.1.2 The induced Problems

This class of problems is generated by the interference from external cultures due economic and political association with the West. These problems have been discussed greatly across the continent particularly with the arguments

about the implications of cultural differences for management practice and effectiveness. The problems can be summarized in two main factors, viz:

- i. Impartation of Western knowledge occasioned by colonialism. The development of African indigenous management theories has been retarded by colonial influence. This fact has been stated very strongly in the literature by a number of scholars of African management. For instance, Inyang (2007) stated that the domination of the Africans by the colonialists has left a strong mark and orientation of dependence on the people. The colonial mentality and influence have affected the thinking, mode of reasoning and the educational system and scholarly mindset of Africans. This has bastardized the African thought process to think that the west is the only source of knowledge and therefore, making it impossible for them to realize their capacity to formally develop purely indigenous management principles and theories, but rather have taken solace in the legacies of the colonial administrators and managers. As Inyang (2008) argued, the colonial administration brought into Africa western management theories which were considered as the drivers and the panacea for achieving an all-round development in Africa. These theories were imbibed by African scholars and since then have dominated the thinking of academics and managers in Africa. Management education programme that came with colonialism

facilitated the entrenchment of western management theories in Africa.

As Eze (1995) observed, the arrival of colonialism in Africa disrupted the belief system and African traditions in management and triggered the beginning of a new management thinking that is western oriented, what can be regarded as 'western African management thought' that unfolded what Eze (1995, pp 136-137) described as "colonized African management". In other words, colonialism led to the erosion of African management thought. The training by colonial administrators and managers has not created the salubrious conditions for the development of African indigenous management theories. Thus, the formulation of management theories for African context even by Africans have been based on western beliefs and traditions.

Evidently from the arguments, the importation of western management theories and resulted in a clash with African management thought and practices with a disruptive effect on the process of evolution of African management and the development agenda of African indigenous management theory. This disruptive effect was captured by Nzeribe (1986) cited in Inyang (2008) thus: "Development of the principles of management was marred, however, by contact with the western world, contact marked by decades of economic exploitation, social oppression and the importation of

scientific management, all of which have left acute problems for management today". Other African management scholars (e.g. Kiggundu, 1991) also noted that colonialism was used as an instrument to destroy African local institutions and management practices which were replaced by western administrative structures considered superior to those of the Africans (Inyang, 2008). In effect, Africans themselves were made to undervalue and jettison their own indigenous managerial perspectives (Afro-Centre Alliance, 2001).

- ii. Globalization of management principles and education. This point was made by Inyang (2008) that the universalization of management education and principles which do not recognize cultural variations, has negative influence on the evolution of indigenous African management theories and practices. The universalization of management principles led to the transfer of western management approaches to Africa. Management is an offshoot of the pure science where theories are universally applicable there the evolution of management was underlined by universality thought process, such that until recently with the failure of many of the theories in management in different environmental contexts, that heralded the Contingency management thought, management theories like theories in pure sciences were regarded as universally applicable. But the validity of the contingency

management thought has propelled modern scholars from various societies to think of suitable theories to their environment and to develop theories that address the peculiarities of their socio-cultural environment.

In Africa this has been difficult for scholars to lose themselves from the universal applicability of theories perspective which was introduced by the West in attempt to undermine the existing undocumented management theories, principles and practices of the developing societies and other societies outside Europe and America. The reason being that majority of African societies are still influenced by western education orientation and the modern scholar in these societies is still being imparted with the management education of the western world from where the existing theories in management have their roots

5. Recommendations for Solution

The solutions to the problems of indigenous theory development in Africa are not far-fetched. They however, require will-power by Africans to pursue.

First, the inherent problems must be attended to, by Africans refocusing their values and interest to give the required support to research efforts aimed at theory formulation and to encourage scholars in research that lead to theorization by providing the enabling environment for cutting edge research work by providing the required funds and facilities. In this regard, the private sector is expected to play a big role both in individual research sponsorship and collaboration with research institutions for the provision of facilities and

research data generation. The research content of academic curriculum of Universities must be designed to elicit output that are useful to organization in African environment. This implies that the input variables for research must be within African context.

Second, Africans must believe in themselves as capable of developing their own indigenous theories based on the strength of their culture, which would be more useful to managing their enterprises than the western theories. They must realize the capacity of their culture to yield management styles and methods that can be applied to achieve effective management practice in modern organizations. Thus, rather than look out for western theories that are alien to African way of life and existence, Africans must begin to look inwards and emphasize the development and use of theories suitable to African social processes and organizational system based on African philosophies and existentialism. This implies that Africans must, of necessity now do away with the western mentality about social organization and economic management which they were imparted through colonialism and 'de-culturalization' by their colonial masters to pave way for the rebirth and reformation of their indigenous management and organizational systems.

Third, there is a great need to re-engineer universities curricula in Africa to infuse indigenous /local content of African management approach based on African socio-cultural systems and way of life. A curriculum on studies in African socio-cultural characteristics and behaviour in relation to organizational systems and

management must be developed as means of harvesting knowledge about African characteristics as a basis for African indigenous management theorization. This calls for scholarly research into the African way of life, the African Psychology and behavioural pattern. Within the comparative management scheme of management curriculum in universities, African system of management or approach must be highlighted and emphasized considerably to project the virtues and utility of the African way of life that can be adapted to modern management in replacement for Western management principles in African organizations and environment.

Fourth, African scholars must identify the specific elements in African ways of life that inhibit the effectiveness and use of western theories of management in each of the functional areas of management and what characteristics of African ways of life can be used beneficially in these areas to improve performance. The needs of Africans must be placed in proper perspective and isolated from those of the westerners in definite characterization to make them distinct and capable of yielding to theories that are separate from the western perspectives. This requires understanding the uniqueness of the African socio-cultural system. Such learnings would form the springboard for African indigenous theorization in management.

For example, the issue of motivation of employees in organization would need an understanding of the unique characteristics of Africans that would not yield to the western methods generated

through the traditional/existing theories of motivation by western scholars, and what unique variables are capable and required to motivate African employees in organization for improved performance considering their inherent nature as different from the employees from any block of the western world; and the condition under which African employees would be motivated with a given variable. In other words, an African theory of motivation in organization requires an understanding of what drives the focal attitude and behaviour of Africans in organizations.

The collectivist culture of Africans, for instance, can serve as a good instrument for building an African human relations theory and for theorizing on team work in organizations in Africa. This characteristic of Africans is a driver for supportive behaviour by Africans and a prime positive factor for good human relations and team building in organization. The Ubuntu system in South Africa, and the Orua system in Isoko and Asa-Ile Yoruba in Yoruba, Nigeria, exemplifies the collectivist culture of Africans. These three social systems are people oriented and provide ideals of human relations management approach which can be used in organizational management in African environment. There are many more similar socio-cultural systems across African societies and tribal groups which principles and philosophies speak to different aspects of organizational management that are not tapped, and required to be researched for possible adoption and adaptation to management of organizations in Africa.

6. Conclusion

This paper will conclude by extracting from Akpor-Robaro (2018) as follows “The challenges are not unsurmountable; it merely requires a re-orientation of mindset and value system and a strong will by Africans to promote the development and application of indigenous management theories”. The paper joins previous works as “a clarion call to all stakeholders-governments, business organizations, individuals and management scholars- to be involved and do all that is necessary in their capacities to be part of the promotion of indigenous management theories in Africa. Africa needs to improve on her management research and develop Africa models which can assist her in addressing the problems confronting indigenous management theory development and managerial practice. The African scholars and other stakeholders must engage the process of sound management research and education that would evolve organically from Africa's indigenous management thought that reflect her social milieu and culture (Inyang, 2007 & 2008). In so doing they will be paving way for effective management practice and therefore improved performance in industry as a path way for economic development. In this regard, it is recommended that the change of orientation and values should include government and institutional financial support for research in the field of management and such funding be delivered adequately and effectively to the right persons without unnecessary conditionalities, and be devoid of manipulations and political intrigues.

There must also be emphasis on local content in the management curriculum of our academic institutions, particularly, the Universities.

Furthermore, academics involved in long term research should be granted and allowed to go on research holidays for full concentration on their research activities, particularly research persons in the universities, while their full salaries still run, to enable them come up with valid results or findings that can be used for building relevant management

theories. Lastly, persons engaged in research works must be appreciated for their contributions to development and adequately rewarded and paid attractive personal financial compensation comparable to what obtains in western world for their roles and contributions to make them fair equally with their counterparts in other parts of the world and make them attracted to research. They must be provided livelihood resources for comfortable life”.

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Investigating Structural Breaks in Selected Finance-Growth Variables in Nigeria. A Saikkonen and Lutkepohl (2002) Approach

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Abstract: The need to identify point of break in economic variables cannot be over emphasized and thus, the need for this study to investigate the point of structural break in some selected financial sector variables in Nigeria using the Saikkonen-Lutkepohl (2002) method. The study identifies years 2008 as point of break for private sector credit ratio to GDP and Broad money supply ratio, 1986 for GDP per capita, 2007 for Market capitalization ratio, 2006 for Liquidity ratio, 2001 for investment ratio and 2005 for openness ratio. The study recommends that structural breaks should be considered in any finance-growth modeling to avoid spurious results which may ultimately lead to wrong or inappropriate policy formulation and may be counterproductive to the objective of economic growth and financial development.

