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The Role of Leadership in Implementing Digital Transformation in Traditional Brazilian Companies

By Wendell Maurício de Lima Queiroz & José Gaspar Nayme Novelli

Centro Universitário IESB

Abstract- The text deals with the challenge of managers in performing digital transformation in medium and large companies, born and successful in the context of the analog world. Digital Transformation (DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION) has started to take on strategic contours, no longer being solely linked to modernization and adaptation but becoming a matter of vital strategic positioning for various types and formats of organizations. This process is being driven thanks to the high availability of internet access, the capacity to process and store information, the connection of people in the *online* world, and the new ways of communicating and relating among people. At the center of this journey is the leader, more specifically the *c-level* and directors, who have the role of leading this movement in their organizations and with their followers, partners, shareholders, and society. To this end, we developed a model of categories and subcategories of competencies necessary for the implementation of DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION in traditional organizations of medium and large size in Brasilia, Brazil. The research used coding techniques extracted from the NVIVO 11 application as a data analysis strategy, with the objective of finding patterns in the collected data.

Keywords: digital transformation, digital culture, digital mindset, leadership, competence.

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The Role of Leadership in Implementing Digital Transformation in Traditional Brazilian Companies

Wendell Maurício de Lima Queiroz [α] & José Gaspar Nayme Novelli [σ]

Abstract- The text deals with the challenge of managers in performing digital transformation in medium and large companies, born and successful in the context of the analog world. Digital Transformation (DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION) has started to take on strategic contours, no longer being solely linked to modernization and adaptation but becoming a matter of vital strategic positioning for various types and formats of organizations. This process is being driven thanks to the high availability of internet access, the capacity to process and store information, the connection of people in the *online* world, and the new ways of communicating and relating among people. At the center of this journey is the leader, more specifically the *c-level* and directors, who have the role of leading this movement in their organizations and with their followers, partners, shareholders, and society. To this end, we developed a model of categories and subcategories of competencies necessary for the implementation of DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION in traditional organizations of medium and large size in Brasilia, Brazil. The research used coding techniques extracted from the NVIVO 11 application as a data analysis strategy, with the objective of finding patterns in the collected data. The result allowed the survey of the degree of maturity of the development of leadership competencies in the companies surveyed, enabling the design of the roadmap of actions necessary for the success of Digital Transformation. This model can serve as a basis for other traditional organizations that intend to evolve their own digital transformation models.

Keywords: digital transformation, digital culture, digital mindset, leadership, competence.

I. Introduction

Digitalization reshapes the competitive landscape in several businesses (Downes and Nunes, 2013; Lansite and Lakhani, 2014; Facin, Barbosa, Matsumoto, Cruz & Salerno, 2022) and has become a critical aspect of executive management (Yokoi, Shan, Wade & Macaulay, 2019; Fernandes-Vidal, Perroti, Gonzalez & Gasco, 2021). According to Martins, Dias, Castilho & Leite. (2019), leading companies in digital maturity in Brazil have achieved an EBITDA growth rate up to 3 times higher than other companies.

There is a difference between starting businesses in the digitized framework, as occurs in startups, and performing transformations in traditional companies, established in organizational culture with analog DNA (Rogers, 2019; Waengertner, 2018; Alnuaimi, Singh, Ren, & Budhwar, 2022; Cortellazzo, Bruni, & Zampieri, 2019). While executives at traditional companies consider the urgency to reconfigure their business model digitally, the ability to respond to the transformation varies significantly given the profile and preparedness of the leadership and their strategic vision in this regard (Kane, Palmer, Phillips & Kiron, 2015; Correani, De Massis, Frattini, Petruzzelli & Natalicchio, 2020; Uchihira and Eimura, 2022).

Traditional companies are characterized in this study as those created in the last century, with continuous improvements in their process instead of stimulating more structural changes through innovation, a vertical hierarchy of subordination, and low learning capacity through experimentation (Ries, 2019). On the other hand, digital companies stand out for their ability to manage data and information, innovation practices, and value generation (Rogers, 2019), with the identification of the human factor as essential in the process of leveraging the business (Matt, Hess, & Benlain, 2015; Kamales, 2023).

Thus, we propose to analyze the role of leadership in the digital transition of traditional organizations in business transformation in Brazilian companies from a set of categories that guide the development of organizational and professional skills for digital transformation.

II. Literature Review

a) Digital Transformation

Digital transformation is understood as the change of mindset, attitude, and operations in business, focusing on emerging technological innovations (social media, mobile, analytics, or embedded devices), the role of internal employees in producing innovations, and user experience (Fitzgerald, Kruschwitz, Bonnet, & Welch, 2013; Goble, 2018; Tang, 2021; Sen, 2023), simplifying operations, or creating new business models.

Digital transformation is not just about incorporating new technologies. It achieves changes in strategy and management with combinations of

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information, communication, and connectivity technologies (Vial, 2019; Bonnet and Westerman, 2021).

Traditional companies follow three phases in a digital transformation process. First, technology is used to reduce costs and improve efficiency in the provision of services and other business operations; then, companies open their technology platforms to streamline the flow of information in the integration chains between company, supplier, and consumers; and, finally, they tend to transition to a platform model, opening their systems to third parties, often even competitors (Iorio, 2019). This system is complex and requires a strong emphasis on the operation, the process, the organizational structure, and the management model, which entails difficulties that are often not overcome, either by the absence of resources or by restrictions or low maturity of the organizational culture for this purpose.

