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Highlights

- Employee Innovative Work
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Contents of the Issue

i. Copyright Notice
ii. Editorial Board Members
iii. Chief Author and Dean
iv. Contents of the Issue

1. Pratiques Du Contrôle De Gestion Dans Les petites Entreprises Agroalimentaires. Marocaines: Cas De La Région De Béni Mellal khénifra. *1-6*
2. Strategic Agility: Achievin*g* Superior Organizational Performance through Strategic Foresight. *7-16*
3. Organizational Trustworthiness and Employee Innovative work Behaviour. *17-23*
4. Smart Airport: A Review on Future of the Airport Operation. *25-34*
5. A Critiquing of Masculinity Leadership Syndrome in African Organizations: A Lens from Kitchen to the Palace of Modern Organizations. *35-43*

v. Fellows
vi. Auxiliary Memberships
vii. Preferred Author Guidelines
viii. Index

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Pratiques Du Contrôle De Gestion Dans Les petites Entreprises Agroalimentaires Marocaines: Cas De La Région De Béni Mellal khénifra

By Mustapha Razzouki & Khadija Benazzi
Université Cady Ayyad

Abstract- Our work aims to study management control practices (MCP) in small agribusinesses (SA) in the Beni Mellal-Khénifra region. Semi-structured interviews, observations and document analysis were used to collect the data. The owners and executives of the production units surveyed were interviewed. The findings of the study show that the management control practices of these companies are strongly affected by the traditional cultural norms of Moroccan society. Predominant management control practices include "power sharing among family members", Paternal governance, verbal communication, clan selection of employees, friendly and horizontal relationships. These practices have often favored centralized decision-making processes in all aspects of the operations of these companies. These results call for new research of the same nature to explain the relationship between these practices and the financial performance of these companies.

Keywords: *management control practices; small agribusinesses; traditional norms.*

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Pratiques Du Contrôle De Gestion Dans Les Petites Entreprises Agroalimentaires Marocaines: Cas De La Région De Béni Mellal Khénifra

Mustapha Razzouki [α] & Khadija Benazzi [σ]

Abstract- Our work aims to study management control practices (MCP) in small agribusinesses (SA) in the Beni Mellal-Khénifra region. Semi-structured interviews, observations and document analysis were used to collect the data. The owners and executives of the production units surveyed were interviewed. The findings of the study show that the management control practices of these companies are strongly affected by the traditional cultural norms of Moroccan society. Predominant management control practices include "power sharing among family members", Paternal governance, verbal communication, clan selection of employees, friendly and horizontal relationships. These practices have often favored centralized decision-making processes in all aspects of the operations of these companies. These results call for new research of the same nature to explain the relationship between these practices and the financial performance of these companies.

Keywords: management control practices; small agribusinesses; traditional norms.

Résumé- Notre travail vise à étudier les pratiques du contrôle de gestion (PCG) dans les petites entreprises agroalimentaires (PEA) au niveau dela région de Béni Mellal- Khénifra. Des entretiens semi-structurés, des observations et des analyses de documents ont été utilisés pour collecter les données. Les propriétaires et les responsables exécutifs des unités de production enquêtées ont été interviewés. Les conclusions de l'étude montrent que les pratiques du contrôle de gestion de ces entreprises sont fortement affectées par les normes culturelles traditionnelles de la société marocaine. Les pratiques du contrôle de gestion prédominantes comprennent« partage du pouvoir entre les membres de famille», gouvernance paternelle, communication verbale, sélection clanique des employés, relations amicales et horizontales.Ces pratiques ont souvent favorisé des processus décisionnels centralisés dans tous les aspects des opérations de ces entreprises. Ces résultats appellent de nouvelles recherches de même nature pour expliquer la relation entre ces pratiques et la performance financière de ces entreprises.

Motsclés: pratiques du contrôle de gestion; petites entreprises agroalimentaires, normes traditionnelles.

Author α: Doctorant en science de gestion, Groupe de recherche (INREDD), Université Cady Ayyad, Marrakech, Maroc.
e-mail: razzouki.mustapha@gmail.com
Author σ: Enseignant – Chercheur, Groupe de recherche (INREDD), Université Cady Ayyad, Marrakech, Maroc.

I. Introduction

Au cours des trois dernières décennies, la recherche a suscité un intérêt croissant pour les pratiques du contrôle de gestion (PCG) dans différents pays, on en cite les recherches de :(Lambert & Sponem, 2009); (Ngongang & Noumouen njojo, 2018), (Duréndez, et al., 2016), (Bampoky & Meyssonnier, 2012) ; (Acquaah, 2013). Cependant, ces études sont axées sur les grandes et les moyennes entreprises des pays développés et en voie de développement. Les conclusions dégagées ne pourraient pas être généralisées aux petites entreprises, notamment celles du secteur agroalimentaire dont l'histoire, la culture et la structure sont très différentes.

Dans le cadre de notre étude, une petite entreprise agroalimentaire peut être définie comme toute unité de production employant moins de 10 personnes et transformant des matières premières issues de l'agriculture, de l'élevage ou de la pêche en produits alimentaires destinés essentiellement à la consommation humaine.

Le secteur agroalimentaire occupe une place importante dans l'économie marocaine à travers sa participation à la création d'emplois et à l'amélioration de la balance commerciale. Selon le ministère de l'économie et des finances[1], le secteur a réalisé en 2012 une valeur ajoutée d'environ 30 Milliards de DHS, soit 30% du PIB industriel. Il regroupe 2048 entreprises, emploie plus de 143.000 personnes et la valeur de la production de ces unités était de 106 Milliards de DHS.

La région de Béni Mellal – Khénifra est l'une des premières régions agricoles du royaume, elle se distingue par une production agricole importante et diversifiée (agrumes, olivier, céréales, grenadier, betterave sucrière, etc.) et par une production considérable du lait. La région joue un rôle primordial dans l'économie nationale, avec une production de 3,9

[1] Direction des Etudes et des Prévisions Financières, ministère de l'économie et des finances. « Performances et perspectives du secteur de l'industrie agro-alimentaire au Maroc ». Novembre 2010

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Milliards de DHS, une valeur ajoutée de 900 Millions de DHS et une création de 2400[2]emplois.

L'objectif principal de cette étude est donc d'explorer, décrire et interpréter les pratiques du contrôle de gestion dans les petites entreprises agroalimentaires de ladite région.

II. Le Cadre Conceptuel de L'étude

Après une revue de la littérature sur le contrôle de gestion, notre recherche adopte un cadre conceptuel contemporain. Il s'agit d'une combinaison des travaux de(Malmi & Brown, 2008); (Ferreira & Otley, 2009); (Simons, 1995). Les éléments clés sur lesquels repose notre cadre conceptuel sont: le contrôle culturel, le contrôle administratif et le processus de contrôle. Ce cadre conceptuel est considéré comme un guide approprié pour comprendre les PCG dans l'environnement des PEA.

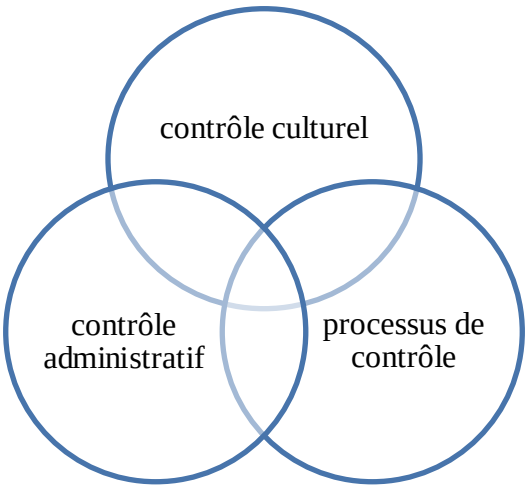


Figure 1: Cadre conceptuel des PCG dans les petites entreprises agroalimentaires

La culture est souvent un élément de contrôle qu'on utilise pour réguler le comportement des employés. Le contrôle culturel est un engagement moral concernant les valeurs, les normes et la manière d'exécuter les tâches au sein des organisations. (Flamholtz, et al., 1985) Ont défini le contrôle culturel comme « un ensemble de valeurs, de croyances et de normes sociales partagées par les membres d'une organisation et qui influencent leurs pensées et leurs actions ». Dans ce cadre, on distingue le contrôle par les valeurs (Simons, 1995), le contrôle par les symboles (Schein, 1997)et le contrôle par le clan(Ouchi, 1979).

Simons (1995) a développé le concept de contrôle par les valeurs à travers ce qu'il a décrit comme un système de croyance. Ce dernier désigne l'ensemble explicite de valeurs organisationnelles que les dirigeants communiquent formellement et renforcent de manière systématique en vue de développer une culture et des buts organisationnels. Les dirigeants cherchent à ce que leurs subordonnés adoptent les valeurs organisationnelles (Honnêteté, Enthousiasme, Confiance, etc.). Les énoncés de mission, de vision et les déclarations d'intention sont des exemples de système de croyance qui transmet ces valeurs (Simons, 1995).

Le contrôle par les symboles se réalise lorsque les organisations créent des expressions visibles telles que l'aménagement des espaces de travail et des codes vestimentaires, afin de développer un type de culture particulier (Schein, 1997). Par exemple, une organisation peut créer un bureau ouvert pour développer une culture de communication et de collaboration entre ses membres dans le but de contrôler leurs comportements. De même, une organisation peut demander au personnel de porter un uniforme afin de créer une culture de professionnalisme.

Le contrôle administratif a pour but d'orienter le comportement des employés, l'objectif étant de rendre ces derniers responsables de leurs attitudes. Il spécifie formellement les tâches que les employés doivent exécutées. Le contrôle administratif s'articule autour des éléments suivants : la structure de gouvernance (Malmi & Brown, 2008), les niveaux d'autorité et la vision / mission de l'organisation (Hared, et al., 2014). La structure de gouvernance détermine l'ensemble des activités administratives d'une organisation (Overall, et al., 2010). Elle veille à ce que les responsables de différentes tâches se réunissent pour coordonner leurs activités à la fois verticalement et horizontalement. Par exemple, les réunions et les ordres de jour orientent le comportement des membres de l'organisation. Ses recommandations sont souvent issues de l'assemblée générale ou de l'équipe de gestion. La structure de gouvernance peut être conçue de différentes manières

[2] Centre Régional d'Investissement, « Secteur agro-industriel au niveau de la Région Béni Mellal – Khénifra: Situation actuelle et perspectives d'avenir » Mai 2018.

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au sein de l'organisation. Les lignes d'autorité et de responsabilité sont liées à la structure de gouvernance (Abernethy & Brownell, 1997). Ces dernières sont les points clés qui guident le processus de décision notamment les modifications apportées aux stratégies et aux activités face aux mutations de l'environnement. L'orientation générale que les organisations souhaitent poursuivre est exprimée par les énoncés de vision et de mission. Elles n'ont d'importance que dans la mesure où elles sont communiquées et appliquées. La mission définit l'objectif primordial de l'organisation conformément aux valeurs et aux attentes des parties prenantes, tandis que la vision définit le futur souhaité: l'ambition de l'organisation (Johnson, et al., 2005).

Enfin, le processus de contrôle est le contrôle des tâches d'une organisation telle que, la planification (Flamholtz et al, 1985) et l'évaluation des performances (Ferreira & Otley, 2009). La planification est une forme de contrôle efficace (Flamholtz et al, 1985). Elle définit les objectifs à atteindre, ainsi que l'effort et le comportement attendu des membres de l'organisation. En outre, la planification permet de contrôler les activités des groupes et des individus afin de s'assurer qu'elles correspondent aux résultats souhaités.

Quant à l'évaluation de la performance, elle est un élément clé dans les activités de contrôle. Elle détermine le statut et la progression de l'organisation. La perception des dirigeants et des subordonnés de ce que doit être la situation de l'organisation est importante. Des recherches montrent que la confiance entre les parties joue un rôle majeur dans l'amélioration de la performance (Gibbs, et al., 2004). Ce processus ne concerne pas exclusivement les évaluations de performances individuelles, même s'ils sont facilement observables, il comprend également l'évaluation des performances de divers groupes de personnes (équipes, par exemple) et plus généralement, de l'organisation dans son ensemble. L'évaluation de la performance est basée sur des bénéfices de l'entreprise. Cette dernière obtient des résultats plus élevés lorsqu'elle suit une orientation d'équipe plutôt qu'une orientation individualiste (Ferreira et Otley, 2009).

III. Méthodes de Recherche

Notre étude adopte une approche qualitative pour la collecte de données. L'échantillon se compose de 52 entreprises opérant dans le même secteur et sont de taille et de processus de production similaire. Elles se partagent le même territoire géographique, historique et culturel. La question qui se pose est de savoir l'influence des cultures traditionnelles sur la gestion et le contrôle de ces entreprises. Les dirigeants ont fait valoir que les normes traditionnelles deviennent un système utilisé pour contrôler leurs entreprises. Le contact direct avecles responsables de l'entreprise nous a permisd' accéder à des informations clés sur les PCG. Les données de terrain ont été collectées entre janvier et mars 2019.

Comme le montre la figure 2, les participants à l'interview étaient: le dirigeant, l'assistant, le responsable de production et de commercialisation. Chaque interview durait en moyenne2h30 min. Toutes les interviews ont été administrées par questionnaires. Outre les entretiens, les observations et l'analyse de documents ont été également utilisées pour compléter notre base de données. Une approche exploratoire a été utilisée pour identifier les types de contrôle pratiqué par les PEA et pour analyser les significations attachées à ces pratiques.

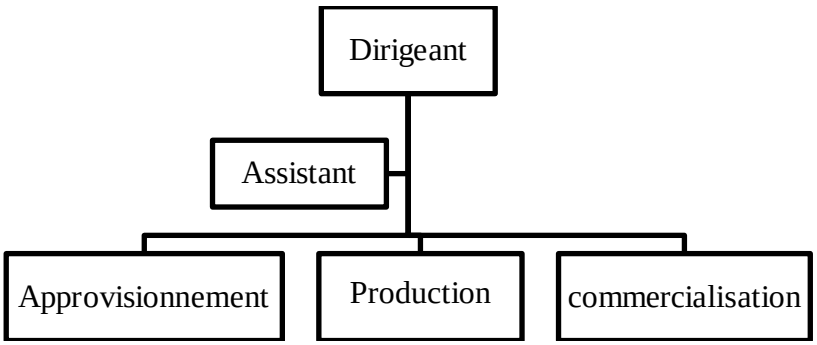


Figure 2: Organigramme des petites entreprises agroalimentaires

IV. Discussion des Résultats

Les résultats de l'enquête révèlent que 71% des petites entreprises agroalimentaires exercent une activité saisonnière. Laquelle est une activité qui se caractérise par des tâches de durée limitée qui se répètent normalement chaque année, du fait de paramètres naturels ou de modes de vie, indépendamment de la volonté des entreprises. Les dirigeants sont conscients quela diversification constitue un levier de développement efficace, qui s'assigne comme objectif de réduire la vulnérabilité économique et d'assurer la pérennité à leurs entreprises. Ainsi, ces PEA exercent-elles des activités secondaires pour renforcer leurs rentabilités (vente hors périodes agricoles, recyclage de déchets). Elles génèrent la

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création d'emploi, éventuellement saisonnier. Notons à ce propos que ces nouvelles activités sont elles-mêmes sujettes à des évolutions cycliques.

Chaque unité de production emploie en moyenne 10 personnes, soit 900 journées de travail par an. De même, la valeur médiane de l'actif total (valeur comptable) s'élève à 800 mille DHS. Le chiffre d'affaires moyen de l'année 2018 a atteint en moyen 300 mille DHS. Le bénéfice net moyen de l'année 2018 était de 145 mille DHS. La diversité des filières (oléicole, agrumicole, Niora, betterave, laitière, etc.), ainsi que la complémentarité entre elles contribuent à baisser les achats d'intrants pour les agriculteurs, à inhiber les risques découlant de résidus d'intrants excédentaires et à réduire certains frais de transports interrégionaux.

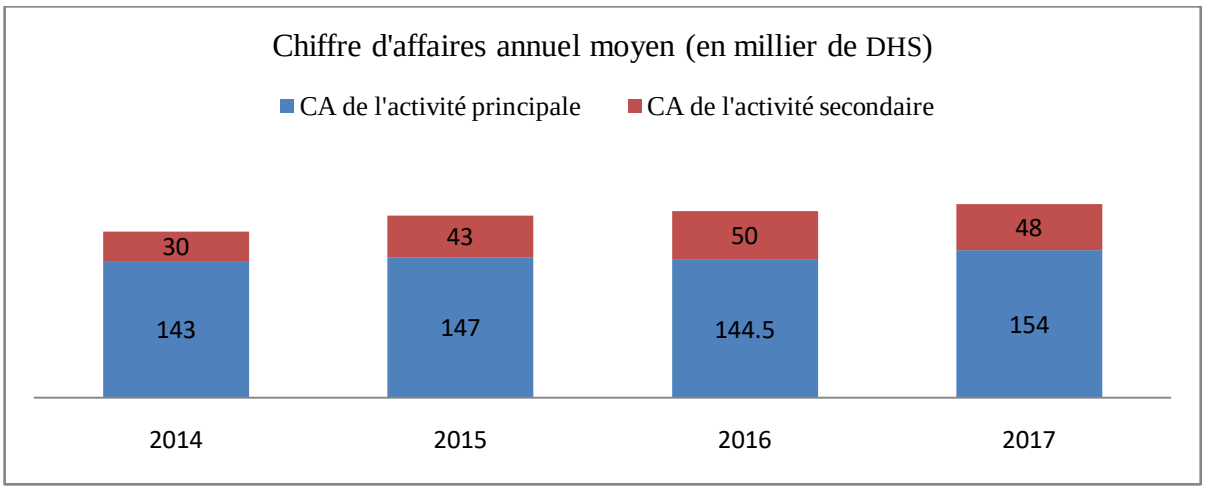


Figure 3: Chiffre d'affaires annuel moyen (ces données sont relatives aux quatre entreprises objet de notre étude).

