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Secondary Schools in Migori

Commitment and Organizational

Highlights

Planning Practices in Kenya

Cynicism Levels of Accounting

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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Organizational Culture: Its effect on Strategic Planning Practices in Kenya (A Survey of Public Secondary Schools in Migori County)

By Julia Ashibambo Weyama
Kisii University

Abstract- This paper tries to explore the culture effect on strategic planning practices in Kenya, specifically focusing on a survey of public secondary schools in Migori County. The study employed descriptive research design. The target population constituted public secondary schools in Migori county drawing respondents from school principals, their deputies, and heads of departments whose total was 1056. Stratified random sampling was used to draw a sample size of 106 respondents. The study used a Questionnaire for primary data collection and administered it using a drop and pick method, which helped minimize financial and time limitations that the researcher was likely to face. Quantitative data was collected and analyzed using descriptive statistics. The results of the study indicated that there was an outstanding relationship between organizational culture and strategic management practices.

Keywords: strategic management, strategic planning, strategy formulation, culture, public secondary schools, competition.

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Organizational Culture: Its effect on Strategic Planning Practices in Kenya (A Survey of Public Secondary Schools in Migori County)

Julia Ashibambo Weyama

Abstract- This paper tries to explore the culture effect on strategic planning practices in Kenya, specifically focusing on a survey of public secondary schools in Migori County. The study employed descriptive research design. The target population constituted public secondary schools in Migori county drawing respondents from school principals, their deputies, and heads of departments whose total was 1056. Stratified random sampling was used to draw a sample size of 106 respondents. The study used a Questionnaire for primary data collection and administered it using a drop and pick method, which helped minimize financial and time limitations that the researcher was likely to face. Quantitative data was collected and analyzed using descriptive statistics. The results of the study indicated that there was an outstanding relationship between organizational culture and strategic management practices.

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I. Introduction

a) Background Information

Strategy is about creating a unique and valuable market position, making trade- offs by choosing "what not to do" and creating 'fit" by aligning company activities with one another to support the chosen strategy(Porter ,1996).Strategic management involves the formulation and implementation of the major goals and initiatives taken by an organization's top managers on behalf of owners, based on consideration of available resources and an assessment of the internal and external environments in which the organization operates, (Alkhafaji, 2003; Courtney, 2002; Nag, Hambrick and Chen, 2007). It provides overall direction to an enterprise and involves specifying the organization's objectives, developing policies and plans to achieve those objectives, and then allocating resources to implement those plans .

Abraham Stanley defines Strategic planning as a series of steps followed by a company collectively trying to agree on where it is going (i.e., vision) and how it is going to get there (i.e., strategy) (Abraham, 2012).

At the institutional level, KESI defines strategic planning is a process that identifies where the organization wants to be in future and how it's going to get there. He continues to say that the process defines the strategy (direction) of the school and allocating resources to pursue this strategy (KESI, 2011).

i. *Background of the study*

Strategic planning has its origin in the military, where it was used by army officers after the second world war and later on found its way in the corporations of the 1950s (Singh, 2008). By the 1950s, an early form of strategic planning, the SWOT analysis was already in use at the Harvard Business school (Lawrie, 2005)).In the 1960s, it had become a standard management tool in most of the companies (Blackerby, 2003).

Strategic planning came into the domain of public organizations in the 1980s. Among the first government agencies to incorporate strategic planning into their planning process were the states of Oregon and Texas. In Texas, a bill was passed by the 1991 legislative requiring all state agencies to submit a strategic plan every other year (ibid).

In the corporate world, Strategic planning is a vital management tool that companies within the same industries use to gain a competitive advantage. It enables companies to create value for their customers through a combination of available resources, capabilities, and distinctive competencies, and this determines competition within the industry (Hill and Jones, 2008).

Europe has taken important strides in schools planning and development although the sector still needs to address challenges such as learning skills and attitudes, the role of new technologies (e-learning, e-tools, and e-networking) and place of ethics in planning education (Deal and Peterson, 2008). An important development was seen in the 1990s when the European countries' agencies for training teachers, reviewed qualifications for the headship of schools which defined standards for school leadership. These were since then to be based on some crucial areas, among them strategic planning and development, thus ensuring that every head of a school was in a position to spearhead the strategic planning process (Knight, 1998).

In the USA, for instance, Strategic planning follows a four-step process for planning a school- wide program, conducting a comprehensive needs

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assessment, managing the inquiry process, designing the program, and evaluating the program (Cook, 2006). Research in U.S local governments indicated that the use of strategic planning in all the states leads to improved financial performance (Camarata, 2003).

Strategic planning in sub-Saharan Africa has been developing at a slow pace, in the education sector, these countries have to deal with the challenges of financing, quality, and relevance of teaching and learning, curriculum and assessment, science and technology, teacher training and management, equality, and access (world bank working papers, 2008). These challenges ought to be addressed and the focus should be on use of strategic planning at all levels of the education sector.

b) Strategic Planning in Kenya

In Kenya Strategic planning was introduced in the public sector through the structural adjustment programs that were introduced in the 1980s although progress made has been different in various sectors, a lot of determination has yielded some significant benefits. A strategic approach to management in general, and strategic planning, in particular, has gained prominence in education in the recent past in Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2005a, 2005b, 2006). It has increasingly gained status as a management tool because of its ability to contribute to the development of sustainable educational institutions (Bell 2002). Today more than before, there is a need for us as a Nation to embrace strategic planning because of the emerging trends in the global environment.

Kenya like any other nation is under obligation to implement various global and regional frameworks that ensure that the education system is aligned to the emerging global trends such as Agenda 21. The Johannesburg World Summit on Sustainable Development (2002) re-affirmed the educational objectives of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Dakar Framework for Action on Education for All (EFA) In 2012, the World Community met for the UN Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20), and in 2015, the global community adopted Sustainable Development Goals. Education for Sustainable Development is included in SDG-4, which aspires to "Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all." In 2012 the Africa Ministerial Conference on Environment (AMCEN) produced the Arusha Declaration that has led to the development of an African Environmental Education and Training Action Plan (AEETAP). Agenda 2063 of the African Union of which Kenya is a member calls for action on catalyzing the education and skills revolution to build knowledge, human capital, capabilities, and skills to drive innovations on the continent (African Union Commission, 2015) (Ministry of education, 2017).

Migori county public schools are faced with several challenges in addition to changing global political, economic, social, and technological environments that could be alleviated by careful strategic planning. Some of these challenges, as obtained from the county director of education, include; poverty, low enrollment, low transition rate, gender inequality, poor infrastructure, high dropout rate and lack of facilities, among others.

c) Statement of the Problem

Recent research studies have made it clear that there is an increased internal and external uncertainty in organizations due to emerging opportunities and threats together with a lack of awareness of the exact organizational needs. The uncertainty comes inform of changes in technological, social, political, and economic forces. As a result of these changing forces, the management process at all levels in both the private and public sectors has become more challenging, requiring greater skills aimed at driving the future course of the organizations in the amid uncertain world. Strategic planning comes in handy in providing these skills (Steiss, 2003).Other studies reveal a significant relationship between strategic planning and organizations' performance (Fullan 2004; Steyn & Wolhuter 2010; Efendioghu, 2010;). For example according to Steyn & Wolhuter strategic planning helps in a school's self-study and evaluation, whereby areas of strengths and future challenges are identified and included in future plans. Eacott (2011), on the other hand, affirms that strategic planning can improve school- community relationships, since it is a useful tool for communication across traditional boundaries in the school.

Several studies have revealed the challenges that face the strategic planning process in public secondary schools as leadership, lack of stakeholder involvement, limited resources, policy challenges, and institutional challenges such as and rewards systems which demoralize the staff who form an important section of the stakeholders (Tumusiime, 2010; Ombo. 2010; Dr. Kiprop and Dr. Kanyiri 2012; Dr. Catherine J. Kiprop, Dr. Emily J. Bomett and Jane Jelimo Michael 2015)

Proper strategic planning, therefore, ensures the fulfillment of the organizational goals and objectives and continues monitoring and evaluation of all the strategies put in place. With the global policy on education for all that has led to free primary and subsidized secondary education in Kenya, the limited resources are strained ,hence calling for the need for serious planning at the ministerial, county, and school level (GOK, 2012).

Available data from the county education office indicate that most secondary schools in Migori County have been reluctant in the formulation and

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implementation of strategic plans. The far that most of them can go is the formulation stage, leaving out the most critical stages of implementation and continuous evaluation. Furthermore, the formulation for most schools rarely involves a thorough analysis of the external and internal environment to come up with workable strategies because of the time limit. Recent studies have also indicated that the organizational culture plays a crucial role in how far the school can go with strategic planning. (Cheng' oli Calistus Kisumo, Ahmed Osman and Khaemba Ongeti 2013; Susan A. Aruan1 Mark I. O. Okere and Samuel Wachanga 2016)

It is for this reason that this study sought to find out the effect of organization culture in institutional strategic planning practices in public secondary schools in Migori County.

d) The Objective of the Study

The study aimed at establishing the effect of organizational culture on strategic management practices in public secondary schools in Migori County.

II. Literature Review

a) Theories of Strategic Planning

Three theories on strategic planning are examined to form conceptual basis for the study. They include the five forces competition, the 3Cs (corporation/company, customer and the competitor), and environmental turbulence as explained in the proceeding sub-section

i. *Five forces competition theory*

This was developed by a management theorist Michael porter, and formed a crucial basis for strategic planning. The five forces framework is a method that is used to analyze competition for a business enabling it to determine the competitive intensity and therefore the attractiveness (or lack of it) of an industry in terms of profitability. These forces allow an organization to identify potential environmental influences that shape the competitive context in which it must operate (Sawka & Flora, 2003).Porter developed the framework in reaction to the then popular SWOT analysis which he found to have some limitations. According to porter, the essence of strategy formulation is coping with competition, and the state of competition in any industry depends on five important forces, namely; Rivalry, Threat of Substitutes, Buyer Power, Supplier Power, and Barriers to Entry/Threat of Entry. His position is that the collective strength of these forces determines the ultimate profit potential of an industry. The manager's goal, according to Porter, is to find a position in an industry where he/her company can defend itself against these forces or can influence them in its favor (Porter, 1979; 2008;)

ii. *Kenichi Ohmae's 3Cs Theory*

Dr. Kenichi Ohmae, a management guru from Japan, developed the 3Cs model. The model offers a strategic look at the factors needed for success. This model shows that a strategist should focus on three crucial factors for success, namely, the corporation/company, customer, and the competitor. According to Kenichi Ohmae, strategic planning should aim at attaining a competitive advantage over competitors in the industry. Strategic planning's purpose is to enable a company to gain, as efficiently as possible, a sustainable edge over competitors (Ohmae, 1982; 1991).

Customer based strategies

According to Kenichi, a corporation's foremost concern ought to be the interest of its customers rather than that of stockholders and other parties. This is because customers have needs and wants which the company must recognize and offer the services. Some of the customer-related strategies that corporations can use include; differentiating in terms of the way customers use their products, segmenting the market by customer coverage so that the cost of marketing will be advantageous to the competition, re-segmenting the market when the previous market segments seem to be declining and changes in the customer mix (ohmae, 1991).

Corporation-based strategies

These strategies, according to Kenichi, aim to maximize the corporation's strengths relative to the competition in the industry, such as subcontracting a major share of its operation in case of increased wage costs, choosing a key function in which to specialize in, and improving cost effectiveness through cost cutting. He argues that a corporation does not have to excel in every function but should strive in one key function which will further cause it to eventually improve its other functions. (Ohmae, 1982:1991)

Competitor- based strategies

According to Kenichi, a corporation can gain a competitive edge over others in the industry by looking at possible sources of differentiation in its functions such as in public relations and promotion, which creates a better image and products and services, among others (Ohmae, 1982:1991).

iii. *The theory of environmental turbulence*

The theory was developed by Igor Ansoff in the 1960s .Igor Ansoff is said to be the father of strategic management. His book on corporate strategy guided on how to plan for the future. The system of planning by then paid very little attention to strategic issues. He defines the environment as "a set of elements and their relevant properties which elements are not parts of the system but a change in any of which can produce a change in the state of the system." (Ansoff, 1972).Hence the environment consist of "all the variables that can affect a firm", namely, economic, political, sociological, psychological, technological, and geographical forces

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in the segment of the world in which the business chooses to operate. According to Ansoff, effective response to the environment is the key to long-run strategic success. According to his theory, to be effective, a company's strategy needs to match the level of turbulence present in its environment. Ansoff recognized five levels of these in which an organization can operate, namely; stable, expanding, changing, discontinuous, and surprising. Level one environments are characterized as stable, which implies no change.

At level two, environments referred to as expanding; change does occur, but it is slow, fully visible, and predictable. Level three, regarded as changing; change is fast, fully visible and predictable. These first three levels are driven by history, where behaviors that have produced success in the past and present will very likely yield success in the future. Level four named discontinuous; change occurs very fast and the environment is partially visible, and partially predictable. Level five, regarded as surprising; change is speedy, not predictable, and not visible. These last two environments are discontinuous in that one cannot predict the future from the past and present. Predictions of these are founded on patterns of weak signals that indicate a possible future (Ansoff, 1990).

b) Organization culture

Several leading scholars such as Edgar Schein, and Geert Hofstede, agree that culture is shared (group dynamics involved), pervasive, enduring, and implicit. Further, there is a general agreement among scholars that it is linked with leadership in their effect on strategic planning process in an organization. Boris Groysberg, Jeremiah lee, Jesse price ,and J. yojud cheng (2018) identified eight styles that distinguish a culture by integrating findings from more than 100 of the most commonly used social and behavioral models available. Using this framework, leaders can model its impact on their organization and assess its alignment with strategy. *The eight are;* caring, purpose, learning, enjoyment, results, authority, safety, and order.

c) Culture Influence in Institutional Strategic planning process

Organizational culture determines the success of any strategic planning process and especially at the implementation stages hence its significance in the entire process. Culture consists of the values and assumptions shared with in an organization. Organizational culture directs everyone in the organization toward the "right way" of doing things. It frames and shapes the decisions that managers and other employees should make and the actions they should take (L. Mcshane, 2008; Dubrin, 2012). Organizational culture develops over time and the members learn it through socialization. The right one can enhance productivity, quality, and morale. A culture that emphasizes productivity and quality encourages workers to be more productive and quality conscious. Top managers, because they can influence which kinds of beliefs and values develop in an organization, are an important determinant of how the members will work toward achieving organizational goals (Hill and Jones, 2010).

Several researchers concur with the fact that culture has a great influence on the strategic planning practices in any organization (Cornerstone, 2010; Pearce and Robinson 2004; Otter and Heskett 2005).Cornerstone (2010), for instance, observed that organizational culture provides a strong foundation of organizational success but can also become a significant impediment to success when executing a major strategic change. Pearce and Robinson (2004) further ascertain that culture can be a source of strength and weakness for an organization. As a strengths, culture can facilitate communication, decision making and control, and create cooperation ,and commitment ,which are essential for any strategic intent. As a weakness, culture may obstruct the smooth implementation of the strategy by creating resistance to change. Otter and Heskett (2005) assert that an organizational culture can be characterized as weak when many subcultures exist, few values and behavior norms are shared, and traditions are rare. In such organizations, employees do not have a sense of commitment, loyalty, and a sense of identity. Such organizations exhibit traits such as politicized organizational environment, hostility to change, promoting bureaucracy in preference to creativity and entrepreneurship, and unwillingness to look outside the organization for best practices.

Several researchers assert that in any strategic planning practice in a school, it is necessary to consider the school culture. Harris (2002) believes that successful school improvement can only occur when schools apply these strategies that best fit in their context and particular developmental needs. Deal and Peterson (2004) illustrates how dysfunctional school cultures such, as low morale, emotional outburst, and subculture values that supersede shared organizational values can impede organizational improvement.

Muya and Nyongesa (2012) observed that an institution's culture could be strong and cohesive when it conducts its business according to a clear and explicit set of principles and values, which the management devotes considerable time to communicate to employees and students, and which are shared widely within the organization. They further assert that the three most important factors that contribute to the building of a strong culture are; an influential leader who establishes suitable values ,sincere and dedicated commitment to operate the business of the institution according to these, and genuine concern for the wellbeing of the institution's stakeholders.

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III. Research Methodology

a) Research Design

A descriptive research design was applied in order to fulfill the objective of the study, since it describes the state of affairs as it exists at present (Kothari, 2003).

The study's target population was the school principals, deputy principals, and heads of departments in the public secondary schools in Migori County. This composition translates to a total number of 1056, given that there are a total of 176 public secondary schools in Migori County. Each of the schools has one principal, one deputy principal, and a minimum of four heads of departments making a total of six respondents in every school.Table3.1 below shows the targeted population in the county.

b) Target Population

Table 3.1: The targeted population in the county

Sub-County	No. of Schools	No. of Respondents Per School	Target Population
Rongo	32	6	192
Uriri	18	6	108
Awendo	16	6	96
Migori	39	6	234
Nyatike	35	6	210
Kuria East	15	6	90
Kuria West	21	6	126
Total	176		1056

Source: K.S.S.H.A, Nyanza Chapter, 2015

c) Sample Size and Sampling Design

The study used a stratified random sampling method to select a sample of 106 informants at a 0.10 sampling ratio per category. Vanderstoep & Johnston (2009) claims that dividing the sampling frame into strata allows the researcher to sample proportionately based on the size of each stratum. Dawson (2002) asserts that the size of the sample depends upon the type and purpose of research. Table 3.2 below shows the sample size.

Table 3.2: Sample size

Sub-County	Target Population	%	Sample Size
Rongo	192	0.1	19
Uriri	108	0.1	11
Awendo	96	0.1	10
Migori	234	0.1	23
Nyatike	210	0.1	21
Kuria East	90	0.1	09
Kuria West	126	0.1	13
TOTAL	1056		106

Source: Researcher (2013)

The figure below shows the percentage of the total sample in every sub-county

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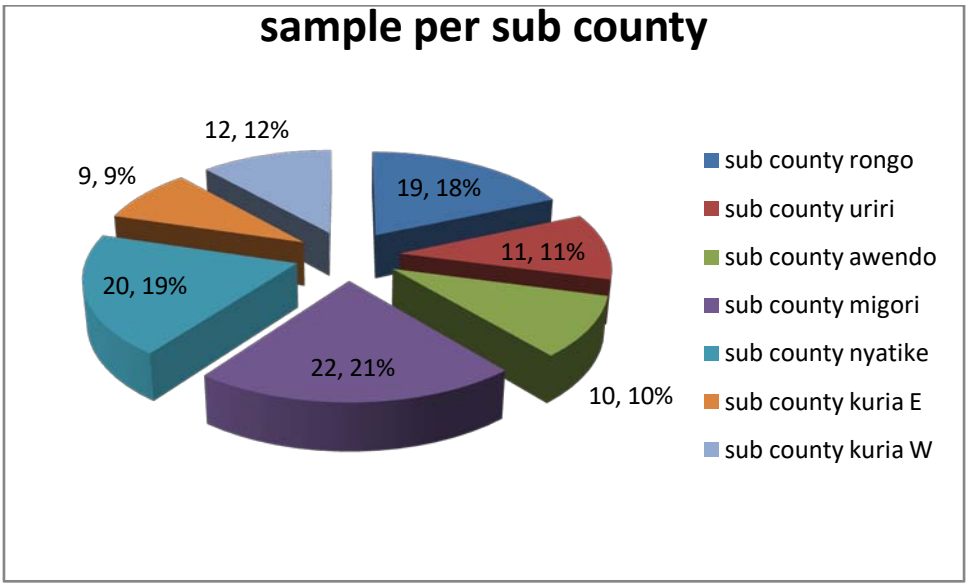

Figure 1: Percentage of sample size per Sub County

d) Data Collection Instruments

The study used primary data only. This concentrated on respondents' opinions and appraisals concerning the study variables and was collected by use of a questionnaire instrument that was self-administered. The semi-structured format of the instrument allowed for the inclusion of closed-ended question items, which are essential in limiting response details while facilitating timely analysis. Where the study sought detailed and explained responses, open-ended question items were used. The questionnaires were distributed using a drop and pick method, and telephone calls used to enhance quick response.

e) Instrument Validity and Reliability

Research instruments are measurement devices that must possess adequate reliability and validity. The Reliability of an instrument is the extent to which its scores are free from errors of measurement, while validity is the extent to which it measures what it has been designed to measure (Dornyei, 2003). The study adopted pre-testing as one comprehensive procedure towards enhancing instrument validity and reliability. The study obtained the pilot units, equivalent to one-tenth of the proposed sample size, from comparable members of the population from which the sample for the full study was finally taken. This size is informed by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), who regard the proportion as sufficient for pilot testing.

The results from the pilot testing aided in fine-tuning and finalizing the questionnaire. The pilot participants were not involved in the ultimate field study.

f) Data Analysis

The collected data were thoroughly examined and processed before drawing inferences through a series of operations involving editing to eliminate inconsistencies, classification based on similarity and tabulation to relate variables. Subsequently, the refined and organized data was coded and analyzed using descriptive statistics involving percentages to determine varying degrees of response-concentration. An advantage of descriptive statistics is that they make a mass of research material easier to read by reducing a large set of data into a few statistics or some pictures such as graphs or tables (Argyrous, 2005).

The statistics were generated with an aid of the computer software, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20.0. Further, the researcher ensured that resulting summaries from the findings presented data in a consolidated and meaningful framework, and thus, the analysis focused on accuracy and reliability about the study's pre-designed objectives. Finally, for communicative effectiveness to ultimate users, findings were presented using both tabular and graphical representations.

IV. Data Analysis and Presentation of Findings

a) Response Rate

The study had set to obtain intended feedbacks from a total of 106 participants working in management positions in public secondary schools as either school principals, deputy principals, or heads of various departments. Even though all target respondents were approached for responses, three did not return the questionnaires sent to them. This resulted in a total of 103 successful completions, representing a response rate of 97%. At this response rate guaranteed representativeness as it surpassed the 60% threshold recommended by Bell (2005).

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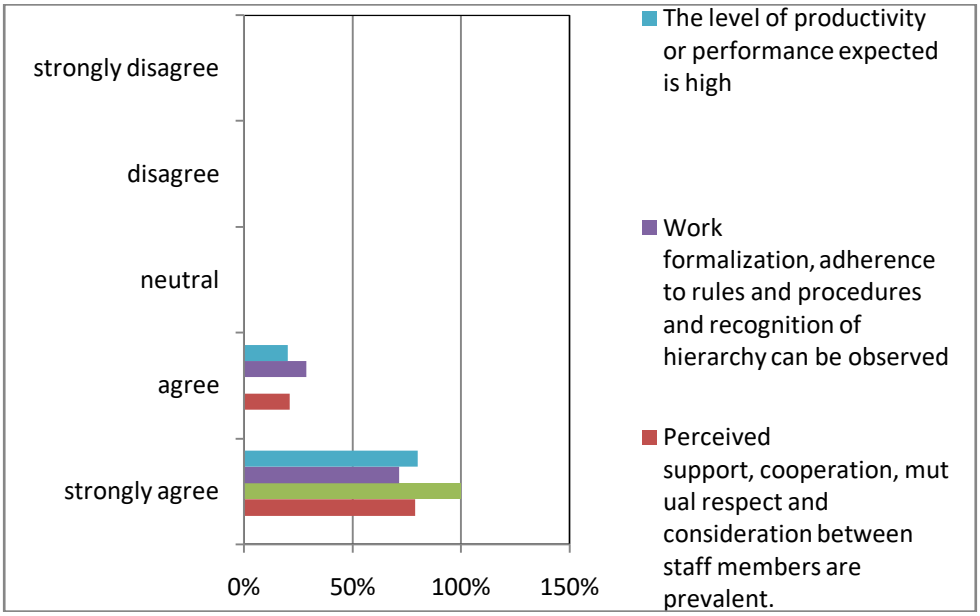
b) Effect of organizational culture on the development of strategic planning practices

Organizational culture has a great influence on the overall performance of various subsystems in an organization. The study, therefore, sought to find out its effect on strategic planning practices in public secondary schools.

The respondents' level of agreement on the effect of various cultural practices on strategic planning practices in their institutions were as represented in figure 2 below.

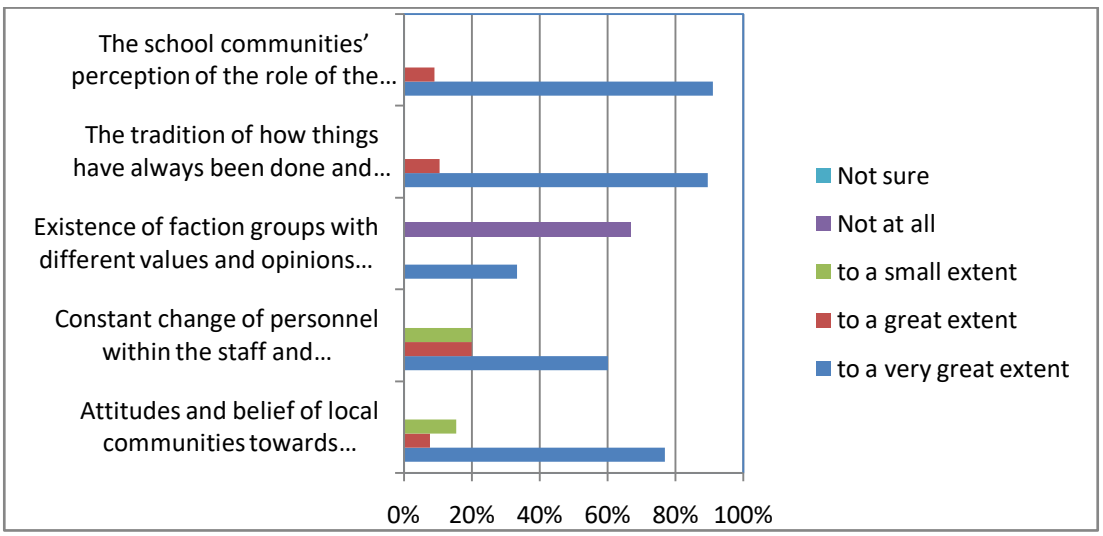


Source: Research Data (2013)

Figure 2: Level of agreement on the effect of culture on the development of strategic planning practices in public secondary schools

The study findings revealed that a higher percentage of respondents strongly agreed that some specific cultural practices enhanced strategic planning practices, while a very little percentage of respondents just agreed.