In some cases, analog strategies are a source of pride for their owners and customers. They are linked to handmade products, inspected in detail by humans, and built exclusively or in small batches. These companies are not interested in digitization, as analyzed here, as their purpose is tied to tradition and customization (Teki and Koroteev, 2019). However, these are one-off situations and aligned with specific strategies. Unlike most organizations that operate in a non-customized or massified way, in which digital transformation is an assumption of competitive advantage.

The concept of digital transformation can be operationalized according to five strategic domains that are evolving in the digital age, according to Rogers (2019):

- *Customers:* Using digital tools to understand how customers discover, evaluate, buy, and use products and how they share, interact, and stay connected with brands.
- *Value:* Understanding the additional benefit to be proposed to the client to build brand loyalty.
- *Competition:* Transformation of intermediation into a link for establishing partnerships and formulating integrated supply chains to gain greater competitiveness.
- *Data:* Identifying tools that create conditions for companies to make new predictions, discover unexpected patterns in business activities, and explore new forms of value.
- *Innovation Process:* Decision-making based on rapid testing and validation through a process that saves time, reduces the cost of failure, and enhances organizational learning.

These domains are the elements that make up the conceptual basis on which the information about the role of the leader in the implementation of digital transformation will be gathered, as well as to characterize the main leverage and restrictive factors in the process of transition from the analog to the digital business model.

b) Leadership and Organizational Culture in the Context of Digital Transformation

Some traditional companies are not successful in transforming digital operations (Bharadwaj, El Sawy, Pavlou & Venkatraman, 2013; Schrage, Muttreja & Kwan, 2022). Some initiatives in this direction within the automotive, financial, and print media industry result from organization's inability to develop and introduce a digitally driven business model promptly, highlighting the failure of traditional organizations to make the digital transformation on their own (Siachou, Vrontis & Trichina, 2021)

It is a premise in this paper that leaders are like change agents whose actions affect other people more than other people influence their actions (Tanno and Banner, 2018; Oreg and Berson, 2019). In the digital transformation process, it is indispensable to change mental models, i. e., to be guided (Auricchio and Káganer, 2015). It is a radical transformation because it adopts as a premise the involvement and the ability to act more collaboratively.

Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran (2019) discuss digital practices embedded in leader activities, which have been adapted and synthesized in this study in the form of four leadership competencies that serve as pillars to underpin the digital transformation process (Table 01).

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Table 1: Leadership Competencies for Digital Transformation

Competencies	Operational Definition
Agility in Experimentation	Experimenting with new solutions in a constant and systematized way, learning from the results and quickly applying new insights.
Process Organization	Structuring collaborative processes with fluidity across functional, geographical, hierarchical, and organizational boundaries to get things done.
Ability to make decisions from data	Mapping data collection to analyze information that supports decision making and the proposition of solutions to problems.
In-depth knowledge of the customer	Maintaining a continuous focus on meeting the stated and unstated needs of current and potential customers (shared competence with analog era managers).

Source: Adapted from Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran (2019)

These leadership competencies are inserted in a context in which organizational culture assumes a predominant role, either to leverage them or to restrict their effects. Agility in managing digital resources, understanding that organizations exist in changing reality, and awareness that business strategies need to be constantly reevaluated since they are conditioned to the emergence of new technologies and new experiences demanded by current or future customers (Tan, Pan, S., Lu & Huang, 2009; Keiningham et al., 2020; Saputra, Sasanti, Alamsjah & Sadeli, 2022), are challenges that stimulate the development of culture ready for agile, innovation, and adaptation and requires leadership that can manage the transition from analog to a digital model.

Understanding these characteristics that mark a traditional organization, as well as the importance of adapting the organizational culture to establish bridges and paths for the changes required by the digital evolution, are relevant points of intersection for promoting the necessary changes and the development of new competencies and leadership for the success of the digital transformation.

III. Methodology

a) Sample

The research subjects are the leaders (presidents or directors) of traditional private companies in Brasilia, the capital of Brazil, who are responsible for conducting business strategies, including the promotion of adaptations required by the digital transformation, in addition to being the inducers of cultural changes necessary to adapt to the digital business model.

The target population of the research consists of regional companies of a private nature, founded in a period before the age of digitalization of business, with annual revenues of at least $10 million and at least 100 employees.

According to the two main theoretical models adopted in this paper for characterizing a traditional firm (Rogers, 2019; Ries, 2019), the selected organizations were evaluated if they:

- Operate in a mass market.
- Have a delimited sector of operation.
- Hold high barriers to entry.
- Adopt a vertical and not very matrixed hierarchy and
- Experimentation is not the primary strategy for change and innovation.

As a result of this procedure, it was possible to identify 45 eligible companies at the research locus and send invitations to 15 of them, a number considered sufficient to conduct in-depth interviews with at least one executive from each. However, throughout data collection, we observed exhaustion of responses as of the eighth interview, representing data saturation, a phenomenon understood as the number of times a piece of information is approached similarly by new interviewees.

b) Survey Template

The categories and subcategories of the analysis presented in Table 01 correspond to the theoretical model extracted from Rogers (2019) and Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran (2016). The items refer to the presentation of the result of the association between Categories and Subcategories that forms the basis of support for the collection and presentation of the results of the field research.