A ce niveau les résultats de l'étude montrent que les «normes traditionnelles» jouent un rôle clé dans la structuration des PC Gdans les PEA. La majorité des entreprises enquêtées ont été créées sur la base du concept de «partage du pouvoir entre les membres de famille». Ces PEA sont souvent détenues par une famille et dirigées majoritairement par un membre de même famille. En raison de leurs liens de parenté, les membres de famille se font confiance. Cette dernière est un élément clé dans les PCG au sein des PEA. Le partage du pouvoirse fait de manière à ce que tous les membres concernés soient représentés et aucun d'eux ne devrait pas dominerl' entreprise. C'est un partage du pouvoir basé sur un modèle traditionalisme. Il se reflète dans les différentes pratiques d'emploi et du contrôle de ces entreprises. Ce système traditionnel est le moyen le plus simple pour gérer efficacement les principales opérations de production et de commercialisation. Les tâches au sein des PEA sont souvent peu spécialisées, les systèmes d'information sont très simples et la stratégie peu formalisée.

Les dirigeants assument la tâche de recrutement pour les postes vacants. D'autres partenaires sont invités à rejoindre l'entreprise en cas d'absence des membres de famille ou, le cas échéant, pour exercer des tâches lourdes. De plus, de nouveaux associés doivent être choisis en se basant sur les relations horizontales ou amicales pour élargir les activités de l'entreprise dans d'autres régions.

Quant à la gouvernance, les PEA utilisent des approches de contrôle formel et informel. Il s'est avéré que ce dernier est les plus répandu au sein de ces entreprises. Comme l'explique les dirigeants, le contrôle formel tel que le contrôle des résultats a un impact négatif sur la confiance et les comportements des employés. Quant au contrôle informel il se fait de manière implicite et traditionnel. L'honnêteté, la fiabilité et l'intégrité sont des conditions essentielles au sein des PEA. Néanmoins, ces exigences ne sont pas formelles dans les politiques des PEA, mais elles sont pratiquées lors du processus de recrutement. Lequel processus est basé sur des relations familiales et amicales ce qui explique le rôle du dirigeant, en tant que figure paternelle de toute l'entreprise. Il a également un rôle de vérification et de surveillance de toutes les activités. Il cherche à réduire les dépenses tout en respectant les enveloppes budgétaires.

La communication verbale estla forme de communication la plus dominante au sein des PEA. Elle est acceptée comme une approche de "contrôle formel" pour gérer les activités les plus importantes telles que les activités de vente. La taille restreinte des petites entreprises agroalimentaires aide le dirigeant à avoir un contact direct avec les employés. Le dirigeant assure la mise en œuvre de ses choix stratégiques et opérationnels par une supervision directe. La proximité spatiale rend inutile la création d'intermédiaires pour communiquer. Cette proximité explique les spécificités

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de gestion des PEA. Une meilleure communication verbale permet de développer la solidarité entre les membres de l'entreprise. Malgré l'émergence de nouveaux outils de communication, il convient de préciser que les outils traditionnels tels que l'oral et le face à face sont les plus utilisés par les PEA. Les réunions régulières s'organisent au sein des PEA afin d'échanger des informations, travailler en groupe, trouver des solutions aux problèmes posés. Elles permettent aux dirigeants de mesurer le climat social de ces entreprises.

L'informalité des pratiques de contrôle affecte l'évaluation de la performance financière. Cette dernière est évaluée sur la base des bénéfices réalisés. Tous les employés sont mobilisés pour les ventes et la conquête de nouveaux clients. Les activités de production et de vente sont les fonctions principales des PEA. Les dirigeants fournissent un soutien aux opérations de vente. Les commissions et les incitations sont basées sur le résultat net. Ce dernier est calculé soit par le dirigeant lui-même soit par un agent comptable, mais il n'est pas divulgué à tous les employés. Le dirigeanten tant que« figure paternelle» des PEA joue un rôle important dans la détermination du montant des commissions et des avantages qui sont accordés aux employés. Il jouit de la plus haute autorité, notamment en ce qui concerne les décisions stratégiques. De même, il prend les principales décisions concernant l'investissement, le recrutement du personnel et le montant du bénéfice qui sera distribué aux employés.

Les PEA utilisent également des approches de contrôle formel pour ses opérations courantes. Par exemple, l'entreprise a développé des indicateurs de performance clés tels que, le taux de satisfaction des clients, la qualité des produits et les bénéfices réalisés, pour mesurer leurs activités. Ces indicateurs sont utilisés aussi pour évaluer la rentabilité de l'entreprise. Cependant, les indicateurs non financiers ne sont pas évalués formellement par les PEA.

De même, les employés sont récompensés par leurs réalisations en équipe ainsi que par leurs réalisations individuelles. Dans les PEA, chaque employé est encouragé à rechercher des clients par le réseau de ses relations personnelles, en contrepartie il reçoit une commission sur le montant des ventes qu'il a réalisé avec ses clients. Les primes trimestrielles sont versées à chaque employé et sont calculées en fonction des ventes totales de trimestre. D'autres pratiques de contrôle formel incluent les procédures comptables. En effet un agent comptable est responsable de l'enregistrement de toutes les transactions commerciales, de la préparation du budget et le contrôle budgétaire. La figure ci-dessous résume les formes des PCG identifiées dans les PEA.

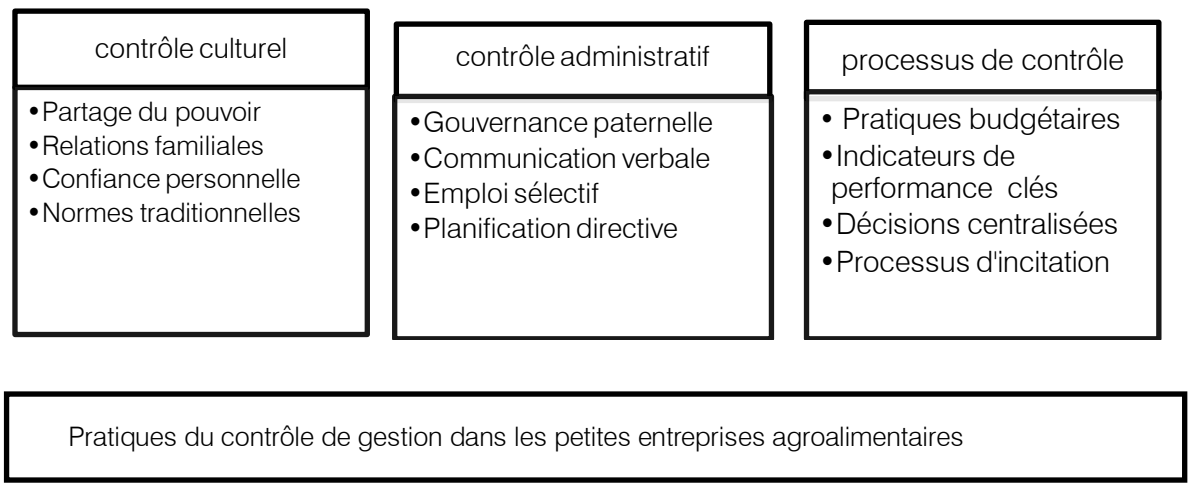


Figure 3: les formes de PCG identifiées dans les PEA.

Il est évident qu'en raison des normes traditionnelles de la société marocaine, les PCG dans les petites entreprises agroalimentaires sont fortement affectées par les contrôles culturels, qui structurent à leur tour le contrôle administratif et le processus de contrôle. Ce dernier se concentre sur les aspects opérationnels de l'entreprise. Dans cette vision, ces trois éléments de contrôle s'imbriquent et forment les PCG dans les PEA. De plus, le contrôle de gestion est un problème social qui ne peut pas être compris indépendamment de son contexte social.

V. Conclusion

Cet article a pour but d'identifier les pratiques du contrôle de gestion au sein des petites entreprises agroalimentaires. Nous avons travaillé sur un échantillon composé de 52 entreprises installées au niveau de la région Béni Mellal- Khénifra. Les différents entretiens avec les dirigeants et l'analyse de documents nous ont permis de collecter les données.

Les pratiques du contrôle de gestion les plus dominantes au sein des petites entreprises

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agroalimentaires de ladite région sont structuré es autour detrois éléments: le contrôle culturel, le contrôle administratif et le processus de contrôle. Ces éléments constituent les principales pratiques dont disposent les gestionnaires pour influencer de manière formelle ou informelle le comportement des employés et pour mettre en œuvre efficacement leurs stratégies et leurs plans d'action.

Les résultats obtenus montrent que les normes culturelles jouent un rôle primordial dans la structuration des PCG au sein des PEA. Le partage du pouvoir se fait de manière traditionnelle. Les tâches décisionnelles de la gouvernance sont assurées par le dirigeant en tant que figure paternelle de toute l'entreprise. La communication est informelle et verbale. L'évaluation de la performance est basée sur les bénéfices réalisés.

Certes, les résultats de cette étude ne peuvent pas être généralisés à toutes les petites entreprises agroalimentaires marocaines. Toutefois, ils fournissent un aperçu sur le modèle des PCG dans les PEA au niveau de la région de Béni Mellal-Khénifra. Ces résultats appellent de nouvelles recherches, notamment l'étude de la relation entre ces PCG et la performance financière de ces entreprises.

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Strategic Agility: Achieving Superior Organizational Performance through Strategic Foresight

By Arokodare, M. A. & Asikhia, O. U.
Babcock University

Abstract- Firms globally encounter challenges of maintaining business superior performance over a long period. Most business organizations managers in today's modern age, find it difficult to constantly achieve targeted business performance due to poor strategic insight and agility to manage uncertainty business environment and globalization in the 21st century. The majority of firms in the 21st century have recorded a fast decline in financial and non- financial performance resulting from a poor understanding of strategic agility dimensions to tackle global business trends and environmental turbulence. Theoretically, the study was conducted to investigate the link between strategic agility and firm performance through strategic foresight as part of antecedent of strategic foresight. The Dynamic Capability and Entrepreneurship Innovation theories were the underpinning theories for the study. Thus a conceptual model was developed to depict the interaction between strategic agility and firm performance through strategic foresight. Majority of past literature shown that strategic agility and strategic foresight have significantly enhanced firm superior performance.

Keywords: dynamic capability, entrepreneurship innovation, firm performance, strategic agility and strategic foresight.

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Strategic Agility: Achieving Superior Organizational Performance through Strategic Foresight

Arokodare, M. A.[α] & Asikhia, O. U. [σ]

Abstract- Firms globally encounter challenges of maintaining business superior performance over a long period. Most business organizations managers in today's modern age, find it difficult to constantly achieve targeted business performance due to poor strategic insight and agility to manage uncertainty business environment and globalization in the 21st century. The majority of firms in the 21st century have recorded a fast decline in financial and non- financial performance resulting from a poor understanding of strategic agility dimensions to tackle global business trends and environmental turbulence. Theoretically, the study was conducted to investigate the link between strategic agility and firm performance through strategic foresight as part of antecedent of strategic foresight. The Dynamic Capability and Entrepreneurship Innovation theories were the underpinning theories for the study. Thus a conceptual model was developed to depict the interaction between strategic agility and firm performance through strategic foresight. Majority of past literature shown that strategic agility and strategic foresight have significantly enhanced firm superior performance. This paper recommended that organizational managers should employ strategic agility conceptual measures with strategic foresight in their business thinking, activities, processes and directions to achieve superior performance.

Keywords: dynamic capability, entrepreneurship innovation, firm performance, strategic agility and strategic foresight.

I. Introduction

Organizations around the globe are in a continuous dilemma of maintaining business performance. Most business organization managers around the world find it difficult to constantly achieve targeted business performance due to the dynamic nature, open market competition and globalization characterized with the 21st-century industry. Firms in different industries around the world have experienced unstable performance, seemingly uncertain on strategies to employ in reacting to flexible policies and unstable performance arising from challenges in the local and international business context.

Author α: Ph. D. Student, Department of Business Administration and Marketing, Babcock University, Illisan-Remo, Sagamu, Ogun State, Nigeria. e-mail: biodunarokodare@yahoo.com

Author σ: Professor of Business Administration and Marketing, Department of Business Administration and Marketing, Babcock University, Illisan-Remo, Sagamu, Ogun State, Nigeria.

The decline in performance of firms, according to Zafari (2017) cut across developed, emerging and developing countries due to poor strategic agility and Inadequate response to microeconomic and macroeconomic factors challenges like performance industry environmental factors, task environment, natural and technological environments, social environments, economic and cultural environments, and political, law and security environments coupled with the management of marketing content and product marketing. In developing countries especially African countries, harsh economic and external conditions have placed pressure on firm performance among the African countries (Bredenhann, 2019). The challenges facing firms operating in Africa are diverse and numerous such as political interference, lack of transparency, regulatory uncertainty, policy instability, ongoing infrastructure deficit, uncertainty, delays in passing laws, energy policies and regulations into law are stifling growth, development and investment in several countries around Africa (PWC, 2018).

Nigeria inability to attract fresh investment in different sectors or expand existing ones has left the country in a precarious situation. The loss of investment in Nigeria has become the gain of other countries, including, Ghana, Gabon and Angola, which have become new frontiers for business consideration in Africa. Oyerinde, Olatunji and Adewale (2018) pointed out that most of firms in Nigeria have recorded unstable performance due to slow agility response to challenges of political interference, lack of transparency, regulatory uncertainty and policy instability, and poor infrastructural facilities. Furthermore, Oyerinde et al. (2018) emphasized that poor strategic agility to these challenges by firms in different industries has created unstable firm performance in Nigeria

In this modern day of 21st-century where globalization, technology, innovation and diverse products are boundary less to any economy, organizations without strategic agility are bound to experience competitive disadvantage and continuous decline in performance. Rohrbeck and Kum (2018) asserted that strategic agility enhances firm's future preparedness and are powerful predictors for becoming an outperformer in the industry, for attaining superior profitability, and for gaining superior market

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capitalization growth. They further emphasized that organizations with strategic agility character gain strategic foresight in securing future superior performance and competitive advantage.

Strategic foresight involves multiple stakeholders and creates value through providing access to critical resources ahead of competition, preparing the organization for change, and permitting the organization to steer proactively towards a desired future in order to achieve prosperity (Baskarada, Shrimpton, Ng, Cox & Saritas, 2016).The concept of strategic foresight addresses the problem of a constantly changing environment, derivation of competitive advantage, market position and firm superior performance (Albright, 2004; Rohrbeck, Battistella, & Huizingh, 2015). It enhances the identification, observation and interpretation of corporate environmental changes and potential opportunities by determining possible implications as well as responses (Baskarada et al. 2016; Sardar, 2010). Generally having a long-term orientation, strategic foresight involves broadening the menu of policy options and taking into account future scenarios that might affect present decisions and enhance firm superior performance (Leigh, 2003; Baskarada *et al.,* 2016).

Moreover, several studies have argued thatstrategic agilityhelpsin dealing with the challenges oforganizational performance (Kitonga, 2017; Nejatian, Zarei, Nejati&Zanjirchi, 2018; Appelbaum, Calla, Desautels & Hasan, 2017). However, Oyerinde et al. (2018) and Onigbinde (2014) had pointed out that majority of firms recorded continuous decline in performance due to poor strategic agility and reaction to environmental challenges surrounding firms in Nigeria. Various studies within and outside Nigeria context have investigated how strategic agility affect firm performance in different industries(Alhadid, 2016; Arbussa, Bikfalvi & Marques, 2017; Hemmati, Feiz, Jalilvand & Kholghi, 2016; Liang, Kuusisto & Kuusisto, 2018; Nejatian, Zarei, Nejati & Zanjirchi, 2018; Osisioma, Nzewi & Mgbemena, 2016;Olbert, Prodoehl& Worley, 2017; Oyedijo, 2012;Sadjak, 2015; Sampath, 2015; Somuyiwa, Adebayo & Akanbi, 2011; Appelbaum, Calla, Desautels & Hasan, 2017; Vecchiato, 2014 among others), but these past studies have not conceptualized strategic agility and firm performance as this study intend to measure both strategic agility and firm performance.

Relatively, most of these past studies reviewed have not established the combined link between strategic agility and firm performance dimensions in the manner in which this study have conceptualized strategic agility and firm performance. This serves as variable conceptual measurement gap that this study intends to establish. In this paper, the dimensions for strategic agility are: strategic insight, internal response orientation, external response orientation, human resources capability, information technology capability) and firm performance (market share, firm profitability, firm efficiency, competitive advantage, customer satisfaction and firm creativity). Hence this paper conducts a theoretical model on the model link between strategic agility and superior organizational performance dimensions through strategic foresight.