Key words: Financial Sector, Structural Breaks

JEL Classification:C18, G0, O4

1. Introduction

Having a good understanding of the movements in financial development indicators such as the ratio of the broad money supply to GDP (M2Y) and ratio of market capitalization to GDP (MCY) is important for the conduct of monetary policies. The behaviour of these indicators and other variables in relation

to GDP may convey corroborative information about the current level of financial development in the economy and also provide to large extent information about future movements in these variables which are reflected in official statistics. Statistics show discernible instability in the growth movements of financial sector variables

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in Nigeria. For example, the ratio of market capitalization to GDP rose from 5 per cent in 1981 steadily to about 50 per cent in 1992 but rose sharply to 170 percent in 1995, falling steadily to an average of 52 percent between that time and 2000. The ratio fell drastically from about 160 percent in 2006 to negative values in 2010. In the same spurious manner, the ratio of broad money supply (M2Y) experienced a slight decline of about 5 percent from 1970 to 1974 to 10 percent but rose sharply to about 22 percent from 1975 to 1980 and a further sharp rise from 22 percent to 33 percent between 1981 and 1985. Also, between 1991 and 1995, the ratio declined sharply from 26 percent to 13 percent. This variable also experienced a sharp rise between 2003 and 2010. The implication of these unstable movements is that any forecast on the relationship between financial sector variables and economic growth may be inaccurate if structural breaks in the variables are not taken into consideration. The knowledge of break point is very important for accurate evaluation of any program or policy that is aimed at bringing about structural changes; such as capital market reforms, the tax reforms, banking sector reforms and regime shifts etc. Information on the structural break in the time series is very important so as to avoid model misspecification as this may result into wrong/spurious results and ultimately, misguided policy formulation. The macroeconomic objective desired to be achieved in developing the financial sector and to enhance economic development and growth may therefore, not be achievable as a result of wrong model specification..

Previous studies on finance-growth nexus did not take this into consideration thereby, necessitating the need to determine the break points (dates) of each of the financial variables in the study. The objective of this study therefore is to determine the points of structural changes in financial sector variables and economic growth variables in Nigeria over the years.

2. Literature Review

Several studies have critically examined the relationship between financial development and economic growth. Majorly, substantial empirical evidences have been provided to lend credence to the existence of a robust finance-growth relationship. However, the validity of these empirical evidences in the face of structural break may not guarantee. Therefore, studies have begun to give keen attention to investigating the validity of finance-growth relationship in the face of structural break.

Study by Rioja & Valev (2004) investigated the relationship between financial development and economic growth based on level of financial development (Divided in three regions). The study also applied panel econometric technique of generalized method of moment to time series data from 74 countries to determine the validity of finance- growth relationship. The study reported strong evidences to support robust relationship between financial development and economic growth especially in intermediate region. Another study by Deidda & Fattouh (2002), finance- growth nexus within the framework of non-linear and possibly non-monotonic assumption. With the use of threshold regression method of

estimation, the outcome suggests that the theoretical presumptions of financial depth - growth relationship is valid in the face of structural breaks. Similar study by Huang & Lin (2009) also provided empirical evidence in this direction.

More recent study by Arcand, Berkes, & Panizza (2015) further investigated the existence of threshold effect in financial depth –growth nexus. The study was based on non-monotonic assumption and employed both parametric and non-parametric ordinary least square regression. The report from the study established vanishing effect of financial depth–growth nexus. This suggests that at a particular threshold the positive effect of financial development on growth will start diminishing. This is not new as previous study by Rousseau and Wachtel, 2011; Rioja and Valev, 2004 & Huang & Lin, 2009 have given insight in this direction. However, the study employed a wide range of econometric methods and strictly worked under non-monotonic assumption to achieve their results.

Apart from these array of panel studies, empirical efforts at the country- specific level have been recognized. Towards this direction, study Mukhopadhyay & Pradhan (2011) examined causal relationship between financial development and economic growth in Indonesia using ARDL bound testing approach. The study identified structural breaks in the relationship and reported that finance doesn't matter for economic growth. Another study by Uddin, Sjö & Shahbaz (2013) investigated finance-growth nexus in Kenya based on ARDL bounds testing and Gregory and Hansen's structural break cointegration

approaches. Contrary to the study Mukhopadhyay & Pradhan (2011), the study empirically established that there is positive relationship between financial development and economic growth in the presence of a structural break. In related study by Olowofeso, Adeleke & Udoji (2015) using Gregory and Hansen (1996) cointegration test that account for structural breaks and endogeneity inherent in most previous studies, the study examined the impacts of private sector credit on economic growth in Nigeria. The study reported positive effect of private sector credit on output in Nigeria.

Bist and Bista (2018) investigates the relationship between financial development and economic growth in Nepal using time series data between 1984 and 2014. The study also sought to determine the presence of structural breaks in the variables adopted using the Zivot and Andrews (ZA) unit root test method and found the presence of structural change in Private sector credit in 2007, real GDP and per capita growth in 2001. In the same vein, Medeiros et al. (2018) conducted structural break tests to determine the possibility of changes in the discharge of the Brazilian monetary policy during the inflation-targeting regime and the study concludes that structural break occurred in the third quarter in the parameters of monetary rule.

The current study is providing further evidences in respect of finance-growth nexus with emphasis on structural break in the relationship between the two variables.

3. Methodology

The model is based on the previous works of King and Levine (1993), Levine and Zervos (1998), Wachtel (2001), Christopoulos and Tsionas (2004), Seetanah et al. (2010). The model primarily shows the relationship among GDP per capita (GDPK), ratio of private sector credit to GDP (PSCY), ratio of broad money supply to GDP (M2Y), market capitalization ratio (MCY), liquidity ratio (LRY), investment ratio (INVR) and trade openness (OPNY). The study is a 35-year time series study from 1982-2016 with the data sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) statistical bulletin (various issues). These variables are specified in the model below;

The Saikkonen, and Lütkepohl (2002) test

$$GDPK_t = f(M2Y_t, PSCY_t, MCY_t, LRY_t, INVR_t, OPNY_t) \quad (1)$$

The Saikkonen, and Lütkepohl (2002) test

Expressing the model in its explicit form is;

$$GDPK_t = M2Y_t^\mu PSCY_t^\theta MCY_t^\gamma LRY_t^\omega INVR_t^\Omega OPNY_t^\psi \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

The Saikkonen, and Lütkepohl (2002) test

Linearizing and logging equation (2),

$$\ln GDPK_t = \alpha_0 + \mu \ln M2Y_t + \theta \ln PSCY_t + \gamma \ln MCY_t + \omega \ln LRY_t + \Omega \ln INVR_t + \psi \ln OPNY_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (3)$$

Where ε_t is white noise error term; α_0 is the constant parameter and $(\mu, \theta, \gamma, \omega, \Omega \text{ and } \psi)$, are the slope coefficients of each variable.

3.1 Unit Root Testing with Structural Breaks

The Saikkonen, and Lütkepohl (2002) test

The traditional view of the unit root test hypothesis held that current shocks only have a transitory/permanent effect and the long-run movement in the series is unaffected by such shocks. The most important consequence under the unit root hypothesis generated by Nelson and Plosser (1982) is that the random shocks have enduring/permanent effects on the long-run level of macroeconomics; meaning that the fluctuations are not transitory. A structural break occurs when there exists a sudden and unexpected shift/change in a macroeconomic time series. This could also result to a large error in forecasting and thereby rendering the model unreliable in general. Recent literature has stressed the need to move away from the traditional method of unit root testing to testing for structural breaks in unit root testing in typical economic data sets (Christiano, 1992; Banerjee et al., 1992; and Zivot and Andrews, 1992). The procedure for testing the unit root hypothesis, which allows for possible presence of structural break has its own advantages; firstly, it prevents generating a test result which is biased towards non-rejection (Perron, 1989) and secondly, because this procedure can identify when the possible presence of structural break occurred, then it would provide useful information for analyzing whether a structural break on a certain variable is associated with a particular government policy, economic crises, wars, regime shifts or other factors.

The importance of testing structural breaks was championed by the work of Perron (1989) when he criticized the seminal work of Nelson and Plosser (1982). He stated that Nelson and

Plosser’s strong evidence in favor of the unit root hypothesis for thirteen (13) of fourteen (14) economic and financial aggregate for United States of America is based on their failure to take into consideration, the structural change in the data. According to Perron, the date of a potential break in the data is assumed to be known, which is now incorporated exogenously in the model and then unit root is tested for the variable. This is usually termed as unit root testing with exogenous structural breaks.

Perron uses a modified Dickey-Fuller (DF) unit root tests that includes dummy variables to account for one known, or exogenous structural break. The break point of the trend function is fixed (exogenous) and chosen independently of the data. Perron’s (1989) unit root tests allows for a break under both the null and alternative hypothesis. (Glynn et al. 2007). This work of Perron did not come without its own criticisms. Christiano (1992), Banerjee et al. (1992), Zivot and Andrews (1992) amongst others argued that using a framework where there is a fixed break point is inappropriate as it is unreasonable to determine the choice independently of the data. In their opinion, they assert that it is only appropriate to determine the break date endogenously. Zivot and Andrews (1992) adopted an alternative method by using a data-dependent algorithm to determine the break point and finite-sample critical values, reject the unit root null at 5% significance level for only three out of thirteen Nelson-Plosser series; the real GNP, nominal GNP and industrial production.

To examine the statistical properties of the series, we use unit root tests,

specifically, the augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test and the Saikkonen and Lütkepohl (SL) test, which take into account the influences of unknown structural changes in the data. In addition, Saikkonen and Lütkepohl (2002; see also Lanne and Saikkonen, 2002) posit that a shift may spread over several periods rather than being restricted to a single period (Lütkepohl, 2004). The tests used enables to examine the null hypothesis of a unit root based on the following general specification:

$$X_t = \mu_0 + \mu_1 t + f_t(\theta) \gamma + z_t, \quad (4)$$

where θ and γ are unknown parameters, t is the time trend, the error term z is generated by an AR(p) process, and $f_t(\theta) \gamma$ is the shift function, which depends on θ and the regime shift date T_B . We therefore consider three shift functions:

1. A simple shift dummy,

$$f_t^1 = d_{t,T_B} = \begin{cases} 0, & t < T_B \\ 1, & t \geq T_B \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

2. The exponential distribution function, which allows for a nonlinear gradual shift to a new level, starting at time T_B

$$f_t^2(\theta) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < T_B \\ [1 - \exp[-\theta(t - T_B + 1)]], & t \geq T_B \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

3. A rational function in the lag operator applied to a shift dummy,

$$f_t^3(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d_{1,t}}{1-\theta L} \\ \frac{d_{1,t-1}}{1-\theta L} \end{bmatrix}.$$

(7)

We first estimate the deterministic term with generalized least squares (GLS), then apply an ADF test to the adjusted data, which include the series obtained by subtracting them from the original series. Following the data observations, we decide to retain or not a linear trend for the series.