The study sought to investigate from the respondents the extent to which they felt organizational culture affected strategic planning practices. Figure 3 Below shows findings.



Source: Research Data (2013)

Figure 3: The extent to which various cultural factors influence the development of strategic planning practices in public secondary schools

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From the findings, most of the respondents concurred that culture influences the development of strategic planning practices in public secondary schools .83.96% of the respondents felt that culture influenced the development of strategic planning practices to a very great extent.

V. Conclusion and Recommendations

It is evident that there is an overall relationship between organizational culture and strategic planning. Most learning institutions are characterized by cultures that are caring, result-oriented, and adherence to the authority. As a result, the principal of the school determines the school culture until replaced by another one.

Leadership determines to a great extent, organizational culture. It is therefore recommended that the school leadership changes the culture so as it is in line with strategic planning practices since there is a need to change strategy over time because of the changing global environment. The organizational culture should embrace positive attitudes, openness to change, involvement in strategic planning at all stages, respect for others, and recognition for efforts done, among others.

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The Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Organizational Cynicism Levels of Accounting Employees in Hotel Enterprises: The Case of Kemer

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Abstract- The purpose of this research; to determine the organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels of the accounting employees in hotel businesses. It is also determined whether demographic factors make a differencelin the level of organizational dependency and cynicism of employees. For this purpose, a survey study was conducted between 150 and August 2019 on 150 personnel working in hotel businesses operating in Kemer district of Antalya province. Data obtained by random sampling method were analyzed in SPSS 20 package program. As a result of the research, it has been determined that the demographic characteristics of the employees are effective on organizational commitment and organizational cynicism, and also there is a relationship between the organizational commitment levels and the organizational cynicism levels of the accounting employees in the hotel enterprises.

Keywords: organizational cynicism, organizational commitment, accounting employees, hotel enterprises, organizational behavior.

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M19



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The Relationship between Organizational Commitment and Organizational Cynicism Levels of Accounting Employees in Hotel Enterprises: The Case of Kemer

Hatice Simsek

Abstract- **The purpose of this research; to determine the organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels of the accounting employees in hotel businesses. It is also determined whether demographic factors make a differencelin the level of organizational dependency and cynicism of employees. For this purpose, a survey study was conducted between 150 and August 2019 on 150 personnel working in hotel businesses operating in Kemer district of Antalya province. Data obtained by random sampling method were analyzed in SPSS 20 package program. As a result of the research, it has been determined that the demographic characteristics of the employees are effective on organizational commitment and organizational cynicism, and also there is a relationship between the organizational commitment levels and the organizational cynicism levels of the accounting employees in the hotel enterprises.**

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I. Introduction

Today, human resources have a very important role for organizations that want to gain competitive advantage in national and international markets. The workforce is considered as a strategic asset in businesses to establish and implement strategies. In recent years, the complexity of working life, differences between social and individual expectations, environmental conditions and problematic time management issues have created anxiety and tension for employees in enterprises. Investigating employee attitudes has been an interesting field of research for organizations and researchers. The reason for their interest is that these interests have a profound effect on corporate performance and employee behavior.

Due to the determinative roles that are above customer satisfaction and service quality, hotel employees should pay more attention to factors such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Employees with a high level of organizational commitment also contribute to the business and thus to production. However, they show their performance better. However, employees with a high level of organizational commitment establish good relationships with other employees working in the enterprise, thereby achieving higher job satisfaction. Employees with organizational cynicism, on the other hand, negatively affect customer satisfaction and commitment and cause serious performance losses to businesses, especially in the service sector, where competition is increasing.

The purpose of the research; to determine the organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels of accounting employees working in hotel businesses. It is also determined whether demographic factors make a difference in the level of organizational dependency and cynicism of employees. The research reveals the importance of the study both in terms of determining the organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels of hotel employees and their contribution to the literature.

II. Conceptual Framework

a) *Organizational Cynicism*

The word cynic was often used by the ancient Greeks to describe skepticism, disbelief, pessimism, disappointment and disdain (Mousa, 2018: 283). Cynicism is a general attitude that includes “contempt for one object or more than one object, disappointment and insecurity” (Andersson, 1996: 1397). It is an attitude of disappointment and suspicion with cynicism, destructive thoughts and negative emotions. This attitude can appear in all areas of life (Kart, 2015: 73).

Andersson et al. (1997) defined people who believe that people think only of their own interests and that their interests are more important than anything and consider everyone as "cynical" (Andersson et al., 1997: 449-469). Organizational cynicism, on the other hand, defines the negative attitudes of employees towards their colleagues, professions and organizations. Undoubtedly, cynical employees believe that the organizations they work for do not have equality, sincerity, honesty, honesty and transparency. Accordingly, cynic workers have feelings of insecurity, hopelessness, insecurity and discomfort (Mousa, 2018: 281). According to another definition, organizational cynicism is a complex attitude involving feelings of insecurity, unfair beliefs, and cognitive, affective and

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behavioral situations towards organizations (Bommer et al., 2005: 737). However, organizational cynicism is evaluated as the negative feelings of people for the organization they work for, their negative attitudes towards the practices and management style of the organization (Uygungil and İşcan, 2018: 437).

Dean et al., Who made important contributions to the development of the concept of organizational cynicism. (1998: 345) defined this concept as their negative attitudes towards the institution they work for. From a broader point of view, cynicism is the belief that the business in question is a news of honesty, its negative attitudes, including negative feelings towards the organization or its tendency towards critical behavior towards the organization (Dean et al., 1998: 345). Whether it is general cynicism due to personality traits or organizational cynicism experienced by the person from organizational policies, it is seen that “bad mind” forms the basis of the types of cynicism in the modern sense (Yastıoğlu et al. 2017: 221). Organizational cynicism is a negative attitude that employees develop against the organization they work for. It is expressed as the insecurity of employees against the decisions of the organization, not believing in organizational policies and not showing their principal personalities (Helvacı & Çetin, 2012: 1478).

The output of organizational cynicism is destructive. In addition, when there is a manager with a high perception of organizational cynicism; it can result in much more negative results. Because this attitude affects employees negatively over time. Thus, employees can bring the feeling of leaving the organization in a short time. However, organizational cynicism, insecurity in the workplace, increased turnover, burnout, lack of self-confidence, alienation from work without feeling attached, low levels of performance, non-compliance, decrease in efforts for organizational development, increase in layoffs, lack of initiative among employees, absenteeism at work increased in the form of communication problems at work, lack of attention and resistance to change (Koçoğlu and Terzi, 2020: 131). The service sector, in which competition is increasing, is highly affected by cynical employees. As the output of this behavior; customer satisfaction is adversely affected and businesses can suffer greatly (Altınöz et al. 2011: 287).

Organizational cynicism can harm both the employees and the organizations they work with, as well as their benefits. Individuals with cynical attitudes do not tend to behave immorally. For this reason, they do not accept the immoral behavior of the managers in their decisions and they avoid avoiding these decisions. It is a known behavior that cynical employees show negative attitudes. However, the important issue here; it is necessary to take this behavior under control and criticize the organization without wearing it down and thus open the door to the continuous renewal and development of the organization (Çakar and Çiçek, 2019: 381).

b) Organizational Commitment

Commitment refers to the psychological relationship between the employee and the organization. Organizational commitment refers to the effective commitment of employees to the goals and values of their organization. Employees who feel connected to the organization believe in the goals and values of the organization and willingly follow the orders and expectations of the organization (Balay, 2000: 3). The word "commitment" refers to commitment, business concerns, involvement, a defensive instinct and a willingness to work towards the interests of the organization. Commitment encourages employees to participate in organizational activities voluntarily and to stay in the organization for a long time (Güzeller & Çeliker, 2019: 104). According to another definition, “Organizational commitment” is a combination of normative pressures that force employees to mobilize employees in a certain way against the goals and interests of the organization (Aşan and Özyer, 2008: 131).

The concept of organizational commitment that has attracted attention since the 1970s; it is accepted as a positive organizational behavior and accepted as the key to success in organizations. It is a known fact that organizational commitment has a positive effect on employees' job satisfaction, efficiency, commitment and motivation (Ersoy and Bayraktaroğlu 2010: 2). Organizational commitment is the employees' intense effort towards organizational goals, feeling psychologically loyal to their job and feeling identified with the organization (Uygungil and İşcan, 2018: 437). In addition, organizational commitment can be interpreted as a set of obligations that employees are exposed to as a result of the incentives accepted by employers. If employers fail to fulfill their obligations, violations occur between the employer and the employee, which reduces allegiance. Therefore, the commitment is intertwined when the organization maintains a consistent and well-intentioned relationship (Robinson et al., 1994: 149). It is thought that the employees who have a strong commitment to the places they work in will leave the company at the lowest level. Therefore, organizational commitment is a psychological mood that shapes the relations of employees with their organizations and enables them to have the idea of continuing to work at workplaces (Wieselsberger, 2004: 17).

Organizational commitment is one of the most important and sensitive attitudes that employees develop towards their organizations. While the positive effects of organizational commitment stand out with employee engagement and participation in the organization, their negative effects result in employee turnover rate (Gatling et al., 2016: 185). When an

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organization provides individuals with opportunities and tools to present their talents and meet their needs, they respond to organizational commitment (Cohen, 1992: 541).

Organizational commitment by Allen and Meyer (1990); continuity commitment, emotional and normative commitment are handled in three ways. Emotional commitment includes emotional commitment of employees to the institution they work for, identification with the organization and participation in the organization. Employees with high levels of emotional attachment see the values and goals of their institutions as their goals and values and have a strong sense of belonging. Attendance is a situation in which employees continue to work at the institution considering that the results of leaving the institution they work with will be severe. Normative commitment is when the employee believes that they have obligations and responsibilities towards the institution they work for, and that they feel obligated to continue working in the institution. Allen and Meyer (1996) the effect of organizational commitment on the organizational effectiveness and performance of employees has brought a new dimension to researchers in the same field (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Examples of these dimensions can be expressed as follows (Joolideh & Yeshodhara, 2009):

- Emotional commitment - "I would be delighted to continue the rest of my career working in this organization."
- Commitment to continuity - "Even if I want to, it is very difficult for me to leave my current institution."
- Normative commitment - "This organization deserves my commitment."

Al-Meer (1989) divided organizational commitment into three main elements: identification with the goals and values of the organization; Participation in the organization and commitment to the organization. Mowday et al. (1982 akt Islam et al. 2013) divided into three components: strong belief in the values and goals of the organization; the desire to strive for the organization and the willingness to be with the organization. Randeree and Chaudhry (2012) think that the basic element of organizational commitment is related to the desire of employees to remain in their organizations. They are believed to develop stronger organizational commitment when employees experience more job satisfaction.

They are believed to develop a strong organizational commitment.

The most important feature of organizational commitment for businesses is that it allows them to utilize the labor force needed to maintain continuity in the organization at the highest level. However, which causes disruption in organizational operability; Are the business who intend to leave, absences and the importance of the commitment of the employees that work has proved to be a negative association between organizational commitment with further increases performance impairment (Özler, 2015: 3-4).

III. Literature

The concepts of organizational cynicism and organizational commitment is an attitudinal phenomenon in organizations. With organizational cynicism, the opportunities of those who work with their skills are limited, their organizational commitment decreases and their trust in the organization decreases. Inconsistency between the employee and the organization lies behind the organizational cynicism. Thus, the employee is skeptical about the integrity of the organization. When the studies on organizational commitment are analyzed, it is seen that employees with a high level of organizational commitment tend to increase their performances, increase their attendance and tend towards the goals of the organization (Kalağan, 2009: 83). Organizational cynicism reduces organizational commitment of employees. Sinic employees do not trust their organizations by reducing their commitment to their work or organization, which may have a negative impact on their behavior on the organization. Employees with organizational cynicism feel indifferent, discontented, insecure, often disappointed, which has a negative impact on interpersonal relationships. This results in lower professional productivity and increased burnout levels (Stradovnik And Stare, 2018: 1040).

Abraham (2000), in his study, cynicism; He stated that it increases job satisfaction and job commitment, and therefore, cynical people in the society experience disappointment in jobs. It has been determined that personality cynicism and cynicism among the cynicism dimensions decrease organizational commitment and there is a strong relationship between cynicism and organizational commitment.

It has been determined that Fındık ve Eryyeşil (2012)'s seniority, education level and age of employees increase cynicism level and their commitment decreases.

Terzi and Sazkaya (2020) have worked on doctors in Istanbul to determine whether organizational cynicism has an impact on organizational commitment. According to the results of the research; It has been determined that the perceptions of organizational cynicism of doctors have a negative effect on organizational commitment.

Ekici et al. (2017) 'As a result of the work done by managers in sports organizations for the determination of organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels; differences in organizational commitment; It was determined that it came from the variables of gender, education level,

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working year, marital status, position and region. However, it has been determined that organizational commitment and organizational cynicism are negatively related.

Alkan (2018) investigated the effects of organizational commitment on cynicism and alienation. As a result of the research, it was determined that problems regarding organizational structure, negative attitudes about merit in appointments and upgrades, and unfairness, high workload in institutions, problems in time management, inadequacy of salary negatively affect the organizational commitment of employees. It has been determined that this leads to organizational cynicism.

Okçu et al. (2015) conducted research to determine the effect of employees' perceptions of organizational cynicism on their organizational commitment. As a result of the research; It has been determined that the employees have moderate organizational cynicism. However, it has been determined that perceptions about organizational cynicism in employees have a significant relationship over their organizational commitment.

Brandes et al. (1999) looked at the interrelationships between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment and organizational citizenship. According to the findings of the study, it was determined that organizational commitment and organizational cynicism were negatively related.

In their study, Yücel and Çetinkaya (2015) evaluated whether there is a relationship between organizational commitment and organizational cynicism. According to the results, it was determined that there was a significant relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment.

Çarıkçı et al. (2013) 's purpose is to determine the level of organizational cynicism and organizational commitment that employees feel towards their organizations. According to the findings of the study, it was found that the organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels of the employees were strongly correlated.

Altınöz et al. (2011) in their research, it was evaluated whether there is a relationship between organizational commitment and organizational cynicism. When the commitment of the hotel management to the organization increased, it was found that the cynical attitude was negatively affected.

Çakır and Kaçır (2018) conducted research to examine the changes in organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels among newly recruited employees as a result of the orientation training provided in the enterprises. As a result of the research, multiple relationships were determined between the variables.

Işık and Altunoğlu (2016) investigated the effect of organizational cynicism on organizational commitment. As a result of the study, it was determined that there was a negative relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment.

Çelikten and Çanak (2014), in their study, aiming to determine the organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels of managers; It was determined that there is a negative relationship between organizational commitment of managers and organizational cynicism.

Uygungil and İşcan (2018) have worked to reveal whether there is a relationship between organizational commitment and organizational cynicism. According to the research findings, it has been determined that there is a relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment.

Türköz et al. (2013), in their study, tried to reveal the effect of organizational cynicism perception of employees on their organizational commitment. As a result of the study; It has been determined that perceptions of organizational cynicism negatively affect organizational commitment.

Çakar and Çiçek (2019) aimed to reveal the effect of organizational cynicism on the organizational commitment of classroom teachers. According to the research findings; The differences between the average of organizational cynicism and organizational commitment of primary school teachers were determined.

IV. Method

a) Purpose of the research

The primary purpose of the research; to determine the level of organizational commitment and organizational cynicism in accounting employees working in hotel businesses. However, it is aimed to determine whether demographic factors make a difference in the level of organizational dependency and cynicism of employees. The study is of great importance both in terms of determining the organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels of hotel employees and their contribution to the field.

In the research, answers to the following questions are sought;

1. What are the organizational commitment levels of accounting employees?
2. Do the organizational commitment and cynicism levels of accounting workers change according to age, gender, educational status, marital status, working time variables?
3. Do the organizational commitment levels and organizational cynicism levels of accounting workers affect each other?

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b) Research Hypotheses

For the purpose of the research, 6 hypotheses were developed;

H1: There is a significant difference between the organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels of accountants and gender.

H2: There is a significant difference between the organizational commitment levels of the accounting staff and the marital status of the organizational cynicism employees.

H3: There is a significant difference between the organizational commitment levels and organizational cynicism levels of education workers and their educational status.

H4: There is a significant difference between organizational commitment levels and organizational cynicism levels in accounting staff.

H5: There is a significant difference between organizational commitment levels and organizational cynicism levels of accounting employees.

H6: There is a significant difference between organizational commitment levels of organizational staff and organizational cynicism levels.

c) Sampling, Data Collection Tool and Data Collection Process

The research sample consists of the accounting department staff working in the hotels operating in Kemer, Antalya. According to the information received from Antalya Provincial Culture and Tourism Directorate, there are 574 hotels in Kemer in 2019. For the purpose of the study, a questionnaire study was conducted between 140 - August 2019 on 140 accounting personnel working in hotel enterprises located in Kemer district of Antalya province. Data obtained by random sampling method were analyzed in SPSS 20 package program.

The data collection tool used in the research consists of three parts:

First part: Personal Information of the Participants (Personal Information Form)

Second part: Organizational Commitment Scale

Third part: Organizational Cynicism Scale

The "Organizational Commitment Scale" was used to determine the organizational commitment levels of the employees. The Scale Used was developed by Lyman W. Porter, Richard M. Steers, Richard T. Mowday. In order to determine the organizational cynicism levels of the employees, the Turkish Scale developed by Vance, Brooks and Tesluk (1997) and the Organizational Cynicism Scale adapted through Güzeller and Kalağan (2008) was used.

The scales were arranged and implemented in a five-point Likert format. The rating of the questions in the scale is as follows: 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: partially agree, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree.

d) Data Analysis

In the analysis of the data; Descriptive statistics are given with frequency, standard deviation, percentage, mean, values. Independent group t test to determine whether the scores obtained from the organizational commitment and organizational cynicism scale that make up the sample differ according to gender and marital status variables; One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether they differ according to the duration of service, educational status and age variables. As a result of ANOVA, TUKEY test was used to determine the sources of differences, and lastly, Pearson Moments Product Correlation Analysis was used to determine whether there was a significant relationship between the organizational commitment and organizational cynicism scores of the employees. SPSS 20.0 statistical software was used for data analysis. Analysis results were handled in the 95% confidence interval, and $p < 0.05$ values were considered statistically significant.

V. Findings

a) Evaluation of Demographic Features

Information on the demographic characteristics of the employees participating in the research is given in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Employees

Variables		N	%
Gender	Woman	50	35.7
	Male	90	64.2
	Total	140	100
Marital status	The married	80	57.2
	Single	60	42.8
	Total	140	100
Age	20-30	40	28.5
	31-40	70	50
	41-50	27	19.2
	51+	3	2.1
	Total	140	100
Study Duration	1-5	100	71.4
	6-10	30	21.4
	11-15	10	7.1

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	Total	140	100
Education Status	Primary education	3	2.1
	Secondary	7	5
	Associate degree	60	42.8
	License	67	47.8
	Master	3	2.1
	Total	112	100

Table 1 surveyed their employees accounting demographic information is located. 35.7% of accounting employees are "women" and 64.2% are "men" . Accounting employees % 57.2 "married" ,% 42.8 is the " single ". In the age distribution, the highest concentration in accounting workers was in the "31-40 Age" group with 50% . At least, it was in the group of 51 years old and above with 2.1% . In the distribution of working time, the highest concentration in accounting workers was in the "1-5 years" group with 71.4%. At least, it was in the "11_15 years" group with 7.1%. In the distribution of educational status, the highest concentration in accounting employees was in the "Undergraduate" group with 47.8%. At least, it was in the "graduate" group with 1%.

b) Analysis

i. *T Test Results*

H1: There is a significant difference between the organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels of accountants and gender.

Table 2: Comparison of Organizational Commitment Levels and Organizational Cynicism Levels by Gender

	Group	N	Cover	Ss	T	PA
Organizational Commitment	Woman	50	3.1510	, 75419	2,324	007
	Male	90	3.3159	, 70 725		
Organizational Cynicism	Woman	50	2.9184	, 72792	204	990
	Male	90	3.3182	, 69 655		

** p < 0.05*

T test results made in the accounting employees according to gender "Organizational Commitment" statistical average in general terms a significant difference ness was detected (p <0.05). Thus, organizational commitment levels of male accounting workers are higher than women.

Accounting staff according to gender organizational cynicism statistical mean in general as a significant difference coherence was detected (p> 0.05).

H2: organizational cynicism levels of organizational commitment levels of accounting staff 's marital status and there are significant differences between.

Table 3: Comparison of Organizational Commitment Levels and Organizational Cynicism Levels by Marital Status

	Group	N	Cover	ss	T	PA
Organizational Commitment	The married	80	3.8924	, 81 387	1,998	, 043
	Single	60	3.6501	, 81 878		
Organizational Darwinism S	The married	80	3.8517	, 69 636	304	762
	Single	60	3.8228	, 68165		

** p < 0.05*

T test results carried out in accordance with the accounting staff marital status "Organizational Commitment" in the general statistical average in terms of significant differences were detected (p <0.05). Thus ; organizational commitment levels of accounting staff, who married single varieties was determined to be higher than those Study design .

According to the marital status of the accounting staff "Organizational Cynicism" in the general statistical average in terms of a significant difference ness it was not significant (p> 0.05).

ii. *ANOVA Test Results*

H3: There is a significant difference between the organizational commitment levels and organizational cynicism levels of accountants and the educational status of the employees.

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Table 4: Comparison of Organizational Commitment Levels and Organizational Cynicism Levels According to Educational Status

	Variance Source	Total of Squares	Average of Squares	F	PA	Significant Difference
Organizational Commitment	Groups from	4.886	2,443	4,902	009	Preliminary License > High License
	group Learning	66.790	, 498			Medium Education > High License
	Total	71.676				
Organizational Darwinism S	Groups from	199	1,899	4182	,006 *	High Degree > Medium Education
	group Learning	72.477	541			
	Total	72.676				

** p < 0.05*

Made Anova test results in the accounting staff to their educational status by "Organizational Commitment" statistical average in general terms a significant difference ness identified were (p <0.05). As a result of the Tukey test for the determination of the differences in the general averages of "Organizational Commitment", it was determined that the significant difference resulted from the undergraduate-graduate and secondary education-graduate averages.

Accounting employees of their educational status by "Organizational Cynicism" statistical average in general as has been determined a significant difference (p <0.05). As a result of the Tukey test carried out in order to determine the difference in the general averages of "Organizational Snism ", it was determined that the significant difference resulted from the post-secondary education averages.

H4: The levels of accounting staff organizational commitment and organizational cynicism levels of age and there are significant differences between.

Table 5: Comparison of Organizational Commitment Levels and Organizational Cynicism Levels by Age

	Variance Source	Total of Squares	Average of Squares	F	PA	Significant Difference
Organizational Commitment	Groups from	, 983	246	120	, 603	
	group Learning	70.693	, 536			
	Total	71.676				
Organizational Cynicism	Groups from	, 593	148	271	896	
	group Learning	72.083	, 546			
	Total	72.676	136			

** p _ <0.05*

Made Anova with respect to variable accounting years working in test results "Organizational Commitment" in the general statistical average in terms of a significant difference ness was not significant (p> 0.05). Made Anova on test results according to age variable accounting employees "Organizational Commitment" headlights in a statistically significant overall average k ness was not significant (p> 0.05).

H5: Accounting employees of the organizational commitment levels and organizational cynicism levels of the working time with a in the rain there is a significant difference.

Table 6: Comparison of Organizational Commitment Levels and Organizational Cynicism Levels by Working Time

	Variance Source	Total of Squares	Average of Squares	F	PA	Significant Difference
Organizational Commitment	Groups from	5,421	1,355	2,700	, 033	11-15> 1-5
	group Learning	66.255	, 502			
	Total	71.676				
Organizational Cynicism	Groups from	755	189	3,347	, 011 *	1-5> 11-15
	group Learning	71.920	, 545			
	Total	72.676				

** P <0.05*

Made Anova test results in accordance with accounting employees working time "Organizational Commitment" in the general statistical average in terms of a significant difference ness that was detected (p <0.05). As a result of the Tukey test conducted to determine the difference in the "Organizational Commitment" general averages ; it was determined that the significant difference resulted from 11-15 to 1-5 year working hours.

A statistically significant difference was found in the general averages of "Organizational Cynicism" according to the working time of the accounting

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employees ($p<0.05$). As a result of the Tukey test carried out in order to detect the difference in the general averages of "Organizational Snism " ; it was determined that the significant difference resulted from working hours of 11-15 to 1-5 years.

iii. *Correlation Analysis*

Correlation shows the linear relationship between two or more variables. The relationship between the variables is calculated by the correlation coefficient.

Table 7: Correlation Analysis on Organizational Cynicism and Organizational Commitment

		Organizational commitment	Organizational Cynicism
Organizational Commitment	Pearson correlation	1	-, 213 **
	Sig . (2-tailed)		, 00 4
	N	140	140
Organizational Cynicism	Pearson correlation	-, 213 **	1
	Sig . (2-tailed)	, 004	
	N	140	140

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

As a result of the correlation test conducted to determine the relationship between the Organizational Commitment and Organizational Cynicism levels of the employees; It was determined that there is a statistically significant, negative (inverse) and -, 213-strength relationship between organizational cynicism and organizational commitment levels in accounting workers. Thus, while organizational cynicism of accounting employees increases, their organizational commitment to decreases.

VI. Conclusion

a) Conclusion - Discussion

There are many determinants of organizational cynicism and organizational commitment. Some of these are individual and some are organizational. Organizational commitment refers to an employee's belief in the goals and values of the organization, the desire to remain a member of the organization, and commitment to the organization. In general, organizational commitment affects good relationships in businesses and accompanying performance. On the other hand, the concept of organizational cynicism refers to the fact that employees feel worthless in organizations, job dissatisfaction and dissatisfaction.

In this study, the level of organizational commitment and organizational cynicism of accountants working in various organizations other than professional accountants and the effect of demographic factors on these variables were evaluated. In addition, the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational cynicism was evaluated.