The data collection occurred through in-depth interviews and subsequent content analysis due to the exploratory nature of this work. The semi-structured script for the interviews was based on categories and subcategories extracted from the theoretical assumptions developed by the authors listed in Table 2.

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Table 2: Research Categories and Subcategories

Categories	Subcategories	Authors
1. Customer and Value Generation	Active Value Generation Supply Chain Integration Digital Technologies	Rogers (2019) Matt, Hess, & Benlain (2015)
2. Competition	Digital Actions Business Adaptation Co-creation Risk taker	Rogers (2019)
3. Technological Tools	Strategic IT Assets Investments (Digital Channels, Technologies and Training) New Digital Platforms	Matt, Hess, & Benlain (2015)
4. Innovation: new products and services	Innovation (Culture, Idea Spreading, Rapid Experimentation and Agile Methodology) Processes (Innovative, Traditional, Hybrid) Leader of the Future	Rogers (2019) Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran (2019). Waengertner (2018)
5. Strategic Readiness	Agility in the Reception of New Ideas Digital Transformation Performance Monitoring Transformational Purpose	Rogers (2019) Ries (2019)
6. Data Usage	Evolving and Constantly Adapting the Proposal Customer Focus Innovation by Rapid Experimentation New Forms of Competition Use of Data as an Asset and Value Generation	Rogers (2019)
7. Leadership	Team Engagement Format Role of Top Management Leader Profile and Behavior (Attitude, Knowledge and Skills) Transformational Vision	Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran (2019). Dewek (2017)

Source: Authors

The subcategories helped to delimit the scope of the concepts indicated in the categories.

The co-occurrence analysis procedures were used for the analysis stage of the categories and subcategories. According to Bardin (2002), the co-occurrence analysis seeks to extract from the text the relations between the elements of the message, focusing on the simultaneous presence (co-occurrence or association relation) of two or more features in the same unit of context that is, in a previously defined fragment of the message, obeying the following guidelines:

- Selection of the registration units (keywords, for example) and the categorization (themes), as outlined in the research objective.
- Selection of context units and cut the text into small parts.
- Coding: presence or absence of each registration unit (element) in each context unit (component).
- Calculation of co-occurrences (dendrogram and relationships among respondents).
- Representation and interpretation of results.

The interviews were recorded and transcribed. The transcript files were processed to be organized in NVivo qualitative analysis software, used in several empirical surveys (Bringer, Johnston, & Brackenridge, 2006; Booker, Bontis & Serenko, 2012; Basak, 2015; Bonello and Meehan, 2019; Sinkovics and Archie-Acheampong, 2020), which separates, organizes, categorizes and codes the interviewees' excerpts.

IV. Data Analysis

The coding of selected excerpts by interviewees in the subcategories refers to the most cited and least cited elements and makes it possible to generate information about the needs for the development of competencies and actions for the implementation of digital transformation in the surveyed companies.

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Table 3 presents the number of sources used (interviews) and the number of excerpts selected in each research interview from the categories and subcategories described in Table 3.

Table 3: Coding of Interviewees' Excerpts into Categories and Subcategories of Analysis

Category	Subcategories	Number of Sources	Number of Coded References
1. Client and Value Generation	Active	2	3
	Generate value	7	19
	Supply Chain Integration	2	4
	Digital technologies	7	15
2. Competition	Digital Actions	1	2
	Business Adaptation	6	16
	Co-creation	5	5
	Risk taker	2	5
3. Technological Tools	Strategic IT Assets	1	1
	Investments: Digital Channels	3	7
	Investments: Technologies	5	7
	Investments: Training and capacity building	4	4
	New platforms and technologies	7	20
4. Innovation: new products and services	Innovation: Culture	6	32
	Innovation: Dissemination of ideas	3	3
	Innovation: Rapid Experimentation	3	3
	Innovation: Agile Methodology	4	5
	Processes: Hybrid	7	18
	Processes: Innovative	5	8
	Processes: Traditional	5	9
	Leader of the future	4	6
5. Strategic readiness	Agility to welcome new ideas	4	7
	Digital Transformation performance monitoring	4	7
	Transformational Purpose	6	12
6. Data Usage	Evolving and Constantly Adapting the Proposal	5	11
	Customer Focus	2	2
	Innovation by Rapid Experimentation	0	0
	New Forms of Competition	1	1
	Use of Data as an Asset and Value Generation	3	7
7. Leadership	Format Team engagement	6	18
	Role of Top Management	5	14
	Leader Profile: Attitude	6	24
	Leader Profile: Knowledge	4	6
	Leader Profile: Ability	3	4
	Transformational Vision	7	33

Source: Authors based on NVivo software

The category that had the most subcategory excerpts coded was "Leadership", with 99 codings, corresponding to 29.3% of the total. This finding demonstrates how the Leadership factor is key in digital transformation, as premised in the objective of this work. It also draws attention that the coded categories were "Strategic Readiness" and "Use of Data," with 7.7% and 6.2%, respectively. Both categories are connected because while the strategic issue is the end that is designed for the organization in relation to its role in the market and the nature of the relationship that is intended with customers, the second refers to the technological means that are intended to be incorporated and developed to enable the objectives that should be contained in the strategy. In these two categories lie the main skills shortages that would enable the transition from the analog to the digital mindset, processes, and operations.