4. Result of Unit Root Test with Structural Break

The result of the Saikkonen and Lütkepohl unit root test are presented in table 1. The break dates for the variables are endogenously determined within the model. The result suggests that we reject the null of unit root for MCY and LRY at 1 percent and 10 percent level of significance respectively while we fail to reject the unit root hypothesis for the remaining 5 series. It is very obvious from the table that there is a clear contrast between the results got from the unit root test with structural and the results got from the unit root test without structural breaks for the series.

Also, the test endogenously identifies the point of the single most significant structural break (*TB*) in every time series examined in this study. The break-date for each series is reported in table 1. Generally, if the break-date were exogenously determined by the researcher, the year 1986 would have been the most appropriate date, because it is the year which Nigeria embarked on the restructuring of the economy

through the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP), but this wasn't so, as the break-dates were endogenously determined by the model itself. For the GDP per capita (GDPK), the break date is 1986 and this could be adduced to the deregulation policy of the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) policy of 1986 in Nigeria. This is similar to the work of Bist and Bista (2018). The break date in broad money supply ratio (M2Y) and private sector credit ratio to GDP (PSCY) in Nigeria was 2008 and this can be attributed to the impact of the global financial meltdown and also, the aftermath effect of the bank sector recapitalization that commenced in 2005. This is in conformity with the work of Olowofeso, Adeleke and Udoji (2016) which confirms the presence of structural break in the Private Sector Credit in Nigeria.. The break date of market capitalization ratio (MCY) is 2007 and this also can be ascribed to the effect of the 2005 financial sector recapitalization coupled with the immediate effect of the global financial crises of 2007. The break date of liquidity ratio (LRY) and investment ratio is 2001 and the break date of trade openness ratio (OPNY) was in 2005 and policy change and policy imbalance are possible reasons for the structural changes. Among the studies that established the presence of structural changes are the studies of, Mukhopadhyay & Pradhan (2011), Arcand, Berkes, & Panizza (2015),

From the knowledge of these break dates in the variables therefore, equation (3) can now be re-specified as;

$$\ln Y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln M2Y_t + \alpha_2 \ln PSCY_t + \alpha_3 \ln$$

$$MCY_t$$

$$+ \alpha_4 \ln LRY_t + \alpha_5 \ln INVRY_t + \alpha_6 \ln OPNY_t + \alpha_7 D_{inf} + \alpha_8 D_{inf2007} + \alpha_9 D_{inf2008} +$$

$$\alpha_{10} D_{inf2007} + \alpha_{11} D_{inf2008} + \alpha_{12} D_{inf2009} + \alpha_{13} D_{inf2010} + \epsilon_t$$

(8)

The dummy variable D_i in the above equation represents the structural breaks in each of the variables and they take a value of 0 until the particular break date for each variable and a value of 1 onwards.

Table 1 Result of Saikkonen and Lutkepohl (S-L) one-break unit root test with trend

Variables	ADF test statistic (unit root without structural break) Without trend	S-L test statistic (Unit root with structural break) With trend	Break Period	Number of Lags	
GDPK	1.2419	2.5239	-1.4078	1986	I(1)
M2Y	-1.5108	-0.0847	-2.1350	2008	I(1)
PSCY	-0.00241	-0.3303	-0.9746	2008	I(1)
MCY	-1.1606	-0.6152	-4.2918 ^a	2007	I(1)
LRY	-2.0054	-0.3303	-2.7616 ^c	2006	I(1)
INVRY	-2.8678	2.8230	-1.1392	2001	I(1)
OPNY	-1.2000	1.7040	-1.0845	2005	I(1)

Note: a, b and c shows show level of significance at 1%, 5% and 10% respectively. (a) For the ADF test, the lags are determined by the Schwartz criterion. Critical values extracted from Davidson and MacKinnon (1993) for the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels are, respectively, -3.96, -3.41, and -3.13 for the model with trend and -3.43, -2.86, and -2.57 for the model without trend. (b) Critical values from Lanne et al. (2002) for the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels are -3.48, -2.88 and -2.58, respectively.

Source: Author

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study sought to investigate the existence of structural breaks and identify the point of break (if any) in selected financial sector variables in Nigeria using the Saikkonen and Lutkepohl (2002) method. The study established the presence of a single breakpoint in all of

the selected financial sector and economic growth variables and therefore, recommends that to avoid wrong forecast and misspecification of financial sector models, the point(s) of break should be taken into consideration before running the regression model.