When the results of the research are evaluated collectively; A significant difference was found in the levels of "Organizational Commitment" according to the c-variable. Accordingly, the organizational commitment levels of male accounting workers are higher than women. There was no significant difference in Organizational Cynicism levels of accountants by gender. In other words, the difference between the organizational cynicism levels of male accountants and female accountants is insignificant. According to the marital status of accountants, a significant difference was found in the levels of "Organizational Commitment". According to the findings obtained; Organizational commitment levels of married accounting workers are higher than single workers. According to the marital status of the accounting employees, there was no significant difference in the levels of "Organizational Cynicism" . In other words, the difference between the organizational cynicism levels of married and single accountants is insignificant.

Significant differences were found in the levels of "Organizational Commitment" according to the education level of accounting employees . As a result of the Tukey test conducted in order to determine the reason of the said difference, it was determined that the significant differences in the associate's education level had higher organizational commitment compared to the employees at the master's education level. However, it was found that those at secondary education level had higher organizational commitment levels compared to those at the master's level. The comment that comes out here is this; As the education level increases, organizational commitment levels decrease. Significant differences were found in the levels of "Organizational Cynicism" according to the educational status of the accounting employees. Said significant differences in levels which is detected in the ars in order to do the Tukey test result; it was determined that those at secondary education level had higher levels of organizational cynicism than those at graduate level. Thus, as the education level increases, organizational cynicism levels decrease. According to the age variable of the accounting employees, no significant differences were found in the "Organizational Commitment" general levels and the "Organizational Commitment" levels. Thus, in the study, it can be said that age factor does not differ on organizational commitment and cynicism levels of accounting

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employees. A significant difference was found in the levels of "Organizational Commitment" according to the working hours of the accounting employees. According to this; Accounting employees who have worked in this profession for 11-15 years have higher organizational commitment levels than those who have worked for 1-5 years. In other words, people who have been working in this profession for a long time have a higher commitment to the organization than those who have just started. A significant difference was found in the levels of "Organizational Cynicism" according to the working hours of the accounting employees. Accordingly, it has been determined that those working in this profession for 11-15 years have a higher level of cynical attitude than those working for 1-5 years. In other words, there is a linear relationship between long-term work and organizational cynicism.

It has been determined that there is a significant and inverse direction-213 strength between the Organizational Commitment and Organizational Cynicism levels of the employees. Thus, while organizational cynicism of accounting employees increases, their commitment to organizations decreases.

In his study by Cohen and Lowenberg (1990) , he concluded that there is a weak provincial job between gender and organizational commitment. Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) research and in the generally consistent relationship between sex and organizational affiliation was not found. Goulet and Singh (2002) concluded that organizational commitment is not age-related, but gender-related instead. As a result of the studies of Afat and Aslan (2019), it was determined that the organizational cynicism levels of the employees did not differ by gender . Yastıoğlu et al. (2017), by sex, a significant difference in average sinizm organizational coherence have determined that there is. Şahin et al. (2019) found that male employees have higher organizational cynicism attitudes than female employees.

In the study of Joolideh and Yeshodhara (2009), it was found that age factor did not make any difference on organizational commitment. Hawkins (1998) found a nonsignificant relationship between age and emotional commitment. Colbert and Kwon (2000) found that there was no significant relationship between age and organizational commitment level. Meyer and Allen (1984) argue that employees with higher ages have higher commitment because they have better positions and are more satisfied with their jobs. Choi and Moran Barak (2008) age l trusted employees to young employees compared found that having a higher level of commitment. Afat and Aslan (2019) and Kalağan and Güzeller (2010) found that the organizational cynicism levels of the employees did not differ according to the "age" variable. Şahin et al. (2019) found that organizational cynicism attitudes do not differ by age.

Mathieu and Zajac, (1990) and Mowday et.al., (1982); organizational commitment with the level of e Implemented for levels between negate if a correlation flour that they identify. The Chughtai and Zafir (2006) y igh-trained employees often have more opportunities to change jobs due to their believes they show less commitment to the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) ; Employees with higher education levels have found that they have low emotional commitment because they are more likely to have higher expectations than the organization can satisfy. Şahin et al. (2019) found that there is no significant relationship between educational status and organizational cynicism.

Angle and Perry (1983) , married workers, suggests that they are more stable compared to unmarried employees. According to them, you get loads and family responsibilities, requirements to remain in the organization of married employees is increasing in. Joiner and Bakaliler (2006) ; They found that married employees are less dependent than their unmarried counterparts. Chughtai and Zafar (2006) found that marital status is not related to organizational commitment. Afat and Aslan, (2019) have concluded that organizational cynicism does not differ according to the marital status. Kalağan and Güzeller (2010) encountered similar results. Şahin et al . (2019), marital status organizational cynicism with in a significant relationship between n have found that. In the study conducted by Delken (2004), it is seen that single workers exhibit higher levels of cynical attitudes compared to married ones, while in the study of Kanter and Mirvis (1989), individuals separated from their spouses exhibit higher levels of cynical attitudes compared to married and single individuals.

Iqbal et al. (2011) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990), the service or term of office is positively associated with organizational commitment . In the study of Yastıoğlu et al. (2017); They found that working time differed significantly at the level of organizational cynicism. Akbolat et al. (2014), the cynicism of the gender of employees, working hours, marital status and educational status in terms of differences oluşturmadığ think the heat.

b) Research Constraints and Recommendations for Future Studies

Research constraints are generally; time and the number of samples. In the future researches, the number of samples can be expanded and work can be done on the accounting staff in the hotel operations in Antalya. However, hotels in more cities can be included in the research and mutual differences can be revealed. Another suggestion for future research; Differences between people working in different

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departments can be identified. In addition, professional accountants can be evaluated to determine whether the same research question leads to similar results.

These outputs for businesses can be evaluated as follows;

Measures can be taken to increase the level of informal communication among organizational staff in order to reduce your anxiety. The importance of informal communication can be understood in small meetings or seminars that will serve this purpose. Cynicism causative factors are found rope to eliminate their good solution can be developed. In addition, accounting employees can be motivated with promotions and awards so that employees can live to ensure job satisfaction and increase commitment to the organization. If the level of cynicism of those working in organizations is high; first of all, it is necessary to regain reliability. After troubleshooting this direction, developing a sense of belonging in terms of employees active participation controls which of the given and either be given a role in decision-making.

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Study of Awareness of Basic Life Support among the General Population in Mumbai: A Cross-Sectional Survey

By Dr. Ashwini Jogade & Dr. Deepak Patkar

Abstract- *Background:* Bystander basic life support (BLS) leads to a reduction in mortality for out of hospital cardiac arrests (OHCA). Awareness and training of BLS influence the initiation of life support by a layman in the case of OHCA. The study was conducted to assess the awareness and knowledge of BLS and the receipt of BLS training among the general population in Mumbai, India.

Methods: The study is a cross-sectional survey using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was shared with participants using Google forms through Social media.

Results: The study included 233 participants with 198 (85.0%) in the age group of 18-30 years and 119 (51.1%) having completed postgraduate/Ph.D. degrees. A total of 196 (84.1%) knew about basic life support and that it would be helpful during OHCA.

Keywords: *basic life support, BLS, BLS awareness, BLS training.*

GJMBR-A Classification: *JEL Code: Code: H83*



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Study of Awareness of Basic Life Support among the General Population in Mumbai: A Cross-Sectional Survey

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Results: The study included 233 participants with 198 (85.0%) in the age group of 18-30 years and 119 (51.1%) having completed postgraduate/Ph.D. degrees. A total of 196 (84.1%) knew about basic life support and that it would be helpful during OHCA. While 228 (97.9%) participants said that they felt learning BLS is necessary, only 94 (40.3%) reported receiving any training.

The main reason for low training uptake was a lack of awareness about the training availability. Measures suggested to improve awareness and training of BLS including the use of social media and television to spread information, conducting training in schools, workplaces and residential colonies and use of corporate social responsibility funds to make these training available for free.

Conclusion: BLS awareness was high among urban, educated residents of Mumbai. However, the training level was low. As ischemic heart diseases increase among the population, it is important to focus on the awareness and training of BLS among the population to increase bystander BLS, which will help improve outcomes.

Keywords: basic life support, BLS, BLS awareness, BLS training.

I. Background

Ischemic heart diseases and cardiac arrest are a leading cause of death around the world 1. In India, these conditions are the leading cause of death in the country 2. It is estimated, that by 2020, 60% of heart diseases in the world will occur in India 3. Out of hospital cardiac arrests (OHCA) is a global public health issue 4. It is also the leading cause of deaths in India 5. A study conducted in Andhra Pradesh reports that sudden cardiac arrest is the cause of one in 10 recallable deaths 6. It is reported that "chain of survival", which includes an early call for help, early basic life support (BLS), early defibrillator and early advanced cardiac life support greatly increases the chances of survival among patients suffering from OHCA 7,8.

It is estimated that 50,000 deaths can be averted if basic life support (BLS) is performed in case of out of hospital cardiac arrest, especially by bystanders 9. When bystanders initiate early BLS, the survival rate in such cases can double 8. However, studies report that the performance of BLS by laypeople around the world is low. In India, a study by Krishna et. al. show that among patients who suffered from OHCA, only 1.3% received BLS by a bystander 5. The survival and neurological outcomes of OHCA depend on the time taken for BLS to be provided to the patient 10. The chance of survival decreases by 10% per minute delay in administering BLS 7. Hence, it is important that OHCA patients receive BLS at the earliest from laypeople who witness it.

Awareness of BLS and training of BLS are two important factors that influence the provision of BLS by laypeople. Awareness of life-saving skills, such as the provision of basic life support (BLS) among the general population is important 5,9,11,12. The levels of awareness of BLS among the general population differed around the world. Studies from the United States of America 13, Portugal 14, China 15 report a high level of awareness among the general population about basic life-saving skills. However, studies from countries such as Saudi Arabia 16, Jordan 9 and Turkey 17 report low awareness of basic life-saving skills. The sources of knowledge about BLS included schools, universities, workplaces, television and internet 9. In India, the level of awareness of BLS among medical students has been reported to be low by various studies 12,18–20.

Along with awareness, to increase the confidence of people to apply BLS techniques in the emergency following an OHCA, training is essential. Training in BLS has also shown to increase willingness to provide life support to strangers during emergency 4. BLS training rates vary across communities according to the policies in place. The various training rates reported are 79% in Washington, 26% in China, 40% in Turkey, and 35% in Japan 10,13,15,21. In India, most studies among medical interns and nursing students have reported a low level of BLS skills among these groups

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12,18–20. To our knowledge, very few studies report on the level of perceived skills and training among the general population. Hence, we conducted a study to assess the awareness and knowledge of basic life support (BLS) and the receipt of BLS training among the general population in Mumbai, India.

II. Methods

a) Study design

A cross-sectional survey using a structured questionnaire.

b) Setting

The study was conducted in Mumbai, a metropolis with a population of 12.5 million people 22. The emergency medical systems in the city consist of the public 108 system and scattered private providers 11,23. The study was conducted by Nanavati Super Speciality Hospital, which is a tertiary care hospital, with a well-equipped emergency department 24.

c) Study population

The study recruited participants above 18 years of age. Any person who was willing to participate and could understand English were eligible to participate in the survey. People who were attending or had graduated from medical or paramedical courses, since they have BLS training as part of their curriculum, were excluded from this survey. Any person who met the inclusion criteria and was able to provide informed consent were included in the study.

d) Data collection and tools

Data was collected using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire had two parts. The first part was designed to collect socio-demographic information. The second part had 10 questions eliciting awareness of participants about basic life support. The questionnaire had one open-ended question asking suggestions to improve the awareness of BLS in society. The questionnaire was prepared and administered in the English language. The questionnaire was shared using Google forms using. The consent form was built into the form which was shared online. Participants could click on the link in the description to access the form. Data was collected in September 2019.

e) Analysis

All responses were downloaded from the Google forms in Microsoft Excel. Data were imported from the excel database into STATA version 15 (Stata Corp, College Station, TX, USA) for analysis. Frequencies and percentages were used for the description of categorical variables and medians with interquartile ranges for continuous variables. A chi-squared test was used to analyze the association between awareness and training with age groups, sex and education.

f) Ethics

Internal Ethics Committee of the Dr. Balabhai Nanavati Hospital, Mumbai approved the study. The informed consent form was the first page of the online survey questionnaire. Participants could only proceed with the survey questionnaire after they accepted the informed consent form.

III. Results

The study included a total of 233 participants. Among the participants, 198 (85.0%) were between the age group of 18-30 years. All participants were educated, with 119 (51.1%) having completed postgraduate/Ph.D. degrees. The socio-demographic characteristics of the participants have been shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Socio demographic characteristics of participants

Characteristic	n (%)
Total participants	233
Age	
18-30	198 (85.0)
31-40	28 (12.0)
>41 years	7 (3.0)
Sex	
Male	61 (26.2)
Female	92 (39.5)
Prefer not to reveal	80 (34.3)
Education	
Junior college or less	8 (3.4)
Undergraduate	106 (45.5)
Postgraduate /Ph.D.	119 (51.1)

The responses to questions about BLS awareness are summarized in figure 1. Among the survey participants, 192 (82.4%) responded that they had seen a person collapse. In case of coming across

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with a person who has collapsed, 124 (53.2%) participants said that they would initiate basic life support, 40 (17.2%) would rush the person to a hospital, 34 (14.6%) would call for an ambulance, while 35 (15.0%) said that they would wait for a doctor.

A total of 196 (84.1%) said that they knew that basic life support would be helpful in such a situation, and 157 (67.4%) said that they knew when basic life support should be performed. A total of 143 (61.4%) had seen basic life support being performed. While 228 (97.9%) participants said that they felt that learning how to perform basic life support is necessary and 211 (90.6%) expressed interest in taking the training, only 94 (40.3%) reported ever receiving any training. When asked for reasons for not taking basic life support training, 85 (36.5%) reported unavailability of training. The other responses are detailed in figure 2.

There was no statistically significant difference in awareness and training of BLS with age, sex, or education.

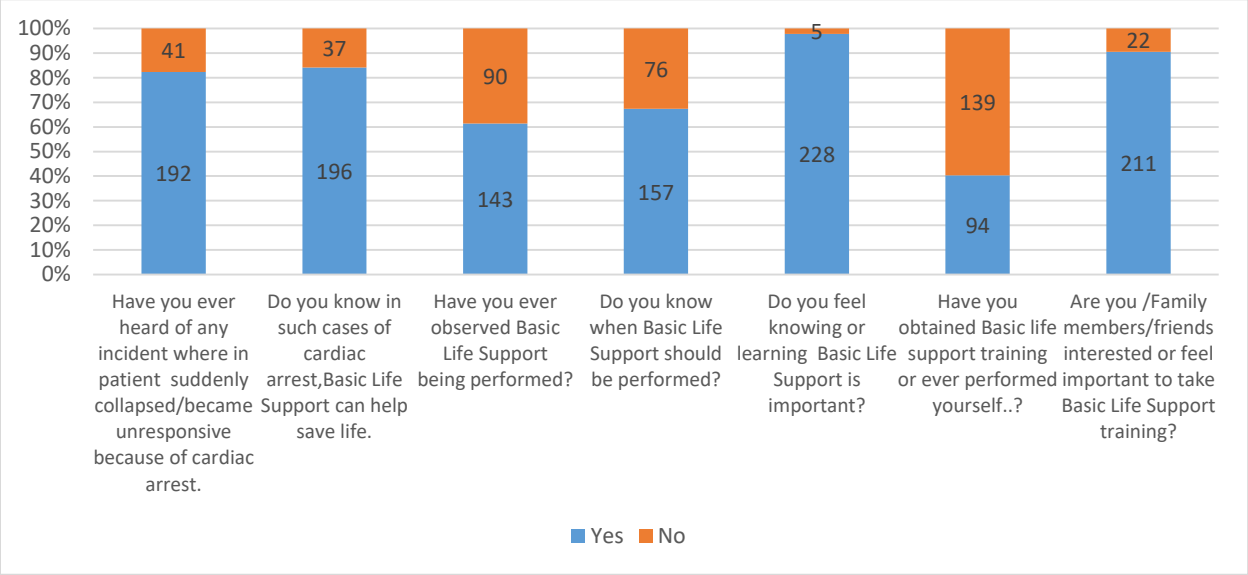

Figure 1: Responses to question about awareness about basic life support among participants

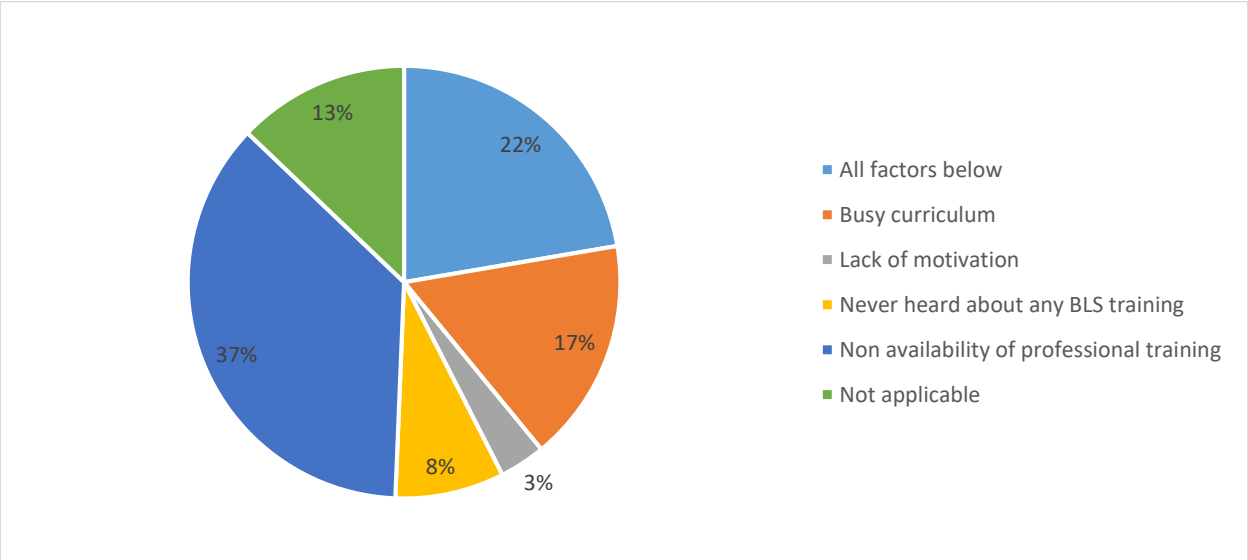

Figure 2: Reasons for inability to take a basic life support training

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a) Recommendations to improve awareness of BLS

Participants recommended the use of advertisements delivered through social media, internet, and traditional media to improve awareness about basic life support among the general population. Participants also suggested that along with conducting awareness, it is important that people should have easy access to basic life support training. The sites suggested for such training include workplaces, schools and colleges, and residential societies. Hospitals may also conduct BLS training. This training should be conducted ideally free of cost or at reasonable fees so that the masses can access this training. BLS training can be conducted as part of corporate social responsibility initiatives. The training should also be advertised widely so that people can learn about opportunities to access such training.

IV. Discussion

This study shows that a large proportion of the study population (84.1%) was aware of BLS and its applicability in helping patients with sudden cardiac arrests. A large proportion of respondents (82.4%) had seen someone collapse due to sudden cardiac arrest which might be the reason for this high level of awareness. Also, a majority of the participants in this study had a university degree, were young (85% participants in 18-30 years age group), and from an urban area, which might be the factors influencing this high level of awareness.

A large proportion of participants (90.6%) expressed interest in taking up training in basic life support. However, only 40.3% reported taking up any BLS training. This level is similar to those being reported from other developing countries and lower than the high-income countries 7,8,26,9,10,13–16,21,25. Being trained for basic life support skills was not significantly associated with the level of education in our study, which is in contrast to other studies 10. This might be due because most of the participants in this study had completed at least undergraduate level university degrees. Among the reasons for not taking up BLS training, participants reported a lack of awareness about how and where to access such training.

BLS training in many countries is part of the high school curriculum or a requirement for obtaining a drivers' license 10,13. Participants in this study, when asked for suggestions to improve awareness and, training on BLS also said that it is essential to easy access BLS training in the country. Such training can be conducted in high schools as part of the curriculum 5. A study from Punjab, India, demonstrated positive outcomes of conducting BLS training in schools 27. BLS training can also be offered at workplaces by employers to improve the availability, and acceptability of such training. The use of social media platforms and television to spread information about such initiatives is an important suggestion since other studies have reported that these are the main sources of information for people to access information about BLS 9. Costs of training were reported as a major deterrent for undertaking BLS training and the suggestions to include these training under corporate social responsibility initiatives can provide sustainability and stability to such initiatives.

This study was conducted using an online platform, which might have biased the selection of respondents, which is a limitation of this study. Also, the survey was administered only in English, which might have led to only people with a university degree or higher being represented in this study, which might also explain the high levels of awareness that we observe. Due to this, the survey results might not apply to the wider population. Despite of these limitations, the study has certain strengths. The study includes a large sample of urban educated youth, with 85% participants in the age group of 18-30 years, which suggest that this age group can be targeted to provide BLS training with good acceptability of such training initiatives, which is an opportunity worth exploring.

V. Conclusion

The level of awareness about basic life support was high among urban, educated residents of Mumbai. However, the level of BLS training among this population was low. As OHCA and ischemic heart diseases become more and more common among the population, it is important to increase the awareness and training of BLS among the population to increase bystander provision of BLS in cases of OHCA, which will help improve outcomes among such patients.

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Taking Public Service Delivery in Nigeria Online for Effectiveness and Efficiency: The users' Perspective

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Abstract- The ability of a government to ensure an effective and efficient social service delivery is central to good governance. Online platform has become a veritable path to effective and efficient public service delivery globally. The paper investigated the effectiveness and efficiency of online public service delivery in Nigeria from the end-users' perspective. Using an online survey conducted with online users of services of selected federal agencies in Nigeria, the paper found that online public service delivery in the country was considered effective and efficient, especially when compared with the old physical delivery mode. However, findings further revealed that there was much room for improvement, especially as a sizeable number of users rated the online service delivery low in certain aspects. The paper, therefore, recommends that the Nigerian government should address such areas as a way of improving the services and earning greater users' confidence.

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Hassan, Afees Olumide α & Ishola, Abdulrasaq Ajadi σ

Abstract- The ability of a government to ensure an effective and efficient social service delivery is central to good governance. Online platform has become a veritable path to effective and efficient public service delivery globally. The paper investigated the effectiveness and efficiency of online public service delivery in Nigeria from the end-users' perspective. Using an online survey conducted with online users of services of selected federal agencies in Nigeria, the paper found that online public service delivery in the country was considered effective and efficient, especially when compared with the old physical delivery mode. However, findings further revealed that there was much room for improvement, especially as a sizeable number of users rated the online service delivery low in certain aspects. The paper, therefore, recommends that the Nigerian government should address such areas as a way of improving the services and earning greater users' confidence.

I. Introduction

In Nigeria, some of the limitations in the traditional public administration practices are attributable to bureaucratic rigidity and complexity among government Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) as well as excessive and time-consuming duplication of paperwork which leads to long waiting time both for citizens and public administration officers (Al-Hakim, 2007). Increasing yearnings for effective and efficient services came with a soaring skepticism on the ability of the public institutions to organize its affairs productively. The public sector is often viewed as being run by "incompetent bureaucrats" steeped in "red tape," indifferent to the needs of the public, and ineffective in service delivery. Whether or not this sense of gross incompetence is based on fact or not, as long as the perception exists, it becomes difficult for the public sector to be effective in the conduct of its affairs. It becomes a widespread concern as citizens have lost faith in the competency of the institutions.

While striving to address the ugly service trend and inculcate prudence in governance, ICT was incorporated into social service delivery in what is known as electronic government (e-government) (Adah, 2015). Applying ICT to public service delivery (e-government) is not peculiar to a particular country or continent; rather, it is a worldwide phenomenon that concerns developed and developing nations (Reddick, 2010). The reasons for e-government adoption vary across nations. To some, it is the global trend that must be imitated while to others, it as an opportunity to enshrine transparency, accountability, efficiency, and effectiveness into the business of governance. However, the development of a quality e-services delivery system that is efficient and effective is an important aspect of good governance. This is because e-services create the avenue for engaging citizenry both in governance and in the use of e-government services.

Nigeria, like every other nation in the global community, is striving to achieve a standard where e-governance becomes the order of the day. It has set for itself the goal of developing its ICT structure to a level where ICT becomes an avenue for sending and receiving information from one sector of the society to the other.

Nigeria formally commenced her e-government project in 2001 with the establishment of National IT policy. Various other steps have been taken afterward. They include the establishment of National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) in 2003; establishment of National e-Government Strategies (NeGSt) in March 2004; establishment of Public Service network (PS net) with the integration of all the ministries and the National Assembly (Agunloye, 2009); online project of Corporate Affairs Commission established in June 2005; the introduction of electronic passport; and the introduction of e-payment system in January 2009. Today, many services of the government have been taken online. In the education sector, registration for examinations like WAEC, NECO, and JAMB UTME and release of results are done online. Businesses are registered online. These, among others, have altered the ways interactions take place between citizens and the Nigerian government. In over a decade of introduction of online services, the need arises to examine the effectiveness and efficiency of e-services by the government, especially considering deficiencies associated with the old method of public service delivery in Nigeria, hence this study.

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II. Literature Review

a) Service Delivery

To comprehend "service delivery," there is the need to understand what is termed "service" first, which this paper defines as the set of activities that meets the needs of a user. Services are rendered by one party to another in an agreed manner. In literature, there has been a persistent use of "goods and services" in a conjoined manner. However, what differentiates services from goods are intangibility, inseparability, simultaneity, and variability (Akpoiroro & Okon, 2015). Services are not concrete products that one can see and hold, so they are termed intangible. Once rendered, a service vanishes. More evident is the fact that a service is consumed right at the point of delivery, which means the supply and consumption of services take place simultaneously. About governments, policies and programs are designed to facilitate the creation and delivery of essential social services through the activities of the bureaucrats (Ikechukwu, O. U., Udu, O., Onyema, U. E., Raphael, A. E., Obi, Y. V. & Obasi, V. U., 2019). Public administrators create and implement public policies that hope to deliver social services that have an overriding aim of improving the well-being of the people by providing their basic needs of life. At the very foundation of this objective is the pursuit of a strong, virile, and broad-based economy with adequate capacity to absorb externally generated shocks (Okojie, 2009). Service delivery, then, is a cyclic process for developing and delivering user-focused services. Service delivery does not stop once the product has been delivered as user outreach and engagement must continue to ensure that services are well-received, used, and the user achieves the full intended benefit.