II. Theoretical Foundations

This paper adopted Dynamic Capabilities Theory and Entrepreneurship Innovation Theory as baseline theories for this study. These theories were selected to guide this study because their perspectives are tied to the focus of the study and the variables under investigation. The justification for these theories employed in this study is based on their theoretical explanation of the study variables.

Dynamic Capability Theory (DCT) is the capability of an organization to purposefully adapt an organization's resource base. Dynamic capabilities theory (DCT), which was developed by Teece, Pisano and Shuen (1997) was defined as "the firm's ability to integrate, build, and reconfigure internal and external competences to address rapidly changing environments" (p. 516) and it examines how firms address or bring about changes in their turbulent business environment through reconfiguration of their firm-specific competencies into new competencies (Teece, 2007).The concept of Dynamic Capabilities Theory (DCT)explained the mechanism that links resources and product markets to competitive advantage and firm survival. The DCT further explain how firms gain sustainable competitive advantage, survive in competitive and turbulence business environment in several ways.

The DCT frame work work on three fundamental presumptions. Firstly, the capacity to sense and shape opportunities. Secondly, to seize opportunities. Thirdly, to maintain competiveness through reconfiguring the enterprise's assets (Teece, 2007).Despite the popularity and insightful theoretical foundation, the DCT approach does not answer all questions of sustainable competitive advantage. Zahra, Sapienza and Davidsson (2006) argue that that there are some inconsistencies and ambiguities in the literature of DCT. Another criticism of the concept is that DCT are difficult to measure empirically. In the opinion of Ambrosini, Bowman and Collier (2009), to understand dynamic capabilities, the managerial perceptions of the need for change – functions of their perceptions of their firms' external and internal environments need to be considered. Thus, it is possible for a manager to misperceive the need for change and as a result fail to apply appropriate DCT.

The DCT framework help scholars to understand the foundations of long-run enterprise success while helping managers delineate relevant strategic considerations and the priorities they must adopt to enhance enterprise performance and escape

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the zero profit tendency associated with operating in markets open to global competition(Teece, 2007).The framework integrates the strategy and innovation literature and highlights the most important capabilities that the management need in order to sustain superior long run business performance (Teece, 2007). Easter by-Smith, Lyles and Peteraf (2009) emphasized that DC are higher-level capabilities, which enable knowledge gathering, fast response, sharing, and continual updating of the operational processes, interaction with the environment and decision-making evaluations in order to achieve firm competitive advantages and performance. More recently, Esbach (2009) view DC as the capacity of an organization to purposefully create and agile and modify firm resource base so as gain competitive advantage.

The Entrepreneurship Innovation Theory (EIT) was propounded by Schumpeter (1934, 1942). The theory ascribed that entrepreneurship is about combining resources in new ways such as introduction of new products with better attractions, new methods of production, discovery of a new market(s), identification of new source (s) of supply of raw materials and alteration of existing market arrangements through innovation that brings about radical changes in the market. He regards innovation as a tool of an entrepreneur. The assumption of Entrepreneurship Innovation Theory includes the discovery of a new product, opening of a new market, reorganization of an industry and development of a new method of production.

Chepurenko (2015) critic entrepreneurship Innovation Theory that; Innovations are only one of many factors causing cyclical fluctuations in a capitalistic economy. Also it is difficult to differentiate their innovating activity from their ordinary business activity. Furthermore, Chepurenko (2015) asserted Entrepreneurship Innovation theory is criticized because it seems to be one-sided as it puts too much emphasis on innovative functions. It ignores risk taking function and Schumpeter's views are particularly applicable to developing countries where innovations need to be encouraged.

The entrepreneurship innovational activities have become a matter of routine these days and there is no need of special agent like innovator for carrying on such activities and thus Schumpeter has over glorified the place of innovator in his model (Small bone & Welter, 2009).The entrepreneur is also viewed as the engine of growth' which sees the opportunity for introducing new products, new markets, new sources of supply, new forms of industrial organization or for the development of newly discovered resources so as to achieve firm competitive advantage and overall performance (Madsen, 2007).

III. Conceptual Review of Strategic Foresight and Strategic Agility

a) *Strategic Foresight*

Strategic foresight (SF) is one of the dimensions of strategic sensitivity (Mavengere, 2013), serves as part of the antecedents of strategic agility, identifying, observing and interpreting factors that induce change, determining possible organization-specific implications and triggering appropriate organizational responses (Rohrbeck, Thom & Arnold, 2015). It encompasses the appreciation, learning and anticipation of unveiling environmental trends (Inkinen & Kaivo-oja, 2009) and focuses on the short-term and long term that are termed track changes and pattern recognition respectively (Mavengere, 2013).

Strategic foresight is regarded as a process that enhances an organisation's ability to understand the emerging risks and opportunities, drivers, motivations, resources, evolution, and causalities that are linked to alternative decisions, that form the space of possible, plausible, probable or preferred futures paths, so that the organisation can make better informed and prepared decisions on issues concerned with its overall strategic plans and means of achieving its long-term objectives (Kuosa, 2016). It is the analysis of the likely evolution of the business environment in order to promptly detect the opportunities and the threats brought about by the emerging trends and to deal with them properly. It is a set of practices that enable firms to attain superior performance and increase in future markets position (Rohrbeck&Kum, 2018).

b) *Antecedents of Strategic Foresight*

Strategic foresight has two main aspects: understanding, and anticipation of the future (Chia, 2002).It is built on the assumptions that: multiple futures are possible (that is, that future developments are uncertain and unpredictable); change (drivers) can be identified and studied, and the future can be influenced (Bereznoy, 2017: 12).The interest in strategic foresight is based on the idea to establish a corporate system that warns about unpleasant surprises and identifies emerging opportunities – a skill that large companies have proven to have difficulties with (Day &S choemaker, 2004).

According to Rohrbeck, Battistella and Huizingh (2015), the elements of strategic foresight are:

i. *Technology Intelligence* which deals with the identification, assessment and usage of weak signals and information about emerging technologies and technological discontinuities;

ii. *Competitive Intelligence* which deals with the assessment of competitors and the identification

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and assessment of products and services in development or already available in lead markets;

iii. *Political Environment Foresight* which deals with the identification, assessment and usage of information on legislation, the political environment and on shifts in the political landscape; and

iv. *Consumer Foresight* which deals with the identification, assessment and anticipation of consumer needs as well as lifestyle and socio-cultural trend of that environment.

c) Strategic Agility

Strategic Agility (SA) is defined by Tabe-Khoshnood and Nematizadeh (2017) as a concept consisting of two components: responsiveness and knowledge management. They further interpret strategic agility as the ability of an organization to detect changes through the opportunities and threats existing in the business environment, and to give rapid response through the recombination of resources, processes and strategies. Extensive review of the SA literature shows that an agile organization can be successful in competitive environment through the abilities of responsiveness, competence, flexibility and speed so that it achieves competitive advantage in the market (Ganguly, Nilchiani& Farr, 2009; Oyedijo, 2012). Doz and Kosonen (2008) considered SA to be a means by which organisations transform, reinvent themselves, adapt, and ultimately survive. They see SA as the capacity of a firm to continuously adjust and adapt its strategic direction in a core business in order to create value for the firm. Sampath (2015) considered SA to be about being adaptive to changes in the business context, spotting opportunities, threats and risks, and launching new strategic initiatives rapidly and repeatedly; while Teece, Peteraf and Leih (2016) referred to SA as "the capacity of an organization to efficiently and effectively redeploy and redirect its resources to value creating and value protecting (and capturing) higher-yield activities as internal and external circumstances warrant" (p. 8).

In this study, other strategic agility conceptualizations are: strategic insight, internal response orientation, external response orientation, human resource capability, and information technology capability.

d) Strategic Insight

Strategic insight (SI) is the second sub-construct of strategic sensitivity (SS) construct of SA (Mavengere, 2013). It is the tendency of an organization to focus on the present by drawing knowledge from complex strategic situations as they emerge and analyzing them for the organization to benefit from the situations as they unfold (Doz & Kosonen, 2008). In the context of the organization, SI encompasses both the outside view, or external sensing and inside view, or internal awareness (Mavengere, 2013). Internal awareness through probing and experimenting, highlights the organisation's strength and weaknesses in the light of the environment and this may lead to a challenge of the firm's core business assumptions and help to define, refine, and sharpen them. External sensing on the other hand, enables the executives to see their organization from different perspectives when they distance themselves from their routine and they start modelling the organization and its relationship to its environment (Doz & Kosonen, 2010).

e) Internal Response Orientation

Internal response orientation (IRO) is a sub-construct of strategic response (SR), a dimensional construct of SA. Strategic response is the ability of an organisation, working in collaboration with its customers and business partners, to quickly and seamlessly reconfigure its resources and processes to react or proactive in line with changes and/or developments in the business environment (Mavengere, 2013).

f) External Response Orientation

Enternal response orientation (ERO) has been defined as the ability to predict market occurrences and developments before competitors (Doz & Kosonen, 2008). It implies being open to as much information, intelligence and innovations as possible by creating and maintaining relationships with a variety of different people and organisations (Doz & Kosonen, 2008). Hence, firms need to be oriented towards the market to become aware of the need for change. Mavengere (2013) viewed external response orientation (ERO), a sub-construct of the SR dimension of SA, as the ability of an organization to re-act or pro-act to the business environment.

g) Human Resource Capability

Alhadid (2016) defined HRC as consistent with people's capability and flexibility to have crucial roles in an agile organization which faces a permanent change in the circumstances. Human resources capability is a measure of the ability and competence of the workforce to effectively and efficiently do their duties (Mavengere, 2013). Gary, Wood and Pillinger (2012) and Kafi (2014) claimed that HRC is a group of practices and policies that are needed to implement various activities. Through them, management carries out its function to the best of its capabilities. Human resources capability can also be described, according to Al-Hosani, Mohammed-Arbab and Azzam-Elmasri (2017), as managerial activity related to the identification of project's needs in terms of workforce and a response to these needs by providing the appropriate workforce within the numbers and qualifications that correspond to the project's needs, and using these resources in an efficient way to achieve productivity.

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h) Information Technology Capability

In his taxonomy of strategic agility, Mavengere (2013) identified information technology capabilities (ITC) as one of the sub-constructs of the collective capabilities dimension of SA and he described this as the ability of the organization to successfully utilize its information infrastructure and resources to derive value in order to improve its performance. It was his opinion that an organization with the required information infrastructure and resources for its core functions will be able to carry out its functions effectively while possession of such capabilities are important for the organization to utilize its information resource and promote information management in a competitive business environment.

IV. Conceptual Review of Superior Organizational Performance

a) Firm Performance

In this paper firm performance was conceptually define and measure with non-financial performance like market share, firm profitability, firm efficiency, competitive advantage, customer satisfaction, firm creativity. The concept of firm performance (FP) is fundamental to businesses as the key objective for business organisations is profit making (Olanipekun, Abioro, Akanni, Arulogun & Rabiu, 2015). Syafarudin (2016) defined FPasthe outcome or accomplishment affected by the operations of the company in utilizing the resources owned. Jahanshahi, Rezaie, Nawaser, Ranjbar and Pitamber (2012) also described FP as a result of the actual outcome fashioned by a company which is measured and compared with the expected results. Musyoka (2016) portrayed FPas having improvement over time as a result of the shared values in the company.

b) Market Share

According to Cole (2016), Market Share (MS) is the rate of a market either in units or in revenue, accounted for by a specific entity. Market share is calculated on a national level, as well as on more regional and local levels, to determine specific MS. The most basic way of calculating MS is to take the total number of sales for a company and then divide that number by the total sales for the industry. Essentially, MS is the percentage of consumers that a company has captured from its specific, desired market within an industry (Cooper & Nakanishi, 2014).

c) Firm Profitability

Gibson (2009) defined firm profitability (FPR) of a firm as its ability to generate earnings. Greuning and Bratanovic (2009) view profitability as the indicator of how a company's profit margins are associated with sales and average capital. It is often expressed with the help of the ratio between this result and sales (or production). Stefea (2012) stated that FPR is the ability of a lucrative activity to generate revenues higher than expenses involved. The indicators of FPR are well known as profitability ratio or accumulation margin. Brigham, Gapenski and Ehrhardt (2009) considered that FPR is the net result of various policies and managerial decisions, and the profitability rates represent the net operating result of the combined effects of liquidity, asset management and debt management. The FPR may therefore be defined as the ability of a given investment to earn a return from its use.

d) Firm Efficiency

Cummings and Weiss (2013) view firm efficiency (FE) as the success of the firm in minimizing costs, maximizing revenues, or maximizing profits, conditional on the existing technology. Assessing the efficiency of firms is a powerful means of evaluating performance of firms, and the performance of markets and whole economies. There are several types of efficiency: al locative and productive efficiency, technical efficiency, dynamic efficiency and social efficiency (Chen &Waters, 2017). Productive efficiency occurs when a firm is combining resources in such a way as to produce a given output at the lowest possible average total cost. Technical efficiency relates to how much output can be obtained from a given input, such as a worker or a machine, or a specific combination of inputs. The simplest way to differentiate productive and technical efficiency is to think of productive efficiency in terms of cost minimisation by adjusting the mix of inputs, whereas technical efficiency is output maximisation from a given mix of inputs.

e) Competitive Advantage

Competitive advantage (CA) is simply the ability of an organisation to stay ahead of present or potential competition. It is the superior performance or performance edge of an organization in form of market leadership. According to Ardianus and Petrus (2016), CA is anything that can be done better by the firm when compared to the competitors. Christensen (2010) defined CA as whatever value a business provides that motivates its customers (or end users) to purchase its products or services rather than those of its competitors and that poses impediments to imitation by actual or potential direct competitors. Competitive advantage is regarded as part of the foundation for high level performance (Ismail, Rose, Abdullah, &Uli, 2010). A firm's ability to improve the quality of its products, reduce the costs of its products, or enlarge market share or profit is known as CA (Grupe & Rose, 2010).

f) Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction (CS) refers to the psychological notion that encompasses the feeling of comfort and pleasure that emanates from obtaining what one hopes for and expects (Ganiyu, 2017).

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According to Kotler (2001), "satisfaction is the feeling of pleasure or disappointment resulting from comparing the performance (or outcome) of a product or service perceived quality in relation to the buyer's expectation" (p. 58). Potluri and Hawariat (2010) defined CS as a short-term emotional reaction to a specific service performance. Muriithi (2013) defined CS as the attitude resulting from what customers think should happen (expectations) interacting with what customers think did happen (performance perceptions).

g) Firm Creativity

Creativity can be defined at three different levels: the individual, the group or team and the organization (Shalley & Gilson, 2004). Individual creativity requires creative thinking, skills and intrinsic task motivation (Amabile, 1997). In organisations, creativity is the process through which new ideas are generated and developed which then make innovation possible (Paulus & Nijstad, 2003). Therefore, while individual creativity is concerned with idea generation, team and organizational creativity is concerned with both idea generation and the implementation of these ideas which could then lead to the creation of new goods and services, new processes or new procedures (Andriopoulos & Lowe, 2000). This study is concerned with organizational (firm) creativity (FC) as explained above.

Gaspersz (2005) defined creativity as the production of new and useful ideas. Goncalo and Staw (2006) defined creativity as the mental process that allows people to think up new and useful ideas. Andersen and Kragh (2015) described creativity as a process that results in novelty which is accepted as useful, tenable, or satisfying by a significant group of others at some pointin time. Usually, innovation and creativity are considered to be closely related and, sometimes, the concepts are even used interchangeably (Amar & Juneja, 2008). A widely agreed upon view distinguishes creativity from innovation in that creativity refers to production of ideas, whereas innovation refers to the successful implementation of ideas (McLean, 2005).

V. Interaction Model Between Strategic Agility and Organizational Performance Dimensions Through Strategic Foresight

The conceptual model for this study shows the link between independent variable (Y) and dependent variable. The dependent variable is firm performance conceptualized as; market share, firm profitability, firm efficiency, competitive advantage, customer satisfaction and firm creativity while the independent variable (X) is strategic agility is also conceptualized as: strategic insight, internal response orientation, external response orientation, human resource capability and information technology capability with strategic foresight as part of antecedent concept of strategic agility. This indicate that strategic foresight also serves as part of conceptual measure for strategic agility. Based on the variable conceptual measurement gap identified in literature related to strategic agility and firm performance, this conceptual model depicted below in figure 1.