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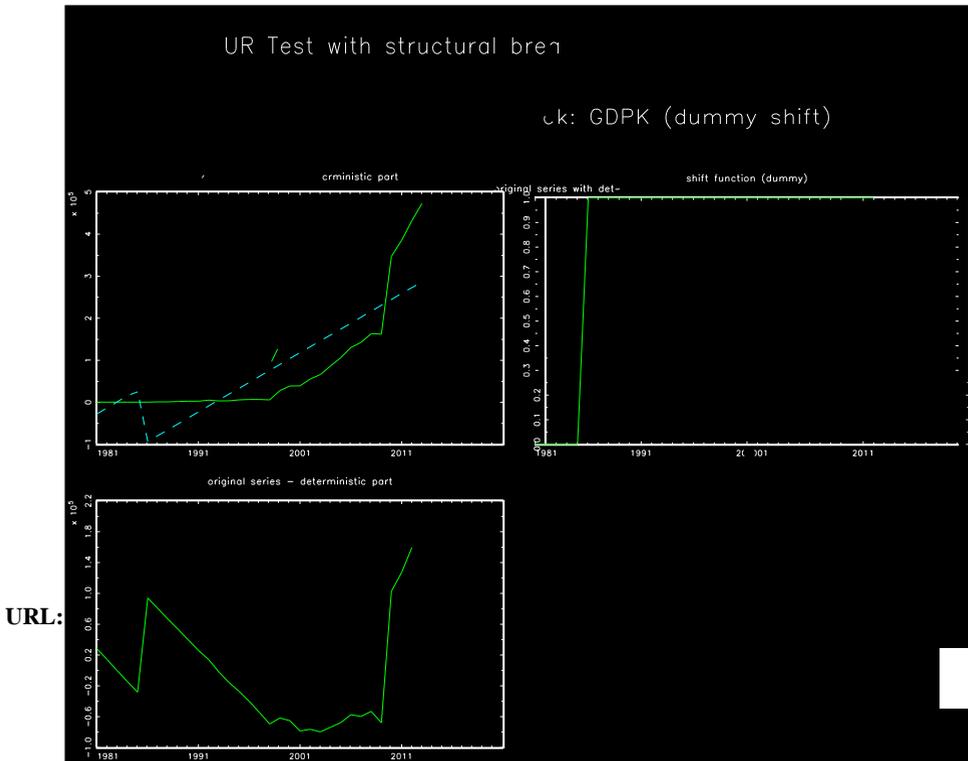
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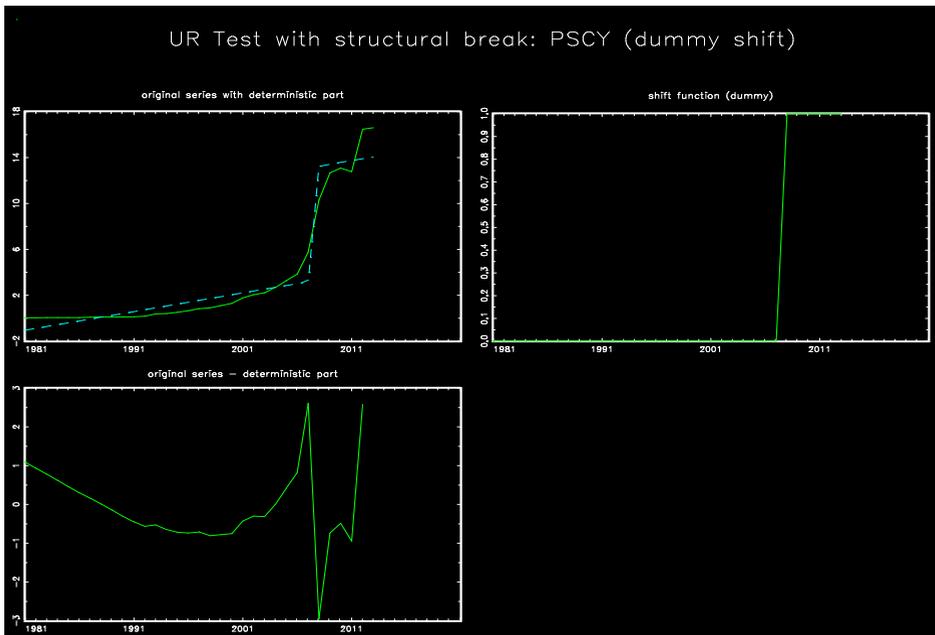
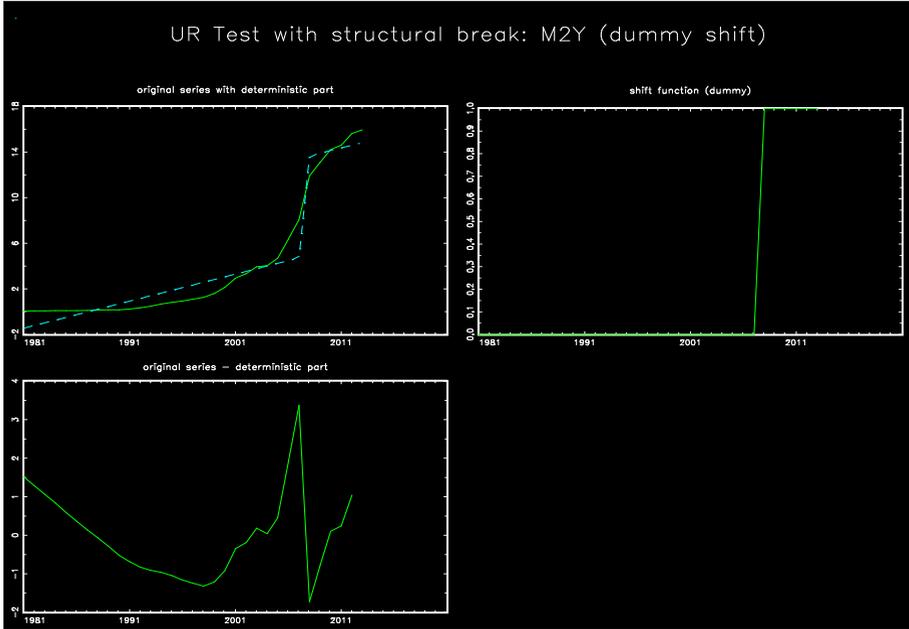
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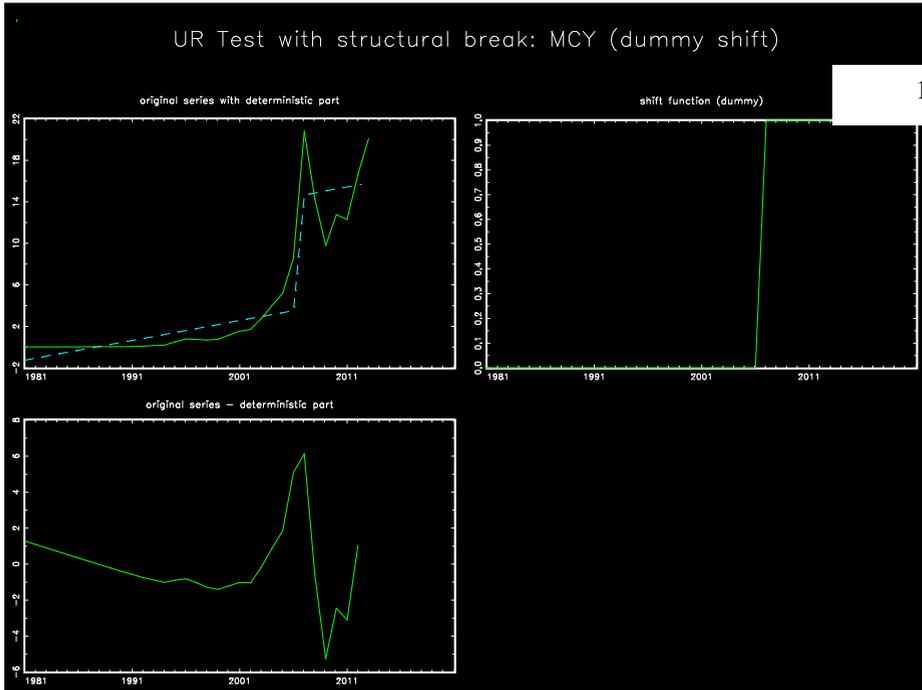
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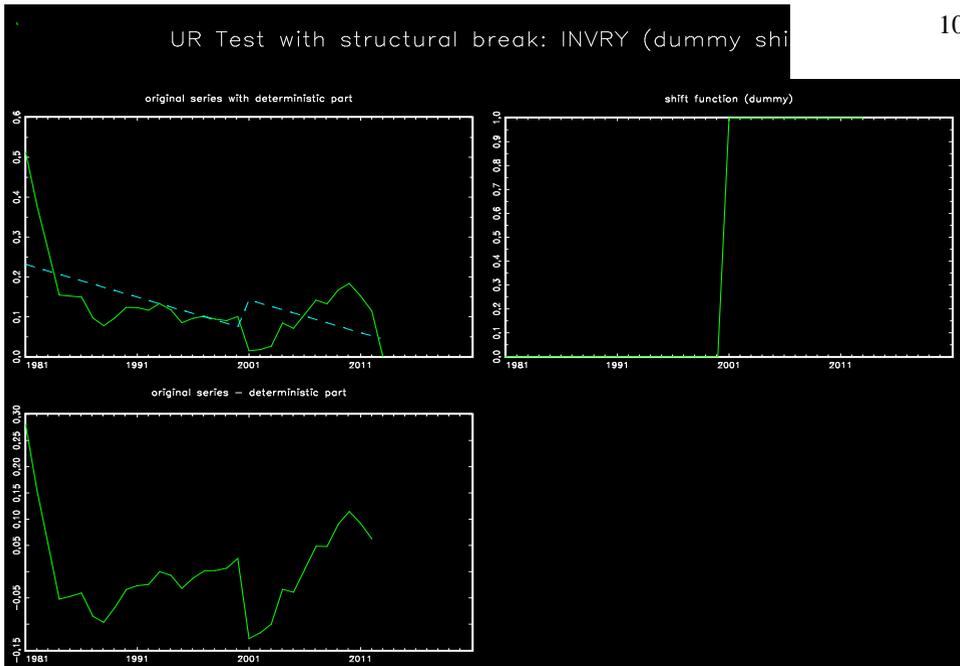
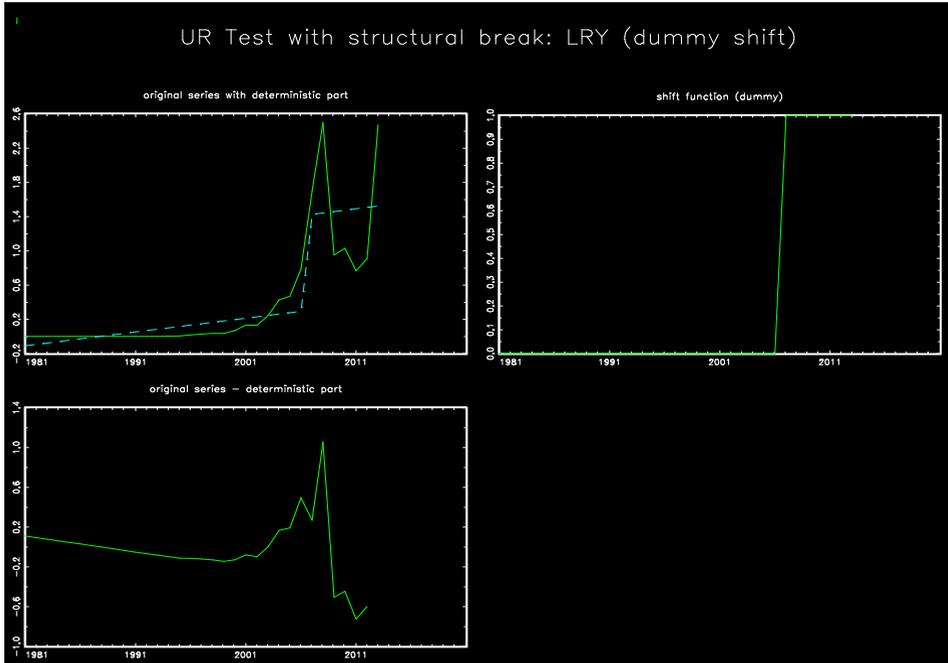
APPENDIX

Plots of Unit Root Test with Structural Breaks and the Break Determination (Saikkonen and Lutkepohl, 2002)

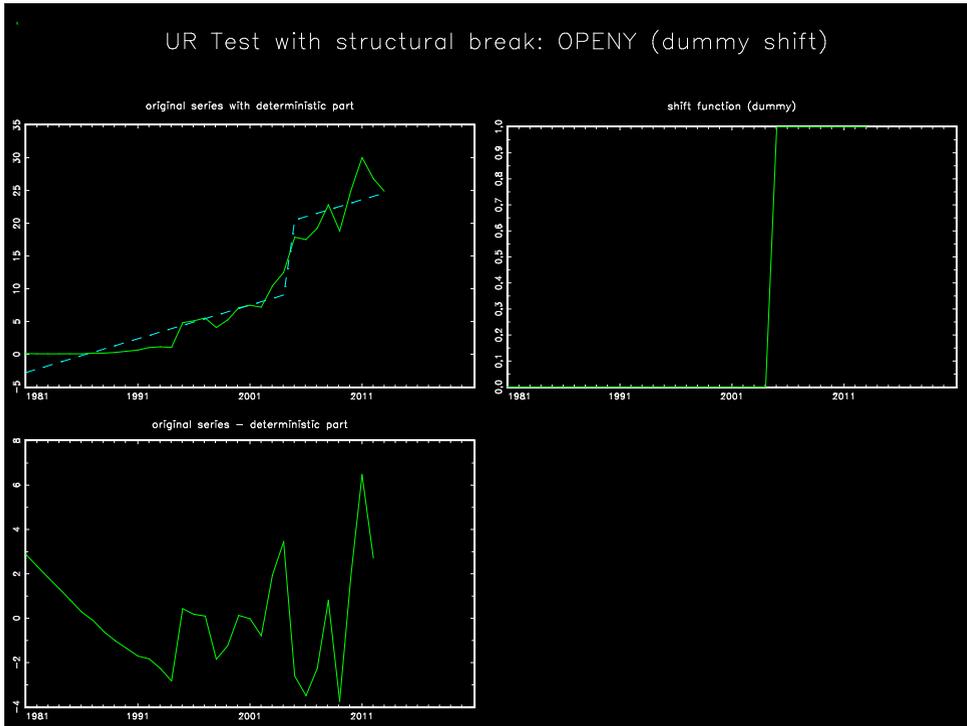








103





Total Quality Management Practices and Organizational Performance

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Abstract: This article examined Total Quality Management (TQM) practices and organizational performance using data gathered from Cway Water Group, Lagos to consummate the study. Total quality management aims at enhancing the quality of products, services and processes in all departments and sections in an organization. Sometimes improvement in quality gives rise to increased cost. The paper, therefore, critically examined the extent to which drive for total quality ultimately impinges on corporate performance. Descriptive research design was adopted. Data were gathered from respondents using structured questionnaire. A total of 325 respondents were used as sample size for the study. The data gathered were analyzed using tables and percentages. Three hypotheses were formulated and tested using SPSS statistical software with regression and correlation analysis. The test of hypotheses revealed that TQM has significant effect on organizational performance as the P-Value was found to be less than 0.05 occasioning the rejection of the null hypothesis. The test also revealed that TQM has positive effect on customer satisfaction. The paper recommended that top management of organizations should make TQM practices top priority in their operations in the interest of sustainable performance.