Table 03 indicates the number of coded references and the number of subcategories associated with the excerpts of the interviews, highlighting E1, E5, E2 and E3, which present coded excerpts of their interviews in more than 66% of the subcategories. This data indicates that in 50% of the interviews, more than 60% of the subcategories were associated and coded, demonstrating a pattern and proximity of responses among the traditional companies surveyed. Table 3 also

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shows that a number greater than eight interviews tended toward repetition of responses.

Table 3: Codings by the Respondent and the Number of Associated Subcategories

Interviewees	Number of coded references	No. of subcategories
E1	92	25
E5	54	22
E2	51	25
E6	44	15
E3	38	23
E7	29	15
E4	24	15
E8	6	5

Source: Authors based on NVivo Software

The next Table (04) refers to the crossing of the numbers of the excerpts chosen and coded for each of the subcategories of analysis in each of the eight interviewees. The red color highlights the inexistence of a statement associated with the interviewee. The yellow and green colors indicate an increasing volume of coding in subcategories. This Table contributes to the identification of the major thematic discussions and units of analysis of the research, which represents a greater strength of data saturation in some directions. For example, the category "data use" as a DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION strategy is underdeveloped, whereas the category "NVivoleadership" has more examples and citations of actions and practices for DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION.

Table 4: Coding Matrix Between Interviewees, Subcategories and the Number of Coded Excerpts

Categories and Subcategories	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6	E7	E8
1. Client and Value Generation								
Active	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0
Generate value	1	1	3	3	4	2	5	0
Supply Chain Integration	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0
Digital technologies	1	1	1	4	3	0	3	2
2. Competition								
Digital Actions	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
Business Adaptation	2	3	1	3	2	5	0	0
Co-creation	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0
Risk taker	0	0	1	0	0	4	0	0
3. Technological tools								
Strategic IT Assets	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Investments: Digital Channels	0	0	1	0	4	0	2	0
Investments: Technologies	2	0	1	1	0	0	2	1
Investments: Training and capacity building	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
New platforms and technologies	4	1	5	1	7	0	1	1
4. Innovation: new products and services								
Innovation: Culture	10	7	3	0	2	6	4	0
Innovation: Dissemination of ideas	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Innovation: Quick Experimentation	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Innovation: Agile Methodology	1	0	1	0	1	2	0	0
Processes: Hybrid	4	1	3	1	4	4	1	0
Processes: Innovative	4	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
Processes: Traditional	2	1	0	0	1	3	2	0
Leader of the future	3	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
5. Strategic Readiness								
Agility to welcome new ideas	1	3	0	0	0	2	1	0
Digital Transformation performance monitoring	0	3	2	0	1	1	0	0

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Transformational Purpose	4	2	3	0	1	0	1	1
6. Use of Data								
Evolving and Constantly Adapting the Proposal	4	4	1	0	1	0	1	0
Customer Focus	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Innovation by Rapid Experimentation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
New Forms of Competition	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Use of Data as an Asset and Value Generation	4	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
7. Leadership								
Format Team engagement	2	1	1	0	6	7	1	0
Role of Top Management	7	2	1	0	2	2	0	0
Leader Profile: Attitude	13	3	2	2	2	0	2	0
Leader Profile: Knowledge	3	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
Leader Profile: Ability	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Transformational Vision	14	6	2	1	5	3	2	0

Source: Authors based on NVivo software

The least cited subcategories refer to the need for competence development:

- Digital stocks, co-creation, and risk taker (Category: competition).
- Dissemination of ideas, rapid experimentation, and agile methodology (Category: Innovation- new products and services).
- Customer Focus and New Forms of Competition (Category: Data Usage).
- Knowledge and Skills (Category: Leadership) and
- Asset and Supply Chain Integration (Category: Customers).

The most cited subcategories reinforce the movement and prioritization pathadopted by the organizations:

- Generating Value and Digital Technologies (Category: Client).
- Business Adaptation (Category: Competition).
- New Platforms and Technologies (Category: Technological tools).
- Culture (Category: Innovation/Innovation New Products and Services).
- Hybrid Processes (Category: Processes/New Product and Service Innovation).
- Team engagement format, the role of top management, leader behavior profile- attitude and transformational vision (Category: Leadership) and
- Evolving and constant adaptation of the proposition and value delivery (Category: Data usage).

When looking at the participation in interviews, it can be highlighted that:

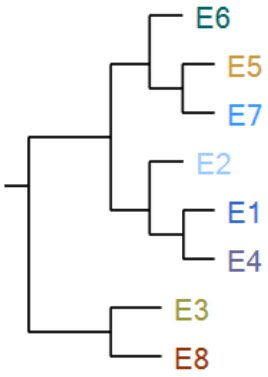
- The categories that had the most interviews coded (above 50%) were: Customer and Value Generation, Technology Tools, New Product and Service Innovation, Leadership, and Strategic Readiness.
- The categories that had the fewest interviews coded (below 50%) were: Competition and Data Use.