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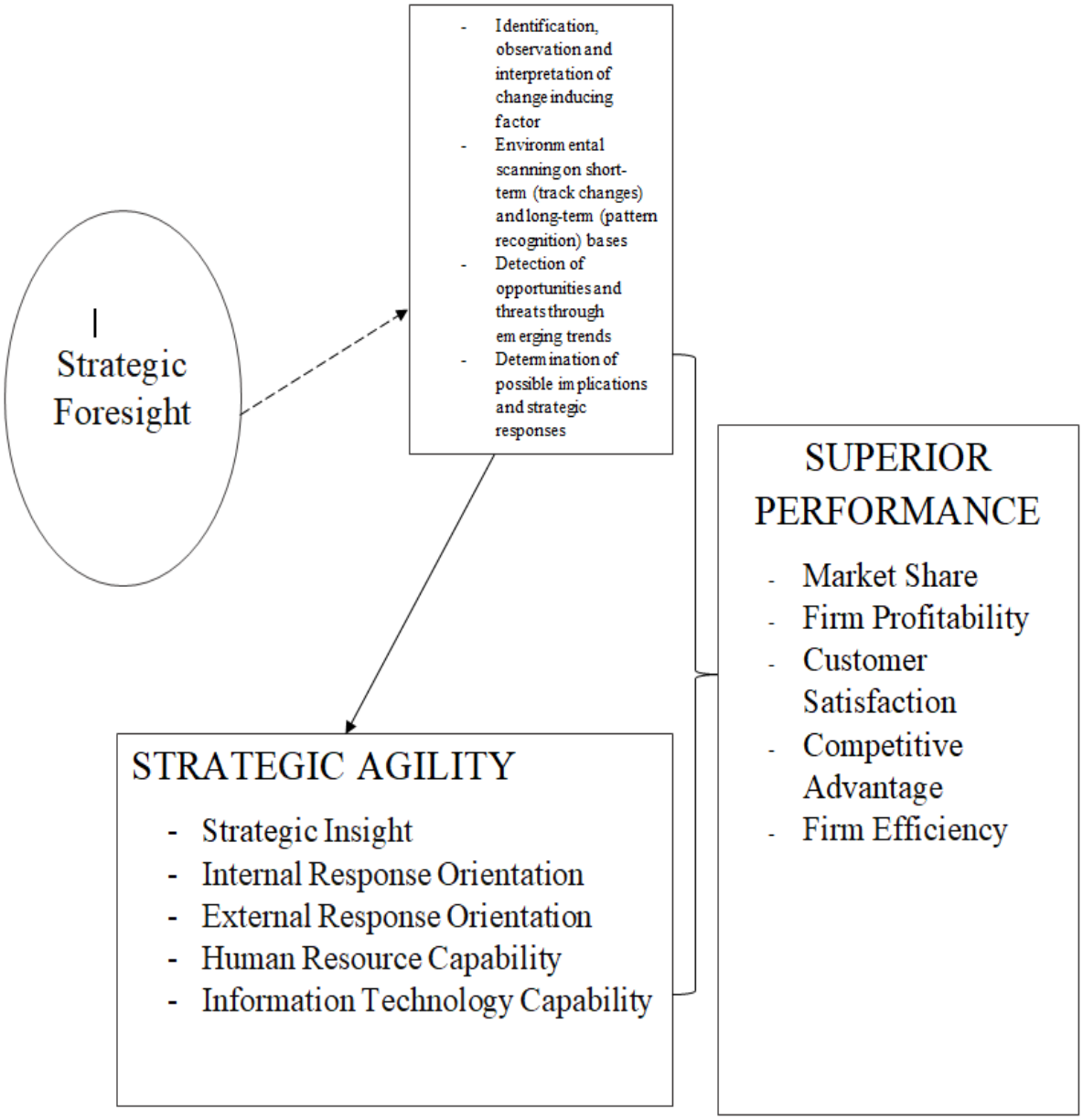


Figure 1: Researcher's Conceptual Model for Variables Measurement Gap; Source: Researcher's Literature Review (2019)

VI. Conclusion

Strategic agility dimensions and strategic foresight are strategies or practices that may be complex to execute, apply and easily understood by organizations in this current 21st century business trend where unstable environmental turbulence hindered firm performance. Literatures have shown that strategic foresight comprises of identification, observation and interpretation of change inducing factor, environmental scanning on short-term (track changes) and long-term (pattern recognition) bases, detection of opportunities and threats through emerging trends and determination of possible implications and strategic responses which augment the process of strategic agility thus enhance firm superior performance. Conceptually, organizational culture, organizational work force characteristics, organizational structure, building, deployment and redeployment of appropriate organizational capabilities can be viewed asserving antecedents of strategic foresight which enhance strategic agility and firm superior performance apart from other measures of strategic agility such as strategic insight, internal response orientation, external response orientation, human resource capability and information technology capability. Consequently, majority of past studies established that strategic agility and foresight have significantly enhanced firm superior performance across different industries.

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VII. Recommendation

Basically, organizational managers should endeavor to embrace strategic agility dimensions and strategic foresight in order to achieve superior performance such as market share, firm profitability, firm efficiency, competitive advantage, customer satisfaction and firm creativity. Hence, this study further recommended that organizational policy maker, owners and managers should employ both strategic agility and foresight in their business activities, processes, decisions and direction so as to achieve superior competitive advantage and overall performance. Further study should empirically investigate how strategic foresight moderates the relationship between strategic agility and superior firm performance in oil and gas industry and other key industries that determine economic activities, growth and development in Nigeria. Similarly, further study should also empirically examine how Nigeria higher institutions (Universities and Polytechnics) can employ strategic agility and foresight in enhancing global educational standard and superior performance.

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Organizational Trustworthiness and Employee Innovative Work Behaviour

By Tamunomiebi, Miebaka Dagogo PhD & Adoki, Edmund Barasin
Rivers State University

Abstract- The purpose of this paper was to examine the relationship between organizational trustworthiness and employee innovative work behaviour. The paper is designed as a theoretical paper and as such discusses related theories which conceptualize and detail the relationship between the variables. The content of the paper addressed the nature and implications of organizational trustworthiness for employee innovative work behaviour by offering insight on issues which bother on employee work expectations, as well as the relationship between managers/supervisors and their employees. In conclusion, it was stated that there is the need for organizations to emphasis on practices and qualities which express their substantial levels of benevolence, integrity and competence as a way of enhancing their trustworthiness and as such, increasing employee innovative behaviour within the workplace.

Keywords: organizational trustworthiness, employee innovative work behaviour, trust, competency, integrity, benevolence, creativity.

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M14



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Organizational Trustworthiness and Employee Innovative Work Behaviour

Tamunomiebi, Miebaka Dagogo PhD[α] & Adoki, Edmund Barasin[σ]

Abstract- The purpose of this paper was to examine the relationship between organizational trustworthiness and employee innovative work behaviour. The paper is designed as a theoretical paper and as such discusses related theories which conceptualize and detail the relationship between the variables. The content of the paper addressed the nature and implications of organizational trustworthiness for employee innovative work behaviour by offering insight on issues which bother on employee work expectations, as well as the relationship between managers/supervisors and their employees. In conclusion, it was stated that there is the need for organizations to emphasis on practices and qualities which express their substantial levels of benevolence, integrity and competence as a way of enhancing their trustworthiness and as such, increasing employee innovative behaviour within the workplace. It was thereafter recommended that management should focus on developing work structures that are transparent and which allow for active participation and involvement; such that actions and decisions by the leadership can be justified on the basis of competency and integrity, thus boosting the confidence of employees in the organization.

Keywords: organizational trustworthiness, employee innovative work behaviour, trust, competency, integrity, benevolence, creativity.

I. Introduction

Nowadays, the importance of employee innovative work behaviour for desired organizational outcomes and wellbeing is widely accepted (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Employee's capacity for creativity and innovativeness as expressed within the organization is vital and imperative for the wellbeing and functionality of both private (de Jong & den Hartog, 2010) as well as the public sector (Bartos, 2003; Breul & Kamensky, 2008; Walker & Damanpour, 2008). The growing interest in employee innovative work behaviour stems primarily from the need to remain competitive and as such can be considered as having both strategic as well as functional implications for the organization.

In general, employee innovative work behaviour studies have dealt with the expressions of creativity and innovativeness by the employees or workers within the framework of the organization (King & Anderson, 2002). This includes conditions concerned with determining several practices, mechanisms and factors stimulating or inhibiting the expressions of creativity, originality, uniqueness and exceptionality. Employee innovative work behaviour (IWB), which is described as the development, adoption and implementation of new ideas by the employees for products, technologies and work methods by employees (Yuan & Woodman, 2010) is often argued to be an important asset for firms pursuing innovativeness and as a determinant for success in dynamic environments (Kanter, 1983).

The imperatives of employee innovative work behaviour are premised on the fact that the origin as well as the consumption of innovation lies with individuals, causing individuals' actions to be of crucial importance for the continuous improvement of business processes and products (Janssen, 2000). This assumption is generally drawn not only in the academic literature on innovativeness, but is also found in the domains of total quality management (Mc Louglin & Harris, 1997) and corporate entrepreneurship (Sharma & Chrisman, 1999)

Several factors have been studied as stimulators or barriers towards employee innovative work behaviour including organization culture and climate (Scott & Bruce, 1994), the interaction between subordinates and supervisors (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004), job characteristics (Oldham & Cummings, 1996), social group context (Munton & West, 1995), as well as individual differences and intermediate psychological processes that explain how different individual and contextual antecedents affect innovative behaviour (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Examples of such psychological processes are an individual's intrinsic interest in his or her task (Amabile, 1996; Woodman et al., 1993) and expected payoffs (Far and Ford, 1990).

These studies have led to the development and assessment of several conceptual models meant to predict relationships between such factors and employee innovative behaviour (Farr & Ford, 1990; Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Scholars studying the process of employee innovative work behaviour within the public sector noted that innovative work behaviour is likely to be restrained by more barriers and to a larger extend in the public sector than in the private sector (Rainey & Bozeman, 2001; Rainey, 2009).

Several issues, or barriers, contribute to the fact that within the public sector, the success and effectiveness of initiatives meant to foster employee

Author α: Department of Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, Rivers, State University, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, PMB 5080, Port Harcourt, Nigeria.

Author σ: Doctoral Candidate Department of Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, Rivers State University, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, PMB 5080, Port Harcourt, Nigeria. e-mail: adimcvictor@gmail.com

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innovative behaviour can be inhibited. One of those barriers is the fact that in general, public firms lack competitive pressures vis-à- vis private firms (Verhoest *et al.,* 2007), taking away an important trigger towards managers and policy-makers to stimulate the innovativeness of, and IWB within, their firm. This is as employee's perceptions about top management may subsequently become realigned with the motivation to express dissatisfactory attitudes based on their distrust of the organization (Agnieszka & Dariusz, 2016; Braun *et al.,* 2013).

According to Joe (2014), employees' perception of top management as trustworthy is vital for facilitating the development and diffusion of innovative ideas within the workforce. Pay, Balaji and Kok (2015) postulate that a major factor that also influences employees' willingness to share their innovative ideas is their trustworthiness perception of their leaders and of the organization itself. In this case, the diffusion of innovative ideas may very well depend on top managements' ability, benevolence and integrity to engage in interpersonal relationships that can help to engender employee innovative work behaviour (Rebecca & David, 2015).

In this vein, the success and substantiality of employee innovative work behavioru are often built on trustworthiness perceptions that then determine the emergence or continuity of trust relationships, and invariable expressions of innovation. Trustworthiness is an important factor that facilitates an employee's decision-making process to become vulnerable to organisational top management leaders (Vathsala & Ruvini, 2012). It further promotes employee's commitment and engagement towards employee innovative initiatives (Jan & Hazel, 2013). According to Upasna (2014), it is thus, important for top management and employees to develop, and maintain a strong trust relationship in order to sustain positive organisational impact on employee innovative work behaviour. As such this paper discussed the role of organizational trustworthiness in stimulating employee innovative work behaviour.

II. Literature Review

a) *Theoretical Foundation (Leader-Member Exchange)*

The leader-member exchange theory is adopted as the theoretical framework in this study. The theory describes the relationship between leaders and their subordinates in a manner that identifies the imperatives of recognition, support and empowerment in the development of trust-based relationships (Hodson, 2004). The leader-member exchange theory is a form of the social exchange theory which advances the need for stronger levels of cooperation and collaboration between leaders and their subordinates (Hardin, 2002). This paper therefore adopts the leader-exchange theory as a foundation in describing the features of leadership and the manner of its relationship with subordinates that drive improved work behaviour and employee outcomes such as innovative work behaviour.

b) *The Concept of Trust*

Trust is a trans-disciplinary construct that has been used in psychology, sociology, economics, political science, and marketing to study different types of relationships (Ben-Rechav, 2000; Mayer, James & Schoorman, 1995). In marketing, it has been an important component in a significant research stream focusing on employer-employee and organization-customer relationships (Ganesan & Hess, 1997) as well as in services area where a customer does not have an opportunity to evaluate the service prior to its use (Dovaliene, Gadeikiene & Piligrimiene, 2007).

There is no agreed-upon definition of trust in the literature. There are probably as many definitions as there are authors on the subject. A quick review of the literature found over ten definitions of trust (Wang and Huff, 2007). In spite of this diversity, however, a common thread cuts across all definitions. Trust refers to a mutual confidence that no party to an exchange will exploit another's vulnerabilities (Sabel, 1993; Huff, 2005). As such, it alleviates the uncertainty inherent in an exchange relationship. At its core, trust reflects reliability and confidence in the exchange party to fulfil its obligation in a way that leads to positive outcomes. In the services sector, the intangibility and high risk involved in service transactions means that the concept of trust is even more crucial in developing and maintaining business relationships. Trust is a multidimensional phenomenon. In a study of the relationship between the organization and its employees, Heffernan et al. (2008) identified three dimensions of trust: credibility, integrity and benevolence. They found a positive and significant relationship between the dimensions of trust, relationship manager's level of trust, emotional intelligence and organizational financial performance.

In a study of partnering, Wong, Cheung and Ho (2005) identified four underlying factors in successful partnering between developers and consultant groups: performance, permeability, system-based trust and relational bonding. Dovalienσ, Gadeikienσ and Piligrimienσ (2007) analysed the role of trust as an antecedent of long-term customer relationship. They conducted an empirical study on odontology services to identify the determinants of customers' trust and the relationship between the various determinants and the overall level of trust. They found that trust plays a key role in determining the behavioural intentions of customers to pursue a long-term relationship (intentions to visit the same deontologist again and intentions to recommend) with the service provider. In subsequent

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analysis they found strong correlations between trust and satisfaction, outcome quality and customization.

A strong positive correlation was also found between trust and its determinants and behavioural intentions. Finally, a multiple linear regression was carried out to determine the presence of linear relationship between trust and its determinants. Here, only satisfaction emerged as a significant variable in explaining the variance in trust whereas the quality dimensions and communications were not significant. Ndubisi and Wah (2005) conducted an empirical study to examine the relationship between perceived quality of bank-customer relationship and customer satisfaction in the Malaysian banking industry. The key underpinnings of the relationship identified in this study were trust, commitment, competence, communication and conflict handling.

c) The Concept of Organizational Trustworthiness

While trust is an attribute of the relationship between exchange partners, trustworthiness is an attribute of the individuals involved in the exchange. An exchange partner is trustworthy if he or she does not exploit the vulnerabilities of the other exchange partner (Barney & Hansen 1994; Huff 2005). The way the construct of trustworthiness has been conceptualized in the literature is not very clear cut. Much of the literature on trust hardly mentions trustworthiness, even though implicitly much of it is primarily about trustworthiness, not about trust (Hardin 2002).

Where the construct has been explicitly conceptualized, its conceptualization has primarily revolved around perceived qualities or attributes of an exchange partner that leads the partner to act in the interest of the other partner (Mayer et al. 1995; Hodson, 2004). As such, trustworthiness is belief-based and accumulates over time as a result of repeated experiences (Buttner & Goritz, 2008; Caldwell & Clapham, 2003; Caldwell & Jeffries, 2001). Given the subjective nature of trustworthiness it is not surprising to note that two individuals may have very different views about who they can trust.

Lee and Turban (2001) identified integrity, competency, ability and benevolence as the underlying dimensions of organizational trustworthiness. These dimensions were later confirmed by Chong et al. (2003) in a study of e-commerce organizations. In a study by Caldwell and Clapham (2003) ability and skills, competencies and expertise emerged as the key elements of organizational trustworthiness. Similarly, Bews and Rossouw (2002) found openness, integrity, benevolence, and competency as the dimensions of organizational trustworthiness in insurance service provider.

Mayer *et al.* (1995) espoused that organizational trustworthiness, moderated by the employee's propensity to trust relates a willingness to trust. However, when trust is established, the organization and the employee are bound by a system of shared values (Lipponen, Bardi, & Haapamaki, 2008) to initiate the risk of achieving a desired outcome (Ann-Marie et al., 2015). These shared values are thus integrated values expressed through the interpersonal trust relationship that exists and are reflected in defined organisational cultures (Cameron, 2008; Carlos & Maria, 2014). Thus, organizational trustworthiness is that vital part of organisational members' lives which influences the relationship between the organisational culture and employee sense of trust (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Rawlins, 2008; Shalley & Gilson, 2004).

d) Employee Innovative Work Behaviour

Innovation theory states that innovativeness is broader than only creativity and also includes the implementation of ideas (King & Anderson, 2002). Thus, innovative work behaviour (IWB) does not only include idea generation, but also behaviours needed to implement ideas and achieve improvements that will enhance personal and/or business performance. Following Farr and Ford (1990) we define innovative work behaviour as an individual's behaviour that aims to achieve the initiation and intentional introduction (within a work role, group or organization) of new and useful ideas, processes, products or procedures.

The measure of IWB developed here thus captures both the initiation and implementation of creative ideas. The construct of IWB is closely related to employee creativity. Creativity is defined as the production of new and useful ideas concerning products, services, processes and procedures (Oldham & Cummings, 1996).