Key words: Quality management, performance, customer satisfaction, profitability

Introduction

Concern for quality has been an important part of business activities since the advent of globalization. At the early stage of industrialization, manufacturing was essentially

conducted by the cottage industry and heavily relied on craftsmen (Powel, 2015). The manufacturers were merely in sellers' market. However, the trend has changed from sellers' market to buyers' market. The consumers have

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become more aware of the variety of products in the market. Thus, customers are the focus of manufacturing such that every organization has to study what customers' need and offer products and services that would satisfy those needs for the firm to remain in business. Barney (2012) stated that quality of goods are determined by customers and thus customers have become the key factors that create competition among organizations and this makes firms to focus more on quality products and services that are needed by customers in order to remain competitive in the business environment (Anderson, Rungtusanatham and Schroder, 2015). Excellent quality of products and services determine sales volume and profitability thus serving as essential factor in an organization and also contributing to the growth of the economy. Meanwhile in the light of increasing complexities and the change from local to global tiers of market places, there have been constant pressures applied on the management organizations to improve competitiveness by lowering operating cost and improving logistics (Motwani, 2014). The customers are becoming increasingly aware of rising standards having access to wide range of products and services to choose from. There is an ever-increasing demand for quality products and services and this global revolution is forcing organizations to invest substantial resources in adopting and implementing total quality management (TQM) strategies. Total quality management refers to total commitment to quality in all areas, functions and operations within an

enterprise (Garvin, 2011). Total quality management gives everyone in the company responsibility for delivering quality to the final consumers. TQM views each task in the organization as fundamentally a process in a customer-supplier relationship. The aim at each stage is to define and meet the customers' needs in order to maximize their satisfaction and retain their patronage. Incompetence on the part of employees could result in poor quality output (Gaspersv, 2015). Thus, quality product delivery at all times enhances organization reputé and customer patronage. Over the years, many organizations witnessed different negative impacts as a result of substandard products, fake and adulterated goods as a result of poor quality control (Jung and Wang, 2016). If products and services are not of good quality and required specifications, it will not command high sales volume and the organization will suffer poor earnings in the market place.

Two authors (Banner and Garvin, 2015) proposed that organizations should pay attention to the balance between quality and research issues and use them in their macro strategy. They argued that existence of organizational qualitative facility is essential for enhancing organizational resources in order to achieve higher productivity and superior performance (Powel, 2015).

Conceptual Framework Definition of Total Quality Management

Famous authors in total quality management disciplines such as Garvin, Juran, Deming and Crosby defined the concept of quality and total quality

management in different ways. Garvin identified eight attributes to measure product quality (Garvin, 2011). Juran defined quality as “fitness for use”. Juran focused on a trilogy of quality which are; planning, quality control and quality improvement. Crosby defined quality as “conformance to requirements or specifications”. According to Crosby, requirements are based on customer needs. Crosby identified 14 steps for quality improvement plan to achieve performance improvement. According to Deming, quality is a predictable degree of uniformity and dependability, at low cost and suited to the market. Deming also identified 14 principle of quality management to improve productivity and performance of the organization. Ishikawa also emphasized importance of total quality control to improve organizational performance. Feigenbaum came up with the concept of organization-wide total quality control. He was the first to use total quality control concept in the quality literature. He defined quality as “the total composite product and service characteristics of marketing, engineering, manufacturing and maintenance through which the product and service in use will meet the expectations of the customer” (Kruger, 2015).

The Concept of Total Quality Management (TQM)

Total quality management involves total commitment on the part of an organization to satisfying customers through the use of an integrated system of tools, techniques and training Silas and Ebrahimpour, 2015). It is geared towards increasing the production of

better products and services at more competitive price. It involves the continuous improvement of organizational processes, resulting in the manufacture of high quality products and services. It is thus primarily a change in the technology of an organization and its way of carrying out its operations. In service organizations, this means the way clients are processed, the service delivery methods applied by the enterprise and the ancillary organizational processes in place (Silas and Ebrahimpour, 2015). Kanji and Wallace (2011) asserted that substantial and positive change can occur in an organization in three dimensions and that such change must be properly aligned in order to give value to the enterprise (Barney, 2012). Total quality management as a technological change will not be successful unless cultural and political dimensions are attended to as well. TQM results in a radical change in the culture and the way work is done in an organization. A system of TQM directs the effort of the entire firm towards higher customer satisfaction, continuous improvement, and employee involvement (Heizer and Barry, 2015). TQM involves a system of management that involves all people in an organization delivering products or services that meet or exceed customer requirements. Garvin (2011) asserted that TQM is a preventive, proactive approach to doing business and as such it reflects strategic leadership, common sense, data-driven approaches to problem solving and decision making, employee involvement, and sound management practice (Krajewski,

Ritzman and Malharta, 2016). TQM has a strong focus on process measurement and controls as means of continuous improvement. TQM is a quality initiative.

Critical Factors in Total Quality Management

To determine critical factors in total quality management, various studies have been carried out and different instruments were developed by individual researchers and institutions such as Malcolm Baldrige Award, European foundation For Quality Management (EFQM) and the Deming Prize Criteria. Based on these studies, a wide range of management issue, techniques, approaches and systematic empirical investigation have been generated. Accordingly, Saraph, Benson and Schroder, (2015) developed 78 items which were classified into eight critical factors to measure the performance of total quality management in an organization. These critical factors include; role of divisional top management and quality policy management, process management, quality data and reporting and employee relations.

Flyon, Schroder and Sakakibara (2013) developed another instrument to determine critical factors of total quality management. The authors identified seven quality factors. These are top management support, quality information, process management, product design, workforce management, supplier involvement and customer involvement. This instrument is very similar to the preceding instrument that was developed by seraph et al (2013). Flyon et al (2013) measured the impact

of total quality management practices on quality performance and competitive advantage. In another note-worthy study, Anderson, Rungtusanatham and Schroder (2015) developed the theoretical foundation of quality management practice by examining Deming's 14 points. They reduced the number of concepts from 37 to 7 using the Delphi Method. These are visionary leadership, internal and external cooperation, learning, process management, continuous improvement, employee fulfillment and customer satisfaction. Barney (2012) also identified critical factors of the total quality management using the Malcolm Baldrige Award criteria and investigated their validity by empirical means. They developed 32 items, which were classified into ten critical factors. These factors are: Corporate quality culture, strategic quality management, quality improvement measurement systems, people and customer management, operational quality planning, external interface management, supplier partnerships, teamwork structures, customer satisfaction orientation and communication of improvement information.

Integrated Quality Management Constructs

Ahire, Golhar and Walter (2014) developed eleven integrated quality management constructs through detailed analysis of literature to determine critical factors of quality management of organizations. They identified eleven factors. Which include the following: (1) Supplier Quality Management (2) Supplier Performance (3) Customer Focus (4) Statistical Process Control

Usage (5) Benchmarking (6) Internal Quality Information Usage (7) Employee Involvement (8) Employee Training Design Quality Management (9) Employee empowerment (10) Product Quality (11) Top Management Commitment. Motwani (2014) visualizes TQM as constructing a house. First, putting top management commitment to TQM as the foundation. Without a strong foundation, the house will never stand. Once the foundation is in place, attention should be given to top employee training and empowerment, quality measurement and benchmarking, process management and customer involvement and satisfaction. These factors can be viewed as the four pillars of a house. Once the pillars are in place and enriched, it is time to incorporate the factors of vendor quality management and product design. These are the final elements to achieving TQM.

Therefore, the problem in reaching consensus on dimensions is the broad range of approaches used by various TQM authors. For example, some authors focus on the technical and programmatic properties of TQM, while others look at the general management philosophy. Very few authors (Saraph et al, 2015; Anderson et al, 2015; Silas and Ebrahimpour, 2015; and Motwani, 2014) looked at the holistic picture when formulating constructs of TQM. They examined TQM constructs in line with the goals of each investigator but the concepts were ultimately made to complement one another. Based on the fore-going description, the constructs on TQM practices used in the study consists of leadership, strategic

planning, customer focus, information and analysis, people management, process management and supplier management. Other notable organizations both national and international have attempted to define total quality management. These organizations include; United State Department of Defense (1988) and British Institutions for the Maintenance of Standards (1992).

Total Quality Management Principles

Effective quality management is becoming increasingly important to the leadership and management of all organizations. Quality management principles provide the understanding and guidance on the application of quality management techniques (Gaspers, 2015). By applying the following seven quality management principles, an organization will bring benefits to its customers, owners, suppliers and the society at large:

1. **Customer focused organization:** Organizations depend on their customers and therefore should understand current and future customer needs meet customer requirement, and strive to exceed customers' expectations.
2. **Leadership:** Leaders are to establish unity of purpose and directive for an organization. They should create and maintain the internal environment in which people can become fully involved in achieving organizational objectives.
3. **Involvement of people:** People at all levels are the essence of an organization and their full involvement makes it possible for

their abilities to be used for the benefit of an organization.

4. **Process approach:** A desired result is achieved more efficiently when related resources and activities are managed as a process.
5. **Continual improvement:** Continual improvement should be a permanent objective of the organization.
6. **Factual Approach to decision making:** Effective decision and prompt action should be embraced by all managers.
7. **Mutual relationship with suppliers and customers:** An organization and its suppliers as customers should pursue mutual relationship in the interest of all.