However, public service delivery has a peculiar stance in terms of the user's perception of its quality. Unlike in the free market where utility value must correspond to the cost of purchase, public service depends on the capacity of the provider (government) (Wolff, Kühl & Satzger, 2018). Available public resources and the capacity of the bureaucrats are essential. This is because the nexus between service efficiency and bureaucratic process enjoys a linear relationship (Ikechukwu *et al*, 2019). It is in view of the need to overhaul the capacity of public service delivery platforms that service delivery is now structured to minimize delivery cost (Wolff *et al*), enlarges coverage areas while enhancing citizens' access through the available technologies in what is commonly known as e-government.

b) E-Government

Considering the governance challenges confronting the third world in recent times, as evidenced in the erratic and ineffective service delivery process (Yahaya, 2019), the quest to find a lasting solution has occupied the front seat on the agenda of the academia. In this effort, bureaucracy has been singled out as a prominent impediment to the attainment of good governance and efficiency in public service delivery. In response to its menace, therefore, e-government was suggested.

E-Government is a means through which political values and mandates are being fulfilled. In this perspective, through e-public service delivery, popular participation can be engendered, transparency can be achieved, and accountability enshrined. To back up the idea, Al-Hakim (2007) submitted that e-Government denotes the use of ICTs by the government to improve the way public administration interacts with citizens and businesses and to improve the efficiency of the administrative process. Similarly, Means and Schneider (2000) examine the concept from the perspective of the relationships between governments, their customers (businesses, other governments, and citizens) and suppliers by the use of the internet. More discretely, Lawson (1998) describes e-government as "transferring power to people, by operating in a one-stop, non-stop way, and doing more for less." In the view of Heichlinger (2004), citizens are central to the idea of e-government, so he defined "e-Government as a set of activities supported by information systems to improve the relationships between government institutions and citizens." The constant mention of "government-citizen relationship" in the above definitions portrays an element of politics. According to Davies (2015) and Adah (2018), e-Government refers to concerted efforts of public authorities to use information and communication technologies to better public services delivery and increase democratic participation. Conclusively, e-Government possesses the potentials to transform the government to be more prudent, accountable, and responsive to the citizens (Reddick, 2010).

c) E-Government: The African Experience

African is home to a multiplicity of tribes and populations. Diverse in language, culture, history, religions, and economic endowment. In a detailed perspective, Aina, Mutula and Tiamiyu (cited in Eyitayo, 2008:33) while describing Sub-Sahara Africa (SSA) opine that:

The region of SSA (excluding South Africa) faces massive political and socio-economic challenges, in addition to the existing underdeveloped human resources, deficient infrastructure, cultural, and funding constraints. The public sector also has its problems. It is based on manual filing systems, burdened by enormous movements of correspondence, duplication of files, wastage of paper, difficulty in accessing information in files, loss of data, and general inefficiency of operations. From the picture painted above, a revolutionary approach is required to resuscitate good governance in

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the region in particular and Africa in general. Coincidentally, e-government provides an efficient panacea to a number of the region's challenges. Hence, it was hurriedly adopted. In other similar submissions, Yahaya (2019), Adah (2015) and Al-Hakim (2007) explained that one of the main limits in traditional public administration practices is due to the bureaucratic complexity among the departments, excessive and time-consuming duplication/multiplication of paperwork which lead to long waiting time both for citizens and for public administration officers. The application of ICTs to the public sector environment promised to improve public administration and to satisfy citizen demands for good governance through prompt social service delivery (Wirtz & Daiser, 2015). However, African countries particularly Western African nations like Nigeria are lagging far behind (Dhamodharam & Saminathan, 2011) in the e-government movement notwithstanding the fact that Nigeria has one of the fastest-growing ICT markets on the African continent, yet she persistently records low global ranking in the delivery of e-public services to her citizens (Adah, 2015). More specifically, Kenya was placed on an "enhanced level" alongside Nigeria for its rapid e-government adoption as it extends infrastructure and services to citizens in the rural areas (Reddick, 2010).

Nigeria is currently basking in the euphoria of digital breakthroughs given her experience of slow but steady growth in the ICT sector. However, significant growth is not yet recorded in the use of ICT for e-Government. This is attributable to several prominent among which is the inadequacy of electronic infrastructure needed to spearhead the digital revolution (Yahaya, 2019). In the 2016 e-government implementation ranking by the United Nations, Nigeria was the 143rd nation of the 193 United Nation Member States with the following breakdown: 0.33 on Global Development Index, 0.36 on the e-participation index, 0.38 on Human Capital Index, 0.41 on Online Service Index and 0.20 on Telecommunication Infrastructure Index. Ghana, another West African country with similar political and economic pattern with Nigeria was ranked 120th with the breakdown of 0.42 on Global Development Index, 0.46 on the e-participation index, 0.55 on Human Capital Index, 0.45 on Online Service Index and 0.26 on Telecommunication Infrastructure Index (Knoema, 2016).

Surprisingly in 2018, Nigeria was still on the 143rd position despite the enormous amount of funds committed by the government after scoring so low in the 2016 survey. In the breakdown this time around, she experienced minor improvements in EGDI with 0.38, HCI with 0.42, 0.52 in Online Service Index but with a serious decline in TII with 0.18. So fortunate for her this time around, Ghana, her next-door neighbour, moved from the 120th position in 2016 to 101th in 2018 (UNDESA, 2018).

From the UN e-government ratings, Nigeria is placed at the Middle Online Service Index (OSI) and e-Government Development Index (EGDI) (Between 0.25 and 0.50) and on "enhanced stage" (UNDESA, 2016 and Reddick, 2010). On a contrary perspective, Hassan (2014) contradicts the above rating as his study reveals that as of the year 2013, Nigeria is already at the connected stage of e-government. Nevertheless, the government has been gearing policies and initiatives to accelerate growth. The need for transparency and accountability in service delivery to ensure efficiency and effectiveness is one of the intended benefits of ICTs in governance. More interestingly, ICTs in governance can engender and sustain the trust of the citizens in their government (Alshehri & Drew, 2010).

On the surface, these ratings show that Nigeria is not making commendable progress in its e-government project. This significantly showed that either there is a low level of acceptance of e-Government by the citizens or the e-government implementation standard in Nigeria does not conform to international standards.

III. Methodology

The study relied on data collected through an online survey using an unrestricted self-selected sampling technique. The technique is an open type that allows any interested respondent on targeted online platforms to participate in the survey. The survey targeted online users of eight (8) purposively selected Federal Agencies in Nigeria. They are Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC), Nigerian Customs Service (NCS), Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) and Federal Road Safety Commission (FRSC). Others are the National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control (NAFDAC), Nigerian Immigration Service (NIS), National Identity Management Commission (NIMC), and National Youth Service Corp (NYSC). Their selection was based on the ground that they constituted the leading online public service delivery agencies in Nigeria at the time of the survey. In the administration of the survey, the respondents were reached on three (3) Facebook platforms through a hyperlink. The platforms are Facebook Audience-Access Service, sorted on the bases of Nationality (Nigerians), Educational Status (Higher Education), and Profession (Graduates, Self-employed, Elite, and Artisans); followers of all Federal Universities on Facebook and followers of the selected agencies on Facebook. A significant number of these social media users were believed to have interacted with the government electronically. The survey was available online to respondents for four (4) weeks. Data collected were analyzed using simple descriptive statistics to assess the level of effectiveness and efficiency of online service delivery in Nigeria.

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IV. Findings

a) Socio-Demographic Features of the Respondents

As presented in Table 1, 5624 (40.9%) of the respondents are between 20 - 40 years, 8117 (59.1%) of the respondents fall within the age range of 41-60 years. This indicates that the totality of the respondents are considerably matured and at their service age of 20-60 years, and this feature of respondents engendered very detailed and reliable responses for this study.

Table 1 also showed that 3179 (23.1%) of the respondents are female, while 10564 (76.9%) are male. Since it is not a gender-based study added to the fact that respondents consciously chose to respond to the survey, no bias can be inferred. Rather, the distribution is an indication that both male and female Nigerians patronize the government online. More remarkably, all of the respondents have attained the tertiary level of education in their respective disciplines. This implies that all respondents have relatively required academic level and exposure for providing reliable answers to the questions.

Also, 54.7% of the respondents were civil/public servant from diverse government ministries, departments, and agencies of federal, state and local governments; 24.6% of the respondents were from private organizations with notable interface with government services; 7.5% of the respondents were self-employed; while 12.9% of the respondents constituted students in various higher institutions of learning across the country. Just a few of the respondents were unemployed. To this end, these respondents are considered capable of providing comprehensive information on the effectiveness and efficiency of online public service delivery in Nigeria.

Table 1: Respondents' Socio-Demographic Features

	Frequency	Percent
Age		
21-40 years	5624	40.9
41-60 years	8117	59.1
Below 20 years	2	.0
Total	13743	100.0
Sex		
Female	3179	23.1
Male	10564	76.9
Total	13743	100.0
Academic Qualification		
Tertiary	13743	100.0
Profession		
Civil/Public Servant	7524	54.7
Private Worker	3394	24.6
Self-Employed	1032	7.8
Students	1784	12.9
Unemployed	9	.0
Total	13743	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2020

b) Data Presentation and Analysis

The first question put forth to the respondents was aimed at ascertaining their awareness of the existence of, and interaction with, online government services. To the question, 13,677 (99.5%) of them acknowledged the existence of the government online services and claimed to have transacted on the platforms at one time or the other. This makes the information obtained through the survey reliable.

Table 2 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents on assessment indices for the effectiveness and efficiency of online public service delivery in the country. The respondents were requested to rate the services provided online by the government against eight (8) indices of effectiveness and efficiency using a 3-level scale of 'High', 'Moderate' and 'Low.' The last column on the table shows the frequencies and percentages of participants that did not respond to a particular index. Where a majority of the users rate the services against the indices as moderate, the online service delivery is considered moderately effective and efficient; and when rated high, the online service delivery is considered highly effective and efficient. On the other side, if the services are rated low against the indices by the majority, it can be concluded that online service delivery is ineffective and inefficient.

As shown in Table 2, across the eight (8) indices, the majority of the users rated the services as either moderate or high. Specifically, on the cost effectiveness of online services when compared with the physical method of service; and convenience of transactions, the majority of the users rated the online service delivery high. Regarding successful completion of transactions, the majority of the users, though less than half (47%), rated online service delivery as moderate, another 31.5% rated it high. The implication

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of this is that most services were successfully completed online. On timely response to users' online requests, 48.2% and 12.3% of the users respectively rated online service delivery moderate and high. This is though an acceptable level of rating, with 36.4% rating online service delivery low in this area implies a need to do more by the government. This is the area that requires attention most from the government. For the remaining four (4) indices, namely: the safety of identity, privacy of transaction, availability of desired and other essential information online, and satisfaction from services rendered; the majority of the respondents rated the online service delivery as moderate. A moderate performance simply implies there is much room for improvement. A deduction from the analysis is that online public service delivery in Nigeria is considerably effective and efficient. This notwithstanding, much room still exists for improvements. Particular attention is needed to be given to timely response to users' online requests.

Table 2: Effectiveness of e-Public Service Delivery in Nigeria

		High	Moderate	Low	No Response
	Effectiveness and Efficiency Indices	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)	F(%)
i.	Safety of your identity	669 (4.9)	12433 (90.5)	573 (4.2)	2 (.0)
ii.	Privacy of your transaction	4529 (33.0)	7462 (54.3)	1206 (8.8)	480 (3.5)
iii.	Availability of your desired and other essential information online	4122 (30.0)	8285 (60.3)	1270 (9.2)	-(-)
iv.	Timely response to your request(s)	1689 (12.3)	6624 (48.2)	5002 (36.4)	362 (2.6)
v.	Cost effectiveness when compared with physical method of service delivery	8063 (58.7)	4763 (34.7)	851 (6.2)	-(-)
vi.	Successful completion of transactions	4334 (31.5)	6454 (47.0)	2889 (21.0)	-(-)
vii.	Convenience of Transactions	7500 (54.6)	6094 (44.3)	83 (.6)	-(-)
viii.	Satisfaction from service rendered	2821 (20.5)	8621 (62.7)	2235 (16.3)	-(-)

Source: Field Survey, 2020

V. Discussion and Conclusion

While investigating the effectiveness and efficiency of online public service delivery in Nigeria, some indices like the safety of identity, the privacy of transaction, timeliness, cost, convenience, and result orientation, etc. were considered, and it is upon such indices that this discussion is based. On the safety of online transactions, the study found that a moderate level of safety is provided. Online safety is crucial even for the developed nations as hackers and spies have defied the most protected servers of the world. Similarly, Nigeria as a developing world, is only capable of providing reasonable online safety possible in terms of the level of her economy, technological advancement, as well as her national orientation. Writing on the extent of online vulnerability are scholars like Davies (2015), Alshehri & Drew (2010), and Colesca (2009).

As regards the timely response to users' online request, this study put this also at a moderate level. This is equally understandable as the waiting time is dependent on the extent of server capacity and capability rather than the long waiting time usually encountered at the period of manual service delivery. As argued by Ajayi (2007), the absence of an Internet Exchange Point in Nigeria that required that Local Internet traffic be transmitted through points in Europe and America at a great cost also adds to the delay in transaction responses. Similarly, the study placed the cost-effectiveness when compared with the physical method of service delivery as high. This indicated that online service delivery reduces cost than the traditional method of transaction with public institutions in Nigeria. This is partly because of cost of transportation to the center of service and other logistics costs have been eliminated since the services are online-based that requires no physical movement. This submission matches that of Albesher (2015) and Davies (2015), who added time and cost-savings as part of the benefits of online service delivery.

In the findings of the study is the assertion that the chance of having a successful online transaction is moderate and that convenience is created in the process. The application of the internet in public service delivery is confirmed to be convenient world over (Singh & Sharma, 2009). Derivable from this is the fact that transactions can be initiated, monitored, and

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successfully pursued at any location and time, so choose by the citizens (Ayanso, Chatterjee & Cho, 2011).

As regards the effectiveness and efficiency of electronic public service delivery, users' perspective, as found by this study, reveals that online service delivery in Nigeria is effective and efficient. This corroborates findings of some previous studies that online delivery of public services is associated with effectiveness and efficiency. Some such studies are Albesher (2015), Davies (2015), Singh and Sharma (2009), Ayanso, Chatterjee, and Cho (2011) and Dhamodharam and Saminathan (2011).

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Community and Transmodernity: The Keys to Organizational Practices of Social Collectives in Mexico

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Abstract- In this article we intend to broaden the field of knowledge of the Organizational Theory (OT) and organizational studies, opening the action-research universe to acknowledge the diversity of organizational practices of social-community collectives. To this end, the first part shows the theoretical constraints caused by the epistemic coloniality that imposes the model upon the modern organization and productivity, competitiveness, and control as their sole axis of analysis. The second part shows the analytical categories used to understand the organizational practices of social collectives in Mexico. These categories came out of community considerations and practices, which stand for political-epistemic projects not included in the theoretical schemes of organizational modernity. Specifically, the notion of communality—conceived by intellectuals and activists from Oaxaca, México— and Dussel's Trans modernity concept, were created to define the context from which they developed.

Keywords: organizational practices, social collectives, communality.

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Community and Transmodernity: The Keys to Organizational Practices of Social Collectives in Mexico

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Abstract- In this article we intend to broaden the field of knowledge of the Organizational Theory (OT) and organizational studies, opening the action-research universe to acknowledge the diversity of organizational practices of social-community collectives. To this end, the first part shows the theoretical constraints caused by the epistemic coloniality that imposes the model upon the modern organization and productivity, competitiveness, and control as their sole axis of analysis. The second part shows the analytical categories used to understand the organizational practices of social collectives in Mexico. These categories came out of community considerations and practices, which stand for political-epistemic projects not included in the theoretical schemes of organizational modernity. Specifically, the notion of communality—conceived by intellectuals and activists from Oaxaca, México— and Dussel's Trans modernity concept, were created to define the context from which they developed. As a conclusion, we propose to open the field into organizational trans modernity, to understand the organizational practices of social collectives as a potential for cultural creation and reproduction of a shared life.

Keywords: organizational practices, social collectives, communality.

I. Introduction

The starting point to broadening the approach to Organizational Theory (OT) and organizational studies is to admit that "by tackling the Organizational Studies we are dealing with one of the most important aspects of epistemic coloniality in the past 150 years." (Ibarra, 2006 p.466).

This implies assuming that our knowledge of what organizations are, what the yought to be, and/or what their know-how is, comes from institutionalizing a particular kind of knowledge generated by the Anglo-European elites. This knowledge was initially based on engineering, later on psychology and the behavioral sciences, and finally on management (Ibarra, 2006).

According to Podestá and Jurado (2003) this process started in the first decade of the XX century, fist by H.F. Taylor's 'Rationalization of Work,' and later in the 1930s and 1940s when the subject of study was extended to include psychology and anthropology research, to analyze human relationships in working environments.

Along that path other authors have noted that the epistemic coloniality of OT, based on reason and science, allows "taking domination relationships for granted, and legitimates the exaltation of the market" (Misoczky, 2010, p. 14); this persists even in the critical trends of organizational studies: both in the British school which "does not intend to promote changes to the current structural relationships" (Misoczky; and Amantino-De-Andrade, 2017, p.143) and in the critical track of organizational studies in Latin America, which has used imported theoretical approaches in the dynamics of "transfer and translation, let's say, repeating the knowledge generated in the Anglo-Saxon world" (Ibarra, 2006, p. 3).

Briefly described, these remarks point to various aspects of the epistemic coloniality of OT and organizational studies: First, they indicate the geopolitical component that suggests the existence of a privileged place in the political world map, i.e. the United States and three or four European countries making up the "epistemological North" (de Sousa Santos 2010); the analytical perspectives about the Organization emerge from the latter, which then become legitimate knowledge thanks to a dual-play by the "modern/colonial knowledge structures of westernized universities" (Grosfoguel, 2013, p. 34) and by the establishment of a world-development model, based on the creation of surplus.

In this regard, the critique to epistemic coloniality results from imposing a particular type of knowledge that favors "the importance of calculations

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and technical rationality to design structures that will guarantee the efficient operation of organizations" (Ibarra, 2004, p. 3) based on the "pragmatic rationality that limits knowledge potential only to what is strictly useful and productive" (Podestá & Jurado, 2003, p. 98). The aim here is to point out the adoption of productivity criteria linked to instrumental rationality, to the notion of efficiency and effectiveness, and to the pursuit of surplus as the valuation model that limits social, personal, organizational, cultural and political processes to the logic of economic reasoning. The above, under an aura of objective neutrality based on obtaining optimal results, has colonized the worlds of life to the point of interpreting nature and people as resources; social relationships as Social Capital, and human potential for creation and imagination as Intellectual Capital.

Lastly, what we could call the third aspect of the epistemic coloniality of the OT, which includes "the set of approaches taken by organizational studies over the last century, under a wide variety of theoretical orientations, levels of analysis and disciplines of origin" (Ibarra, 1999, p.93), is that since the 1950s the term "organization" has been used as a substitute for company or industry. This does not only remove all political implications from a given organizational form, but additionally, when the concept of Organization is utilized in this way, it takes the meaning of a structural framework that requires a series of rules associated to the instrumental rationality based on matters of productivity, competitivity, quality, and efficiency. Back in the 60s'the term Modern Organization was finally adopted (based on the classical definition by Etzioni (1991)) to refer to all those social units (or human groupings) deliberately constituted and rebuilt for the pursuit of specific goals […] where planning, communication, direction and, control activities are executed, and positions and tasks are assigned by a particular social division of work.

The above, combined with the institutionalization of the Organizational Theory and the tendency to "take market rationality for granted" (Ibarra 2008, p.223) are the basis for the Organizational Modernity Project, developed by the organizational theory and extended by organizational studies into a simplified and orderly knowledge of the world that places the enterprise as the quintessential reference for an organization.

To extend the approach to Organizational Theory (OT) to develop a new knowledge domain that allows recognizing the specificity of organizational practices of the various community and society collectives that cannot be considered within the parameters of the "modern organizations" since they do not pursue productivity, nor are they ruled by efficiency parameters. Quite the opposite, they stand for ways of life and ways of doing things with others that are at once the expression of a culture and the opportunity of cultural creation of alternatives, which defy modern/technological society and bring along new forms of organization: local currencies, locally constructed enviro-techs, community canteens, recovery of farmlands, territorial advocacy, among many others (Esteva, 2012).

In this direction, we will take one step beyond criticizing OT's epistemic coloniality and the management paradigm developed above, and we retake the proposition for the decolonial turn, which incorporates "the openness and freedom of thought and alternate ways of life <alternate economies, alternate political theory>..." (Mignolo 2007, p.29). This proposition for the decolonial turn, developed a few years ago by several researchers, intellectuals, and activists from various countries, mainly from Latin America, has been aimed to:

> Intervene decisively in the narrative proper of modern sciences to configure an alternate space for the production of knowledge —a different kind of thinking, 'an alternate paradigm'—that will represent the very possibility to speak about «worlds and knowledge in a different way». (Escobar, 2003).

And formulate alternatives to modernity, its civilization project, and its epistemological propositions. Significantly, it has successfully cast doubt on the criteria from which Euro-centralized modernity —with its expansionist and lineal historical development model, and its type of knowledge, based on rationality and maximization— is set as the reference for universality. Instead, they assert that modernity is a historical-cultural product based on a complex power matrix founded on the coloniality of knowledge (epistemology), understanding (hermeneutics) and being (ontology) (Quijano, 1992).

Maldonado-Torres (2007), specified that coloniality:

> Refers to a power pattern that emerged as a result of modern colonialism […] it is kept alive in learning manuals, in the criterion for sound academic work, in culture, in common sense, in the self-image of the peoples, in the aspirations of individuals and, so many aspects of our modern experience. (p. 131).

As theorized by Sousa Santos (2010), coloniality implies playing down, marginalizing, invisibilizing, or discriminating all other existing historical and cultural totalities that have their rationalities and narratives supported by specific ways of being, inhabiting and understanding. And, in the matter of our concern we include other organizational forms or practices, assuming along with Quijano (1992) that "it is necessary to let go the links between rationality-modernity and coloniality, […] which brought about distorted paradigms for knowledge and marred the liberating promises of modernity." (p. 437)

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In short: Acknowledging the epistemic coloniality of the Organizational Theory (OT) and organizational studies implies assuming that the theoretical and methodological references which we currently rely upon on studying, analyze and understand the multiple organizational practices, as abundant and varied as they may be, are limited by the determinations imposed by the Anglo-European conceptualization of modernity, defined in terms of structural arrangements focused on productivity and maximization. That such conceptual tools used -over the last 150 years- do not let us tackle, understand and characterize the multiple organizational practices, collective projects and ways of doing things with others that exist in the world and, therefore, it is necessary to make progress in the construction of a fresh approach that may allow the configuration of an alternate room for the production of knowledge to discuss "worlds and knowledge in a different way" (Escobar 2003), in order to facilitate the understanding of various organizational practices of social collectives that have as their core concern taking care of the common good, not as an asset to be managed, but as a way of life.

Hereunder we present the categories that have emerged from community considerations and practices, which will allow us to understand the organizational practices of social collectives in México and which represent political-epistemic projects excluded from the theoretical schemes of organizational modernity. More specifically, we introduce the notions of communality —created by intellectuals and activists from Oaxaca, México—and trans modernity conceived by Dussel to show the context from which they develop.

II. Approach

In this section, we will further the purpose of this job, which consists of broadening the Organizational Theory's and organizational studies' fields of knowledge to open the action-research universe towards ac know ledging the diversity of organizational practices of social-community collectives. In this way, once we have expounded the main aspects of the epistemic coloniality, we will develop the concept of organizational transmodernity, based on Dussel's proposition, and we will introduce the notion of communality as a category for analysis to understand the organizational practices of social collectives in México, within the meaning given by anthropologists Floriberto Díaz y Jaime Martínez —who respectively are of Mixe and Zapotec ethnicity from the Sierra Norte of Oaxaca, México. As we will see ahead, these authors rescue the existing elements in the collective organization in the community in a fully different sense to the western society. Lastly and for exposition purposes, we will briefly show how the components of communality hinge together in the *Red de Huertos Educativos en México* (Network of Training Orchards in Mexico).

The concept of Organizational Transmodernity that we propose is an idea-force that arises from the concept of what is transmodern, proposed by Argentinian-Mexican philosopher Enrique Dussel to frame the practices and theories:

> Which originates from epistemic traditions that belong to universal cultures that have assumed the challenge of modernity and erupt from an alternate exteriority that is always different from modernity and from European/North American post modernity, but that responds a different place, from a different location. (Dussel, 2012 in Misoczky; Dornelas Camara, 2015, p. 299).

That is to say, for Dussel (2005) speaking, about what is transmodern implies first to recognize the existence of universal cultures that stay alive and are not included in the Euro-centered modernity project. Hence, they cannot be contained in a historic, expansive, and linear development model. He underscores the fact that those cultures keep their epistemic traditions —means of understanding and knowing—which get reflected in ways of feeling-thinking and inhabiting the world, and it is based on those ways that they act in response to the challenges imposed by modernity; hence his reference to that *other place*—other cultural location—as the exteriority alternative to modernity. With that concept, Dussel points at the phenomenon of historic transversality in which universal cultures —not modern— stay alive and introduce solutions that are impossible for the modern culture alone. In the words of Ahumada Infante: "Trans modernity is a project that runs outside Modernity and Post modernity; a parallel project that originates outside Europe and the Unites States, thereby opposing the totalizing character of the modern European project." (2013 s/n)

When we talk about organizational transmodernity we point at the existence of a great diversity of organizational practices generated by the various social collectives whose characteristics are linked to cultural experiences originating each from their context, and whose core concern is neither about managing resources nor about organizing work to maximize profit, but rather, unlike the "individualistic and covetous perspective" associated to the organizational modernity described above, they fall within the field of the fight to reinforce liaisons that increase the chance to reproduce the life in common, which, in the words of Filiberto Díaz: "are not limited to human's physical space and material existence, but also [to encompases] their spiritual existence, their ethical and ideological code and, therefore, their political, social, legal, cultural and civil behavior." (2004 p.367).