However, some differences between the constructs exist (West & Farr, 1990; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Unlike creativity IWB is explicitly intended to provide some kind of benefit. It has a clearer applied component and is expected to result in innovative output. Creativity can be seen as a crucial component of IWB, most evident in the beginning of the innovation process, when problems or performance gaps are recognized and ideas are generated in response to a perceived need for innovation (West, 2002).

Despite the differences between IWB and creativity, the overlap is clear and the application processes has also started to receive attention in the creativity literature. For example, in his review of creativity research, Mumford (2003) calls for the investigation of so-called 'late cycle' skills, that is, the implementation of creative ideas. He stresses that real world performance – the expression, shaping and execution of ideas – represents 'another important component of creative work and considers the investigation of implementing ideas to be an important emerging issue for creativity research. Similarly, Basad ur (2004) included 'solution implementation' in his model

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of leading the creative process. The distinction between IWB and creativity thus seems to be one of emphasis rather than substance.

More recent measures of IWB distinguish between various dimensions, which are often linked to different stages of the innovation process. For example, Scott and Bruce (1994) operationali zed IWB as a multistage process. Drawing on Kanter (1988), they outline three stages relevant to IWB, namely idea generation, coalition building and implementation. Individual innovation begins with problem recognition and the generation of ideas or solutions, either novel or adopted. Next, an innovative individual seeks sponsorship for an idea and through coalition building tries to gain support for it. Finally, the innovative individual contributes to idea implementation, for example, by producing a prototype or model of the innovation or working on the execution of the idea in other ways. Of the three forms of innovative behaviour Scott and Bruce (1994) distinguish, idea generation is rather broad as it includes both generating ideas and the recognition of problems (Scott & Bruce, 1994). Several creativity studies indicate that these two behaviours rely on distinct cognitive abilities (Runco & Chand, 1994).

e) Organizational Trustworthiness and Employee Innovative Work Behaviour

Pay, *et al* (2015) espouse that organizational trustworthiness is a major bedrock on which interpersonal relationships involving trust can be built. Trustworthiness is thus expedient to foster the fruition and diffusion of innovative ideas among employees (Ghosh, 2015; Liu et al., 2016). Employees that perceive organizational as not trustworthy enough or even un trust worthy, may not be willing to exhibit certain creative or innovative behaviours. This may consequently limit the extent at which employee creativity may be engendered within an organisation. Nevertheless, Amabile et al. (1996) and Amabile and Mueller (2008) further opine that employee innovative work behaviour should reflect its highest degree when an intrinsically motivated employee with high expertise and high creativity skills exhibit creative behaviours within a highly supportive organisational culture.

According to Pay *et al*. (2015), literature on trust recognizes the concept of trustworthiness as a critical component of social and interpersonal interaction, although, its definition and measurement are yet to be consistent. This is because the concept of trustworthiness is complex in that it is clustered with issues surrounding its definition and measurement (Carlos & Maria, 2014). Likewise, studies conducted over 50 years ago relate several trustworthiness dimensions which creates a pattern in regards to trustworthiness definitions and measurements (Rawlins, 2008). Nevertheless, the concept of trustworthiness yet proves to be imperative for the effective diffusion of creative ideas (Carlos & Maria, 2014). Trustworthiness is necessary for the continuous development and maintenance of interpersonal relationships between the manager and the employee. It is an indispensable element of satisfactory relationship which reassures the organization about increasing commitment towards employee creativity and innovativeness (Carlos & Maria, 2014).

Organizational trustworthiness plays several roles. Even in positively impacting the organisational culture by facilitating transparency and openness in communication between organisational members (Liu et al., 2016). Studies argue that trustworthiness could be characterized by integrity, just personality and fairness, dependability, reliability, and competence (Colquitt & Rodell, 2011; Liu et al., 2016). Similarly, trustworthiness makes it less difficult for an employee to commit willingly and sincerely towards self-openness. For this to occur in most cases, the employee must have been able to prove an acceptable degree of integrity, dependability, reliability, honesty, commitment and acts of goodwill (Morrow et al., 2004). Although, through cognitive submission processes the employee may become vulnerable and dependent on the choices of another employee (Liu et al., 2016).

Correspondingly, the effect of organizational trustworthiness in interpersonal trust relationships is a key instrument of organizational co-ordination and control (Carlos & Maria, 2014). This is in view that it facilitates employee commitment to engage in employee creativity initiatives. Employee creativity initiatives in this regard could be a program tailored towards the effective and efficient diffusion of creative ideas within the organisation (Carlos & Maria, 2014). Upasna (2014) also support that employee innovativeness involves the risk of employee participation in decision making processes, thus mistakes are inevitable. This could often be the outcome when perceived trustworthiness levels of organisational members are high. Another probable outcome could be an experience of employees' freedom of action as well as employees trusting their managers towards engagement and support in employee creativity initiatives (Carlos & Maria, 2014).

III. Conclusion

The theories and the discussion of literature offered in this paper, identify the imperatives of trust in the context of the relationship between the organization and its workers. The views expressed as well as the theories assessed offer a supportive framework which advance the importance of organizational trustworthiness in the actualization of employee innovative work behaviour. As noted in the discussion, particular reference is made to the need for workers to identify the organization as possessing certain qualities

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and features (e.g. benevolence, integrity etc.) which as specified in the study, are considered as imperative in enhancing their confidence in the organization and also in driving their desire to be more innovative in their work behaviour and actions. In conclusion, this paper therefore affirms that there is the need for organizations to emphasis on practices and qualities which express their substantial levels of benevolence, integrity and competence as a way of enhancing their trustworthiness and as such, increasing employee innovative behaviour within the workplace.

IV. Recommendations

In view of the conclusions reached, the following recommendations are put forward:

i. Management should focus on developing work structures that are transparent and which allow for active participation and involvement; such that actions and decisions by the leadership are can be justified on the basis of competency and integrity, thus boosting the confidence of employees in the organization.

ii. Work designs should be such that offer the necessary support and conditions for consistent communication and correspondence between managers/supervisors and their subordinates. Such designs should be enriched with delegated roles that allow for the increased responsibilities on the employee as a way of expressing confidence in their own capacities.

iii. Learning platforms and programs within the organization should be developed to enable workers within the organization acquaint themselves with the particular skills and exposure necessary in driving innovative work. This is also linked to workers considerations of support from management for the development and consistency of such programs

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Smart Airport: A Review on Future of the Airport Operation

By Aruna Rajapaksha & Dr. Nisha Jayasuriya
University of Kelaniya

Abstract- Smart Airport concept is the future of Airport operation and it may dramatically change the industry towards modern technology adaptation. This study mainly focuses on the Smart airport applications in to passenger terminal process. Literature scattered on different sources have been summarised to explain the features of smart airport with practical cases in global context. Empirical indications on implementation of the smart airport applications discussed based on practical implications of airport operations. Special attention given to the cases of the best performing major airports in Asia, Middle East & Europe. This study contribute to the field of academia and industry by identifying the advantages of smart airport implementation under the key areas of Aviation Security, Passenger Convenience, Operational Efficiency and Optimizing Limited resources. Further implantation methodology under passenger, baggage handling & regulatory controls have been discussed in this paper. Finally key challenges in implementation of the smart airport concept has been addressed and concludes with empirical justifications highlighting future research priorities on implementing the concept.

Keywords: airport operation, aviation security, capacity crunch, operational efficiency, passenger terminal process, practical implications, smart airport, technology adaptation.

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M19

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Smart Airport: A Review on Future of the Airport Operation

Aruna Rajapaksha [α] & Dr. Nisha Jayasuriya [σ]

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I. Introduction

Modern aviation industry is developing very fast. The rapid growth of passenger volumes alarming to have advanced technology features for design of future airports to improve efficacy levels as well as to utilise limited infrastructure effectively (Medvedev, Alomar, & Augustyn, 2017). Airports Council International (ACI) statistics show 8.8 billion passenger traffic in the year 2018, which is 6% growth compared to the previous year(ACI World, 2019). As per the passenger forecast published by the International Air Transport Association (IATA), the Asia Pacific region creates the largest passenger volume up to the year 2035 and predicting almost 50% of new passengers to be originated. As per the estimates up to 2035, new passengers 1.8 billion will travel from & within the Asian Pacific region with a 4.7% annual growth rate with 3.1 billion passengers (IATA, 2019).

The existing rapid growth of passenger volumes has already created a pressure on airport operators to re-consider the ability of the available infrastructure and focus on terminal capacity enhancement, process improvements, new revenue models and offer world-class services to attract global passengers whilst controlling physical & cyber security. Critical airport terminal process limitations are the efficiency of check-in process, integrated systems, CUTE (Common User Terminal Equipment), "Agent-facing" systems which shared with regulatory agencies and concessionaries (Sabatová, Galanda, Adamčík, Jezný, & Šulej, 2016).

Main airports in Europe, USA, Middle East and Asia are well equipped with modern technology and ready for digital transformation. They use cutting-edge technology and innovations in Information Technology & Telecommunication (IT&T). However, some of the airports in developing countries are not par with digital transformation and struggle with traditional airport infrastructure & processes.

The level of technology adaptation of an airport can be named as the digital maturity and airport technology adaptation can be divided into four stages such as Airport 1.0, 2.0, 3.0 and 4.0(Nau & Benoit, 2017). This concept is presented in Figure 1.

Author α: Doctor Candidate Faculty of Commerce & Management Studies, University of Kelaniya, Sri Lanka. e-mail: aruna.am@airport.lk
Author σ: Senior Lecturer SLIT Business School, Sri Lanka Institute of Information Technology, Sri Lanka. e-mail: nisha.j@sliit.lk

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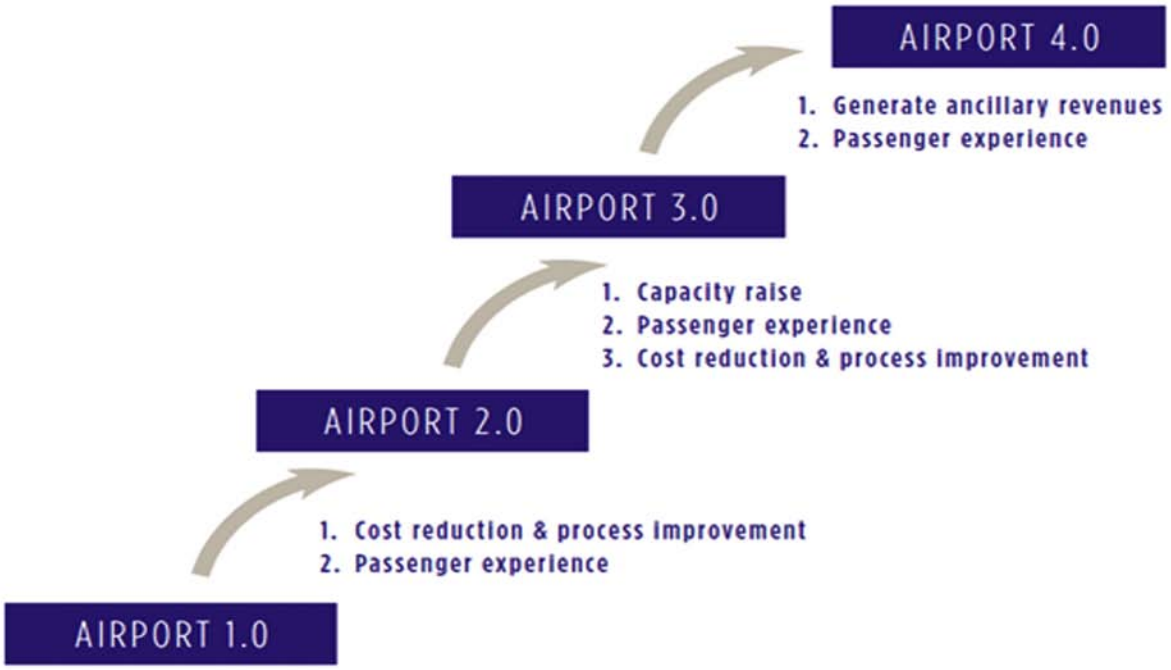


Figure 1: Level of Technology Adaptation in Airports (Nau & Benoit, 2017)

According to the above classification, the traditional airports which are with manual processes and basic IT solutions are known as Airport 1.0. The next level, Airport 2.0 is known as early adaptors to the digital technology into airport operations and partial self-service facilities available such as Wi-Fi technology & check-in process. When all level of passenger services of an airport equipped to provide full self-service, it named as Airport 3.0.In those airports, operational controls are automated whilst predictive and mobility solutions heavily used in passenger Terminal as well as in the airside.

The emerging technologies lead the airport industry towards Smart airports (NATS, 2019). Latest smart technology airport solutions practice smart gates, check-in, baggage monitoring, facial recognition, biometric identifications, airport terminal navigation through mobile devices, IP based security, data analytics, data mining to study passenger behaviour, AI adaptations and many other operational quality enhancements.

As Smart Airport is still a developing concept, a limited literature available on specific scopes under the smart airport operations and lack of general discussions on advantages, methods of practical implementation and challenges with special attention on terminal operations. There for the purpose of this paper is to find out above details with rational justifications. The author has used the deductive approach. Literature review explains research findings, theoretical models and empirical evidence relevant to the smart airport concept. Number of real case studies disused with practical examples on international context to justify the findings of the paper.

II. Literature Review

a) *Smart Airport*

As a result of fourth industrial revolution the Smart airport concept have been evolving all over the world eliminating the drawbacks of the conventional airport system. According to Bouyakoub, Belkhir, Guebli, & Bouyakoub, (2017) Airport 4.0 is a concept which leverages big data and open data to enhance its own innovation. In those airports, operators create value for operational efficiencies from collecting data with real-time passenger flow whilst analysis passenger profile.

IoT provide facility to interact with different smart devices and this approach generate many new applications in large variety of fields such as environment, health, smart cities and industry (Bouyakoub et al., 2017).

The concept of Smart Airport which is based on Humanism and O2O mode. Humanism address the passengers and civil aviation industry employees. It provides satisfaction for passengers while providing a pleasant and efficient working environment for employees. While O2O mode construct an effective combination of an offline airport and online airport. In this O2O mode offline one provide a personalised solution for passengers while online one provide all the digital information and inquiring services for passengers' need (Qi & Pan, 2018).

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b) Smart Airport Definitions

The definition for the 4th evolution of the airport which is known as Airport 4.0 is still being evolved. There are diverse definitions available in different literature for the airport 4.0 or the synonym called as smart airport. The definition for smart airport is related to the definition of smart city. Smart cities apply technology for urban lives in order to create more convenient and sustainable environment. Smart Airport is a sub system of this smart city. In this system, urban life and aircraft movements are connected. Information are readily exchange among urban transportation management, air traffic control and air lines. Via this connectivity the optimization of individual processes and airport operation as well as customer satisfaction are aimed to achieve (Nagy & Csiszár, 2016). The figure 2 indicates the Smart Airport operations within a Smart City concept.

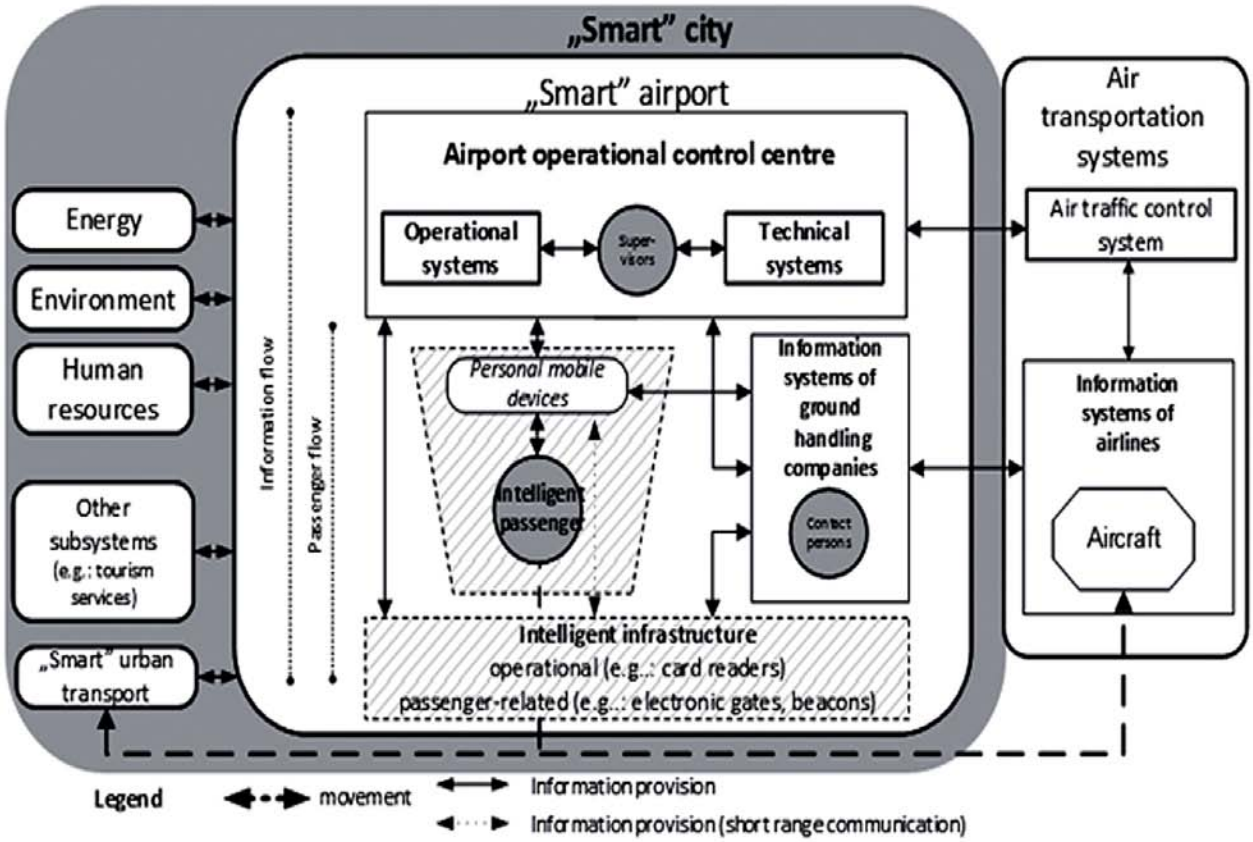


Figure 2: Model of "smart" airport in the concept of "smart" city.