Theoretical Framework Theories of Total Quality Management

Total quality management is a quality improvement body of methodologies that are customer-based and service oriented. TQM was first developed in Japan and subsequently spread into other countries of the world. There are a number of theories guiding TQM practices in modern organizations as discussed below:

Deming's Theory

Deming's theory of total quality management rests upon fourteen points of management. The author identified the system of profound knowledge, and the Shewart Cycle (Plan-Do-Check-Act). The author is known for his ratio-quality which is equal to the result of work effort over the total cost. If a company is to focus on cost reduction, the result may be that cost will reduce with deteriorating quality. Deming's

system of profound knowledge consists of four points namely: (1) **System Appreciation:** About the way company's processes and systems work (2) **Variation Knowledge:** Variation occurring and the causes of the variation. (3) **Knowledge Theory:** Concerning what can be known (4) **Psychology Knowledge:** About human nature. By being aware of the different types of knowledge associated with an organization quality management can be understood better.

Fourteen points of Deming's theory of total quality management include; constancy of purpose, adopting new philosophy, stopping dependencies on mass inspections; less dependence on price, continuous production and service improvement, job training, effecting leadership, doing away with fear, breaking down departmental barrier, getting rid of quantity-based work goals, Supporting pride of craftsmanship and training and educating every worker. Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA) cycle enhances continuous improvement in the planning phase. Objectives and actions are outlined followed by doing action and implementing process improvement. Check to ensure quality against the original and determine what changes need to be made for continued improvement before returning to the plan phase. Deming's theory guides organizations in the step-by-step implementation of total quality management principles and practices.

Crosby's Theory

Philip Crosby is another author credited with starting the TQM movement. He made the point, much like Deming, that

if you spend money on quality, it is money that is well spent. The author provided four absolute requirements of quality management which include; (i) looking at quality as adherence to requirements (ii) prevention to maintain quality (iii) maintaining zero defects for high quality and avoiding non-conformity in all processes. Crosby also provided fourteen steps to continuous quality improvement which include; total commitment from management; having quality improvement team; creating metrics for quality improvement activity, determining cost of quality and showing contribute of improvement to results, training supervisors, encouraging employees how to fix defects timely, ensure proper understanding of quality steps by the workforce, demonstrate commitment by maintaining zero defects day, set short term goals, determine root causes of errors in the processes, create incentives programmes for employees, create quality council and hold regular meetings.

Joseph Juran's Theory

Quality Trilogy invented by Joseph Juran is made up of quality planning, quality improvement and quality control. If a quality improvement project is to be successful, then all quality improvement actions must be carefully planned out and controlled. Juran also provided ten steps to quality improvement and they include; creating awareness of opportunities and needs for improvement, determination of goals, map out activities required for reaching the goal; proper training, determine projects, monitor progress, recognize performance, report result,

track achievement and then repeat the process.

Literature Review

TQM as Holistic Concern for Quality

Total Quality Management (TQM) is a business management strategy aimed at embedding awareness of quality in all organizational processes. Motwani (2014) noted that it has been widely used in manufacturing, education, hospitals, call centers, government and service industries. It is a management approach for an organization, centered on quality, based on the participation of all its members and aimed at long-term success through customer satisfaction, and benefits to all members of the organization and to the society (Flyon, Schroder and Sakakibara, 2013). It involves making constant effort to identify what the customers want from time to time and determining how to cater for them based on the recognition of the fact that customers' needs, desires and wants normally change over time, in relation to changes which may occur in the key aspects of the environment such as; social, political, economic and technological environments. TQM is a culture of continuous improvements based on continuous learning and adaptation to changes in consumer demand and product or operational methods (Powe, 2015). TQM is organization-wide management of quality and it requires a comprehensive approach that must first be recognized and then implemented if the rewards are to be realized.

Human Resources are the source of ideas and innovation, and their expertise experience, knowledge, and co-operation have to be harnessed to get

those ideas implemented. When human resources are treated like machines, work becomes uninteresting and unsatisfying. Under such conditions, it is not possible to expect quality services and reliable products (Lackhal, Pasin and Liman, 2016). Organizations exist for joint efforts to achieve a common goal and to reach such goal the factors of production (land, material, man, and money) must be properly harnessed and utilized. Obviously, the most important and most difficult factor of production to manage is the human element and this must be properly taken care of because human resource is the most important factor of production and any organization that neglects it human resources does so at its own peril (Prajogo and Sohal, 2012).

Basic Principles of Total Quality Management (TQM)

The first and major TQM principle is to satisfy the customer- the person who pays for the product or service. Customers want to get their money's worth from a product or service they purchase. If the user of the product is different from the purchaser, then both the user and customer must be satisfied, although the person who pays gets priority. A second TQM principle is to satisfy the supplier, that is, the person or organization from whom you are purchasing goods or services. It is only in the company's best interest that its suppliers provide it with quality goods or services, if the company hopes to provide quality goods or services to its external customers. It also involves supervisors trying to keep their workers happy and productive by providing good task instructions, the tools they need to

do their job and good working conditions. The supervisor must also reward the workers with praise and good pay (Heizer and Barry, 2015).

The third principle of TQM is continuous improvement. Never be satisfied with the method used, because there always can be improvement. In other words, no matter how excellent a product or process may be today, there is always room for further improvement (Silas and Ebrahimpour, 2015). The competition is getting tougher in the business environment, so it is very necessary to strive to be ahead of the game. Workers are a source of continuous improvement and they can provide suggestions on how to improve a process and eliminate wastes and unnecessary work. It also includes quality improvement methods. There are many quality improvement methods, such as just-in-time production, variability reduction that can improve processes and reduce waste (Powel, 2015).

Sources of Resistance to TQM in an Organization

TQM implies finding ways to change the organization from its current state to a better developed state. Change is inevitable and desirable but its acceptance varies, its impact differs and so it is often resisted either by the organization itself, groups and trade unions or by individuals. Resistance can manifest in form of strikes, reduced production, shoddy workmanship, absenteeism, request for transfer, resignation, loss of motivation to work and lateness in arriving at work (Anderson, and Schroder, 2015).

Implementation of large scale change such as TQM will inevitably face resistance which should be addressed directly. Individuals tend to resist change for several reasons. First, they may resist change as a result of fear of the unknown. Again, they may dislike having to learn to use new skills. Also change disrupts stable friendships (Garvin, 2014). The resistance could be because they have a lack of trust in management. The organizational structure also tends to resist change because change is a threat to the power structure, the existing organizational systems are designed to maintain the status quo, other sub-systems within the organization resist change, and previous commitments have been made in the form of sunk costs. Management resistance to employee empowerment may also be experienced.

Top management may see itself spending less time on control and more on facilitation. For many traditional managers, this transition will require teaching, training, self reflection, and time as well as assurances from upper management that they are not in danger of being displaced. Hair, Yoseph, Rolph, Anderson and Black (2014) opines that resistance in other parts of the organization will show up if TQM is introduced on a pilot basis or only in particular programmes. Krugar (2015) refers to this perspective as segmentation-approach where each unit or programme sees itself as separate and unique, with nothing to learn from others and no need to collaborate with them.

There are several tactics which can be helpful in dealing with resistance to

TQM implementation. Generally, they have to do with acknowledging legitimate resistance and changing tactics as the situation demands using effective leadership to align people with TQM principles. A useful technique to systematically identify areas of resistance is a force field analysis which involves creating a force field or driving forces, which aid the change or make it more likely to occur, and restraining forces which are likely to breed resistance. The analysis of the force field involves looking at which driving forces may be strengthened and which restraining forces may be eliminated or mitigated in order to avoid future resistance (Motwani, 2014). If it appears that, overall, driving forces are strong enough to move back restraining forces, adoption of TQM would be worth pursuing. The change plan would include tactics designed to move the relevant forces. Another way to address resistance is to get all employees on the same side, in alignment towards the same goal. Sound leadership is the driving force for achieving this goal and leadership models such as transformational or visionary leadership are most effective.

Research on change implementation identified four methods. The first, "intervention," involves a key executive justifying the need for change, monitoring the process, defining acceptable performance, and demonstrating how improvements can be made. This would involve a leader articulating a compelling vision of an ideal organization and how TQM would help the vision to be actualized. It is often found to be more successful than

the second method "participation," in which representatives of different interest groups determine the features of the change (Barney, 2012). Participation is sometimes more successful than the third method "persuasion" which involves experts attempting to sell the changes they want to make to the workforce. The fourth method "edict," is the least successful. A powerful way to decrease resistance to change is to increase the participation of employees in making decisions about various aspects of the process. Powel (2015) identifies two rationales for employee participation. The first rationale is to increase employee commitment to the resultant outcomes, as they will feel a greater stake or sense of ownership in what is decided. The second rationale is that employees have a great deal of knowledge and skills relevant to the issue at hand for instance, increasing quality, identifying problems, and improving work processes, and their input should lead to higher quality decisions.

Guidelines for Successful Implementation of TQM

The guidelines for TQM implementation will ensure the success of TQM adoption in an organization. TQM usually fails if there has not been a well-articulated programme for putting it in practice. The question therefore arises – which is the best TQM model to adopt? The first problem a company faces when a decision has been taken to implement TQM is the choice of model to adopt (Saraph et al (2025)). This arises from the fact that there are different approaches for implementing TQM. As a general rule, whichever model is

chosen must be tailored to suit the company. Factors such as business area, company size, age, operation, corporate values and culture should be taken into consideration before choosing a model. It is therefore advisable to adopt the approach that best fits a company's situation. Garvin (2011) is of the opinion that every manager be able to understand that the procedure that succeeded in one organization may not be so successful elsewhere. Every manager should also understand that every company and every situation is different. Jung and Wang (2016) stipulated that different organizations require different approaches. He suggested that bold ridge framework is the best guide for companies to know where they are and where they want to go.