Thus, by 'transmodern', we understand the organizational practices of the various collective projects have existed [and do exist] across multiple periods and

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that are formal expressions of community modes, grass rooted in the tradition of different universal cultures that places. We assert that the particularity of each of these practices needs to be recognized to understand the multiple expressions taken by long-standing organization modes, that erupt "from the alternative exteriority to modernity" with the possibility of cultural creation to reproduce the life in common, whose immense richness cannot be constrained to rationality schemes or management paradigms and cannot be understood under the tenet imposed by the theory of organization and the analysis schemes of organizational modernity.

The variety of expressions of what we here refer to as transmodern forms of organization can be appreciated in different movements and processes that run up and down Latin America, that go from the "the roofless" in Bahía, Brazil, to the "rummagers" from Uruguay, the experience in Boca Sur, Chile, to the management of water in Cochabamba, analyzed by Zibechi (2015), the autonomous experience of indigenous peoples in Cherán, to the Zapatistas in México; to grassroots neighborhood organizations in Bolivia, Ecuador, and Chile; also the Organization for the Amazon Peoples and Nasa of Valle del Cauca, of the Mapuche People, among many others for the defense of their territories, but also de creation of alternate local currencies which occur both in Medellín, Colombia, and in Buenos Aires, Argentina, or Veracruz and Oaxaca, México. Likewise, the environmental technologies locally recreated that are adapted and adopted by communities to solve social needs such as locally built bicycle machines, environmental toilets, urban orchards or, solar concentrators, as pointed out by Esteva (2012).

In all of them, a radical difference manifests itself to "the modern capitalist civilization of segregation and disconnection, where humans and non-humans, mind and, body, individual and community, reason and emotion, etc. regard themselves as separate, self-contained entities" (Escobar, 2017 p.61). And, by contrast, they constitute different political and epistemic projects in which, as stated by Rivera-Cusicanqui (Ecuador to the World 10, Nov. 2016), the community is the epistemic environment that defines the collective ways of knowing and doing in a cognitive atmosphere that recognizes the existence of subjects in the non-human world and that begins from a relation between hand, earth and brain, that results from sowing, harvesting, sharing and making rituals. These, as noted by Escobar (2017), are relational ways of being, knowing and doing, in which the existence of *something* depends from its relationship with *everything*: the Abya Yala, the Uma Kiwe, the Sumak Kawsay or the good living, that in México takes the shape of community and territory relationships to carry out a life with autonomy (Bonfil, 2003).

In this direction, we take the notion of communality as a category to introduce and characterize some of the elements that give structure to the organizational practices of social collectives in México, that seek to transform the precariousness and violence conditions by building what is common, from restructuring the social tissue and creating alternatives to have more wholesome ways of life.

It is worth noting that, as mentioned by Esteva (1212) that communality (in Spanish *comunalidad*) is, first of all, a coined word —independently by two intellectuals from Oaxaca: Jaime Martínez Luna, a Zapotec, and Floriberto Díaz, a Mixe—with the purpose of, while expressing and sharing the experience of living in a community, showing the decision "to maintain and update the ways of life and government of a communal nature, moving from resistance to liberation in their determination to transform and renounce to all forms of individualism" (p.14). In this way, the word communality has been gaining strength and, in the context of various gatherings and debates, it has developed as a concept thanks to the efforts of activists, farm workers, and intellectuals committed to the organization and as a result of the pondering about the need of maintaining and recreating life in a community and the autonomy beyond any "individualistic and cumulative perspective" associated to the capitalist western society (Bonfil 2003: 57 et seq. in Gonzáles de la Fuente, 2011: 83-84)

In this sense, it is worth mentioning that the conversation around communality is different from that of communitarianism, which originated from the critique to liberalism by philosophers and social scientists (mainly Anglo-Saxons) for whom the community is understood as "an ideal type of social relationship in which the willingness for action rests (…) on a common property (emotional or traditional) that is subjectively felt by the participants." (V. Pazé, in Castellanos 2008 p. 492). And, it disagrees with Ostrom's evocations to "what is common" which are aimed at establishing a "public-private" logic, where cooperation does not imply building liaisons of solidarity in the production and reproduction of social relationships. Instead, they are aimed at opening a space (third sector) that will allow the "successful" coordination between the economic actors and strengthening the commercial relationship under a new modality (Federici & Caffentzis 2013, pp. 83-97). The main difference between the theoretical trends of European and North American sociology and political philosophy lies in their conception of community. As mentioned by Díaz (2004):

> For a scholar or politician in the western culture, the community is no more than an aggregate of individuals, from the standpoint of their egocentric isolation, and that is how they understand the definition of 'group'. It is an arithmetic community. (p.366).

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By contrast, the idea of community present in this perspective holds what Escobar (2017) defines as a relational way of being, knowing, doing and feeling: in the words of Filiberto Díaz (2004) "the community is a series of relationships, first between people and space, than between individuals. For these relationships, there are rules interpreted from nature itself, and defined by the experience of generations." (p. 367). The rules mentioned by the author are the ordering principles that determine the relationships in the community and that encompass "not only the physical space and the material existence of human beings, but also their spiritual existence, their ethical and ideological codes and, therefore, their political, legal, cultural, economic and civil behavior." (p.367).

The notion of communality identifies the elements that make it possible and promote the existence of the community as an epistemic and political environment that enables ways of knowing and doing with others, that are radically different -and at times opposite- from the individualistic perspective, from the market / profit logic. As Martínez-Luna claims:

> We are communality: the opposite of individuality. We are a communal territory, not private property; we are collaborators*, not competitors; we are polytheists, not monotheists. We barter, we do not do business; we are diversity, not uniformity […] We are interdependent, not free. We have authorities, but not monarchs. (Martínez-Luna 2009 p.17)

(In Spanish: "somoscompartencia, no competencia." *Compartencia* is a coined word that makes the phrase rhyme).

The elements of communality that define the being, the doing and the feeling among people who share a territory, a history, a language and a way of an organization are i) the common territory made up of the land, which is understood as the nurturing mother, not as an asset or resource; hence relationships, are based not property, but on mutual interdependence; ii) the collective work is understood as a service the community (*tequio* Mexican Spanish word, originally from Nahuatl *tequitl*: tribute, work) and a reciprocity service to one another (mutual support or helping hand); iii) the assembly, as a space for participation and decision making by consensus, iv) the *fiesta* and ceremonies as an expression of the communal gift. These elements: collective work, assembly, *fiesta,* and territory are:

> The pillars, the principles, and the pathways that are not removed, nor are they located in an ideal world; rather, they shape the horizon within which the communal Us is recreated and community is constructed: «…what is taken as correct, is prescribed, remembered and executed»(Guerrero, 2015, p. 117).

In this sense, communality as a concept and the four elements that constitute it, have been adapted and adopted as a guide to action and an inspiration of various social collectives in Mexico, which, as mentioned, seek to recreate community relationships between people and nature, to build collective spaces of autonomy, and to advocate for what is common to them and as a way to prevent, confront, and revert the degradation of the social, political, and environmental tissue that, one way or the other in this part of the world, is lived as a consequence of the imposition of a political and economic model that was christened by Harvey (2005) as capitalism through is possession: A model based on an individualistic and accumulative perspective, maximization of profit and occupation (or plundering) of the common property and the communal ways of life, to convert them into merchandise. In this context, to speak of organizational transmodernity allows us to recognize the existence of social collectives: "…that are transforming their resistance to development and economical ways of life into an endeavor for liberation that takes them to claim and regenerate their community domains, and to create new ones." (Esteva 2012 p. 18)

Such is the case of the Network of Training and Community Orchards (RHEC, by its Spanish acronym) of Xalapa, Veracruz, México. It is an independent collective by activists, students, and scholars that since 2015 collaborates non-profit with various private and public schools to foster the creation of agro-environmental school orchards conceived as labs to generate community relationships, to facilitate the exchange of knowledge, and skills through collective work.

The RHEC was first configured as an independent, self-managed, open and horizontal organization whose central proposition was to operate under a reciprocity principle as a collaborative work network where all the stakeholders have something to give and take. Secondly, it promotes the collective, participative, and horizontal organization between school authorities, students and teachers to develop activities that include creating, and maintaining the agro-environmental orchard, thus encouraging the creation of spaces for discussion that facilitate the exchange of knowledge and skills and induce shared learning practices.

The collective work promoted by the RHEC in school orchards is understood as a "means for the emancipation as an activity in which each participant learns to meet different responsibilities, always within the space of the unit of consensus collectively generated." (Misoczky, 2010, p. 19). The fact that it takes place in

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traditional school institutions that are structured in hierarchical, individualized order with vertical power relations, under highly individualize denv ironments, and that an agro-environmental orchard is created under those conditions, opens a common space to establish community relationships, first between people, and later with the environment, i.e., nature. Additionally, this proposal, which together with the collective work includes the participation in the exchange of knowledge and experiences of everyone involved (regardless of their position in the school institution) transforms [momentarily] authority and tuition-learning relationships based on hierarchy, to instill collective decision-making practices based on dialogue, on commitment, work and sharing along with the above, it is working in the agro-environmental orchards introduces the cyclicality of sowing and harvesting, which encourages the creation of a new type of holiday, not found in the official calendar.

Thus, through its actions and practices, the RHEC- Xalapa, recreates "ways of being, living, understanding, talking and inhabiting a common space made a territory" (Ángeles, 2017, p. 90).And that they use communality asa structural component that articulates the various aspects "of undetermined reciprocities […] like an interdependent relationship, wherein what enables the relationship between subjects is what they can input to the common, with the common and within the common." (Ángeles, 2017, p. 90). In this direction, we will briefly describe the practices where the RHEC has adopted communality principles, as a horizon of understanding, as well as the dilemmas and conflicts it brings along:

i. The agro-environmental orchard appears in schools as a territory, as a gathering space for collective work, for coexisting and learning, where relationships are rebuilt among people (students, teachers and school authorities), and with nature.
ii. Collective work (tequio)as a service to develop the orchard and activities of reciprocity in the spaces for the exchange of knowledge and experience are promoted, as well as workshops, where RHEC members take part in the creation of new educational spaces for the community.
iii. Gatherings and assemblies are held with direct participation, where all attendees have freedom of speech, and they make decisions collectively by consensus. The distribution of tasks is associated with the work and with the ability to meet commitments.
iv. Lastly, and in the same way, a fiesta is encouraged in each community at the end of their school cycle, there is an event called *Festival de la Cosecha* (Harvest Festival); a space to get together and socialize. Among the activities that take place at the celebration are workshops, round table discussions, talks, orchard walkthroughs, artistic expressions, solidarity markets for trading and bartering, and much more. Funds come from the solidarity support from collectives that freely share their experiences and skills and access to the fiestas is free and open.

III. Conclusions

In this paper we introduce the concept of organizational transmodernity, based on the notion of the transmodern proposed by Dussel, to indicate the existence of multiple organizational practices by social collectives that link their actions and guide their efforts towards recovering, restoring and defending life spaces or community domains that, contrary to the "individualistic and cumulative perspective" associated to the capitalist western society (that finds its foothold in modernity supported by the OT and organizational studies), do not have as a core concern managingre sources, or maximizing profit, but promoting cooperation and community relationships to lead a life with autonomy.

Likewise, we start to talk about transmodern organizations to refer to the multiple social collectives with community organization modalities, whose immense richness cannot be limited to the idea of managing the common property. Instead, they show the presence and vitality of universal cultures, capable of preserving relationship forms for collectively knowing and doing. They uphold the interdependence of human beings with nature, and using the fiesta or the ritual, they contemplate their existence and the irinteraction with subjects in the non-human world. As long as they represent epistemic traditions -ways of understanding and knowing- based on community relationships that point at ways of inhabiting and conceiving the world; ways of living in the world that are independent and relational, they are part of political-epistemic projects that are different to the Euro-centered modernity project.

In this context, we introduced the notion of communality, which was independently proposed by anthropologists Floriberto Díaz and Jaime Martínez to point out the elements that are present in the organization of the community, the latter being understood very differently from what is held by the European and Anglo-Saxon scholarly traditions. It is based on a) collective work as a service to the community (tequio) and as a reciprocity service (mutual support or helping hand); b) the assembly as a space for participation and decision making by consensus; c) the *fiesta* and the ceremonies as an expression of the communal gift, and d) the territory from the land, conceived as the nurturing mother, not as a asset or resource. We show this through the case *Red de Huertos Educativos y Comunitarios* (Network of Training and Community Orchards) (RHEC, by its Spanish acronym) of Xalapa, Veracruz, México, as well as the brief description of their activities and organizational

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four elements, are working as a guide for action and inspiration for various social collectives in México.

Based on all of the above, we sustain that the conversation about the epistemic coloniality the OT and of the studies about the organization based on the scheme of modernity-post modernity "is not a mere scholarly or semantic debate, but the definition of a political project." (Esteva 2012:9). A political project that involves recognizing the various modes of a community organization that keep alive multiple ways of being and of doing with others, to transform and improve both at a personal level and as an autonomous collective (Misoczky, 2010), which is supported by the fact that the organizational fabric regulates the interactions and determines the domain of expression for the individual as he/she relates to others and the world. Therefore, recognizing the existence of other ways of an organization also amounts to discovering other possibilities of being.

In this direction, the concept of organizational transmodernity that we introduce stands for an epistemic horizon to think beyond the epistemic coloniality of the OT and the studies on the organization. And, it is an invitation to generate new knowledge based on the various political-epistemic projects that exist today in the world to redefine the elements that make multiple forms of organization that up to now have remained in the domain of the modernity-post modernity organization model.

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When Technology Transfer Enables Sales Growth

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The cross-sectional survey research design was adopted. The population was 1,150 managers and engineers of selected three agro-processing companies in Nigeria. A sample size of 675 was determined using Krejcie and Morgan formula. A proportionate stratified random sampling technique was adopted in selecting the respondents. A validated questionnaire was administered for data collection. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the constructs ranged from 0.72 to 0.97. A response rate of 93% was achieved. Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Keywords: technology transfer, sales growth, technology infrastructure, technology adoption, agro-processing companies.

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The cross-sectional survey research design was adopted. The population was 1,150 managers and engineers of selected three agro-processing companies in Nigeria. A sample size of 675 was determined using Krejcie and Morgan formula. A proportionate stratified random sampling technique was adopted in selecting the respondents. A validated questionnaire was administered for data collection. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the constructs ranged from 0.72 to 0.97. A response rate of 93% was achieved. Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Findings revealed that technology transfer had a significant and positive effect on sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Nigeria (Adj.R^2= 0.200, F (5, 669) = 34.632, $p<0.05$).The study concluded that technology transfer affected the sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria. Hence, owners and managers of agro-processing companies in Nigeria should scan for the global logistics network for innovative, new ideas and technology within and outside its ecosystem that would enhance and sustain their sales growth.

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I. Introduction

Managers across the globe are confronted with the gale of unstable business environment, product imitation, mass production, and substandard products in the market space. Achieving and sustaining sales growth by many organizations is becoming extraordinarily difficult as the competition among organizations are fierce and imitators are quick to replicate product and service innovation from other organization. Therefore, increasing sales performance requires refinement in product quality, agility in service delivery, innovation, internal flexibility, rareness, and lowest cost of operations. These have necessitated the agro-processing companies in Nigeria to shift from transaction-based business activities to value-added business activities which seems to have placed company's survival on its ability to successfully adapt and adopt the concept of technology transfer dimensions such as knowledge transfer, skill acquisition, technology innovation, technology adoption, and technology infrastructural development in response to these changes in demand.

Many scholars had conducted studies on the impact of technology transfer on sales growth in the agro-allied sector, telecommunication sector, SMEs, iron, and steel sector (Ajibola, 2016; David, Richard, & Regis, 2015; Jonathan, Cesaire, & Randall, 2017; Mappanyuki & Sari, 2017; Ngwiri, Mukulu, & Jane, 2016; Ojeaga, 2016; Safe & Ercam, 2011). However, some of the studies found a significant positive effect, while others found a negative effect. Studies on technology transfer in the agro-processing industry in Nigeria are not comprehensive enough to address the low level of investment, low technical capabilities, infrastructural development deficit, low sales turnover by local producers, and poor market share experienced in that sector (PWC, 2017; Oyeniran & Onikosi, 2016). According to Anyanwu and Kponnouon (2017), poor technology transfer between research institutions and organizations; declining infrastructural development (power) affected the operational capabilities of the agro-processing companies in Nigeria. Furthermore, policy inconsistency on tariff and importation, lack of patronage of Nigerian products by the Government at the highest-level and high taste for foreign products affect sales growth in the agro-processing sector. This gap was contrary to the Nigerian Government policy on the agro-processing industry, which states that government must protect and patronize products from their local industries except where such capabilities and products are not available locally (Oigiagbe, George, & Owoyemi, 2012). Unfortunately, government reneged on his policy and allows continuous importation of agro-products such as textile, tomato, flours milling, Wine, Fish, Process Meat, fruit juice, ginger oil, grape wine, vegetable oil, honey, pesticide formulation, rice mill, furniture's, rubbers, chemical, and many other agro-allied products, rather than patronizing Nigerian made products (Onimole & Olaiya, 2018).

Furthermore, the poor state of technology capabilities and infrastructure have affected the agro-processing industry and many other industries in Nigeria (Oyeniran & Onikosi, 2016). Report from the National Bureau of Statistics (2018) shows about N220 Billion Naira is spent annually to import Rice, Sesame Seeds,

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Crude Palm Kernel, Cashew Nuts, Fish, Wine, Soya Beams, and many other agro-allied products into Nigeria despite having arable land, good raining season, water and human capacity to process those agro-allied products (Houeninvo, 2018). In wood making and furniture production sector; Nigeria with one of the finest land that produces strong and enduring woods; harvest and export those wood to China, India and other foreign countries, and in turn import with Millions of Dollars, Doors, Tables, Bed, Chair, Paper, and other bye products of wood into Nigeria(National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2018).

Extant literature had established that technology transfer had a positive and significant influence on sales growth through technology infrastructure and technology adoption (Mappanyuki & Sari, 2017; Ngwiri et al., 2016; Okon & Abel, 2016). Evidence from Oyeniran and Onikosi (2016) study found that technology infrastructure and adoption have a positive effect on sales growth ratio measured by gross profit margin, Furthermore, Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) found a significant and positive relationship between knowledge transfer and sales growth and profitability, which is closely linked with corporate performance outcomes. However, no negative association was found between technology transfer and sales growth. Given the aforementioned problems enumerated earlier, this study investigated the effect of technology transfer (Knowledge transfer, technology innovation, skills acquisition, technology infrastructure, and technology adoption) on sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria.

a) Literature Review

The power of technology transfer to stimulate sales growth in a global business environment that is uneven has stirred academic debate. Othman, Mohamad, and Abu (2017) and The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development [UNTAD] (2014) opined that for any attempt directed towards construing the term technology transfer to be accepted, such definition must be functional rather than formal, this has accounted for the lack of consensus among scholars on a general definition of technology transfer. To aid clarity to the concept, the United Nations, in a document designed to help countries plan their technological development, has adopted a broader view of technology, referring to it as a combination of equipment and knowledge transfer for corporate performance measured in term of knowledge transfer, skill acquisition, technology infrastructure, technology innovation, and technology adoption (UNCTAD, 2014).

Adebayo, Olagunju, Ogundipe, and Salman (2017) defined technology transfer as the process by which science and technology are diffused throughout the human activity. Similarly, Murad and Thomson (2011) refer to technology transfer as the process by which basic science research and fundamental discoveries are developed into practical and commercially relevant applications and products (Sonmez, 2013). Byukusenge, Munene, and Orobia (2016) defined technology transfer as a process by which knowledge or technology developed in one place is applied and exploited in another place for some other purpose. The movement of technology, according to Bilgin, Lau, and Karabulut (2012), can be horizontal and or vertical; it is vertical when the movement is from a basic research to applied research through development and then to production. The movement is horizontal when the technology in used in one organization is moved to another organization. Also, it is widely acknowledged that most technology transfers take place through investment contracts with multinational corporations, since multinationals are the sources of most of the world's technology capabilities (Keller & Yeaple, 2009). Technology is primarily transferred in three forms. First, it can be transferred via machinery or other intermediate goods. This is normally adequate for manufacturing purposes where the nature of the technology is not complex, and where no proprietary techniques or processes are involved (Sonmez, 2013). Technology can also be transferred through individual experts. Although this technique is employed relatively often, it normally goes unpublicized (UNCTAD, 2018). Transferring technology via a competent expert has the advantage of cost-savings to the recipient, but it is generally suitable only for small and medium-sized projects where the technology is simple and unpatented. Finally, technology can be transferred through technical know-how, patented or unpatented, or other information subject to proprietary rights (Ovadia, 2013).Other forms that make technology transfer possible include joint research, cooperative agreements, licensing, technical meetings, trade shows, information, importing and exporting of technological goods and services (Lars, Enrico, & Lars-eric, 2016). However, to further elaborates on this discussion, the dimensions of technology transfer which include knowledge transfer, skill acquisition, technology infrastructure, technology innovation, and technology adoption are discussed below.

Knowledge transfer among organizations have been associated with fostering sales growth and technological advancement (Abu, Aun, & Oluwasanmi, 2018). Knowledge is considered core to managing organization (Andreea-Clara, 2015); debate on knowledge sharing within and around organization has received increasing attention in recent years. Knowledge from a broad perspective is the capability of human society (Peter, Jeremy, & Hui, 2016). Mmakgabo (2017) identified two concepts about knowledge which include knowledge creation and knowledge transfer. Knowledge creation according to Von, Ishijo, and Nonaka (2000) is

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akin to exploration, where people generate new ideas and concepts together with existing knowledge for innovation of products, services and or method. Consequently, knowledge transfer and technology transfer are used interchangeably in innovation and developmental studies (Ngwiri et al., 2016). Nonetheless, the term differs as such, ''technology transfer'' has to do with the transfer of capital goods such as machinery and equipment, in contrast, ''knowledge transfer'' has to do with the transfer of tacit and explicit knowledge such as know-how, management, and technical skill (UNCTAD, 2018).

Technology innovation according to (Berraies & Chaher, 2014; Carlos, 2013; Choi & Lim, 2017) include a new design, new systems, new applications, new market, and new operating system. Technology innovation is a process that transforms users or manufacturer ideas into outputs, which increases customer value. The ability to innovate is considered a vital aspect of any business organization (Jonathan et al., 2017). Technology innovation from the perspective of the European Commission has three definitions; it is the successful production, assimilation and exploitation of novelty in the economic and social spheres; it is the renewal and enlargement of the range of products and services and the associated markets; it is the establishment of new method of production, supply, and distribution; the introduction of changes in management, work organization, and the working conditions and skills of the workforce.

Skill acquisition is a dimension of technology transfer, and according to Santhosh (2014), is the capability to be trained on a particular task or function and become an expert in it. It is a form of prolonging learning about an event that is not inmate (Umunadi, 2010). Skill acquisition is an important strategy for an individual and the organization (Ezeani, 2015). According to Sule (2015), acquiring technology skills requires technical education, where employees are equipped with the necessary skill, competencies, and values required to succeed in their industry. Okoli and Binuomote (2015) defined skill acquisition as a form of knowledge and technical know-how transfer and the ability to adapt new method and technology in the field of manufacturing. The researchers went further to measure skill acquisition with variables such as technical skill, vocational skill, strategic skill, software application development skill, automation skill, business development skill, and intellectual skill. They argued that only an individual or group that obtained technical workforce could operate effectively. Jacqueline and Joshua (2016) emphasized that technical education contributes to creativity in the agro-processing industry in the developed countries and employees acquiring technical skills are the practical and dependable option for economic recovery and survival of any nation's economy.

Technological infrastructure is construed to entail the enabling foundation of shared technology capabilities upon which the entire business depends (Oyeniran & Onikosi, 2016). Infrastructure in this context is seen as a set of shared and physical technological resources that constitute the foundation for business applications (Ogun, 2010). Similarly, Link, Oliver, and O'Connor (2016) opined that the availability of a flexible technological infrastructure, when duly tapped into, gives an organization competitive edge, which is an essential ingredient required in the building of a sustainable competitive advantage and achieving sales growth, which accounts for the much emphasizes placed on technological infrastructure by many researchers (Othman et al., 2017). Nwankwo, Ibeta, and Nwaogbe (2013) maintained that globally, the creation and sustenance of an effective technological infrastructure has become a key requirement for venturing into business, this information dissemination and knowledge are vital in the global market.

According to Aromolaran, Akerele, Oyekunle, Sotola, and Taiwo (2017), technology adoption is the extent to which a given technology becomes accepted and incorporated into approved social practices. The criteria that could contribute to technology adoption is information, where manufacturing companies need certain information on how a technology works, where a particular data is stored, how is protected, who has access to the data, which of the data is registered and who is operating the data. Consequently, Rogers (1995) diffusion of innovation theory focuses on the adoption of innovation by individual users and the organizations and the factors that affect the rate of adoption of technology which include, relative advantages of the technology, which suggest its rate of adoption as it relates to the degree to which an innovation is perceived.

b) Sales growth

Sales growth is the dependent variable of this study, and according to Hansen and Mowen (2012), is an increase in sales from year to year or from time to time. Hansen etal. (2012) further defined sales growth ratio as a mechanism of measuring the difference in the value of sales over some time. Massem (2015) defined sales growth as a metric that measures the ability of a company's sales team to increase revenue over a fixed period of time. Similarly, Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) describe sales growth as a measurement of organization's profitability and its business performance. Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) further expressed that sales growth shows the company growth opportunities in the future. According to Jonathan et al. (2017), sales growth is a strategic indicator that entrepreneur used in making decision and measuring the ability of sales personnel over some period. The researchers went further to express that without revenue growth; business enterprises are at risk of being overtaken by

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competitors. According to Abu et al. (2018), the phenomenon of sales growth was best explained as an increase in sales, which is scored on either monthly, quarterly, and annually or from time to time. Sales growth is a yardstick for gauging corporate performance and its productivity. Researchers such as Hansen and Mowen (2012) opined that the phenomenon of sales growth connotes an upsurge in sales which may be measured annually. Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) view corroborates Hansen and Mowen (2012), understanding that firms with a history of increased sales growth rate, stand the chance of achieving and sustaining high liquidity, saving, and re-investment in assets and securities. Similarly, Massem (2015) emphasized that sales growth is believed to be influenced by the introduction of a new product line as well as the marketing strategies adapted by an organization.