Source: Nagy & Csiszár, (2016)

According to Qi & Pan, (2018) the concept of Smart airport is tend to achieved a 'man machine integration' by resetting the service process based on IoT, mobile network and big data. Furthermore, Almashari et al., (2018) explained it as an airport solution which enables controlling and monitoring many systems from a remote area unlike in the conventional airports. This provides safer environment for passengers and workers while any fault occurred can be handled immediately.

c) Advantages of Smart Airport

i. *Aviation Security*

Aviation security requirements are mandatory compliances to ensure safer journey to passengers, aircraft as well as to all other airport users. Smart Airports are improving the aviation security standards with modern technology as per the regulatory requirements and reducing passenger inconvenience. Security screening processes in an airport spend considerable time with unpleasant experience & making unsatisfactory passenger. It is a challenging task to ensure the flight security. Internet of things (IOT) is use as smart application to mobilize, sensing and processing tasks to authenticate passengers together with RFID to offer advanced security service (Jalali & Zeinali, 2018).

Munich, one of the best European airports has introduced state-of-the-art CT scanner to the passenger terminal which is capable to find solid and liquid explosives. Passengers not required to take out laptops, smart phones and any permitted liquid from their baggage to declare and they can easily process through the scanner for screening requirements (Munich

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Airport, 2019). To face the challenge of rapid growth of passengers may need solutions in addition to the aircraft capacity increase and airport expansions. It is required to have further integrative smart technological developments in airports. Use of Biometrics is another key IT application of Smart Airports to secure personal identification at the passenger security, check-in, border control, &boarding at the airport(ACI World, 2005).Smart airport provides safer environment for both passengers and workers and if any security fault occurred can be handled immediately with integration of IoT.

ii. *Passenger convenience*

Passengers expect their convenience throughout the terminal formalities without any harassment to the journey. Travellers of a smart airport do not need to wait long period of time as at a conventional airport. Sensors connected to IoT to provide information about shortest line, parking space and self-checking luggage (Almashari et al., 2018).

Changi Airport in Singapore, crowned as the best airport for the 7th consecutive year by skytrax World Airport Awards (Skytrax, 2019), introduced automated baggage drop machines for their terminal-4 with passenger facial recognition technology. There is no requirement for manual identity checks by security staff as the entire departure screening process automated by allowing flexible, secured and convenience departure process for passengers (Changiairport.com, 2019). Incheon Airport in South Korea already introduced "Airstar" robots to the terminal process for passenger ushering. These robots placed in passenger congesting areas such as departure lobby, duty-free stores and baggage belts at the arrival area. Further they are improving passenger convenience and smart experience services for airport users by guiding, transporting, vehicle parking, self-driving vehicles and indoor terminal location finding technology (Incheon Airport, 2019).

iii. *Operational efficiency*

Data collection of passengers is more important to improve operational efficiency. Big data analysis is the most beneficial advantage of a Smart airport. Identify passenger behaviour, more revenue generation, trace passenger gathering locations, calculate waiting time average of a passenger and all other personal behaviours of passengers can determine based on the smart data processing (Al Nuaimi, Al Neyadi, Mohamed, & Al-Jaroodi, 2015).

Modern Airport operators' keen on sensing and network infrastructure, data management infrastructure, data analytics, and Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning capacity to upgrade operational efficiency level of the airport. Changi Airport has already implement AI and ML-enabled applications for various functions that can sense better, analyse better, predict better and improve the operational efficiency(Lee & Miller, 2019). Incheon Airport has improved operational efficiency with smart technology by utilizing real time data. On-time performance and passenger convenience enhanced by real-time monitoring of flight delays, in-flight waiting times, and passenger terminal process. Also strictly control operational delays with digital display boards and intelligent CCTVs. Further operational dashboards automatically update & alert on required level of resources and performance levels through big data analysis (Incheon Airport, 2019).

iv. *Optimising limited resources*

Airports need to optimize limited terminal space whilst ensuring more space for commercial activities, to get reduced airline operating costs can use modern technology adaptation. Throughout terminal process the passenger comfort and smooth processes are the most priority needs(Castillo-Manzano & López-Valpuesta, 2013). There are two methods to reduce passenger waiting time in the terminal building as increasing terminal passenger service resources and allocate terminal resources based on passenger flow fluctuations in different times(Cheng, Zhang, & Guo, 2012). It is possible to reduce operational costs of the terminal and improve the operational efficiency by implementing above solutions in a proper methodology.

Smart airports concept is the best solution for optimum utilization of limited airport resources including terminal, airside and landside. Smart airports can introduce IoT based real-time data systems to predict peak time at the terminal and propose the best resource shifting arrangements on AI analysis. Also manpower allocation can manage effectively and reduce staff engagements in automated passenger processes. Robots technology, personalized mobile phone directives, smart information panels and Airport Collaborative Decision Making (A-CDM) systems can optimize limited resources available. A-CDM system introduced by Incheon Airport in 2017 to integrate real-time data with ATC Tower &Apron Control Tower. Improved the response capabilities with departure times and runway queues in advance by A-CDM system (Incheon Airport, 2019). Further, smart technology helps in reducing energy use by handling lighting and air conditioning systems based on a demand at a certain timing. This helps to reduce cost related to energy consumption (Almashari et al., 2018).

III. Application in to Smart Airport Operation

Airport Management is the most responsible and critical task in airport operations with limited resources, dealing with internal & external agencies, maintain on-time service delivery, maintain security of passengers & visitors, safe aerodrome operation whilst ensuring regulatory compliances. Airport terminal operations can mainly divide in to passenger service,

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baggage handling & regulatory clearance. The impact of smart technology provide various solutions to overcome airport challenges due to increasing passenger flow during peak hours (Mohamed, Gomaa, & El-Sherif, 2018). Smart airport applications can further elaborate based on above key components as follows;

a) Smart Check-in

Passenger can use several methods for check-in by using the web, mobile phones, personalised methods and computer-based kiosks are limiting the human involvement by ground handling staff and reduce the cost component and human error (Wittmer, 2011). Earlier some of the airlines were maintaining exclusive kiosks only for their passengers. SMART airports interlinked all severs of operating airlines and passengers can check-in through any shared kiosk placed at the terminal. This is a better solution for limited terminal space available whilst reducing cost engagement instead of different counter allocation for individual airlines.

b) Self-boarding

The main expectation of smart airport technology is to offer more efficient and convenient travel experience by introducing interconnected digitalized systems and processes (Mohamed et al., 2018). Boarding process is one of the most unpleasant and tension experience to the passenger due to number of security screenings and manual processes. Therefore it is required to empower passengers to have their own boarding process with flexibility. Boarding card scanning machines place at the gates to self-scan the boarding pass printed by the self-check-in counter. Passengers empowered to board into the aircraft without human checking process but using the latest RFID scanning methodology. Boarding gates open to the passenger based on the data scanned in the boarding pass and passengers can get into the aircraft. Human involvement only for the supervisory process by the ground handling staff.

c) Indoor navigation

Mobile devise applications offer personalized information on their flight times, airport locations, and other needs help to usher passengers on time to the aircraft. Navigation from and to the airport and all other related facility locations within the terminal can be included in to the personal devises. Indoor mapping within the terminal building with processing speeds will give required alerts to the passenger (Mantouka, Barmpounakis, Milioti, & Vlahogianni, 2019). Passengers who are using the airport for the first time may need to usher for airport formalities and later to the boring gates. Google indoor maps or airport app can help passengers to show the airport locations conveniently. SMART apps direct passengers to complete their airport formalities perfectly without the assistance of ground handling staff. This may reduce the necessity of airport terminal signage.

d) Biometric services

Most of the modern airports are implementing automated personal identification systems in to the vulnerable controlling points based on physiological characteristics. Facial recognition, fingerprints, hand geometry, handwriting, voice, retinal and vein are identified as more tractable biometric features (Sharif, Raza, Shah, Yasmin, & Fernandes, 2019). These services creating passenger convenience throughout the airport process as well as strengthen the security concerns and reduce the human error. Airport access controls, screening methods, travel documents (passport), E-gates, permit entrance to the sterile gates, identification in baggage claim, border control clearance process can improve based on the biometric readers and provide seamless service to the passenger.

Verify the identity of individual passengers prior to board in to aircraft in critically important to ensure safe air travel. Bio metric ravel documents can use to improve the accuracy levels to recognize individual passengers separately (ACI, 2005). This technology can easily verify that passengers' board in to the aircraft are the same individual who checked-in as per the procedures. At the check-in point can take the first biometrics such as finger prints and facial reconditions to monitor the passengers by using intelligent CCTV's and border control will cross check the accuracy with passenger travel document. Then passengers can easily access to the boarding gate with smart boarding pass and biometric proof. Most of the modern airports already adopted this methodology to improve passenger convenience, process efficiency, reduce manpower involvement, and improve accuracy levels and feeding data to use AI decision makings.

e) Smart wearable

With modern technology wearable hardware solutions are in use and embedded micro system is the core structure. Physical interaction module share environmental sensors to measure temperature and humidity, scanners and remote controller modules. Passenger centric modules operate touch screens, cameras, audio features and motion sensors. Communication systems include WiFi, Bluetooth, GPRS, IOT & other latest communication methods (Kong, Luo, Huang, & Yang, 2019). Smart devices such as watches, electronic hand bands, Bluetooth hats, smart glasses, head phones and electronic accessories with sensors use to give alerts to passengers on timing for airport formalities. Further, they are being informed on boarding gate changes, check-in counter, special discounts in duty-free shops and restaurants and more passenger convenience. Real-time travel information starts from the front door of the terminal or at the taxing of the aircraft for arriving passengers.

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f) RFID baggage tags

The radio frequency identification (RFID) technology mainly use for baggage handling process. This technology facilitate to monitor the screening remotely from the particular location with several interfaces. Passengers will be benefitted from RFID baggage tags to trace their baggage, status of baggage loading or unloading to the aircraft during their departure, arrival or transit (Kovynyov & Mikut, 2018). Smart airports can reduce the risk of mishandle baggage by using this technology. Additional data can be added in to the system such as manufacturer, brand and the size of the baggage. Human involvement is very less and explosive detection system may reduce the risk of damages to happen.

g) Self-baggage tagging

There is a growth of full service and low cost carriers and self-connecting air passengers will increase in Asia similar to European airports. Major Asian hubs such as Singapore, Tokyo Narita, Kuala Lumpur, and Seoul Incheon airports will be the key self-handling airports to handle their rapid growth of passengers (Chang, Lee, & Wu, 2019). Smart Airports facilitate passengers to tag their own baggage by using baggage drop-off machines at the departure terminal. Passengers can print their baggage tag from their house and most of the budget airlines prefer this methodology to reduce their stationary and operational cost. The same time can track the baggage status through the smart phone. Digital baggage tags are an alternative to conventional paper-based baggage tags. Given digital barcode can be changed remotely by airlines or ground handling agents in case of changes of the flight or off-load plan.

h) Kiosks for Lost Luggage

RFID technology can adopt in to the lost luggage problem and this system distribute baggage to the correct loading aircraft and allowing passenger to monitor throughout the transit and at the arrival (Shehieb et al., 2017). Kiosks for Lost Luggage are connected to the global airline & airport network and help passengers to trace the status of their baggage via smart mobile phone. Reporting lost luggage system also easing by allowing passengers to scan the boarding pass and include brief on the items were in packed in the luggage and forward to the relevant airline. In the same message or email can include the present contact details of the passenger and address for the delivery of the luggage found.

i) Border control

Clearance form regulatory agencies such as Immigration & Emigration, Customs, Intelligent services and quarantine are required to complete the full authorization. Airport Council International recommends to use international standardized formats for biometric data and introduce harmonized approach for the same (ACI World, 2005). Automated border control systems not having required control over the facial recognition and additional security measures required to check the accuracy between travelling person and travel document. Therefore it is required to introduced biometric readers in addition to the facial recognition to the e-gates located at border controlling points (Sanchez del Rio, Moctezuma, Conde, Martin de Diego, & Cabello, 2016). E-gate systems can be introduced for both departure and arriving passengers. In addition to the airport infrastructure, regulatory border control body of the country should initiate the electronic travel documents for the use of local citizens at the initial stage.

j) Airport Apps for Mobile Devices

Passengers can have airport services through mobile applications and Ticket Kiosks on their booking completion through the travel agent or online portal of the airline. In generally SMART airport experience starts 48 hours prior to the departure. After providing itinerary details this application starts to work and assist the passenger with all features available (Harteveldt, 2016).

The primary options of the smart airport mobile application activate with the itinerary details such as luggage pick up of the passenger from any given location. Then passengers need not carry the luggage along with him/her to the airport. A SMART application connected to cab services and passenger will be pick up from home and drop at the airport on time. Passengers will get continuous alerts & reminders on flight status. Google Indoor map will assist indoor walking with directions to walk within the terminal.

Kiosks will validate the itinerary once a passenger collects the boarding pass and same time can change seating arrangement on their preference. After passenger verification, automated Kiosks will print baggage tags. Baggage will correctly be sent to the relevant feeding bay based on the RFID readers and passenger will get updates to their smart mobile phone at feeding bay, carrying to the aircraft and after the baggage loaded to the aircraft(Abdullah Alghadeir, 2016).

After the baggage dumping, the application guide passenger through other formalities such as security check and immigration with specific distance and waiting time. If sufficient time available to the boarding, passengers may get some special Duty Free shop promotions into their mobiles as a promotional tool to improve airport revenue. Further, the application shows restaurants, washrooms, smoking zone, lounges and other facilities available for their waiting time. All relevant public announcements come to the mobile phone in both voice recording and text. Once the aircraft is ready for boarding passenger should just scan the boarding pass at the gate and RFID scanning screener

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will open the gate at the boarding as well as the boarding bridge up to the aircraft door.

IV. Strategic Challenges

a) Cyber Security

The key risk factor of Smart Airport is Cyber security and it is one of the most critical safety factor need more attention in modern airport operation. To provide optimal services in reliable & sustainable manner, smart airports struggle with growth, efficiency, safety and security (Lykou, Anagnostopoulou, & Gritzalis, 2019). The modern SMART application process which is open for open data and big data is clearly open for cyber-attacks as these systems are working independently. In addition to that, system access permitted through dedicated APIs to have innovations and developments generate the unwanted risk of cyber-attacks. Data interception, access to local network, interferences to data transferring and denial of service are the key risks of smart airport technological adaptation. Accessing to confidential data of the passengers by unauthorised persons may challenge to the privacy of them.

Cyber security treats are emerging in addition to the physical security of an airport as the increase of technological adaptation specially with mobile based applications created for passenger convenience. Smart airports may have high tech communication equipment and related infrastructure to support sophisticated aircraft technology and navigational systems to maintain effective end to end communication via different applications. Therefore the cyber security risk is further increasing and mitigation actions need to be taken on priority basis (Gopalakrishnan, Govindarasu, W. Jacobson, & M. Phares, 2013). Therefore it is necessary to establish Cyber-attack detection centres internally or outsource the requirement. Further, penetration tests need to be carried out continuously in the same model.

As risk mitigating strategies should implement industry standards among all the users of smart airport systems, introduce cyber security measures, and educate both technical personnel and users. Educational campaigns more effective if conduct on the user focused method to provide customised knowledge to prevent cyber security risks and recommended to the airport staff who assign to monitor the system.

b) Return on "Smart" Investment

It is difficult to manage fixed and moveable resources of an airport effectively, as they have to spend largely on capital expenditure which is not properly managed. Cloud technology can be used for reducing IT-related hardware cost and manpower cost involvement. Heavy capital investments required for smart airport technology as traditional technology and infrastructure not capable to ful fil the requirement. Therefore advanced technology applications must focus on cost involvement against the efficiency level improvements. The latest Airport 4.0 technology use for smart airports such as big data analysis, Internet of Things and augmented reality should apply to enhance the efficiency level of the airport operations in addition to the passenger facilitation.

Kansai Airport is keen on energy saving and planning to use hydrogen and clean energy for their terminal development (Baxter, Srisaeng, & Wild, 2018). Energy consumption including illumination and air-condition for terminal buildings can control based on intelligent CCTVs and automated controllers based on passenger traffic. Most of the businesses use traditional KPI's to measure the performance focus on physical capital or human capital such as inventory, productivity and utilization. Digital transformation not affect to the basic KPI's of the company and need to track intermediate indicators (Barry Libert, Beck, & Wind, 2016).