Still on the question of frequency, it is observed that the Digital Actions (Competition) and Customer Focus (Use of Data) Subcategories were not valued by the respondents.

As foreseen in the methodology in the use of Bardin's procedure, 2002, there are commented analyses and graphs with the intention of ascertaining the correlation of the answers between the interviewees.

Figure 01 refers to the dendrogram-type graph, in which observations are grouped by similarity of the textual content of the interview, i.e., by the similarity of words. The set of interviewees E1, E4, E2, E7, E5, and E6 represents greater relationship strength compared to the set of interviewees E3 and E8. The smaller bracket represents a greater relationship, and the similar colors also indicate a greater relationship. Another finding is that from left to right. The dash is closer to the top block of observations, which indicates greater relationship strength among the respondents. The dendrogram can help in identifying trends, complementarities, associations and confirmations.

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Source: Authors based on NVivo software

Figure 1: Dendrogram Plot of Respondents by Word Similarity

The grouping of coded qualitative data based on content similarity is used in an exploratory way to tease out ideas rather than as explanatory evidence of an association (Jackson and Bazeley, 2019).

Table 05 presents the result of Pearson's correlation test by word similarity, where the pair of interviewees closest to 1 indicates a greater relationship, and the result close to -1 indicates less relationship strength. Interviewees 4 and 1, followed by interviewees 7 and 5, show the highest results: 0.94 and 0.93, respectively.

Table 5: Pearson Correlation by Word Similarity

Source A	Source B	Correlation*	Source A	Source B	Correlation*
E4	E1	0,944835	E6	E4	0,881417
E7	E5	0,937592	E8	E3	0,783014
E5	E1	0,934519	E3	E2	0,651582
E2	E1	0,934205	E4	E3	0,620171
E5	E2	0,931886	E3	E1	0,617741
E7	E6	0,931588	E6	E3	0,61107
E6	E5	0,928677	E7	E3	0,594058
E4	E2	0,922715	E8	E2	0,58843
E7	E1	0,918876	E8	E4	0,585165
E5	E4	0,911223	E5	E3	0,580212
E7	E4	0,905334	E8	E1	0,574269
E6	E2	0,902879	E8	E6	0,542879
E6	E1	0,899391	E8	E7	0,539397
E7	E2	0,898693	E8	E5	0,526236

Source: Prepared by the Authors based on NVivo Software

*Pearson Correlation Coefficient: very strong correlation above 0.9; a strong correlation between 0.7 and 0.9; a moderate correlation between 0.5 and 0.7 and weak or nonexistent below 0.5 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014).

Pearson's correlation can indicate content relationships for constructions of complementarity, trends, disagreements, and confirmations of arguments. The lowest relation between the interviewees with results below 0.52 indicates a weak relation, however still significant, but one must consider that there are more convergent than divergent points, in which it is observed that most correlations are above 0.6, which expresses that the excerpts selected from the interviews keep similarity in the answers, importance, and scope of the subcategories of analysis.

The correlation allows us to state that the two-by-two comparisons among all showed significant similarity, which indicates that the observations, selected/coded excerpts, and the frequency of similar words are concentrated toward a pattern, which reinforces the convergent nature of the responses.

V. Findings

The present research proposed to study the necessary adaptations and the development of competencies in the exercise of leadership for the successful implementation of digital transformation in traditional companies.

In the *Customer and Value Generation Category*, it was observed that respondents consider there is an

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association between "customer value generation" and the "use of new digital technologies," as indicated by Roger (2019), Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran (2016), and Magaldi and Salibi Neto (2018). However, supply chain integration and the view of the customer as an "asset" still lack further development and maturation in the surveyed organizations.

In the *Competition Category,* there are barriers that hinder the transformation of the data analysis item into an element that drives the practice and the digital mindset in traditional companies, especially from the guidelines of Roger (2019) and Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran (2016) regarding the integration of competitive chains in order to generate synergy and the adoption of co-creation and cooperation practices. The item "business adaptation" finds greater maturity, while others such as "risk taker," "co-creation," and "digital actions" are little mentioned by respondents, which may lead to a reflection of opportunity and development of new competencies and strategic initiatives.

In the *Technology Tools Category,* studies and reports of new practices, primarily supported by Matt, Hess, & Belain (2015) and complementarily by Morakanyane, Grace, & O'Reilly (2017), Rogers (2019), and Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran (2019), indicate that digital transformation must be supported by new, often disruptive technologies that make it possible to achieve new and higher levels of productivity and connectivity. The companies surveyed provided indications of deploying new platforms and technologies. However, the understanding, use, and adoption of digital channels are still evolving.

The *Innovation Category* proposes, in the context of digital transformation, the implementation of an organizational culture of innovation and the adoption of new methodologies of experimentation management (make mistakes and learn fast) (Waengertner, 2018; Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran, 2019). It can be observed from the research that some results drive relevant concern in building a culture of digital evolution and innovation. However, other important issues, such as the dissemination of ideas, rapid experimentation, and adoption of "agile" management methodologies, are still in the knowledge phase, and the adoption of these practices translates into a great opportunity for traditional organizations.