In Nigeria, many agro-processing companies have closed down their business while some had been taking over by another due to their poor sales performance (Abu et al., 2018). Academic discussion has now refocused on how agro-processing companies can increase their sales performance through investment in technology infrastructure, product/service innovation, procedural innovation, and marketing innovations which are novel. Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) maintained that for any organization to achieve sales turnover, market share, gross earning and profitability, such organization must continue to be innovative in terms of their technological design, applications, systems, marketing, and operations. Similarly, Berraies and Chaher (2014) argued that the decline in many organizations sales growth cuts across developed and developing countries, and further identified strategies for strong sales growth which include increasing penetration in existing markets, extending the product line to a new complementary product that existing clients would be pleased with; focusing on new segments and targeting new export client; aggressively opening up new channels of distribution and offering new services to clients, so they become more enamored with firm products and services could increase sales.

c) Technology transfer dimensions and sales growth

Several authors had carried out studies on technology transfer and sales in the manufacturing and agro-processing industry in Europe, Asian and Africa, and found a significant positive relationship between technology transfer and sales growth (Ajibola, 2016; Adebayo et al., 2017; David et al., 2015; Jonathan et al., 2017; Ngwiri et al., 2016; Oyeniran & Onikosi, 2016; Safe & Ercam, 2011). Ngwiri et al. (2016) found a significant positive effect of technology transfer intervention on output level of Micro and Small agro-processing companies in Nairobi County, Kenya. Interestingly, the findings of Adebayo et al. (2017) corroborated Awotide et al. (2012) findings that productivity was higher among the male farmers in Nigeria than the female farmers which lead to their sales growth. Similarly, Kai (2014) found that improved quality of domestic chemical production and the acceptance of lower profit margins are the likely two most important reasons for the higher sales growth of domestic chemical companies in China. Moreover, Kathy (2017) found a significant positive relationship between penetrating a bigger market and sales growth of products innovation. Similarly, Bilgin et al. (2012) found that foreign-owned firms performed better than their domestically owned counterparts, and this finding is consistent with the findings of Kathy (2017). Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) study revealed that UK corporations owned by foreigners perform much better in terms of sales turnover compared to domestically owned firms. The findings of Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) corroborated the results of Bilgin et al. (2012) that found that foreign-owned firms performed better than their domestically owned counterparts, because of their technical capabilities.

Similarly, Da Silva, Carlos, Baker, Shapherd, and Jenane (2009) found that global trends have encouraged the growth of agro-processing sectors and offered a competitive opportunity for SMEs through the development of new and growing markets. The study further found that agro-processing companies contributes to more-efficient use of resources and offer improvements in food safety. These findings concurred with the findings of Ngwiri et al. (2016) that technology innovation significantly improves sales growth of agro-processing companies in Kenya and South Africa.

Similarly, Bilgin et al. (2012) findings are consistent with Da Silva et al. (2009) findings on competitive opportunities in the global market. Also, an empirical study conducted by David and Xionggliang (2015) found that knowledge sharing on technology activities among industries producing similar products largely improve the innovation performance of most industrial firms, which translated to their sales growth. The result of the study corroborated with the findings of Ngwiri et al. (2016). An empirical study conducted by David and Xiong gliang (2015), found that technology activities largely improve the innovation performance of most industrial firms translating to their sales growth

Theoretically, the diffusion of innovation theory supported this study and other findings from previous studies, characterized by relative advantage, compatibility, and simplicity that cumulated to sales growth (Mappanyuki & Sari, 2017). The theory further revealed that the attitude of staff in an organization remains critical, as it influences the willingness of the organization to adopt or reject technology transfer to achieved and sustained their sales growth (Byukusenge et al., 2016).

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II. Methodology

This study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design to examine the effect of technology transfer on sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria. The design was adopted because of its economic and scientific advantages, as evident in the works of other scholars (Griffee, 2012; Greene, 2008). The sector was selected due to its strategic importance to knowledge warehousing, technology innovation, dissemination, and its economic contribution to the growth and the development of Nigeria. Managers and engineers were selected from the selected three agro-processing companies (Dangote Industries Limited, Honeywell Flour Mills Limited, and UAC Foods) located in Lagos State Nigeria with a population of 1,150. The managers and engineers were selected due to their technical and operational knowledge regarding technology transfer. The targeted respondents were 675 staff of agro-processing companies in Nigeria located in Lagos State.

A structured questionnaire was adapted and its construct, content, and criterion validity were established before its usage. The construct and content validity were established throughfactor analysis by the use of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and the Bartlett tests of sphericity. The KMO test results was greater than 5% and Bartlett test of Sphericity results was less than 5% showing that statements contained in the instrument actually measured what were intended. The reliability of the research instrument was ascertained based on the Cronbach alpha measure of reliability, which is not below 0.7(Owino, Kibera, Munyoki, & Wainaina, 2014).

a) Model Specification

In order to investigate the effect of Technology Transfer (*X*) on Sales Growth (*Y*), a mathematical model was established. That *Y* is a function *X*; $Y = f(X)^n$. As such, *X*is assumed to exhibit a profound effect on Sales Growth.

Hence the model was structured as such;

$$SG = a_0 + \beta_1 KT_i + \beta_1 SA_i + \beta_1 TI_i + \beta_2 TI_i + \beta_3 TA_i + \mu_i _____ (i)$$

Wherein;

SG = Sales Growth (Y)
KT= Knowledge Transfer
TI = Technology Innovation
SA= Skill Acquisition
TI = Technology Infrastructure
TA = Technology Adoption

Therefore, Technology Transfer is hypothesized to drive Sales Growth ($p < 0.05$; will be rejected).

III. Results and Discussion

The study investigated the effect of technology transfer dimensions on sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos, State Nigeria. The respondents were requested to rate their perception of various items about technology transfer dimensions (knowledge transfer, technology innovation, skills acquisition, technology infrastructure, and technology adoption) and sales growth. The findings of sales growth (sales turnover, market share, profitability, and gross earning) was presented, compared with the findings of technology transfer dimensions.

Summary of multiple regression analysis for effects of technology transfer dimensions onsales growth of selected agro- processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria

N	Model	*B*	Sig.	T	ANOVA (Sig.)	R^2	*Adj.* R^2	F (*df*)
675	(Constant)	0.716	0.000	5.759	0.000[b]	0.206	0.200	34.632 (5,669)
	Knowledge Transfer	-0.010	0.729	-0.347				
	Technology Innovation	0.034	0.409	0.825				
	Skill Acquisition	0.162	0.000	3.668				
	Technology Infrastructure	0.170	0.000	4.177				
	Technology Adoption	0.180	0.000	4.840				
	Predictors: (Constant), Technology Adoption, Knowledge Transfer, Skill Acquisition, Technology Infrastructure, Technology Innovation							
	Dependent Variable: Sales Growth							

Source: Field Survey, 2019

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a) Interpretation

The results revealed that out of all the dimensions of technology transfer, only skill acquisition, technology infrastructure, and technology adoption had a significant effect on sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria. The results showed that skill acquisition ($\beta = 0.162$, $t = 3.668$, $p<0.05$), technology infrastructure ($\beta = 0.170$, $t = 4.177$, $p<0.05$) and technology adoption ($\beta = 0.180$, $t = 4.840$, $p<0.05$) had a positive and a significant effect on sales growth. Furthermore, the results revealed that technology innovation ($\beta = 0.034$, $t = 0.825$, $p>0.05$) had a positive and insignificant effect on sales growth, in comparison, knowledge transfer ($\beta = -0.010$, $t = -0.347$, $p>0.05$) had a negative and insignificant effect on sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria. This implies that skill acquisition, technology infrastructure, and technology adoption are important determinants of sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria.

The coefficient of multiple determination, Adjusted R^2 is 0.200,$F(5, 669) = 34.632$, $p<0.05$), which indicates that technology transfer dimensions explained 20% of the changes in the sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State Nigeria, while the remaining 80% could be attributed to other factors not included in this model. Also, the F-statistics ($df = 5, 669) = 34.632$, $p<0.05$) indicates that the overall model is significant in predicting the effect of technology transfer dimensions on sales growth. This means that technology transfer dimensions have a significant effect on sales growth of selected agro processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria. The multiple regression model is thus expressed as:

$$SG = 0.716 + 0.162SA + 0.170TI + 0.180TA \ldots\ldots \text{ eq. i}$$

Where:

SG = Sales Growth
SA = Skills Acquisition
TI = Technology Infrastructure
TA = Technology Adoption

The results of the multiple regression analysis indicate that when skills acquisition, technology infrastructure, and technology adoption are improved by one unit, sales growth would be positively affected by an increase of 0.162, 0.170 and 0.180, respectively. This implies that an increase in skills acquisition, technology infrastructure, and technology adoption would lead to an increase in sales growth of the selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria. The result shows an overall statistical significance with $p<0.05$, which implies that technology transfer dimensions are important determinants of sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria. The result suggests that agro-processing companies should pay more attention to improving skills acquisition, technology infrastructure, and technology adoption to increase their sales growth. Therefore, the null hypothesis, which states that technology transfer dimensions have no significant effect on sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State Nigeria, was rejected.

b) Discussion of Findings

The results of the multiple regression analysis between technology transfer dimensions and sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State Nigeria, are statistically significant. It means any increase in skill acquisition, technology infrastructure, and technology adoption will have a corresponding increase in sales growth of selected agro-processing companies in Lagos State, Nigeria.

Several authors in their work on technology transfer dimensions and sales growth, found a positive relationship between technology infrastructure, technology adoption, and sales growth; while other found a negative relationship between skill acquisition and sales growth, which confirmed this study results (Ajibola, 2016; David et al., 2015; Jonathan et al., 2017; Mappanyuki & Sari, 2017; Ngwiri et al., 2016; Oyeniran & Onikosi, 2016; Ojeaga, 2016; Safe &Ercam, 2011). Furthermore, technology transfer dimensions were argued to have meaningfully benefited businesses and e-commerce enterprises such as Amazon, eBay, Etsy, Newegg, Facebook, Konga, Jiji, Alibaba, and many other conventional and online marketing and sales companies across the globe and have improved production processes in the agro-processing industry space in America and most Asian countries with a significant relationship with labor productivity and sales growth (Mappanyuki & Sari, 2017; Nyori & Ogola, 2015).

Abu et al. (2018), Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) confirmed that sales growth increases economies of scale of business with a greater possibility of market share, sales turnover, gross earning, and profitability. Similarly, sales growth results in generating more profit, reduce external risks, influence market price, and increases the financial viability of an agro-processing companies.

Theoretically, the diffusion of innovation theory underpinned this study through the assumption of relative advantage, observability, compatibility, and simplicity that cumulated to sales growth (Rogers, 1995). The theory further revealed that sales growth is in tandem with the attitude of staff in an organization and such remains important to corporate performance. These assumptions were supported by Mappanyuki and Sari (2017) and Byukusenge et al. (2016) that technology infrastructure and innovation affect sales growth. Hence, the findings of this hypothesis confirmed that technology infrastructure, innovation, and adoption are useful measures to create changes in the business environment.

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IV. Conclusion and Recommendation

The study was conducted to demonstrate conceptually and empirically, the effect of technology transfer on sales growth. Pieces of literatures were reviewed on technology transfer to clarify what the term means, how it can contribute to building technological capabilities and promote sales turnover in any organization. This article outlines the various approaches that have been pursued to measure technology transfer variables gaps that exist in the agro-processing companies. Our findings support the fact that technology transfer dimensions are an important driver of sales growth and overall firm performance and should be developed and executed as an integral part of the business strategy. Managers should recognize and manage business innovations to boost their operational performance. Having a clear understanding of the exact nature of knowledge transfer, skill acquisition, technology innovations, technology adoption, and technology infrastructure will help firms to achieve sales growth and profitability.

The study recommended that an organization should invest more in developing their technology infrastructure to support their operations. Also, policy makers should address the challenges of policy inconsistency on tariff and importation, and lead by example through the patronage of made in Nigerian products.

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L'influence de la Demande de Personnalisation de La Gestion de Carrières Sur la Fidélité des Enseignants vis-à-vis de Leur Profession au Cameroun

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Abstract- This study goal is to highlight the likely impact of Human Resources management personalization oriented toward career management of secondary-school teachers loyalty in Cameroon. This study passed through two stages. Firstly, an exploratory qualitative study through an interview guide. This exploratory qualitative study permitted us to notice that teachers have a favorable opinion on having to choose their conditions of work in general and to list the axes of personalization customization that could be taken into account in teaching resources management. After that, the quantitative study was carried out, and data collection has been done through a questionnaire, on a sample of 414 secondary school teachers. These collected data were analyzed from the structural equation modeling. It shows that teachers express a demand to personalize their treatment. All this negatively affects their loyalty, in relation to their profession (organizational commitment and intention to quit). We therefore, suggest that the government of Cameroon should seek to personalize teaching staff management (in the matter of career and recruitment) to absorb perceived injustice and to boost loyalty.

Keywords: loyalty, commitment, career, teacher, personalization, justice.

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M19



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L'influence de la Demande de Personnalisation de La Gestion de Carrières Sur la Fidélité des Enseignants vis-à-vis de Leur Profession au Cameroun

Imele Tsafack Stéphanie Julienne [α] & Douanla Jean Christian [σ]

Résume- Cet article a pour objectif de mettre en évidence l'impact probable d'une GRH à la carte orientée vers la gestion de carrière sur la fidélité des enseignants du secondaire au Cameroun. L'étude s'est faite en deux étapes : d'abord une étude qualitative exploratoire par le biais d'un guide d'entretien. Cette étude qualitative exploratoire a permis de constater que les enseignants ont un avis favorable pour une gestion du personnel à la carte et de répertorier les axes de la personnalisation pouvant être pris en compte dans la gestion de la ressource enseignante. Par la suite, une étude quantitative a été menée et la collecte de données s'est faite via un questionnaire administré sur un échantillon de 414 enseignants du secondaire. Ces données ainsi recueillies ont été analysées à partir de la modélisation en équations structurelles. Il en ressort que les enseignants expriment une demande de personnalisation de leur traitement. Tout ceci affecte négativement leur fidélité vis-à-vis de leur profession (implication organisationnelle et intention d'abandon). Ceci dit, nous suggérerons à l'État camerounais d'opter pour une gestion personnalisée du personnel enseignant (en matière de gestion de carrière) afin de resorber l'injustice perçue et de booster la fidélité.

Motsclés: fidélité, implication, carrière, recrutement, personnalisation, justice.

Abstract- This study goal is to highlight the likely impact of Human Resources management personalization oriented toward career management of secondary-school teachers loyalty in Cameroon. This study passed through two stages. Firstly, an exploratory qualitative study through an interview guide. This exploratory qualitative study permitted us to notice that teachers have a favorable opinion on having to choose their conditions of work in general and to list the axes of personalization customization that could be taken into account in teaching resources management. After that, the quantitative study was carried out, and data collection has been done through a questionnaire, on a sample of 414 secondary school teachers. These collected data were analyzed from the structural equation modeling. It shows that teachers express a demand to personalize their treatment. All this negatively affects their loyalty, in relation to their profession (organizational commitment and intention to quit). We therefore, suggest that the government of Cameroon should seek to personalize teaching staff management (in the matter of career and recruitment) to absorb perceived injustice and to boost loyalty.

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I. Introduction

Les stratégies de la motivation instituées par Taylor depuis les années 1930 s'avèrent aujourd'hui insuffisantes avec l'évolution du contexte économique et démographique, l'arrivée de la nouvelle génération de travailleurs avec de nouvelles exigences vis-à-vis de l'emploi. Dans le secteur éducatif, les pertes de compétences du fait de la mobilité des ressources humaines sont considérables. Les états généraux de l'éducation au Cameroun organisés en 1995 soulignaient en matière de gestion des ressources humaines l'absence d'une politique clairement définie d'affectation, mutation et nomination du personnel (Ajountimba, 2006). Suite à ce constat, quelques recommandations ont été faites en vue de rationaliser la gestion du personnel enseignant. C'est ainsi qu'on a vu naître la publication des textes officiels relatifs à l'orientation de l'éducation au Cameroun, à l'organisation du ministère et au statut des personnels. Mais, ces dernières décennies au Cameroun, on observe un personnel enseignant en perpétuel mouvement. D'ailleurs, une récente communication[1] du Ministre des enseignements secondaires camerounais a fait état de ce qu'en 2017, sur 68000 enseignants déjà formés, 48000 seulement sont en service et 20000 disparus. Selon lui, la cause de ce problème serait la migration des enseignants vers d'autres administrations et la conséquence en est le budget d'APE élevé et la piètre qualité des enseignements dispensés par les vacataires peu qualifiés.

La question de la rétention du personnel et des raisons qui motivent les travailleurs à maintenir ou rompre le lien d'emploi n'est pas récente. La littérature

[1] Le Ministre des enseignements secondaires, son Excellence Jean Ernest NGALLE BIBEHE sur les entennes de Canal 2 international à l'émission « questions aux membres du gouvernement, Décembre 2017.

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fait état de deux courants majeurs en recherche : un premier courant de nature prédictive s'intéressant au *roulement du personnel* et un second davantage prescriptif orienté vers la *rétention du personnel*. Ce dernier courant tente d'identifier les facteurs qui lui sont déterminants afin d'implanter des incitatifs répondant aux attentes des employés dans le but de les retenir.

Nombre d'études ont été réalisées afin de mesurer le *roulement de personnel*, d'en prédire l'ampleur et de comprendre ce qui peut pousser un individu à conserver ou à quitter son emploi (March et Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, 1979; Steers et Mowday, 1981; Lee et Mitchell, 1994; Griffeth et Hom, 2001). Dans une étude menée par Maertz et Campion (1998), ces derniers montrent que la satisfaction au travail, l'engagement organisationnel, l'implication au travail, la perception des alternatives d'emploi, l'estimation des coûts dans la décision de rester ou de quitter; les pressions normatives non-liées à l'emploi; le lien moral; le contrat psychologique; et l'attachement aux constituants de l'organisation agissent comme des forces psychologiques qui agissent sur la décision de rester ou de quitter selon son entreprise.

La recension des écrits fait ressortir quatre types de variables étudiées dans le contexte de la rétention soit: celles liées à l'environnement organisationnel (satisfaction, stress, soutien, communication, participation à la prise de décision, engagement organisationnel et opportunités d'avancement), à l'emploi (perception de la charge de travail, attentes face à l'emploi, ambiguïté et conflit de rôle, autonomie, reconnaissance et développement professionnel), à la rémunération globale (salaire de base, avantages sociaux et vacances, équité salariale interne/externe, actionnariat, partage des bénéfices et autres), ainsi que celles associées à la qualité de vie au travail (équilibre travail-famille, flexibilité des horaires, télétravail et services de garderie).

À la question de savoir ce qui pourrait justifier la décision d'un salarié de rester dans une entreprise et d'agir dans l'intérêt de celle-ci, les avis semblent partagés. Plusieurs facteurs sont positivement reliés à la propension des employés de demeurer au sein des entreprises qui les emploient. De façon générale, on peut citer: un taux de satisfaction au travail élevé (Sigler, 1999), une rémunération satisfaisante (Appelbaum et Mackenzie, 1996; Heneman et *al*., 1998; Sigler, 1999), une culture organisationnelle axée sur les relations interpersonnelles au détriment des tâches (Sheridan, 1999), et un environnement de travail favorisant les opportunités de développement professionnel et d'avancement, la reconnaissance, la communication et l'équilibre travail-famille (Greenhaus,1971)

L'uniformisation des conditions d'emploi des salariés est désuète de nos jours. Les auteurs actuels pensent qu'il faut, au sein des organisations, mettre sur pied une GRH qui se rapproche du projet personnel de chaque salarié, les attentes des salariés vis-à-vis de l'emploi étant divergents.

Beffat *et al.*, (1999) l'expriment en ces termes : « *la diversité des composantes des relations d'emploi l'emporte sur la convergence d'un modèle unifié* ». Les salariés d'aujourd'hui, à la différence de ceux des années 1980, réclament plus de liberté et d'autonomie, ils désirent avoir le contrôle de leur destinée. Pour y parvenir, les organisations doivent offrir des conditions d'emploi flexibles.

Bouchikhi et Kimberly (1999) considèrent ainsi qu'il faut s'efforcer de personnaliser le milieu de travail. Ces derniers font un rapprochement entre le pouvoir de choix des consommateurs et celui des salariés. Les salariés ont de plus en plus tendance à devenir les « *architectes proactifs de leur plan stratégique personnel et de leurs relations avec leur milieu de travail* » disent-ils. Dès lors, les salariés demandent davantage de participation, de partage du pouvoir, de confiance, de flexibilité et de liberté.

Dans le cadre de cette recherche, nous sommes concernés par les relations entre le sentiment de justice/injustice organisationnelle perçu et les attitudes des enseignants du secondaire vis-à-vis de leur profession. Nous voudrons vérifier si la demande d'une gestion personnalisée des ressources humaines peut justifier le sentiment d'injustice tant exprimé par les enseignants ainsi que leur infidélité vis-à-vis de leur profession.

La suite du papier va se faire dans la logique séquentielle de la revue de la littérature, de la méthodologie, des résultats et enfin de la conclusion.

II. Revue de la Littérature

Plusieurs facteurs peuvent expliquer les attitudes d'un individu à l'égard de l'entreprise. Dans cette section, il est question pour nous de mettre en évidence les facteurs qui déterminent les attitudes au travail et les leviers sur lesquels s'appuyer afin d'en corriger les manquements.

a) Revue de la littérature théorique

En général, les salariés présentant une forte intention de départ volontaire et une faible implication organisationnelle sont ceux qui ne sont pas suffisamment motivés et donc les plus insatisfaits.

La théorie de l'équité (Adams, 1963) explique la motivation au travail par la disposition de l'individu à comparer sa situation personnelle à celles d'autres personnes. Adams cherche à préciser dans quelles conditions le rapport entre ce que fait l'individu comme travail et ce que le travail lui apporte est jugé comme équitable ou non. Il suggère que le sentiment d'équité résulte d'un processus d'échange marchand entre

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l'organisation et ses membres. En outre, cette comparaison met en jeu ce que l'individu apporte à l'organisation (inputs) en terme de performance, de niveau de formation, de compétence, d'efforts etc. et ce qu'il reçoit de l'organisation(outputs) en terme de salaire, conditions de travail, statut, reconnaissance, promotions etc.

L'individu établit le ratio Ap/Cp avec Ap = Avantages retirés de l'emploi et Cp =contribution en faveur de l'entreprise.Puis il compare ce ratio à celui qu'il perçoit concernant d'autres personnes. Si ces deux ratios sont égaux, il éprouve un sentiment d'équité et le cas échéant, il manifeste un sentiment d'inéquité, soit de sous-équité soit de sur-équité. Dans ce dernier cas, l'individu va adopter certains comportements visant à réduire le déséquilibre ou à établir l'équilibre. Il pourrait par exemple modifier ses contributions dans son emploi, quitter l'entreprise, demander une mutation ou une promotion ou encore une augmentation de salaire. Il pourrait également changer la perception de la situation en prenant de nouvelles personnes comme points de comparaison.

La théorie de la justice organisationnelle quant à elle a été développée par Greenberg en 1987. Elle ne s'oppose pas à la théorie de l'équité, mais la complète. Greenberg propose dans sa théorie de distinguer deux dimensions de l'équité dans les organisations à savoir la justice distributive et la justice procédurale ou justice des processus. Pour lui, le sentiment d'équité tel que perçu par Adams est apte à rendre compte du sentiment de justice distributive. Cependant, il propose de joindre à ce construit et à l'analyse qui en est faite le sentiment de justice vis-à-vis des procédures et des processus mis en œuvre dans l'organisation. Cette justice procédurale concerne essentiellement des processus mis en œuvre pour prendre des décisions d'attribution des récompenses tels que le système d'évaluation des performances, les processus d'avancement, les processus d'appel des décisions et processus de participation aux prises de décisions. Selon la place qui est réservée à l'individu dans ces processus, il se sentira traité équitablement ou non.

La théorie de l'échange socialdéveloppée par Homans et al. (1958), stipule que l'entreprise cherche à développer une relation durable avec certains salariés; ce qui se traduit par des relations sociales de qualité, une politique de communication et une recherche du bien-être de salariés (Peretti, 2005). Le contrat psychologique permet d'appréhender la relation d'emploi entre la personne et son organisation. Le contrat psychologique peut être défini comme « un ensemble de croyances individuelles sur les obligations mutuelles qui existent entre l'employeur et le salarié » (Rousseau, 1990). On retrouve ainsi l'opposition entre deux types de contrats à savoir le contrat transactionnel et le contrat relationnel.

Initialement élaborée par Tajfel (1978), puis reprise par Turner (1985), la théorie de l'identité socialefait ressortir la notion de prestige externe ou celle de l'image employeur qui a été définie comme la manière selon laquelle un membre d'une organisation interprète et évalue la réputation de son organisation. Cette théorie explique à la fois la fidélité d'un consommateur à l'égard d'une marque et la fidélité d'un salarié à l'égard de son entreprise.

Pour Adams (1963) qui a appliqué la théorie de la dissonance cognitive aux relations salariales, « il y a inéquité pour une personne chaque fois que ses contributions perçues, dans un emploi et/ou son revenu, est psychologiquement dans une relation inverse avec ce qu'il perçoit être les contributions et/ou rétributions de l'autre. » (Adams cité par Grard Delphine, 2010). En effet, l'individu se compare à un groupe de référence qui peut être de trois natures différentes : soit il se compare à des personnes qui occupent le même poste dans la même entreprise, soit des postes différents dans la même entreprise, ou enfin les salariés des autres entreprises. D'après Lévy-Leboyer, 2006) « un système de récompenses qui semble injuste ou peu objectif aura des effets inverses de ceux recherchés ».