Top Management Commitment to TQM is an essential requirement without which the implementation cannot succeed. The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and his senior managers must not only give commitment to the programme but must lead it. Juran (1994) stated that the most frequent reason for the failure of quality programme is the failure of upper managers to have personal involvement in the implementation of TQM. There are non-delegate things that senior managers have tried to delegate. All CEOs with their managers should personally be fully involved in all quality programmes. Motwani (2014) supports this give and stipulates that if owners or directors of the organization do not recognize and accept their responsibilities for the initiation and operation of TQM, then these changes

will not happen. It is possible to detect real commitment. It shows at the top of operation. Things happen at this operating interface as a result of real commitment. To do this, they must have good understanding of the principles and benefits to be derived through implementing the programme, which could be through organizing awareness seminars (Hendricks and Singhal, 2014).

Implementation Principles and Processes

A preliminary step in TQM implementation is to assess the organization's current reality. Where the current reality does not include important preconditions, TQM implementation should be delayed until the organization is in a state in which TQM is likely to succeed. However, a certain level of stress is probably desirable to initiate TQM. This is because people need to feel a need for a change. Finally, action vehicles are needed i.e. mechanisms or structures to enable the change to occur and become institutionalized (Silas and Ebrahimpour, 2015). TQM processes and models of employee participation are such mechanisms. Essential or desirable preconditions may be identified in macro and micro areas. Macro factors include those which are concerned with issues such as leadership, resources, and the surrounding infrastructure. Micro issues have to do with internal issues such as employee training and empowerment and organizational processes such as quality assurance. In designing a comprehensive change process, the leader must acknowledge the existing organizational culture (norms and

values, managers' leadership philosophies and styles at all levels) to ensure a good fit. TQM also needs to be congruent with other organizational processes, including reward systems, financial & information systems, and training systems (Flyon Schroder and Sakakibara, 2015). Implementing TQM essentially involves organizational transformation which has to do with beginning to operate in new ways, developing a new culture a type of change which though difficult, is possible.

TQM and Organizational Performance

Organizational performance factors provide the social context within which individuals and groups must perform. Organizational performance is the result of factors such as work processes; team/group communication and interaction; corporate culture and image; policies; leadership; climate for innovation and creativity and loyalty (Heizer and Barry, 2015). Human performance factors can either positively or negatively influence organizational performance and vice-versa. The issue of organizational performance can be approached either from the perspective of culture (internal) or brand (external). Organizational Performance can be divided into three major categories: social, technical/operational, and ideological. There are numerous methods that can be used to increase the performance of an organization. These may include; regular recurring activities to establish organizational goals, monitoring progress toward the achievement of the goals, attracting more customer

patronage through the provision of greater satisfaction for customers (Mentzer et al (2017)).

Typically, these become integrated into the overall recurring management systems in the organization as opposed to being used primarily in one-time projects for change. There are several approaches for a planned, comprehensive approach to increasing organizational performance such as; balanced scorecard, benchmarking; business process reengineering, continuous improvement, cultural change, knowledge-based management, management by objectives(MBO), outcome-based evaluation and strategic planning. It is also essential to note that top management total support is needed for successful implementation of total quality management principles and practices in modern organization.

Advantages of Implementing Total Quality Management in an Organization

Some of the advantages and benefits of implementing total quality management in an organization include the following:

- (1) High-lighting the needs of the market: Total Quality Management helps in highlighting needs of the market and how to meet those needs better.
- (2) Ensuring better quality performance in every sphere of activity: Total Quality Management stresses bringing attitudinal changes and improvement in the performance of employees by proper work culture and effective team work.
- (3) Helping in checking and eliminating non-productive

superior quality goods and services that activities: In Total Quality Management process, quality improvement teams are constituted to reduce waste and inefficiency of every kind by introducing systematic approach. Such efforts are helpful in achieving cost effectiveness.

- (4) Helping a company to remain competitive: Total Quality Management techniques are greatly helpful in understanding the competition and also developing an effective combating strategy to enable the organization to remain competitive.
- (5) Helping in developing an adequate system of communication: Total Quality Management techniques bind together members of various sections, department and levels of management for effective communication and interaction.
- (6) Continuous Review of progress: Total Quality Management helps to review the process needed to develop the strategy of never ending improvement.
- (7) Effectiveness: The goal of total quality management system is to improve the effectiveness of the organization in achieving targets and to continuously improve the quality of production and client satisfaction.
- (8) Efficiency: Total quality management ensures a high efficiency through improving the quality of resources, using inputs and outputs without increasing capital volume.

- (9) Quality Chains: Every member of staff is part of quality chains i.e. supplier of products/ services to customers. The product of one unit of an organization is an input (raw material) to another unit. Thus, every staff in the quality chains should know his/her customer and supplier expectations.

Disadvantages of Implementing TQM in an Organization

Some disadvantages are also inherent in the implementation of total quality management in an organization. Such disadvantages include the following:

- (1) Demand for change in culture: TQM demands an organizational culture that focuses in continuous process improvement and customs satisfaction. It requires a change of attitude and a reprioritization of daily operations.
- (2) Demand for detailed planning, time and resource: A good TQM system often takes time to implement and it usually takes place only after significant planning, long-term resource allocation and unwavering management commitment.
- (3) Quality is expensive to maintain: TQM is expensive to implement. Implementation comes with additional training cases, team development cost, infrastructural improvement cost, consultant fee and the like.
- (4) Takes years to show results: Result of effort to maintain total quality in all departments and sections in an organization takes a long time to come and sometimes at additional cost to the organization.

Prospects of Total Quality Management in Nigeria

There is the possibility of Total Quality Management practices to be successful with companies operating in Nigeria. Every organization in Nigeria and every individual in the organization (Top management, Junior Management and Shop floor workers) must gain a basic understanding of the quality management principles, then identifying the key issues from top level strategic interest to everyday operational concerns. The key issues are then prioritized for improvement of activities to be undertaken for the success of the organization. Improvement teams and facilitators at the introduction of TQM and during the development stage of the implementation activities take charge to ensure the success of the programme. Less important activities and functions along the line can be revised or removed entirely as occasion demands. People in all functions will be encouraged to take responsibility for their own personal improvement, but, sometimes, it may take some time for this to happen. However, care must be taken to review and re-assess the effectiveness of the process of implementation to ensure that the momentum of improvement process is being maintained.

Research Methodology

Descriptive research design was adopted in this article. Data were

gathered from respondents using questionnaire carefully designed by the researcher. A total of 325 respondents were used as sample size for the study. The data gathered were analyzed using tables and percentages. Three

hypotheses were formulated and tested using SPSS statistical software with regression and correlation analysis. The results of the tested hypotheses were given and appropriate recommendations were made.

Data Presentation

Table 1: Analysis of Questionnaire Response Rate

Questionnaire	Respondents' Response	Percentage of Response
Number of questionnaires Administered	380	100%
Number of questionnaires Returned	325	85%
Number of questionnaires not returned	55	15%
Total	380	100%

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Table 2. Gender of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	127	39.1	39.6	39.6
Female	194	59.7	60.4	100.0
Total	321	98.8	100.0	
Missing System	4	1.2		
Total	325	100.0		

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Interpretation: The above table depicts information concerning the gender of the sample population. It shows that 127 (39.1%) of the respondents are male and

194 (59.7%) are female. It also shows that 4 (1.2%) respondents did not fill in their gender. This simply implies that majority of the respondents are females

Table 3. AGE of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 15 - 20	239	73.5	74.2	74.2
21 - 25	83	25.5	25.8	100.0
Total	322	99.1	100.0	
Missing System	3	.9		
Total	325	100.0		

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Interpretation: The table above shows that 239 (73.5%) of the respondents are within the ages of 15-20 and 83 (25.5%) respondents are within the ages of 21-25 while no respondents were within the ages of 26-30. It also shows that 3

(0.9%) respondents did not fill their ages. This simply implies that majority of the respondents that completed the questionnaire are within the age bracket of 15-20 yrs.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	MBA/M.Sc.	67	20.6	20.8	20.8
	B.Sc./HND	37	11.4	11.5	32.3
	NCE/ND	63	19.4	19.6	51.9
	CRAFT CERT.	129	39.7	40.1	91.9
	WASC/GCE	26	8.0	8.1	100.0
	Total	322	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.9		
Total		325	100.0		

Table 4. Level of Education of Respondents
Source: Field Survey (2019)

Interpretation: The table above illustrates that 67 (20.6%) respondents have MBA/M.Sc. degrees, 37 (11.4%) respondents have B.Sc./HND, 63 (19.4%) respondents have NCE/ND, 129 (39.7%) respondents have Craft

Certificates while 26 (8.0%) respondents have WASC/GCE. It also shows that 3 (0.9%) respondents failed to fill in details of their qualifications. This depicts that majority of the respondents have Craft Certificates.

Table 5. Positions held in the Organization

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	JUNIOR	196	60.3	60.9	60.9
	SENIOR	10	3.1	3.1	64.0
	MIDDLE	54	16.6	16.8	80.7
	SUPERVISOR	62	19.1	19.3	100.0
	Total	322	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.9		
Total		325	100.0		

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Interpretation: This table illustrates that 196 (60.3%) respondents are Junior workers, 10 (3.1%) respondents are Senior managers, 54 (16.6%) respondents are Middle level managers and 62 (19.1%) are Supervisors. However, 3 (0.9%) respondents did not

provide details of their position in the organization.

Research Questions

Can TQM practice, in some ways, help an organization to enhance its profitability?