The analysis of the data collected indicated that the *Strategic Readiness Category,* in the context of digital transformation, creating a culture that is permeable to experimentation and open to developing new leadership and stakeholder relations capabilities, is an appropriate path to digital evolution. Establishing a process of "unlearning" to learn is a recommended strategy. Setting performance goals to reach new levels of performance is important to support a transformational purpose that guides everyone in the organization (Westerman, Soule & Eswaran, 2018; Iorio, 2019; Magaldi and Salibi Neto, 2018). It was identified that the creation of the transformational purpose is present in strategic planning and that recognition of the importance and prioritization of actions to implement and evolve digital transformation appear to be urgent. However, there is little development and agreement on targets for monitoring the performance of actions and the results of digital transformation initiatives.

It is emphasized in the *Category Use of Data* that data are considered assets asmore valuable as tangible assets, and knowing how to manage and transform them into information for the decision-making process is a competitive differentiator (ROGERS, 2019; Westerman, Soule, & Eswaran, 2019). But this was not what was observed from the analysis of the responses. This topic presented the biggest "gap" among the others since actions and initiatives (whether operational or strategic) were not mentioned, as well as knowledge and mastery, which showed to be in the early stages. The use of data to improve the customer journey is still in the knowledge and learning phase, and few companies mentioned any type of action. Another relevant issue is the practice of rapid experimentation by the domain and use of data, which still lacks a better understanding of how to implement its use in day-to-day management. This is the category with the greatest lack of development of leadership competencies among the traditional companies in the sample.

The *Leadership Category* relates to team engagement practices, understanding, and action in mobilizing internal employees to implement the digital transformation and contributing to the desired development of the leading behavioral profile that prioritizes the evolution of organizational culture. The promotion of the digital *mindset*, working on multidisciplinary projects, and developing new skills is a strategic role in the exercise of leadership (ROGERS, 2016). Some items were scored with ongoing achievements: promotion, and encouragement of the behavioral aspect of the leader (attitude), implementation of a transformational vision directing development, targeting of training actions and preparation of teams and engagement of senior management in the role of stimulator of the digital transformation movement. However, although mentioned, there were few actions aimed at a greater engagement of the team and the implementation of short, medium, and long-term plans for training the organization's people (knowledge and skills). The initiatives are still in the traditional format of training and development, and there is no creation of favorable environments for experimentation and development such as the "*squads*", a practice provided for in the agile methodology, for example.

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VI. Conclusion

The present study aimed to analyze the role of leadership in the digital transition of traditional organizations in the process of business transformation in Brazilian companies. It was assumed that leadership alone is unable to accomplish the transformations in the business model. Other organizational dimensions are also relevant and influence the role of the leader in this process.

Several elements related to the thought of the leaders of the researched organizations were presented, with an indication of current practices associated with competencies and recognition of the non-existence of practices indicated as necessary for the implementation of digital transformation.

There are categories, especially "competition" and "data use," that point to difficulties in reorienting the perception of the role of competition and the relevance of full knowledge of the customer journey as crucial elements in adopting a digital mindset that goes beyond the technological view.

The other categories - "customer and value generation," "technology tools," "innovation," and "strategic readiness" - have important advances but still coexist with analog business model management practices still rooted in the mindset of the interviewed leaders.

It was observed that the new competencies associated with the "leadership" category are not dealt with clearly and objectively, and there are still no performance indicators to measure the effectiveness and success of the digital transformation, as well as goals and variable compensation policies for the implementation and development of the digital transformation.

It has become evident that organizations go through different degrees of digital transformation. Digital adaptation and evolution can be influenced by not only economic but also political and social issues. Therefore, this work does not have a prescriptive character of pointing a path, but it does indicate the need for competencies that directly and indirectly involve leadership in this process of transformation of traditional companies from the business analysis model to the digital one.

The research analyzed the factors described in the categories in Table 01 that contribute to the creation of an implementation and performance measurement roadmap for the adoption of digital transformation in traditional enterprises.

It can be observed that the importance and knowledge of this theme have taken top-level strategic contours in the top management of all the organizations surveyed. Even with different levels of digital maturity, all presented some kind of initiative or action for the pursuit of the digital evolution of their organizations.

The set of tools, theories, and the results of the survey with traditional companies enabled a more detailed analysis of the main points and the most urgent ones to be indicated as focal points within traditional organizations, as well as corroborated a set of factors that can serve for the diagnosis of the transformation stage through which traditional organizations interested in migrating to the digital management mentality are going through.

Among the main limitations of this study, we highlight the fact that the sample is restricted to companies in Brasília, Brazil, although of size and economic relevance, and that only one leader from each company was interviewed. Although the professionals indicated are the ones responsible for conducting or preparing the digital transformation policies, they do not necessarily translate the totality of the thought of the governing body of the companies surveyed.

There is a need for deepening the issues that involve the construction of a favorable environment for the implementation of a solid and consistent culture of innovation and digital evolution of the company.

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Understanding Entrepreneurship Origin and Process

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Abstract- Entrepreneurship has been an interesting concept in business and has created an important tie in all facets of human life. With these, this paper is aimed at exploring the origin of entrepreneurship as well as categorising the conceptual stand. The paper adopted the exploratory research method. The paper reviewed the different concepts of entrepreneurship, reviewed its origin and identified the key processes use by experts. The study concluded by focusing on the processes underlying the "activity-based" concepts.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship opportunity, business activity, risk-taking activity, innovative process.