La théorie du comportement planifié developpée par Ajzen (1985),quant à elle decoule d'un constat selon lequel les individus n'agissent pas toujours conformément à leurs attitudes. Son objectif est donc de déterminer les paramètres et les processus permettant de'expliquer et de prédire les comportements humains. Il s'agit en réalité d'une extension de la théorie de l'action raisonnée (TAR) de Fihbein et Ajzen (1975) selon laquelle le comportemnent découle d'une intention (motivation interne) qui à son tour est la résultante de l'attitude et d'une norme subjective. Cette norme subjective est la perception qu'a l'individu des jugements de son entourage relativement à l'adoption ou non d'un comportement. Mais, la TAR ne prend pas en compte le contrôle que le sujet pense avoir sur ses actes. La TCP vient combler ce déficit en ajoutant aux éléments de la TAR le contrôle comportemental perçu (Nohotio, 2017). Il s'agit des croyances qu'a le sujet relativement à ses ressources, ses capacités, ses opportunités ainsi que l'importance relative qu'il accorde au comportement dont il est question.

Plus récentes encore, nombre d'étude empiriques insistent plutôt sur la personnalisation de la gestion des ressources humaines comme moyen d'accroître la fidélité des salariés.

b) Revue de la littérature empirique

Selon Antoine Belot (cité par Colle, 2006), « *Gérer les salariés de façon collective, c'est nier la valeur intrinsèque de la personne. Sur le terrain, nos agents de maîtrise expriment aussi une vraie demande*

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d'individualisation. Ils veulent savoir comment leur travail est évalué ». Il s'agirait donc d'une adaptation des politiques RH aux aspirations des salariés. Désormais les salariés aspirent à être reconnus individuellement et exigent de l'entreprise qu'elle s'adapte à leurs besoins spécifiques (Legault, 2004). La logique de personnalisation irrigue les politiques d'emploi (du recrutement à la gestion des carrières et des compétences), de rémunération (individualisation des salaires et de la protection sociale complémentaire), de formation (plan individuel de formation), d'aménagement du temps (horaires personnalisés, congés discrétionnaires), de communication, etc.

Colle (2006, p.141), parle de GRH à la carte qu'il définit en ces termes : « La GRH à la carte est un mode de gestion personnalisé selon lequel l'organisation se rapproche du projet et des besoins personnels de chaque salarié en lui offrant divers espaces de choix dans son emploi ». Dans son étude, il met en évidence l'existence d'un lien causal entre la GRH à la carte et la fidélité du salarié. Pour Peretti (2009), la personnalisation est l'une des nouvelles bases des stratégies de RH dont l'approche s'explique par la diversité du personnel d'une entreprise (âge, formation, valeurs, expériences, etc.).

Stéphanie Arnaud et al (2009) insistent sur la prise en compte des émotions des salariés. Pour eux, cette prise en compte favorise la cohésion sociale des employés et améliore la performance du groupe. Ces auteurs s'appuient sur la philosophie personnaliste selon laquelle l'être humain n'est pas un être prédéterminé, mais un être autonome et responsable, qui élabore ses propres règles d'existence et ses finalités (Mounier, 1949). Dans leur étude, Stéphanie Arnaud et al. Op cit mettent en relation les perceptions positives de l'encadrement et les motivations autorégulées, avec l'effet médiateur du sentiment d'être surveillé. Ils montrent que la perception positive de l'encadrement exerce un effet de renforcement de la motivation autorégulée du salarié et que lorsque la perception de l'encadrement s'améliore, le sentiment d'être surveillé diminue.

Imène Ben Zekri (2016) montre que l'empathie du supérieur hiérarchique a une influence positive sur la satisfaction au travail.

Warr (1999)[2] avait suggéré que le fait d'avoir la possibilité de contrôle, d'utiliser ses compétences ou encore d'effectuer des tâches variées pouvait être lié aux perceptions de justice.

Caroline Piasecki (2017) a mis en relief l'existence d'une relation entre les caractéristiques des postes (autonomie dans la prise de décisions, autonomie des méthodes de travail) et les autres variables du bien-être et de retrait avec le rôle médiateur des perceptions de justice.

Colle et Merle (2007) ont distingué diverses formes de personnalisation et les ont transposées en Gestion des Ressources Humaines (GRH):

- *La personnalisation collaborative:* elle se conçoit conjointement entre le salarié et l'entreprise. Il s'agit alors d'une négociation débouchant sur un accord entre ce que le salarié souhaite et ce que l'entreprise peut proposer. Elle peut donc être qualifiée de personnalisation « au cas par cas » ;
- *La personnalisation adaptive :* elle semble davantage correspondre aux salariés souhaitant bénéficier d'une plus grande autonomie ;
- *La personnalisation cosmétique:* elle correspond à la situation dans laquelle l'entreprise propose les mêmes services à l'ensemble de ses salariés avec une présentation différente ;
- *La personnalisation transparente:* ce type consiste à offrir à chaque salarié des avantages uniques à partir de ses préférences, sans toutefois que le salarié intervienne dans le processus. Il est uniquement interrogé occasionnellement à travers des études sur ses attentes. Ainsi, l'entreprise réduit la participation du salarié tout en mémorisant ses préférences.

Toutes ces théories et travaux présentés ci-dessus permettront donc d'appréhender la relation entre le demande de personnalisation et la fidélité de l'enseignant vis-à-vis de sa profession. Ceci nous conduit à la formulation des hypothèses suivantes :

H : une demande de personnalisation exprimée par les enseignants influence leur fidélité vis-à-vis de leur profession.

H1 : La demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrières affecte négativement l'implication affective ;

H2 : La demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrières affecte négativement l'implication calculée ;

H3 : La demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrières augmente l'intention de quitter la profession ;

La vérification de ces hypothèses s'est faite à partir d'une méthodologie que nous présenterons dans le prochain paragraphe.

III. Méthodologie

Étant donné que nous sommes intéressés à connaître les facteurs conditionnant un certain aspect du comportement de l'acteur social mis au contact d'une réalité. Nous-nous servons d'un modèle interprétatif (qualitatif) où l'accent est mis sur les processus qui se développent au sein des acteurs (ici, on est intéressé par les significations que l'acteur attribue à son environnement de même qu'à ces interprétations) avant une étude quantitative.

[2] Cité par Piasecki, 2017.

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IV. Recherche Qualitative

a) Méthode de recueil des informations adoptée

Dans ce travail, nous avons préféré l'entretien sémi-directif centré comme méthode de collecte de données, car « *L'entretien semi-directif présente l'avantage d'être un instrument éprouvé qui offre une bonne garantie pour l'obtention de résultats robustes et significatifs* », affirme Colle (2006). Pour bien mener cet entretien, nous avons eu recours au guide d'entretien.

Nous voulions par cet entretien non seulement répertorier les choix dont disposent les enseignants actuellement dans leur emploi et ceux qu'ils souhaiteraient bénéficier, mais également nous cherchions à vérifier leur degré de satisfaction vis à vis de leur traitement actuel et l'impact que tout cela peut avoir sur leurs attitudes au travail. Le contenu portait effectivement sur les choix dont disposent les enseignants actuellement dans leur emploi et ceux qu'ils souhaitent davantage disposer d'une part et d'autre part leur avis par rapport à l'implémentation de la GRH à la carte et l'impact que cela pourrait avoir sur leurs attitudes au travail.

Ce guide d'entretien était constitué des questions ouvertes avec relances. Après son élaboration, nous l'avons soumis à deux doctorants qui nous ont suggéré des modifications, modifications qui ont été intégrées afin d'obtenir une deuxième version du questionnaire. Cette deuxième version du guide d'entretien a été soumise à deux enseignants pour le prétest ce qui nous a permis de modifier certains énoncés.

La version finale du guide comportait quatre phases à savoir

1) La mise en confiance du répondant : cette phase est capitale, car elle permet au répondant d'être sincère dans les réponses. Avant de commencer tout entretien avec une personne, nous commencions par présenter notre posture de chercheur et les objectifs de la recherche et de l'entretien, ce qui garantissait l'anonymat et la confidentialité des informations fournies.
2) La phase d'entame de l'entretien : la question d'entame de l'entretien consistait tout simplement à vérifier si l'enseignant perçoit qu'il a une certaine liberté de choix dans sa profession que ce soit au niveau de la haute hiérarchie ou au niveau de son lieu de service actuel.
3) Pendant l'entretien : par la suite, une succession de questions ouvertes était adressée au répondant (questions relatives aux choix actuellement disponibles, aux choix souhaités, à leur avis par rapport à l'implémentation de la GRH à la carte dans leur profession et à l'influence de tels choix sur leurs attitudes au travail). Nous utilisions constamment les questions de relance du genre « pouvez-vous être un peu plus explicite ? », « pouvez-vous en donnez quelques exemples ? », « qu'est-ce que cela veut dire exactement ? », « quoi d'autres ? », « pouvez-vous être un peu plus explicite ? ». À la fin de l'entretien, nous-nous rassurions que l'interviewé ne voit plus un autre point à évoquer, puis nous lui disions merci.

Les entretiens se sont déroulés dans les lieux de service, pendant les heures de pause. D'entrée de jeu, nous expliquions notre démarche et les objectifs de notre enquête au répondant. Notre statut d'enseignant a fortement contribué en notre faveur dans la mesure où il permettait au répondant de comprendre que nous sommes enseignant comme lui et par conséquent, indépendant vis-à-vis du MINESEC (Ministère des Enseignements Secondaires) et ses différents démembrements. Aussi, nous garantissions la confidentialité des informations recueillies. Durant les entretiens, nous avons adopté une attitude de neutralité afin de limiter notre influence sur les réponses des répondants. Cependant, nous faisions preuve d'une grande attention en manifestant des signes d'acquiescement et de compréhension et des questions de relances étaient employées afin d'obtenir des précisions de la part du répondant. Nous évitions également de porter un jugement sur le contenu du discours de la personne interviewée afin de laisser à ce dernier la possibilité et la liberté d'aborder les thèmes qui l'intéresse.

La procédure de conduite de nos entretiens ayant été spécifiée, nous allons à présent nous attelés à en présenter le nombre.

Dans le cadre de notre étude, nous avons tenu à respecter le critère de saturation. Pour cela, nous avons attendu que les trois derniers entretiens ne nous apportent plus aucune information nouvelle. Enfin, nous avons veillé à prendre en compte toutes les caractéristiques de l'échantillon (les enseignants opérant dans des zones reculées et ceux opérant dans les centres urbains, les enseignants de salle et les membres de l'administration scolaire, les jeunes et les âgés, les enseignants travaillant dans des régions différentes …).

V. Recherche Quantitative

a) Odes données

Nous avons opté pour l'échelle verbale, le questionnaire étant relativement long. Cette échelle, nous l'avons préféré de type Likert à sept points pour deux raisons. D'abord, il s'agit d'un nombre impair ce qui nous permet d'avoir un point neutre sur le continuum (ni d'accord, ni en désaccord). Deuxièmement plus le nombre d'échelons augmente, plus les capacités cognitives, d'endurance et de concentration des répondants sont sollicitées (Colle, 2006), ce qui augmente la fiabilité des réponses

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fournies. Nous avons regroupé les questions dans deux catégories de variables à savoir les variables indépendantes et les variables dépendantes. Dans chaque catégorie, nous avons rassemblé les questions en sous-groupes, chacun représentant l'ensemble des items de mesure d'un même indicateur. Ceci a été fait dans le but d'éviter que les personnes interrogées répondent à la fois aux questions liées aux variables indépendantes et aux variables dépendantes et que cela pose le problème de « common variance ».Pour évaluer la qualité de la formulation des différentes questions, nous avons procédé au pré-test. Ce pré-test s'est appliqué en deux étapes ; à la première étape, nous avons soumis le questionnaire à l'appréciation de quelques docteurs et doctorants et à la deuxième étape, nous l'avons soumis à une vingtaine d'enseignants du secondaire, un échantillon de la population cible de l'étude. Au terme de cette opération, certaines questions ont dû être reformulées, d'autres ajoutées et d'autres tout simplement supprimées.

La population cible de notre enquête est constituée par l'ensemble des enseignants du secondaire (fonctionnaires) exerçant au Cameroun, sans distinction de sexe, ni d'âge, ni de lieu de service, etc. nous avons choisi d'administrer notre questionnaire aussi bien dans les zones périphériques que dans les grandes métropoles afin d'avoir la possibilité de retrouver dans notre échantillon toutes les caractéristiques de la population cible. De même, nous avons essayé, tant que possible de parcourir la totalité sinon la plupart des régions du Cameroun dans ce même but.

Pour ce qui est de l'administration du questionnaire, nous avons combiné deux méthodes à savoir internet et questionnaire sur format papier. Nous avons d'abord commencé par internet en créant une enquête Google forms et en partageant le lien via adresses e-mail ou via Whatsapp pour ceux dont nous disposions des contacts ou sur les plates-formes d'enseignants. Mais cette approche a très tôt montré ses limites, car contrairement à ce que nous imaginions, plusieurs personnes se sont montrées réticentes au point où au terme d'un mois, une vingtaine de personnes seulement avait réagi. Ceci aurait été dû à l'exigence d'avoir premièrement un téléphone androïd et deuxièmement d'avoir une connexion internet de bonne qualité. Face à cette situation, nous-nous sommes sentis obligés d'imprimer le questionnaire sur format papier afin d'accélérer le processus, ce qui nous a permis de collecter au total 425 réponses. Mais, les questionnaires non exploitables ayant été éliminées, nous sommes restés avec 414 bonnes réponses.

b) Qualité d'ajustement du modèle

L'évaluation de la qualité d'ajustement du modèle aux données est faite au moyen de différents indicateurs dont les plus utilisés sont:

- le test du $\chi 2$: si le modèle étudié est exact alors $(n-1)F = \chi 2(DF)$ avec DF le degré de liberté égal au nombre de covariances moins le nombre de paramètres. Le modèle est considéré comme bon si $\chi 2/DF <= 3$ et p-valeur $<= 0.05$,
- GFI (Goodness of Fit Index) : à l'aide de cet indicateur, on vérifie la proportion d'information expliquée par la matrice S ; une valeur supérieure ou égale à 0.9 indiquant une bonne qualité du modèle,
- RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) : on utilise cet indicateur pour calculer la différence entre la matrice de covariances obtenue et celle de la population globale.
- NNFI ou indice de Tucker-Lewis : grâce à celui-ci, l'on mesure l'augmentation de la qualité d'ajustement lorsqu'on passe du modèle de référence (null model) au modèle étudié. On acceptera le modèle si sa valeur est supérieure ou égale à 0.95
- CFI (Comparative Fit Index) : son calcul permet de comparer le modèle étudié au modèle d'indépendance complète. Le modèle est accepté pour une valeur supérieure ou égale à 0.9.

VI. Présentation des Résultats

a) Résultats de L'étude Qualitative et Commentaires

Tout au long de notre étude qualitative, nous avons pu réaliser un total de quinze entretiens. Les caractéristiques de cet échantillon seront présentées ci-dessous.

i. *Caractéristiques de l'échantillon*

L'objectif de cette étude exploratoire ne visant pas à tester un modèle, mais à mettre en évidence les différents avis des enseignants au sujet d'une application de la GRH à la carte à leur traitement et les différents choix dont ils souhaiteraient avoir, nous avons opté pour un échantillon de convenance. À en croire Igalens et Roussel (1998), *« une recherche exploratoire comporte souvent une collecte des données effectuée sur un échantillon de convenance ou de commodité »*. Compte tenu des emplois de temps chargés des répondants, nous-nous sommes rendu dans les lieux de service par plusieurs fois afin de prendre des rendez-vous. Les entretiens se réalisaient dans la plupart des cas pendant les heures de pause ou à des heures creuses, selon la volonté du répondant sollicité. Les interviewés ont été répartis suivant l'âge, la fonction, le sexe, le statut matrimonial, l'ancienneté, le nombre d'enfants en charge.

Notre échantillon comporte deux catégories d'enseignants selon leurs fonctions à savoir les enseignants de salles dont l'action se limite à la salle de classe représentant 73.34% (soit 46.67% de sexe masculin et 26.67 de sexe féminin) de la taille de l'échantillon et les membres de l'administration dont le

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quotidien est partagé entre les tâches administratives et quelques heures de cours en classe (26.66%), soit 13.33% de sexe masculin et 13.33% de sexe féminin. De toutes les personnes interviewées, celles ayant un âge compris entre 25 et 30 ans représentent 40% de la taille de l'échantillon et celles ayant un âge compris entre 36 et 45 ans 20% contre 26.67% et 13.33% pour celles dont l'âge est compris entre 46 et 55ans et plus de 55ans respectivement.

ii. *Inventaire des choix proposés par les interviewés*

Ici, il convient de préciser que les choix évoqués par les enseignants sont ceux qu'ils souhaiteraient disposer et non ceux dont ils bénéficient déjà, l'enseignant n'étant qu'un « réceptacle » si l'on s'en tient aux propos de cet enseignant qui affirme « je ne suis pas satisfait de la façon dont je suis traité en tant qu'enseignant à cause de la privation de toute liberté, tout est assigné ; l'enseignant est tout simplement un réceptacle ». En effet, le seul aspect de la personnalisation qui soit visible dans la gestion des enseignants est le choix de la discipline à enseigner. Cependant, il est aussi prévu des possibilités de choix en matière de mobilité géographique (choix de la région du service, la possibilité de regroupement familial et la permutation) et les heures et jours de travail (au travers des désidératas) bien que ceci ne soit pas toujours réel dans la pratique. Cela est perceptible dans les propos de cet enseignant : *« l'enseignant a la possibilité de choisir la matière qu'il enseigne, sa région d'affectation, ses jours et heures de cours sur la base des désidératas. Si ces choix pouvaient être respectés ce serait une bonne chose. Mais régulièrement ils ne le sont pas surtout en matière d'affectation et de temps de travail ».*

Les choix cités par les enseignants sont les suivants:

- Choix relatifs à la rémunération
- La mobilité géographique
- La matière à enseignerLa charge de travail
- Choix en matière de jours et d'horaires de travail
- Choix du lieu de service
- Choix d'exercice ou non des fonctions administratives
- Choix en matière des heures supplémentaires rémunérées
- Choix relatif à la durée du séjour dans un lieu de service
- Choix relatifs à la carrière
- Choix relatif aux conditions de recrutement

Les enseignants affirment qu'ils disposent de quelques choix dans leur profession bien que ceux-ci ne soient pas respectés dans la réalité. Ces choix concernent la discipline à enseigner, la région du service, la mobilité géographique et les temps de travail. Ils estiment par ailleurs que si ces choix étaient respectés ils en seraient satisfaits : *« Si ces choix pouvaient être respectés ce serait une bonne chose »,* dit un enseignant. Ils respecteraient les engagements pris s'ils avaient choisi puisque chacun choisirait ce qui correspond à ses attentes : *« L'offre des choix ne serait qu'une bonne chose car chacun va choisir, contracter en fonction de ce qu'il veut ou de ce qu'il souhaite. Celui qui a choisi est content de respecter son choix, il s'attribue la contrainte de respecter ses choix puisqu'il n'a pas été obligé dès le départ ».* D'aucuns pensent même que ces choix doivent constituer une sorte de barrière à l'entrée des enseignants opportunistes : *« je serais entièrement d'accord que l'on offre ces possibilités de choix aux enseignants surtout si cela doit être fait dès le processus de sélection… Les enseignants qui ne viennent que pour le matricule, si les conditions ne les arrangent pas, vont désister ».*

Notons par ailleurs que parmi ces choix certains coïncident avec ceux présents dans la littérature (rémunération, carrière, temps de travail, mobilité géographique). De nouveaux choix qui seraient propres à la profession d'enseignant émergent cependant ; il s'agit de la charge de travail, lieu de service, matière à enseigner, exercice des fonctions administratives, heures supplémentaires rémunérées, durée du séjour dans un lieu de service, conditions de recrutement. Dans le prochain paragraphe, nous allons analyser l'impact probable de l'offre des choix aux enseignants sur les attitudes de ces derniers au travail.

iii. *Influence probable de ces choix sur les attitudes des enseignants au travail*

Les enseignants interviewés estiment qu'en leur offrant la possibilité de choisir ils se sentiraient dignement traités ce qui renforcerait les attitudes positives vis-à-vis de leur profession. *« Si je travaille dans un lieu que j'ai choisi, je serais tenue de respecter tous mes engagements puisque dès le départ j'avais le choix entre postuler et laisser »* ; telle est la réponse d'une enseignante à la question de savoir si l'offre des choix pourrait avoir un impact sur son comportement vis-à-vis du travail. À cette même question un autre de sexe masculin ajoute : *« Bien sûr. Si chacun doit être récompensé en fonction de ses efforts et sacrifices, c'est plutôt bien. Cela pourrait pousser à rester davantage dans le métier et même dans un lieu de service quelconque ».* Toutes les autres réponses à cette semblent aller dans ce même sens. C'est le cas de cet autre enseignant qui déclare : *« Bien entendu, si je sais qu'en faisant telle chose ou en me comportant de telle manière je pourrais être récompensé ou distingué, pourquoi pas redoubler d'efforts ? ».* Un autre corrobore en ces termes : *« cela va réduire l'absentéisme, augmenter la volonté de travailler, le désir de servir et même la performance des enseignants »* et l'autre ajoute : *« ce serait bénéfique pour tous dans la mesure*

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où on n'aurait plus des enseignants qui disparaissent à tout moment ».

Aussi avons-nous cherché à comprendre l'impact possible de l'offre des choix sur l'intention de départ volontaire des enseignants. La question qui a été posée est celle de savoir si un enseignant serait en mesure de quitter sa profession pour une autre qui lui offre des possibilités de choix et les enseignants répondent : *« je pourrais quitter l'enseignement pour une autre profession qui m'offre des choix à condition que ces choix me permettent de bénéficier d'une rémunération plus consistante »* dit l'un. L'autre continue en disant : *« oui il est possible que je quitte l'enseignement pour une autre profession qui m'offre des choix puis que j'y mettrais mes idées en valeur. Je serais plus à l'aise de travailler où on tient compte de mes points de vue ».* Une enseignante corrobore en disant : *« je peux quitter l'enseignement pour un autre corps qui m'offre des choix puisque je m'y sentirais traitée avec respect et liberté »*.Pour terminer, un autre déclare : *« comment ne pas ? si je dois être consulté pour toute décision me concernant dans le cadre de mon travail, dites-moi qui refuserait cela ».*

Après cette étude qualitative qui nous a permis de mettre en évidence les axes de la personnalisation souhaités par les enseignants, une étude quantitative a été menée. Les résultats de ladite étude sont présentés dans la sous-section suivante.

VII. Résultats de l'étude Quantitative et Commentaires

Afin de recueillir des données quantitatives, une échelle de mesure a été construite. Cependant, avant l'analyse de données, proprement dite, nous avons tenu à purifier cette échelle de mesure à travers une ACP. Par la suite, la validité et la fiabilité de ces échelles de mesure ont été vérifiées à travers une analyse factorielle confirmatoire. Les résultats de cette vérification seront présentés ci-dessous.

a) Analyse factorielle exploratoire

Cette analyse va être effectuée sur l'ensemble des variables de l'étude.

i. *Demande de personnalisation*

Nous avons observé un indice KMO de 0,712, ce qui est bon. De même, le test de sphéricité de Bartlett pour est significatif (0.000). Tout ceci nous permet d'affirmer que toutes les conditions nécessaires à la réalisation d'une ACP sur cette variable sont remplies. *L'alpha de cronbach pour variable est de 0.736,* ce qui nous permet d'affirmer que ces résultats sont tous acceptables l'interprétation des axes factoriels retenus. Finalement, des 9 items retenus initialement pour ce facteur, l'AFE n'en retient que 5. Cette échelle issue de l'AFE se présente comme ci-dessous (tableau 3).

Tableau 1: Echelle retenue pour la mesure de la GRH à la carte

Facteur (choix relatifs à la carrière)	
choicar4	J'aimerais que l'on m'offre des espaces de choix en matière de mobilité (horizontale et verticale).
choicar3	Je souhaiterais avoir un mot à dire en ce qui concerne mon évolution de carrière.
choicar5	J'aimerais pouvoir bénéficier d'une mobilité géographique si je le souhaite.
choicar1	Je préfèrerais que l'on m'offre des espaces de choix en ce qui concerne ma carrière.
choicar9	Je choisirais de prendre ma retraite plus tôt si l'occasion m'était donnée.

[Source : auteur.]

ii. *mplication dans la profession*

La variable implication dans la profession fournit un indice KMO de 0,616 et une signification de Bartlett de 0,000 ce qui est bon. Le facteur « implication calculée » affiche un alpha de Cronbach de 0,700 ce qui est bon tandis que le second facteur (implication affective) affiche un alpha de Cronbach de 0,537, ce qui est relativement bon si l'on s'en tient aux affirmations de Cortina op cit. Finalement, nous n'avons plus que deux axes factoriels au lieu de trois comme on peut le constater ci-dessous.

Tableau 2: Échelle de mesure retenue pour l'implication vis-à-vis de la profession

Facteur 1 (implication calculée)	
impcalp1	Je suis effrayé(e) par ce qui pourrait m'arriver si je quittais mon métier sans en avoir un autre en perspective.
Impcalp2	Il me semble très dur de quitter ma profession même si je le voulais.
Impcalp3	Trop de choses seraient perturbées dans ma vie si je quittais ma profession maintenant.
Facteur 2 (implication affective)	
impafp6	Je me sens émotionnellement lié(e) à l'enseignement.
Impafp7	L'enseignement signifie énormément pour moi sur le plan affectif.

[Source : auteur.]

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iii. *Intention de départ de la profession*

L'indice KMO s'élève à 0,886 et le test de spécificité de Bartlett à 0,000 ce qui nous permet d'affirmer que toutes les conditions nécessaires pour la réalisation de l'ACP sur la variable « intention de départ » sont remplies. Un alpha de Cronbach de 0,856 a été observé pour cette variable ce qui est très bon. Finalement, cette variable présente un seul axe factoriel comme au départ, mis avec sept items au lieu de huit comme on peut le constater dans le tableau suivant.