Though the initial introduction cost is high in technological adaptation in long run will generate more profits against the investment. It is recommended to invest on smart features on priority basis by identifying most critical elements and data integration requirements. Digital transformation cost of smart airports can be handled carefully and cost saving methods should be introduced systematically. Above decisions should be taken based on dynamic manner. Financially viable projects should be implemented by considering the ROI. User-friendly semi-technology should be adopted in several development stages whilst educating the internal & external agencies of the airport operation and slowly adopt passengers also into this. Digital transformation cannot run overnight and should be in rationalised approached on identified priorities.

c) Change the Mind-set and Maintain Standards

As per the Technical Acceptance (TAM) when people have a positive attitude towards something they form intention to perform behaviours whilst technological adoption in different industries is being explained with the said model (Davis, Bagozzi, Bagozzi, & Wars haw, 1989; Nayanajith, & Dissanayake, 2019). Technology can reshape the business models of provided stakeholders adopt it (Siriwardane & Dissanayake, 2018). Therefore the airport operator should maintain positive attitude of airport employees on technical adaptation and closely coordinate with relevant stakeholders including regulatory agencies, airlines and other related institutions. Airports should identify, prioritize and implement required digital solutions which are specifically relevant to the context of airport operations. This may be challenged by non-digitalized mind-set within the organization. It is required to change the mind-set of airport staff including regulatory agencies as well as concessionaries. They may have required training on how to operate their own systems

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and educate on basic features and importance of the system implementation. It is required to have the relevant technological knowledge and maintain the standards of systems up to the industry requirements.

V. Conclusion

Smart airport concept is the future of the airport operations. There are some key operational areas identified in the passenger terminal process to introduce digital transformation as passenger operations, baggage handling and border control by regulatory agencies. Major components in implementing the smart airport functions are Aviation security, Passenger convenience, Operational efficiency and Optimizing limited resources. Each factor is easing the process with comfortable and effective operation with modern technology adaptation such as RFID Screening, IoT, Big data analysis and other features of digital transformation. Smart Check-in, Self-boarding, Indoor navigation, Biometric services, Using smart wearable, RFID baggage tags, Self-baggage tagging, Kiosks for Lost Luggage, Border control and Airport Apps for Mobile Devices can identify as application tools of the smart airport concept. Need special attention on key strategic challenges to implement the smart airport operation. Cyber security is the most vulnerable threat to smart features of any airport and special controls need to be introduced. The digital transformation is a costly exercise and return of the intended investment should be considered (Rassool & Dissanayake, 2019). Airport staff should be trained properly to create a positive approach on digital transformation together with all regulatory & supportive agencies. Future researches recommended to identify the required level of smart technology adaptation in airport operations subject to the return on investment. Special attention on specific regional studies may give more accurate research findings to determine the most relevant smart airport adaptation levels. Conclusively, future research works need more attention to provide practise related insights on how to model smart airport concept specially in emerging economies and tourism sector focused countries. Such infrastructure developments result direct and indirect impact on connected industries.

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A Critiquing of Masculinity Leadership Syndrome in African Organizations: A Lens from Kitchen to the Palace of Modern Organizations

By Ukpata, Sunday Ijuo PhD, Agha Nancy PhD, Nwekpa C. Kenneth PhD & Ama A. Udu PhD
Federal University Wukari

Abstract- Scholars have described leadership based on different experiences and practices. It is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. This paper is an examination and critiquing of the masculinity leadership syndrome in African organizations. It is common traditions, which Africa and Africans perceived leadership as mainly the affairs of the men folks in which the women are alienated from organizational decision-making; hence the delineation of the roles of women in the Kitchen while the men have to sit at the palaces to make decisions on rulership and governance and that man is chosen divinely by nature to lead and govern his environment. This they strongly believed in the "Great Man Leadership Theory" which was popularized by Carlyle, Thomas, 1940. Africans generally believed that leadership is an exclusive reserve of the great men and not great women.

Keywords: leadership, biases, organizations, power, in clusion.

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M10



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A Critiquing of Masculinity Leadership Syndrome in African Organizations: A Lens from Kitchen to the Palace of Modern Organizations

Ukpata, Sunday Ijuo PhD [α], Agha Nancy PhD [σ], Nwekpa C. Kenneth PhD [ρ] & Ama A. Udu PhD [ω]

Abstract- Scholars have described leadership based on different experiences and practices. It is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. This paper is an examination and critiquing of the masculinity leadership syndrome in African organizations. It is common traditions, which Africa and Africans perceived leadership as mainly the affairs of the men folks in which the women are alienated from organizational decision-making; hence the delineation of the roles of women in the Kitchen while the men have to sit at the palaces to make decisions on rulership and governance and that man is chosen divinely by nature to lead and govern his environment. This they strongly believed in the "Great Man Leadership Theory" which was popularized by Carlyle, Thomas, 1940. Africans generally believed that leadership is an exclusive reserve of the great men and not great women. This age-long dogma has adversely retarded the development of creative and innovative skills and abilities of women in most African private and public organizations. Therefore, this study attempted a critiquing of the dogma and fused in a debate that advocates for leadership inclusiveness that will tap-in the reservoir of Human Resource endowments in various African organizations for sustainable development.

Keywords: leadership, biases, organizations, power, in clusion.

I. Introduction

The term "Leadership" is a broad concept that has been given different meanings by different scholars and practitioners. In everyday usage, it permeates our human activities, organizations and other social settings. Organizations have leaders that pilot the affairs with the aim to achieve specified goals and objectives. Groups and sub-groups within the organization have their leaders. Communities have their leaders, labor unions, political groups, market women associations, students' associations, etc all have their leaders with who authority and power are vested on them to direct the lead the members toward achieving predetermined goals, and these goals may or may not be organizational. Hence could sometimes be individual-oriented goals which the leader may sometimes impose on the members. However, this depends on the type of leadership style being used in each situation. Leadership therefore, involves working with and through people to accomplish specific goals, which sometimes may not necessarily be organizational goals. (Umoh 2002, 16-18). Therefore, all that the leadership function requires is the possession of some competencies. These competencies include technical skills, conceptual skills, human resource management skills, motivation skills, creativity skills, the endowment of wisdom, etc as this list is inexhaustible. Therefore, it follows why most scholars have defined the term as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. From this definition, it means that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the followers, and other situational variables. (Blanchard and Blanchard 1972, 9).

From this basic analysis, there merge, some critical questions that are very important to this study. First and foremost, one would ask, do the leadership competencies outlined above suggest any exclusivity in their natural endowments to men or that the men may have more robust natural endowments than the females? Would a woman be less creative, less skillful, or less technically sound than a man due to gender disposition? These few questions enable us to address our context of masculinity leadership syndrome in African organizations. As we defined leadership earlier, it is necessary to define the term "masculinity" in light of this paper. "Masculinity," which is also called manhood or manliness, is a set of attributes, behaviors, and roles associated with boys and men. As a social construct, it is distinct from the definition of male biological sex. From historical periods, the standards of manliness or masculinity vary widely across different race and cultures. Both males and females sometimes do exhibit masculine traits and behavor or, vice versa. But behavors such as strength, courage, independence, leadership, violence,

Author α: Federal University Wukari, Nigeria.
e-mail: ukpata@yahoo.com
Author σ ρ ω: Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki, Nigeria.
e-mails: nanciagha@yahoo.com, e-mail: nwekpak@gmail.com,
e-mail: amaaudu@gmail.com

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and assertiveness are believed to be men's traits. These features and or characteristics drive the total manliness attributes of the African management world and they negatively interpose the medieval and modern management system in African organizations.

Therefore, the term "masculinity leadership" is a system of leadership that vested leadership position exclusively on the male folks to which the female is and should be made to have subordinated roles to the man's authority and dictates. As is most commonly found within the African organizational systems that are mostly influenced by African cultural norms. Masculinity leadership does not foster leadership inclusiveness and therefore, it is patriarchal and kleptocratic.

According to Patel, Gita, and Buiting Sophie (2013) "the human resources available to most countries are made up 50% of women. This means that since half of the total stock of human resources in a given country is not being channeled into the economy and not being made part of decision-making processes, then that country's economic potential is bound to suffer, by losing 50% of its capacity" They further collaborated this view that, for countries to navigate their ways out of the current economic crisis, business leaders and indeed policy-makers need to aggregate talents of both women and men more than ever to be able to come up with the best solutions" (9). Hence the thrust of this present research effort is to present a scholarly "critiquing of masculinity leadership syndrome in African organizations using the analytical and logical lens of critique from African traditional organizational settings to modern system viewing activities from the kitchen to the palace of broader organizational context.

a) Paper's importance

This paper's importance is based on the fact that:

The role of women in African political and economic development is crucial as gender discriminations have hindered the growth of so many economies of the African continent. Leadership development and gender equality is a critical parameter for building vibrant economy of any region in the world. The paper is important because few of the women leaders in African organizations have proved their capabilities in most of their areas of specializations over time, and there is a need to balance the gender disparity gap that is currently limiting the growth of the human capital index in Africa.

b) Research purpose

The research purpose includes:

- To ascertain the barriers to women leadership in African organizations.
- To determine the influence of gender discrimination on women leadership participation in African organizations.
- To critically evaluate the impact of masculinity leadership on heterogeneous employees' performance in African organizations
- To ascertain how the men-men leadership syndrome in African organizations can be eradicated.

c) Research questions

In this research, we have been confronted by the following research questions:

- What are the barriers to women's leadership in African organizations?
- What is the influence of gender discrimination on women's leadership participation in African organizations?
- What is the impact of masculinity leadership on heterogeneous employees' performance in African organizations?
- How can men-men leadership syndrome in African organizations be eradicated?

II. Review of Related Literature

a) Theoretical base

The theory anchoring this study is based on the "Great Man Leadership Theory" Popularized by Carlyle, Thomas (1940). The Central thesis of the theory is that "Great leaders are God-gifted, not man-made" This portrays the view of the Great Man Theory of Leadership, in such dimensions that it relates to the fact that whether one could called a leaders or not, the determining factor is that leadership traits and competences are inbuilt. In other words, there seems to be a consensus that one could either be born as a great leader or not due to certain influences. It was argued that factors such as one's up-bringing, education, experiences are only modeling the person's leadership abilities; they are not necessarily responsible for making the person a leader (67). Africans believed that leadership is an exclusive reserve of great men and not great women. We fussed our argument by advocating for leadership inclusiveness and gender equality in the leadership style in African organizations.

b) An Overview of Women in Political Leadership in Pre-colonial and Post-colonial Nigeria

Before the advent of modern politics in Nigeria, which started with political activism in the build-up to independence, and matured in 1960, Nigerians had not been without political leadership. Traditional political structures had always existed, and through them, the people had gotten political leadership. In the centralized states, among the Hausa and Yoruba, the women's place in political leadership was prominent. Similarly, in some decentralized societies, especially among the Igbo of South-East Nigeria, the women also had a place in politics (Ukpata and Onyeukwu 2014, 72). Some of

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these positions of women traditional political leadership are shown in the table below.

Table 1: Names of Women in Political Leadership in Pre-colonial Nigeria

S/N	Name of Leader/Ruler	Town or Village	Local Govt. Area	State	Type of Rulership	Pre-colonial Era or days	Post-colonial Era or days
1	Luwo Gbadiaya	Ife	Ife Central	Osun	Oni of Ife	Pre-colonial	None to date
2	Iyayun	Oyo	Oyo	Oyo	Alaafin	Pre-colonial	None to date
3	Orompoto	Oyo	Oyo	Oyo	Alaafin	Pre-colonial	None to date
4	Jomijomi	Oyo	Oyo	Oyo	Alaafin	Pre-colonial	None to date
5	Jepojepo	Oyo	Oyo	Oyo	Alaafin	Pre-colonial	None to date
6	Queen Amina	Zauzau	Zaria	Kaduna	Emir	Pre-colonial	None to date
7	Daura	Daura	Daura Emirate	Katsina	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date
8	Kofono	Daura	Daura Emirate	Katsina	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date
9	Eye-Moin	Akure	Akure	Ondo	Regent / Monarch	Pre-colonial (1705-1735 AD)	None to date
10	Ayo-Ero	Akure	Akure	Ondo	Regent / Monarch	Pre-colonial (1850-1851 AD)	None to date
11	Gulffano	Daura	Daura Emirate	Katsina	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date
12	Yawano	Daura	Daura Emirate	Katsina	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date
13	Yakania	Daura	Daura Emirate	Katsina	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date
14	Walsam	Daura	Daura Emirate	Katsina	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date
15	Cadar	Daura	Daura Emirate	Katsina	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date
16	Agagri	Daura	Daura Emirate	Katsina	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date
17	Queen Kanbasa	Bonny	Bonny	Rivers	Queen	Pre-colonial	None to date

Source: Adapted from Olasupo, F.A. 2006; cited in Adoko, O. E. (2012), in Ukpata and Onyeukwu 2014). Empowering Women in Agri-Business and Agri-Preneurship: The Dialectics of Socio-cultural Impediments on Economic Development in Nigeria. European Journal of Business and Management www.iiste.orgISSN 2222-1905 (Paper) ISSN 2222-2839 (Online) Vol.6, No.6, 2014

From the overview of the women's participation in political leadership in Nigeria from the pre-colonial era to the present-day political system, it is clear that women were recognized more in political leadership during the pre-colonial time than what was in practice during the colonial period to this present-day traditional leadership structures. Even at the pre-colonial period, traditional political power-sharing between men and women was only noticeable in five (5) states of the federation – Osun, Ondo, Oyo, Katsina, Kaduna, and Rivers states respectively. Whereas women's involvement in political power seems not to be a norm in other heterogeneous cultural settings in Nigeria (Ukpata and Onyeukwu, 2014, 73).

However, in discussing "The role of women in the development of culture in Nigeria", (Okonjo 1988, 38-44) posits that, "The villages and towns were ruled jointly by the Obi (the, male ruler or chief) the Omu (the female equivalent of the Obi). The Omu was not the wife of the Obi or related to him in any way (77). Generally, when the *Obi is* installed as the king, he ruled in conjunction with the *Omu.* There seems to be a clear division of functions between them, and none is superior to the other. The Omu ruled the women while the Obi ruled the men (Adereoti 2007, 33). (Ukpata and Onyeukwu 2014, 73) presented a debate that centered on the hypothesis that "whether the existence of women traditional rulers in the pre-colonial era represents a fair recognition of women development and empowerment in social, political and economic matters amongst multicultural ethnic cleavages in Nigeria." On the other hand, whether it is a patchy selected window-dressed representation of few ethnic origins as majority having the political and economic power? At whatever angle that is taken on the debate, it is conjectural and needs empirical validation. (75).

c) Masculinity Versus Femininity Leadership in Africa

The *"Great Man Leadership Theory" Popularized by Carlyle (1940).* the central point of the theory is that; Great leaders are God-gifted, not created artificially by man" This portrays the view of the Great Man Theory of Leadership in such dimensions that it relates to the fact, that leadership traits are inbuilt. This position implies therefore that human intellectual capabilities and skills for performance in any specific duty are exclusive reserve of some individuals who are naturally and divinely born great. However, viewing the "theory of multiple intelligence" propounded by Gardner, (1983) cited in Cherry, Kendra (2018) posits that "all people irrespective of gender have different kinds of intelligence."

The position of the Great man leadership theory most perhaps laid the foundation for the Masculinity leadership system in the African continent. In most

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African countries, Jobs that are usually labor intensive are considered as men jobs, so also issues of leadership. It is a popular tradition in Africa that women should have their authority stamped in the kitchen and not in the leadership position such as Palace, where critical decisions about governance and leadership are made by men. In fact, in some cultures in Africa, for instance, women are prohibited from engaging in occupations such as Armed forces or military, Police force, Airforce, Navy, and jobs like Engineering, Security services, etc. Some cultures also prohibit women from going to schools claiming that women are meant to be given out in marriage and are for procreation of children. While when it comes to critical decision making in some of the cultures, men usually gathered in the town halls to make such decisions and then transmit the same to the women group who are bound by such decisions. In fact, in the traditional African Organizations, such as Kingdoms and chiefdoms, women are never allowed to form part of the cabinet of the king and therefore have nothing to say about what rules have been established to govern the subjects in the kingdom.

d) Feminist Leadership Roles in Modern-day Africa

Recent development has shown significant improvement in the old African tradition of men-men-leadership syndrome in almost every organization. Writing from the South African context on "*Only 5% of CEOs in Africa are Women"* Omarjee, Lameez. (2016, 3) stressed that "There is a research evaluation report presented to have women in leadership positions in Africa." According to the McKinsey & Company report released recently, there is a link between companies which perform better financially and that have gender diversity." (2).

According to the report with regard to gender diversity and leadership for the past 10 years Africa has made significant progress and success. That's not withstanding, the report showed that only 5% of CEOs in the private sector organizations in Africa are women, when compared to 4% globally. This figure suggests that achieving gender equality is still a big issue, (Omarjee, 2016). Empirical findings equally showed that in comparing female representation leadership, the level of representations also varies from one industry to another. Hence in industries that are traditionally dominated by men, the representations of women are lower. "Historically, few women studied in these areas… the pipeline of women is smaller than men than in other areas," Moodley (2015 in (Omarjee, Lameez. 2016, 5).