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M10, M13, M19



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Understanding Entrepreneurship Origin and Process

Cosmas Anayochukwu Nwankwo [α] & Nkoli Augustina Chendo [σ]

Abstract- **Entrepreneurship has been an interesting concept in business and has created an important tie in all facets of human life. With these, this paper is aimed at exploring the origin of entrepreneurship as well as categorising the conceptual stand. The paper adopted the exploratory research method. The paper reviewed the different concepts of entrepreneurship, reviewed its origin and identified the key processes use by experts. The study concluded by focusing on the processes underlying the "activity-based" concepts.**

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I. Introduction

Technology advancement and the various change in the global environment have caused changes in the way and manner people carry out their business activities. The volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous (VUCA) environment is causing countless global challenges for industries and businesses. However, to survive and uphold the constant growth in the global corridor as well as opening up doors of opportunities, experts and business owners and managers have decided to embrace and applied entrepreneurship in their day-to-day activities. Entrepreneurship, which is the most powerful economic drive known to humanity, is empowering individuals to seek opportunity where others find pig-headed problems. Entrepreneurship is the representation of business drive and attainment. Entrepreneurs, with intrinsic acumen, energy and hard-work, have made best use of the opportunities within their disposal. Historically, entrepreneurs have destroyed the old custom in the national economies and markets; invented new products, developed businesses, and initiated upsurge in new technologies (Idemobi, 2016). The emergence of entrepreneurship and the benefit therewith has raise a lot of questions to whether the concept existed in a vacuum, how has entrepreneurship evolved? how are the key definition categorised, since no accepted definition has been adopted. What are the entrepreneurship processes adopted by scholars and enterprises? These forms the aim for this paper.

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a) Entrepreneurship Origin

Scholars have extensively written on the origin of entrepreneurship, but what is fascinating is that most of the scholars who have contributed to these write-ups about the origin of entrepreneurship are either economists or historians. It is important to highlight that the term *entrepreneurship* is used to define the activities of an *entrepreneur* (Hamilton, 2015:19). Bouwer (2015: 32) notes that "entrepreneurship is derived from a French word *entreprendre"* which means "to begin" or "to undertake". From a business point of view, "to undertake simply means to start a business" (McGuinness & Hogan, 2016: 21).

Historically, Schumpeter (1951) stated that the French economist, Richard Cantillon, was the first to introduce the concept of an *entrepreneur* in his work in 1755. At this stage, an entrepreneur was viewed as a risk taker (Burnett, 2000). Scholars, such as Idemobi (2016:3) as well as Nzewi, Onwuka and Onyesom (2017) hold that the economist, Jean-Baptiste Say, further defined the concept in 1821 when he identified the entrepreneur as a new economic phenomenon. Jean-Baptiste Say posited that *entrepreneurship* referred to activities surrounding the change of resources from an area of lower yield to an area of higher yield. At the start of the 20th century, Joseph Schumpeter unglued entrepreneurship from its the capitalistic position arguing that entrepreneurs were *sociologically distinct individuals* associated with newly started businesses (Bäckbro & Nyström, 2006; Carland, Hoy & Carland, 1988; Krueger, 2002; McDaniel, 2002). Bjerke and Hultman (2002) contended that *entrepreneurs* are risk takers and innovators which are found in all profession including: education, basic medicine and pharmaceuticals, law and arts, engineering and architecture, to name but a few. Having discussed the origin of entrepreneurship, the next section explores the meaning of entrepreneurship as a concept.

b) Definitions of Entrepreneurship

Given that researchers have set forth several and diverse renditions of what *entrepreneurship* precisely means, the concept remains rather vague (Botha & Musengi, 2012: 24). Mahadea and Youngleson (2013: 3) as well as Botha and Musengi (2012: 24) concur that, despite the frequency with which the term is used, it lacks a crisp definition. Risker (2012: 28) submits that one of the factors which contributed to this lack of an acceptable definition is that trait-based literatures have failed to

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develop a set of common traits applicable to entrepreneurs across empirical studies. Additionally, Hamilton (2015: 20) claims that there is not much difference between what constitutes an *entrepreneur* and *entrepreneurship*. This results in an entrepreneur often being defined in terms of entrepreneurship. Hosworth, Tempest and Coupland (2005: 29) concur that entrepreneurship is inherently a dynamic concept and definitions thereof should be based upon what entrepreneurs do. As noted earlier, many authors (e.g. Davidsson, 2015: 38; Hewitt & Van der Bank, 2014: 4; Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2014: 9; Onuoha, 2007: 20) have defined entrepreneurship in terms of: new business activity, risk avoidant activity, innovative process and opportunity. A similar approach is to isolate key dimensions of the entrepreneurship concept to primarily reveal the complexity of this phenomenon.

c) Entrepreneurship as opportunity

Many scholars, such as Hewitt and Van der Bank (2014: 4), Lee and Peterson (2000), Oviatt and McDougall (2005), Schaper and Volery (2004) as well as Shane and Venkataraman (2000), support the view that entrepreneurship is opportunity-driven. This prompts the need to understand what an *opportunity* actually is. For example, Shane and Venkataraman (2000: 220) assert that opportunities are situations in which new goods, services, raw materials, markets and organising methods can be introduced through the formation of new means, ends or means-ends relationships. Within the enterprise, the entrepreneur thus constructs the means, the ends, or both in response to entrepreneurial situations (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