Table 6. Can TQM practice, in some way, help an organization to enhance its profitability?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	STRONGLY AGREE	7	2.2	2.2	2.2
	AGREE	57	17.5	17.5	19.7
	UNDECIDED	33	10.2	10.2	29.8
	DISAGREE	158	48.6	48.6	78.5
	STRONGLY DISAGREE	70	21.5	21.5	100.0
	Total	325	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Interpretation: The table above shows that 7 (2.2%) respondents strongly agreed, 57 (17.5%) respondents agreed, 33 (10.2%) respondents are undecided, 158 (48.6%) respondents disagreed and 70 (21.5%) respondents strongly

disagreed. Thus we can determine that the majority of the respondents disagreed with the question. To what level can TQM practice aid an organization to improve productivity

Table 7. To what level can TQM practice aid an organization to improve productivity?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	STRONGLY AGREE	9	2.8	2.8	2.8
	AGREE	42	12.9	13.0	15.8
	UNDECIDED	55	16.9	17.0	32.8
	DISAGREE	144	44.3	44.6	77.4
	STRONGLY DISAGREE	73	22.5	22.6	100.0
	Total	323	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.6		
Total		325	100.0		

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Interpretation: This table shows that 9 (2.8%) respondents strongly agree, 42 (12.9%) respondents agree, 55 (16.9%) respondents are undecided, 144 (44.3%) respondents disagree and 73 (22.5%) respondents strongly disagree. It was

also discovered that 2 (0.6%) respondents did not respond to this question. It is therefore deductible that the majority of respondents disagree with the question.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	STRONGLY AGREE	18	5.5	5.6	5.6
	AGREE	174	53.5	53.7	59.3
	UNDECIDED	39	12.0	12.0	71.3
	DISAGREE	63	19.4	19.4	90.7
	STRONGLY DISAGREE	30	9.2	9.3	100.0
	Total	324	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.3		
Total		325	100.0		

Table 8. To what degree can TQM practice help a corporate entity to improve customer satisfaction?

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Interpretation: This table above shows that 18 (5.5%) respondents strongly agree, 174 (53.5%) respondents agree, 39 (12%) respondents are undecided, 63 (19.4%) disagree and 30 (9.2%) respondents strongly disagree. There was also a missing number of 1 (0.3%) respondent who did not respond to this question. Therefore we can deduce that

the majority of respondents agree to the question

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Ho: Total Quality Management practice has no significant effect on corporate performance.

Hi: Total Quality Management practice has significant effect on corporate performance.

Table 9. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.553 ^a	.305	.303	.66757

a. Predictors: (Constant), Total Quality Management

Table 10. ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	63.311	1	63.311	142.062	.000 ^b
	Residual	143.946	323	.446		
	Total	207.257	324			

a. Dependent Variable: Corporate Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant): Total Quality Management

Table 11. Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.539	.156		9.852	.000
TQM	.530	.045	.553	11.919	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Corporate Performance.

Interpretation

The R² value above shows how much of the variance in the dependent variable which is Corporate Performance is explained by the independent variable which is Total Quality Management. In this case, the R square value is 0.305 which is translated as 30.5% effect on the variance corporate performance.

The ANOVAa table reveals the assessment of the statistical significance of the result. The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted because the P-value is less than 0.05. The model in this table reaches statistical significance (sig = 0.000), in which the P-value is equal to 0.000 and less than 0.05.

The coefficient table above shows the extent to which the independent variable contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable. In this table, the beta coefficient is 0.553 which simply implies that a unit change in total quality management would result in a 55.3% change in corporate performance. From the table above, it can be concluded that corporate performance is directly influenced by the total quality management practice. Therefore this implies that “Total Quality Management” has a significant effect on “Corporate Performance”.

Hypothesis 2

Ho: Total Quality Management practice has no significant effect on the productivity of an organization.

Hi: Total Quality Management practice has significant effect on the productivity of an organization.

Table 12. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.562 ^a	.316	.314	.74815

a. Predictors: (Constant), Total Quality Management

Table 13. ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	83.521	1	83.521	149.219	.000 ^b
	Residual	180.790	323	.560		
	Total	264.311	324			

a. Dependent Variable: Productivity of an Organization

b. Predictors: (Constant), Total Quality Management

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Table 14. Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.561	.162		9.615	.000
	TQM	.548	.045	.562	12.216	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Productivity of an Organization

Interpretation

The R² value in the model summary shows how much of the variance in the dependent variable which is productivity of an organization is explained by the independent variable which is total quality management. In this case, the R square value is 0.316 which is translated as 31.6% effect on the variance productivity of an organization.

The ANOVAa table reveals the assessment of the statistical significance of the result. The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted because the P-value is less than 0.05. The model in this table reaches statistical significance at (sig = 0.000), in which the P-value is equal to 0.000 and less than 0.05.

Hypothesis 3

Ho: Total Quality Management has no significant effect on the improvement of customer satisfaction in an organization.

Hi: Total Quality Management has significant effect on the improvement of customer satisfaction in an organization.

The coefficient table shows the extent to which the independent variable contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable. In this table, the beta coefficient is 0.562 which implies that a unit change in total quality management practice would result in a 56.2% change in the productivity of an organization. From the table above, it can be concluded that the productivity of an organization is directly influenced by the total quality management practice. Therefore this implies that “Total Quality Management” has a significant effect on “the Productivity of an Organization”.

Table 4.15. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.371 ^a	.138	.135	.89376

a. Predictors: (Constant), Total Quality Management

Table 16. ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	41.157	1	41.157	51.524	.000 ^b
	Residual	258.013	323	.799		
	Total	299.171	324			

a. Dependent Variable: Customer Satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), Total Quality Management

Table 17. Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.035	.169		12.030	.000
	TQM	.403	.056	.371	7.178	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Customer satisfaction

Interpretation

The Regression analysis was used in evaluating hypothesis 3. which represents the “Model Summary.” It gives information about the overall goodness fit of the model being tested. The R value represents the simple correlation and is 0.371 which indicates a moderately high degree of correlation. The R2 value shows how much of the variance in the dependent variable which is Customer Satisfaction is explained by the independent variable which is Total Quality Management. In this case, the R square value is 0.138 which is translated as 13.8% effect on the variance customer satisfaction.

The ANOVAa table reveals the assessment of the statistical significance

of the result. The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted because the P-value is less than 0.05. The model in this table reaches statistical significance at (sig = 0.000), in which the P-value is equal to 0.000 and less than 0.05.

The coefficient table shows the extent to which the independent variable contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable. In this table, the beta coefficient is 0.562 which simply implies that a unit change in total quality management practice would result in a 37.1% change in customer satisfaction. From the table above, it can be concluded that customer satisfaction is directly influenced by total quality management practice. Therefore, this implies that “Total Quality Management

practice” has a significant effect on “Customer Satisfaction”.

Discussion of Findings

Hypothesis One:

The R² value shows how much of the variance in the dependent variable which is (corporate performance) is explained by the independent variable which is (total quality management). In this case, the R square value is 0.305 which is translated as 30.5% effect on the variance corporate performance. The ANOVA table reveals the assessment of the statistical significance of the result. The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted because the significant level = 0.000 is less than 0.05. The result is that total quality management practice has significant effect on corporate performance. This finding is in consonance with Garvin (2014) which postulated that careful implementation of the principles of TQM leads to outstanding corporate performance.

Hypothesis Two:

The R² value shows how much of the variance in the dependent variable which is productivity of an organization is explained by the independent variable which is total quality management. In this case, the R square value is 0.316 which is translated as 31.6% effect on the variance productivity of an organization. The ANOVA table reveals the assessment of the statistical significance of the result. The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted because the P-value is less than 0.05. The model in this table reaches statistical significance at (sig = 0.000), in which the P-value is equal to 0.000 and less than 0.05. The

result is that total quality management practice has significant effect on the productivity of an organization. This finding supports the view of Anderson and Schroder (2015). The authors stressed that absence of resistance by employees against TQM principles leads to increased productivity of the workforce.

Hypothesis Three:

The R² value shows how much of the variance in the dependent variable which is Customer Satisfaction is explained by the independent variable which is Total Quality Management. In this case, the R square value is 0.138 which is translated as 13.8% effect on the variance customer satisfaction. The ANOVA table reveals the assessment of the statistical significance of the result. The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted because the P-value is less than 0.05. The model in this table reaches statistical significance at (sig = 0.000), in which the P-value is equal to 0.000 and less than 0.05. Therefore, the result is that total quality management has significant effect on the improvement of customer satisfaction in an organization. This finding is in agreement with Mentzer et al (2017) which argued that superior quality goods and services resulting from effective TQM practices provide customers with greater satisfaction.

Conclusion

Total Quality Management (TQM) seeks to satisfy the external customers with quality goods and services as well as the company’s internal customers. The first and major TQM principle is to satisfy the customer- the person who pays for the product or service. Customers want to

get their money's worth from a product or service they purchase. If the user of the product is different from the purchaser, then both the user and customer must be satisfied. The second TQM principle is to satisfy the supplier, that is, the person or organization from whom you are purchasing goods or services. It is only in the company's best interest that its suppliers provide it with quality goods or services, if the company hopes to provide quality goods or services to its external customers.

Workers should also be provided with good rewards and adequate motivation. The reason for providing workers with good rewards is to get the best of productivity out of them. An effective supervisor with a good team of workers will certainly satisfy his or her internal customers. One area of satisfying the internal customers is by empowering the workers. This means to allow them to make decisions on things that they can control. This not only takes the burden off the supervisor, but it also motivates these internal suppliers to do better work. The third principle of TQM is continuous improvement. Never be satisfied and complacent with the present method used, because there can always be improvement. In other words, no matter how excellent a product or process may be today, there is always room for further improvement. The importance of TQM in every organization cannot be over-emphasized due to its many benefits to a firm. Total quality management is a long term

continuous process that faces many obstacles such as slow process of staff to adapt the changes of TQM, the need for the company to purchase modern equipment which would make the manufacturing process more efficient and also help reduce the cost of production. Lack of team work will also affect TQM growth. With the involvement of leadership commitment and effective communication total quality management will enhance customer satisfaction and improve organizational performance.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are put forward with the aim of helping modern organizations to make the best use of total quality management principles and procedures to increase organizational profitability:

- (1) TQM approaches should be carefully identified, planned and executed at all the levels of the company.
- (2) There should be a perfect working system and continuous feedback process through effective and efficient communication and information systems.
- (3) Conducting relevant training for the employees to inculcate in them the principles and practices of TQM in order to eliminate or reduce to the barest minimum resistance to change.

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