Tableau 3: Echelle retenue pour la mesure de l'intention de départ volontaire

	FACTEUR UNIQUE (intention de départ volontaire)
intenp1	J'ai l'intention de quitter l'enseignement dans un futur proche.
Intenp2	Je ne crois pas pouvoir rester enseignant toute ma vie.
Intenp3	Je pense souvent quitter l'enseignement.
Intenp4	Je recherche activement un travail en dehors de l'enseignement.
Intenp5	Je pense sérieusement à quitter l'enseignement.
Intenp6	Dès que j'aurai trouvé mieux, je quitterais l'enseignement.
Intenp7	Je recherche activement les possibilités de détachement

[Source: auteur.]

Après cette analyse factorielle exploratoire, une analyse factorielle confirmatoire a été menée. C'est ce qui sera l'objet du paragraphe suivant.

b) Analyse factorielle confirmatoire

Comme précédemment, cette autre analyse concerne l'ensemble des variables de l'étude.

i. *AFC pour l'implication dans la profession*

Les résultats du test de normalité renseignent que les distributions de tous les items de l'implication vis-à-vis de la profession présentent des coefficients d'asymétrie acceptables (compris entre -2 et +2). En revanche, les trois items de l'implication calculée (impcalp1, impcalp2 et impcalp3) sont asymétriques à droite (coefficients d'asymétrie positifs) tandis que ceux de l'implication affective ont des distributions asymétriques à gauche (coefficients d'asymétrie négatifs).Pour ce qui est de la mesure de l'aplatissement, tous les coefficients d'aplatissement sont bons (compris entre -2 et +2). Les distributions des items de l'implication calculée sont leptocurtiques (coefficients d'aplatissement négatifs) tandis que celles des items de l'implication affective sont platycurtiques (coefficients d'aplatissement positifs).

Ici, nous avons comparé trois modèles : le modèle bidimensionnel issu de l'ACP, le modèle unidimensionnel et le modèle tridimensionnel. Au sorti de cette comparaison des, les indices d'ajustement du modèle bidimensionnel retenu dans l'ACP sont meilleurs, comparés à ceux des modèles unidimensionnel et tridimensionnel. En effet, le X^2/ddl du modèle bidimensionnel est le plus petit de tous (4.329 contre 4.522 et 6.953), ce qui fait bon signe. De même, le GFI, l'AGFI, le TLI et le CFI de ce modèle sont tous supérieur à 0,90 (0.980, 0.940, 0.911, 0.956 respectivement) contrairement à ceux des deux autres modèles, ce qui est satisfaisant. Le RMSEA du modèle bidimensionnel est inférieur à 0,8 (0.090) et son AIC, le plus petit de tous (41.647 contre 895.394 et 570.855), ce qui est bon. Tous les rhô sont supérieurs à 0,5 (0.692 et 0.650 pour l'implication calculée, 0.542 et 0.586 pour l'implication affective) et au rhô de validité discriminante (0,0036). Ceci nous permet de confirmer l'échelle de mesure de l'implication organisationnelle issu de l'ACP et validé au début de cette analyse confirmatoire.

ii. *AFC pour l'intention de quitter la profession*

Tous les items retenus pour la mesure de l'intention de quitter l'enseignement présentent de bons indices d'aplatissement et d'asymétrie (coefficients compris entre -2 et +2). Sur sept items, quatre (itenp1, intenp3, intenp4 et intenp7) présentent des distributions asymétriques à droite (coefficients d'asymétrie positifs) et les trois autres (intenp5, intenp6 et intenp8) les distributions asymétriques à gauche (coefficients d'asymétrie négatifs). Par contre, toutes les distributions sont platycurtiques (coefficients d'aplatissement négatifs).

Pour le cas de l'intention de départ volontaire, un seul modèle est représenté contrairement aux cas précédent. Cela est dû au fait que le modèle issu de l'ACP coïncide avec le modèle unidimensionnel issu de la littérature. Tous les indices d'ajustement du modèle aux données sont significatifs, c'est à dire GFI, AGFI, TLI, CFI tous supérieurs à 0.9 (0.970, 0.940, 0.952, 0.968 respectivement) et RMSEA inférieur à 0.8 (0.076). X^2/ddl s'élève à 3.384, soit supérieur à 2 mais reste inférieur à 5 et donc satisfaisant si l'on s'en tient à Colle 2006. Nous pouvons donc valider l'échelle de mesure de l'intention de départ volontaire issue de l'ACP sous réserve d'une vérification. L'échelle de mesure de l'intention de départ de la profession telle que spécifiée au niveau de l'ACP est valide et fiable dans la mesure où tous les coefficients rhô de Jöreskog (de fiabilité interne et de validité convergente) sont supérieurs à 0,5 (0.779 et0.787 respectivement), ce qui est très bon. Ceci nous permet donc de confirmer l'échelleissue de l'ACP.

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iii. *AFC demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrières*

Les sorties de machine pour cette analyse présentent les coefficients d'asymétries et d'aplatissement tous acceptables pour l'ensemble des items retenus. On peut aussi y constater que la distribution dans son ensemble est asymétrique à gauche. Par contre, pour ce qui est de l'aplatissement, sur neuf items, sept (choicar1, choicar3, choicar4, choicar5, choicar3, choicar9, choicar4) présentent des distributions leptocurtiques contre deux (choicar9 et choiRcru5) ayant des distributions platycurtiques.

Deux modèles sont en comparaison ici : le modèle bidimensionnel corrélé issu de l'ACP et le modèle unidimensionnel. Comparé au modèle unidimensionnel, le modèle bidimensionnel présente de très bons indices (GFI, AGFI, TLI, CFI supérieurs à 0.9 (0.988, 0.968, 0.987, 0.975 respectivement) ; RMSEA inférieur à 0,8 (0.047) et AIC le plus petit (41.219 contre 1262.341). Ceci nous permet donc de conclure une fois de plus que ce modèle doit être validé pour la suite des analyses. Les rhôs étant tous supérieurs à 0,5 (0.612 et 0.586 respectivement). On peut conclure que l'échelle de mesure issue du modèle corrélé de l'ACP reste la meilleure pour mesurer la gestion de carrière à la carte. Ainsi, nous avons par cette analyse confirmatoire qui vient de s'achever, passé en revue tous les instruments de mesure de notre recherche. Synthèse des résultats obtenus sera présentée dans le tableau suivant.

Tableau 4: Synthèse de l'analyse confirmatoire des échelles de mesure

Intitulée de l'échelle	Nombre d'items	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	Fiabilité	Validité
Implication organisationnelle (2 dimensions)								
Implication calculée	3	0,980	0,940	0,090	0,911	0,956	0,692	0,650
Implication affective	2							
Intention de quitter (1 dimension)	7	0,970	0,940	0,076	0,952	0,968	0,779	0,787
GRH à la carte (1 dimension)								
Choix relatifs à la carrière	5	0,988	0,968	0,047	0,987	0,975	0,612	0,586

[Source: auteur.]

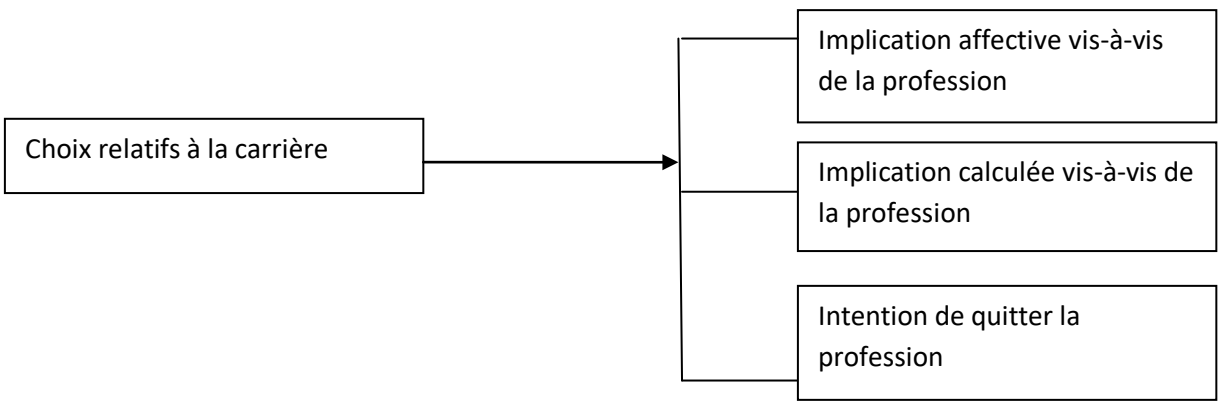
Après avoir vérifié la fiabilité et la validité de nos différents instruments de mesure, nous pourrions désormais les utiliser pour tester notre modèle de recherche. C'est ce qui fera l'objet du paragraphe suivant.

c) *Test de l'influence directe du désir de choisir sur la fidélité des enseignants*

Conformément aux quatre étapes proposées par Baron et Kenny, la première étape consiste à tester les relations directes entre les variables indépendantes et les variables dépendantes.

i. *Test de l'influence des choix relatifs à la carrière sur la fidélité des enseignants*

Pour les choix relatifs à la carrière, nous avons testé un premier modèle avec toutes variables à expliquer à savoir l'implication vis-à-vis de la profession (affective et calculée) et l'intention de quitter la profession tel qu'il se manifeste à travers la figure ci-contre.



[Source: auteur.]

Figure 1: Modèle d'analyse de l'influence des choix relatifs à la carrière sur la fidélité des enseignants

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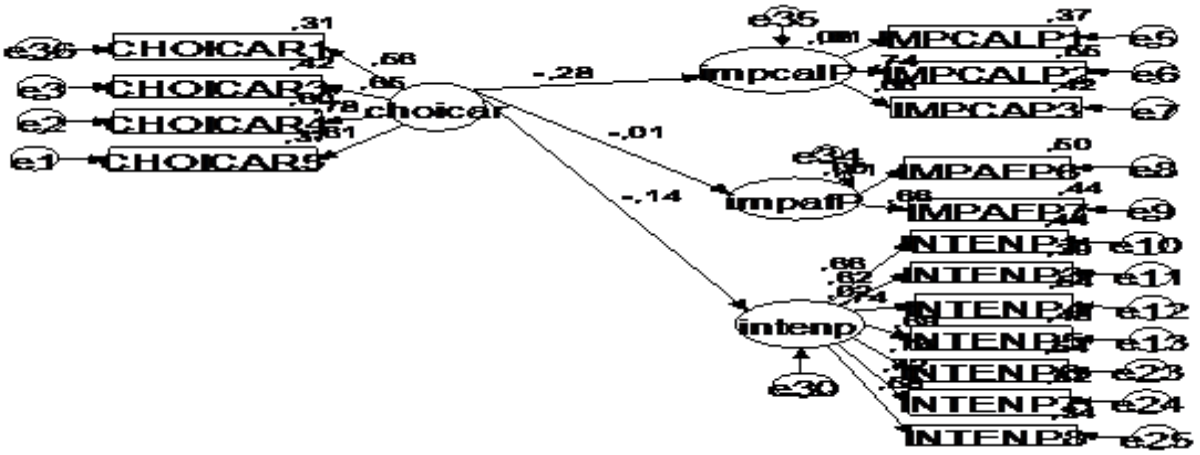
d) Modèle initial avec toutes les dimensions de la fidélité

❖ Étude de la significativité des corrélations.

Les résultats de ce premier modèle ont révélé une corrélation non significative entre les choix relatifs à la carrière et l'implication affective avec un R^2 nul malgré l'absence de variances négatives et de bons indices d'ajustement du modèle aux données. La figure 4-9 et le tableau 80 ci-contre en sont des illustrations telles que sorties de l'ordinateur.



[Source: auteur.]

Figure 2: Résultats du test du modèle initial de l'influence de la demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrière sur la fidélité des enseignants vis-à-vis de la profession

Tableau 5: Significativité des relations

	Implication affective				Implication calculée				Intention de départ			
	Estim.	S.E	C.R	P	Estim.	S.E	C.R	P	Estim.	S.E	C.R	P
choicar	-0,018	0,091	-0,194	0,846	-0,471	0,122	-3,874	0,000	-0,235	0,102	2,296	0,022
R^2	0,000				0,177				0,120			
Standardized regression weights	-0,014				-0,278				-0,141			

[Source: auteur.]

NB :Les chiffres en gras représentent les relations significatives

❖ Vérification de l'ajustement

Tableau 6 : Indices d'ajustement

X^2/ddl	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	AIC
2,408	0,926	0,903	0,058	0,908	0,921	313,983

[Source: auteur.]

Au regard du tableau ci dessus, tous les indices d'ajustements du modèle sont significatifs. Forts de cela, nous rejetons l'hypothèse *H1 : La demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrières affecte négativement l'implication affective ;* et envisageons un nouveau modèle sans l'implication affective.

e) Modèle sans implication affective

Les résultats de cette seconde analyse sont exprimés par la figure 3 et les deux tableaux qui suivent.

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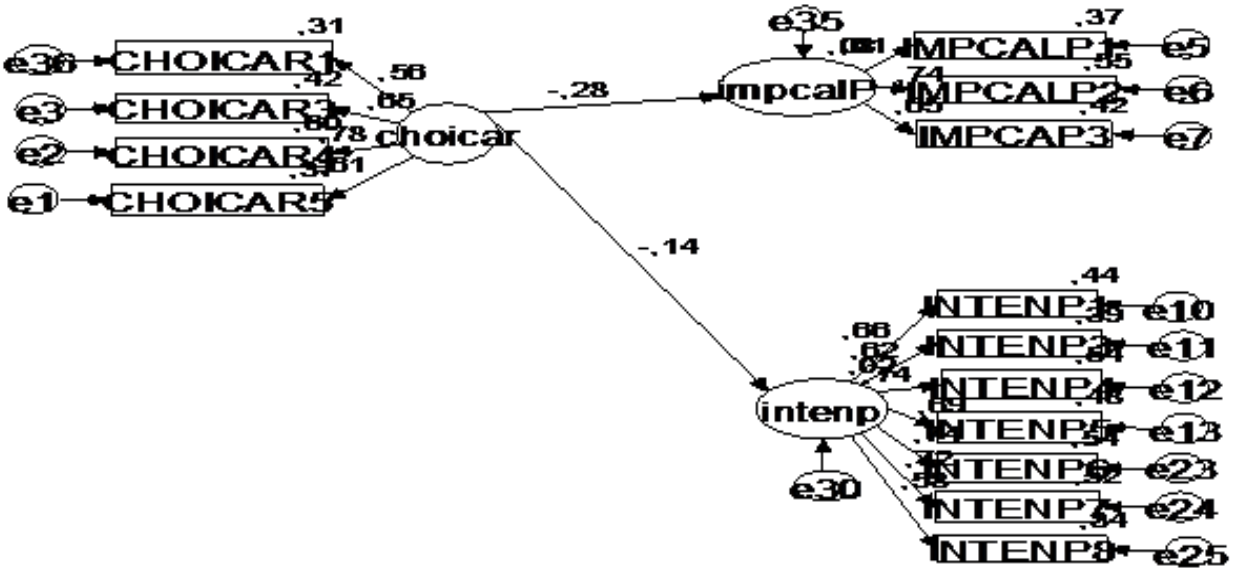
Figure 3: Résultats du test du modèle de l'influence de la demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrière sur la fidélité des enseignants vis-à-vis de la profession sans l'implication affective



[Source: auteur.]

Figure 4-1 : Modèle d'analyse de l'impliction sans l'implication affective.

Le tableau suivant présente la significativité des différentes relations

❖ *Significativité des relations*

Tableau 7: Significativité des relations

	Implication calculée				Intention de départ			
	Estim.	S.E	C.R	P	Estim.	S.E	C.R	P
choicar	-0,472	0,122	-3,877	0,000	-0,234	0,102	2,282	0,022
R^2	0,177				0,120			
Standardized regression weights	-0,278				-0,140			

[Source: auteur.]

Le tableau ci-dessus présent les tests t de Student significatifs entre le souhait de disposer des choix en matière de carrière et l'implication calculée (au seuil de signification de 1%) d'une part et l'intention de départ volontaire (au seuil de signification de 5%) d'autre part. cela signifie que le désir de personnalisation de la gestion de carrière exprimé par les enseignants évolue en sens inverse avec l'implication calculée et l'intention de quitter la profession. Autrement dit, plus le désir de personnalisation de la carrière se fait sentir, moins est son implication calculée vis-à-vis de sa profession.

De même, malgré l'expression d'une demande de personnalisation de la carrière, les enseignants manifestent une intention moindre de quitter la profession. Pourtant, notre étude exploratoire révèle que les enseignants sont prêts à abandonner l'enseignement pour un autre métier qui leur offrirait des possibilités de choisir. Cette situation traduit donc tout sauf la fidélité puis que cette intention de rester est accompagnée d'une diminution de l'implication. Il y a donc une insatisfaction, mais qui n'entraîne guère une intention d'abandonner la profession. Ceci peut s'expliquer d'une part par le contexte actuel marqué par un manque d'opportunités et le chômage. De plus à en croire Meyssonnier 2005, un salarié peut s'attacher à son entreprise à long terme soit par ce qu'il le veut soit par ce qu'il est obligé. Il y a donc ici trois possibilités:

- Soit il s'agit de la rétention qui résulte d'un attachement stimulé principalement par un raisonnement ou un calcul personnel de la part de l'enseignant. C'est-à-dire que l'enseignant désire rester dans la profession pour les avantages qu'il y tire.
- Soit il s'agit du dévouement qui correspond à une sorte de conscience professionnelle de l'enseignant. Ce dernier reste dans la profession par ce qu'il perçoit des barrières au changement, barrières perçues par l'enseignant comme étant importantes pour lui. L'engagement décennal[3] pris en début de carrière chez les enseignants du secondaire en est un exemple.

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- Soit il s'agit tout simplement de l'inertie selon laquelle l'enseignant ne ressent ni liberté de choix à maintenir la relation, ni une forte adhésion aux valeurs de l'enseignement. Il semble s'y être attaché au fil du temps par habitude et par facilité. Il s'agit dans ce cas de ce que l'on pourrait qualifier de « passivité » car l'enseignant se maintient dans sa profession tout simplement parce que tout changement suppose des efforts.

Cette situation est également assimilable à celui que Maugeri (2008) qualifie d'« exploiteur heureux » qui malgré une insatisfaction ressentie, fait voir à tout le monde comment il est satisfait de son sort au sein de l'organisation ; son travail l'intéresse pour les avantages qu'il en tire, il exploite ceux qui le paient. Il réussit à s'en tirer à l'aide de son attitude positive car il sait manipuler ceux qui l'entourent.

Il peut également s'agir d'un « exploiteur malheureux ». Celui-ci s'en sort généralement très mal car non seulement il ne produit rien, mais en plus il critique constamment. Il est insatisfait de sa situation et réduit ainsi ses efforts au minimum. Il reste au sein de l'organisation par manque d'opportunités ou par facilité.

En plus, le matricule qui accompagne l'entrée dans la profession d'enseignant procure à l'enseignant une certaine sécurité de l'emploi, un emploi à vie qu'il n'aura pas toujours la chance d'avoir s'il venait à quitter l'enseignement.

Le tableau suivant nous présente les indices d'ajustement du modèle aux données.

❖ *Mesure de l'ajustement*

Tableau 8: Indices d'ajustement du modèle

X^2/ddl	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	AIC
1,856;	0,954	0,935	0,046	0,953	0,961	199,195

[Source: auteur.]

Ce modèle semble mieux s'ajuster aux données dans la mesure où non seulement il présente de bons indices d'ajustement, mais aussi son AIC est inférieur à celui du modèle initial. Nous validons ainsi les hypothèses

H2 : La demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrières affecte négativement l'implication calculée ;
H3 : La demande de personnalisation de la gestion de carrières augmente l'intention de quitter la profession.

Notre hypothèse générale H : une demande de personnalisation exprimée par les enseignants influence leur fidélité vis-à-vis de leur profession est donc partiellement validée.

f) Implications managériales de l'étude

En matière de gestion de carrière, nous suggérons au gouvernement camerounais que le profil de carrière des enseignants soit élaboré et vulgarisé afin que nul ne l'ignore. Que les conditions d'évolution dans la carrière soient clairement précisées afin qu'en se conduisant d'une certaine façon, l'enseignant sache à quoi il s'attend. Possibilité devra de ce fait être accordée à l'enseignant d'aspirer à une évolution et d'influencer cette décision. On pourrait de ce fait instituer un certificat de bonne conduite renouvelable annuellement et délivré par la hiérarchie directe de l'enseignant. Ce certificat de bonne conduite devra être joint au dossier en cas d'aspiration à une évolution ou à une promotion. L'enseignant devra également être situé à chaque niveau de sa carrière, c'est-à-dire savoir ce qu'il va devenir après cinq ans, dix ans, quinze ans, vingt ans etc. en cas de bonne conduite.

L'enseignant devra tout de même pouvoir bénéficier d'une mobilité géographique en cas de besoin exprimé. Mais cette mobilité doit être encadrée pour éviter le désordre. L'enseignant pourra pour ainsi dire opérer trois propositions de choix de destination (premier choix, deuxième choix et troisième choix). Un choix ne devrait lui être accordé que si l'on y constate un poste vacant après analyse ; ceci permettrait d'éviter de créer un vide dans son lieu de départ pour un surplus dans son lieu de destination.

Il devra aussi être accordé à l'enseignant la possibilité de prolonger sa date de départ à la retraite ou de bénéficier d'une retraite anticipée si besoin exprimé. En effet, on a constaté sur le terrain que certain enseignant ayant déjà pris la retraite, reste comme des enseignants vacataires et servent même avec beaucoup de vigueur et d'ardeur que certains jeunes enseignants. Par contre d'autres après environ dix ans de services se sentent déjà épuisés et affichent des comportements de retraits alors qu'ils ont encore plusieurs années de services devant eux. Les résultats de cette étude telle qu'il en ressort de l'AFE et de l'AFC viennent encore nous confirmer cela.

Et pour terminer, l'objectif étant de fidéliser les enseignants, les qualifications académiques complémentaires des enseignants doivent être reconnues et revalorisées tout en les maintenant dans la profession. Les PLEG Docteur (professeurs des lycées d'enseignement général titulaires d'un doctorat phd) peuvent par exemple être reconnus comme tels et se voir accordés quelques privilèges incitatifs afin de limiter

[3] L'entrée dans le métier d'enseignant (du secondaire) au Cameroun est sanctionnée par un engagement à servir la nation au mois pendant dix ans.

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leur intention de migrer vers d'autres administrations car il est plus coûteux de recruter un nouvel employé que de fidéliser un ancien.

VIII. Conclusion

Parvenus au terme de notre réflexion, nous pouvons dit sans hésitation que les différents objectifs qui lui ont été assignés sont atteints. Il était question pour nous de vérifier l'existence réelle d'une demande de personnalisation de la GRH exprimée par les enseignants du secondaire en contexte camerounais et de montrer l'impact d'une telle demande sur la fidélité de ces derniers.

Pour ce faire, à partir d'une étude qualitative exploratoire conduite sur la base d'un guide d'entretien exploité sur un échantillon de 15 enseignants, nous avons pu mettre en évidence, non seulement les avis des enseignants quant à une gestion personnalisée de leur personnel et son impact sur leur fidélité ; mais aussi les principaux axes de la personnalisation pouvant être pris en considération dans la gestion dudit personnel. Enfin de compte, un axe de la personnalisation a retenu notre attention : l'offre des choix en matière de carrière. Cet axe a été exploré dans les études quantitatives sur la base d'un questionnaire administré sur 414 enseignants en vue de mettre en relief leurs différents impacts sur la fidélité des enseignants dans le cadre d'un lien direct. Pour ces études quantitatives, la modélisation en équations structurelles a servi de cadre analytique.

Les résultats de cette seconde étude ont révélé l'existence d'un lien direct entre une demande de personnalisation exprimée par les enseignants et leur fidélité vis-à-vis de leur profession. Ceci dit, nous avons constaté que l'absence de la possibilité pour les enseignants d'effectuer un certain nombre de choix en ce qui concerne la gestion de leur carrière impacte négativement leur implication calculée vis-à-vis de leur profession. Ce résultat est conforme à ce qui affirmé dans la littérature, notamment dans l'étude de Colle (2006) lorsqu'il montre qu'en donnant au salarié la possibilité de choisir, ce dernier ressent un sentiment d'autodétermination, sentiment qui agit favorablement sur sa fidélité au travail. Par contre, contrairement à ce qui a été démontré dans la littérature, nous avons constaté certes un lien direct entre l'absence de possibilité de choisir en matière de gestion de carrières et l'intention de quitter la profession, mais ces deux variables évoluent dans le même sens. Il s'agit ici d'un cas atypique dans la mesure où on se serait attendu à ce que ces deux variables évoluent en sens contraire. Ceci peut se justifier par la sécurité de l'emploi que procure le statut d'enseignant fonctionnaire ou par le fait que l'employé se trouve dans une situation où il est difficile pour lui d'obtenir un autre emploi qui lui procure les mêmes avantages. Il n'est donc point question de fidélité, mais de retention.

La même thématique pourrait être abordée dans un travail ultérieur en y incluant les autres possibilités de choix soulevées par les enseignants lors des entretiens afin de mesurer la contribution de tels choix dans l'amélioration des résultats obtenus dans ce travail.

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Acknowledgments

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Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
- Line spacing of 1 pt.
- Large images must be in one column.
- The names of first main headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman font, capital letters, and font size of 10.
- The names of second main headings (Heading 2) must not include numbers and must be in italics with a font size of 10.

Structure and Format of Manuscript

The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
f) Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

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k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

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The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

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One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, “What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?” Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

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Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

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Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

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11. Pick a good study spot: Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

12. Know what you know: Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

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Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

14. Arrangement of information: Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

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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:

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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.

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

Mistakes to avoid:

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- 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).
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- Use past tense to describe specific results.
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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.

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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.

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- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

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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.

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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.

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

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- 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.

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- 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.

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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.

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- 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:

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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

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