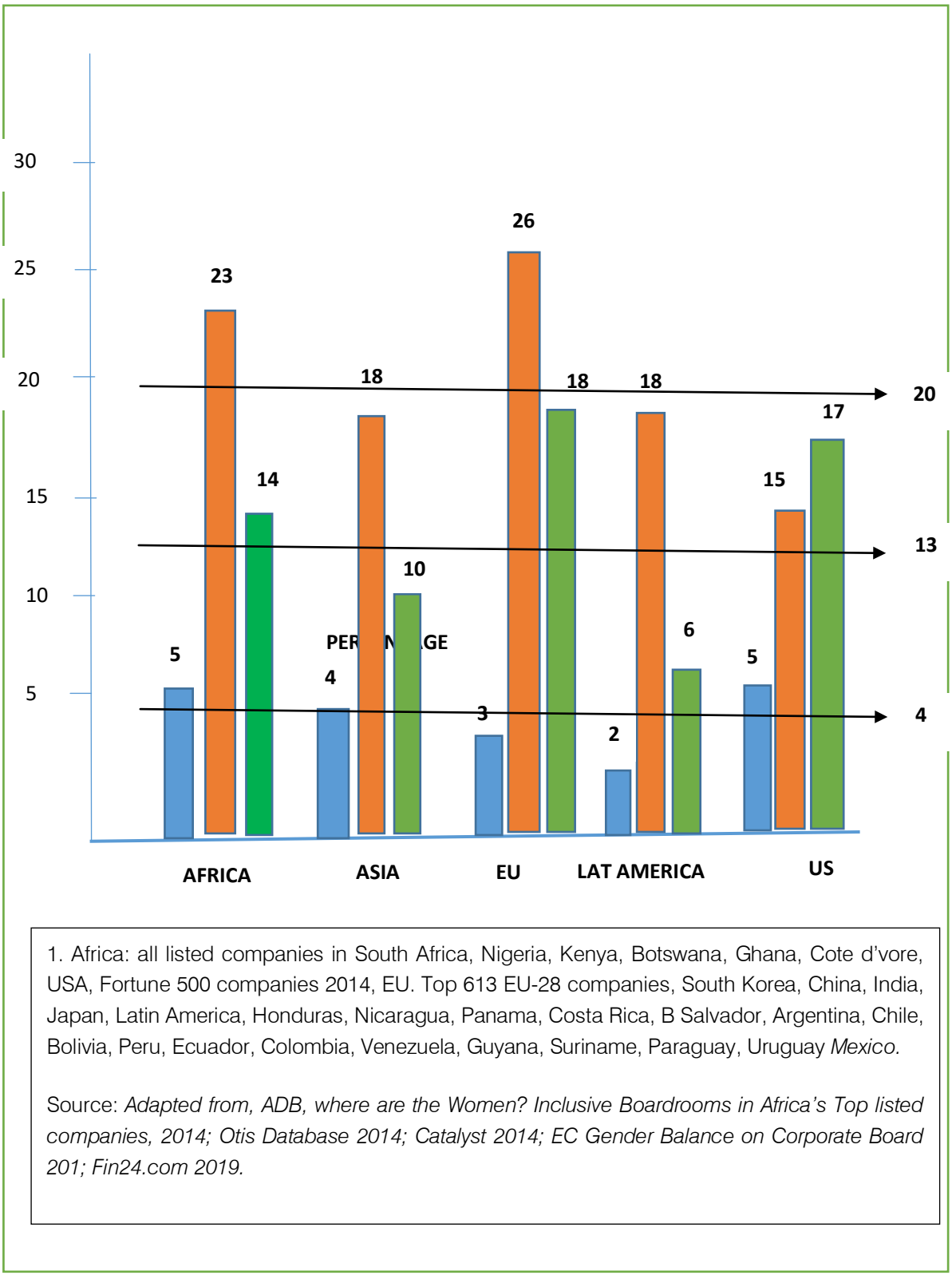
Table 2: A comparative Analysis of Women CEOs and other Senior Level in African Organizations

Percentage of Women by Different Levels of Leadership in African Organizations					
Women CEOs	Women Cabinet Members	Women Parliamentarians	Women Senior Managers	Promotions that go to Women	Women who hold line roles
5%	22%	24%	29%	36%	44%

Source: Extracted from, Omarjee, Lameez (2016). Only 5% of CEOs in Africa are women – McKinsey. www.fin24.com retrieved, 29, April, 2018.

Although when one look at the results on table 2 above it seems that women have recently occupy more leadership position than before. Nevertheless, it does not imply that the women have any significant power to exercise in the work environment especially in the private sector where half of the women roles in operations at senior levels are mostly secondary or support functions. This situation is common across all sectors of businesses including, legal field, human resource management, communications, and corporate social responsibility, In the public sector the equivalent roles are mostly in areas such social welfare, advocacy, with just little or limited political influence, There is need therefore to critically look into the roles of women in all facets of business organizations and to help and sensitize them to reach higher levels of their careers, (Moodley, Samantha 2015).

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1. Africa: all listed companies in South Africa, Nigeria, Kenya, Botswana, Ghana, Cote d'vore, USA, Fortune 500 companies 2014, EU. Top 613 EU-28 companies, South Korea, China, India, Japan, Latin America, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Costa Rica, B Salvador, Argentina, Chile, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, Venezuela, Guyana, Suriname, Paraguay, Uruguay *Mexico.*

Source: *Adapted from, ADB, where are the Women? Inclusive Boardrooms in Africa's Top listed companies, 2014; Otis Database 2014; Catalyst 2014; EC Gender Balance on Corporate Board 201; Fin24.com 2019.*

Figure 1: A comparative Analysis Women Representation at Senior Management level in private Sector Companies Worldwide

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From the results of the companies surveyed, 56% of female African women who are senior managers only hold position of staff roles. There is also a wide gap in the pay structure between men and women holding similar senior position in so many of the private sector companies surveyed. For example, in country like South Africa, women who hold board membership positions earn pay package of 17% less below their male colleagues. Similarly, African women who hold positions at Executive Committee levels constitute 23% compared with a global average of 20%. While at the board level, African women hold 14% of seats when compared with a global average of 13%. In the Southern Africa region, women who hold board positions were 20%, compared to the 14% average on the African continent. (Moodley Samantha 2016, 4).

Even though women in Africa have been seen to be involved more as executive committee members, comparatively with what is obtainable in the EU, and most cases, they function in sedentary roles, statistics have shown that fewer of women are hold positions as Chief Executive Officers of Organizations in Africa. This is evidenced by the 5% figure shown in figure 2 above.

III. Methodology

Design: This research being a working paper, is structured into two phases using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. Under the Phase, I a phenomenological content analysis of extant literature was adopted to extract concrete theoretical formation on the subject of our investigation. This was supported by a qualitative survey with the use of a questionnaire to generate information from 50 female organizational leaders selected from amongst the listed private companies and public sector organizations in Nigeria as a pilot test for the phase, II of the research which shall be quantitative.

Area of Study: In the present phase, I it was situated in Nigeria as a pilot case study preparatory to phase, II. Under the phase, II, a descriptive survey method shall be adopted with the use of structured questionnaires that would be distributed to senior female managerial leaders of private endogenous and international organizations that have their country offices in Nigeria. Such firms shall be drawn from Nigeria, Ghana, Cameroun, South Africa, Kenya, and cote d'Ivoire respectively.

a) Results of the qualitative survey from the current study presented below

Table 3: Questionnaire Distributions

Category	No. Distributed	No. Returned	Percentage
Female CEOs	10	10	20
Female Board Members	15	15	30
Female Senior Managers	25	25	50
Total	50	50	100

Source: Field Survey (2019)

From the table 3 above, a total of 50 questionnaires were administered to 100 women within the ranks of Female Senior Managers, Board members and Female Chief Executive Officers selected from within big private and public sector organizations to sample their opinions on the perception of women's participation in leadership roles in Africa and to draw inspiration as to what constitutes barriers to women leadership generally. The analysis shows that 20% were distributed to Female CEOs, 30% to Female Board Members, and 50% to Female Senior Managers, respectively. All were filled and retrieved, as indicated above.

IV. Results and Discussion

Table 4: Perceptions of Respondents on Variables Affecting Women Leadership in African Organizations

Variable	Outcome determinant	Percentage Per Women Leadership Category		
		CEOs	Board Members	Senior Managers
What are the Barriers to women leadership in African Organizations?	1. Cultural Barriers	60%	56%	85%
	2. Religious Barrier	57%	67%	69%
	3. Low women education	82%	80%	55%
	4. Lack of confidence and courage	72%	77%	64%
	5. Lack of political will	80%	82%	67%
	6. Gender discrimination by men	85%	88%	94%
	7. Pull-down syndrome	56%	66%	70%
	8. Family background	68%	76%	90%

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	9. Lack of support amongst women 10. Fear of failure	89% 77%	76% 88%	55% 91%
Does gender discrimination affect your leadership ability negatively? (Yes=Y, No=N)		85% (Y) 15% (N)	64% (Y) 36% (N)	83%(Y) 17%(N)
Does Masculinity Leadership affect performance of heterogeneous workforce groups in African organizations? (Yes=N, No= N)		86% (Y) 14%(N)	71%(Y) 29%(N)	92%(Y) 8% (N)

Source: Field Survey (2019)

From the analysis of the results presented in Table 4 above, respondents were asked to outline what constitute barriers to women leadership in African organizations. On Cultural influence, 60% of CEOs listed cultural barriers while 56% of Board members and 85% of Senior Managers listed the same. Similarly, 57%, 67%, and 69% of CEOs, BMs, and SMs respectively listed religious problem as one of the key barriers. On low women educational status, 82%, 80% and 55% respectively attested to the women low educational background as the hindrance to the women's leadership participation. Other factors listed and highly rated by the respondents include:

- Lack of confidence and courage
- Lack of political will
- Gender discrimination by men
- Pull-down syndrome
- Family background
- Lack of support amongst women
- Fear of failure

Similarly, to determine whether gender discrimination affects the leadership abilities of the women executives surveyed, 85%, 64%, and 83% said they were negatively affected while 15%, 36%, and 17% respectively said they were positively affected. There is also a correlation on the perceptions of the women Executives interviewed on how Masculinity Leadership affect the performance of heterogeneous workforce groups in African organizations with result indicated by 86%, 71%, and 92% of the CEOs, BMs and SMs respectively.

a) Factors Influencing Masculine Leadership Perception in Africa

1. *Patriarchal masculine role:* The traditional African leadership style advocated the patriarchal role of the man as ordained by God. They believe it is the decision of the gods that the man is created to communicate, and hear from the Supreme Being and then translate the message to the women and therefore the women are not allowed by nature to approach the supreme Being.
2. *The subordinated feminine role:* for example, in Kenya, as well as Nigeria, the traditional female/male roles are deeply engrained and glorified in all Kenya languages. Education, mass media, and advertising. The society perceived the women's role solely as the mother role. Such sex stereotypes and social prejudice are inappropriate in modern-day organizational leadership. This subordinate position of women in Africa seems to legitimize their exclusion from political and managerial decision making. (Kasomo, 2012, 59).
3. *Socio-cultural beliefs:* cultural beliefs in Africa vary widely from one country to another. However, the common denominator on leadership across countries of Africa is that the African culture does not permit the woman to be a leader over the man, and therefore, any system that adopts a woman as a Chief Executive, for instance, is perceived by the people as taboo.
4. *Religious idiosyncrasy:* The Africans have a strong affinity with their religious beliefs in so much that the traditional orthodox religion across Africa seems to agree that the women are prohibited from carrying out religious sacrifices/rites for the men. References are often made to the Bible that the women must learn in silence as stated in the Bible and not participate in debate or decision-making
5. *Prohibition of the girl-child education:* For example, in Nigeria, before the advent of the western civilization, the girl child is prohibited from going through any form of education and training apart from learning the domestic activities. In some tribes of Nigeria today and elsewhere in other African countries, the female child is not allowed to attend school but is forced into early marriages to take care of domestic affairs for the man.
6. *The Claim to the hereditary dynasty:* Most organizational structures of the African system hold the view that ruler ship in any community is the exclusive reserve of the men who must be appointed by the gods and it is passed from one generation to another, and the women are not

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included in the passage of such a leadership dynasty. Once they hear from the oracles or the gods, the leaders will emerge or would be appointed by the Oracle Priest according to the choice of the gods.

7. *Composition of African Traditional Council:* It is out of order in the African context for a woman to be elected into the Council of Chiefs. Across African communities, tribes, and languages, traditional council members are all men, and any attempt to include a woman indicates strange taboo that may bring punishment and sanctions from the gods to the people.
8. *Absence of Class antagonism:* Contrary to the orthodox Marxian theory of class struggle that would lead to freedom of working class, the African leadership style advocates that the feminine must be subordinated to the masculine ruling class and must not struggle for any freedom. That if the women do, they are directly or indirectly requesting for licensing for sexual promiscuity. Therefore, class antagonism has been severely obliterated by cultural, ethnic norms, and gender squabbles. (Shija, 2017, 30).

b) How to eradicate the men-men leadership syndrome in African organizations

From the result obtained from the field, the respondents collectively outlined the following strategies as fundamental in reducing masculinity leadership and ensuring women's inclusiveness in both private and public organizations.

1. A strong legislative instrument for ensurng gender equality in organizational management and power politics in Africa
2. Traditional leadership systems cross African countries should advocate for women inclusion in their cabinet seats. Possibly fashioned in line with each country's parliamentary system. In this case, it will eliminate cultural barriers inherent in traditional governance systems where women are used as second-fiddle merely for cooking food, servicing, and entertaining guests in the palaces.
3. Companies registration bodies such as the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) in the case of Nigeria should make it mandatory for a certain number of women to form part of the company's Board of Directors before such a company can be licensed to operate as a legal entity.
4. Women should be granted equal right, and access to quality education in all countries of Africa. Regional legislation should be enacted to prohibits religious and cultural prohibitions of women of access to education
5. Constitutional reviews of African countries should make it mandatory for Men-Women tickets to all elective positions in their general elections to encourage compulsory participation of women in politics and governance.
6. A strong regional woman organizations should be established who will sensitize women all over the continent towards developing interest in leadership and politics.
7. African women leadership organizations should regularly come together to dialogue and provide training for its members on leadership and governance in Africa. Such forum should present a strong and virile woman voice in the African Union congress. The leadership of the AU and ECOWAS should advocate for women inclusion in their Executives.

These views expressed should be radically implemented by the recruiting, and hiring employers if they want to maintain a global competitive edge, as success starts with hiring the right kind of staff. Stressing the positions of (Lau Chin, (2010); and Groysberg, Boris and Connolly, Katherine (2013)), which implies that diversity also needs to be in focus when it comes to selecting which candidates should be included in the talent pool or promoted to key positions, as well as who should be eligible for developmental programs. (9) suggest that representation is one factor that should not be taken too lightly.

c) Implications for HRD practice

The implication of this study for Human Resource Development Practice globally and especially to the African continent is that there is a shift from gender stereotype to workforce inclusiveness, which will enhance economic growth and development. Therefore, it will also lead to transparency in corporate governance and as well the elimination of gender discrimination in an African leadership context.

V. Conclusions

Our debate presented in this paper aimed at reducing or even totally eradicating the age-long dogma, which has adversely retarded the development of creative and innovative skills and abilities of women in most African private and public organizations. As we, therefore, advocate for leadership inclusiveness that will tap-in the reservoir of Human Resource endowments in various African organizations for sustainable development, there will be a greater economic and political recovery in the African continent. The debate in this study is, therefore, advocating for undistorted, nonracial, non-religious, and nonpartisan inclusiveness as a paradigm shift for African organizational revolutions and transformation. In this direction, it will serve as a necessary tool to checkmate corruption pendulum and corrupt practices of narrow-minded men in the boards of our private and public organizations in Africa. This position has clearly been supported by Groysberg & Connolly, (2013), that, diversity has been known to

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increase overall organizational attractiveness, since it appeals to skilled workers from various social groups. They further noted that, with regards to the issue of employer branding advantages, it is how the potential recruits perceive the firm's diversity that counts (Garib, Geetha 2013, 7). Therefore, inclusiveness should be adopted to halt the growth of masculinity.

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22. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

23. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.



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- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.



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Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

The Administration Rules

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Segment draft and final research paper: You have to strictly follow the template of a research paper, failing which your paper may get rejected. You are expected to write each part of the paper wholly on your own. The peer reviewers need to identify your own perspective of the concepts in your own terms. Please do not extract straight from any other source, and do not rephrase someone else's analysis. Do not allow anyone else to proofread your manuscript.

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Topics	Grades		
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

INDEX

A

Aircraft · 34, 36, 38, 39, 40
Alienated · 45
Antecedents · 5, 13, 18, 26

B

Benevolence · 18, 20, 22, 26

C

Cognitive · 24
Competence · 7, 8, 18, 22, 24, 26

E

Efficiency · 4, 9, 11, 14, 15, 17, 32, 36, 37, 38, 40, 42
Endowments · 45, 56

F

Forecast · 32

L

Lucrative · 9

M

Masculinity · 2, 45, 47, 49, 54

O

Obligation · 20

P

Partnering · 20
Penetration · 40
Plausible · 5

S

Seamlessly · 8
Stifling · 3
Subordinates · 18, 20, 26

T

Trustworthiness · 18, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29
Turbulence · 3, 4, 13

W

Willingly · 24





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