An external view of opportunity, however, focuses on the environmental conditions in which one, or more, new products or services are introduced into the marketplace by an entrepreneur, or entrepreneurial team, via an existing or newly created venture (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000: 220). Problems faced by consumers, technological changes and government regulations affecting supply and demand as well as market shifts or unmet needs thus exemplify opportunity as being *external* to an enterprise. Opportunity thus refers to a need in the market which can be vaguely defined as a lack, or misuse, of certain resources and/or capabilities. Opportunities are not static but dynamic and thus suggestive of the metaphoric window of opportunity (Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2014: 9). Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2014: 9) define entrepreneurship as a process whereby individuals' innovations, in response to opportunities in the marketplace, result in changes in the economic system. Stevenson and Jarillo (1990: 23) consider entrepreneurship as "a process by which individuals; either on their own or inside organisations, pursue opportunities without regard to the resources they currently control". For a firm to initiate, create, build, expand and sustain a venture, or build an entrepreneurial team, and gather the necessary resources, *opportunity exploitation* in the marketplace is very important (Hewitt & Van der Bank, 2014: 4). Entrepreneurship is "an activity that involves the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new goods and services, ways of organising, markets, processes and raw materials through organising efforts that previously had not existed" (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000: 218). This brings to the fore questions of whether an opportunity is *created* or *discovered*. These questions are relevant, but do not address the core of this study and, as such, they are not pursued in detail.

d) Entrepreneurship as New Business Activity

It is notable that entrepreneurship is commonly associated with action and the creation of a new organisation by an entrepreneur. The newly created organisation may, or may not, become self-sufficient with substantial earnings. However, when individuals create a new business, they resort under the *entrepreneurship* paradigm. Several authors, including Onuoha (2007: 20), Davidsson (2015) as well as Hewitt and van der Bank (2011: 4) have defined entrepreneurship in relation to the creation or invention of new business. This suggests that entrepreneurship is any form of business activity initiated, or performed, by individuals or organisation in order to start up a new form of business. For example, Onuoha (2007: 20) defined entrepreneurship as "the practice of starting new organisations or revitalizing mature organisations, particularly new businesses generally in response to identified opportunities". Similarly, Hewitt and van der Bank (2014: 4) simply associate "entrepreneurship with starting one's own business". Additionally, Richard Cantillon, who is arguably viewed as the father of entrepreneurship in the 18th century, defined entrepreneurship as "a process of a self-employment with an uncertain return" (Cantillon, 1755: 9). However, these scholars fail to understand that people are not involved in entrepreneurial activities primarily because they want to start a business but rather to identify opportunities and/or solve problems which others in the same line of business have not been able to solve. This highlights the notion that entrepreneurship includes a social dimension, thus entrepreneurial opportunities create *social value* rather than *commercial value* to ultimately achieve a *social mission*.

e) Entrepreneurship as Risk Taking Activity

According to the general perception, entrepreneurs are perceived as people who take risks. Wärneryd (1988: 407) noted that "there seems to be a general agreement that risk bearing is a necessary...prerequisite for being called an entrepreneur". Scholars (e.g. Drucker, 1985; Lowe & Marriot, 2006) who denote entrepreneurial activity as taking risks consider risks associated with price fluctuation inherent to the buying and selling of goods and services. In this respect, Lowe and Marriot (2006:15)

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define an entrepreneur as "an individual who consciously make decisions about resource allocation, in that certain prices are paid, while bearing in mind the risks of the enterprise". This implies that entrepreneurship encompasses the risk of purchasing at definite prices and selling at indefinite prices. Drucker (1985) further expands upon this notion by stating that entrepreneurship is *risky* mainly because very few so-called entrepreneurs know what they are doing. Entrepreneurs have to take risks. However, these risks should be typically manageable and calculated, especially if the entrepreneur pledges considerable resources to opportunities which might yield a costly failure. In this regard it is interesting to note that the European Commission (1996) expanded the scope of entrepreneurship to include the attributes of innovation, creativity and sound management. The commission, as reported by Idemobi, affirms that "entrepreneurship is the mindset and process to create and develop economic activity by blending risk-taking, creativity and/or innovation with sound management, within a new or an existing organization" (Idemobi, 2016: 8). Arguably, this view is interesting and unique as it explicitly includes *sound management* and *innovation* as key concepts to define entrepreneurship.

f) Entrepreneurship as an Innovative Process

An entrepreneur is an individual who finds and acts upon inventions and/or technology to translate them into new products. Thus, the entrepreneur is able to recognise the commercial potential of the invention and organise the capital, talent, and other resources to turn an invention into a commercially viable innovation (Audretsch, 2002: 14). Thus, the term *entrepreneurship* can also describe innovative activities by well-established or new businesses.

Joseph Schumpeter first defined entrepreneurs as individuals who carry out new combinations or innovations. In light of this assertion, it is evident that Kreiser, Marino and Weaver (2002), Kuratko (2017), Kuratko and Hodgetts (2004), Lounsbury et al. (2019), Lowe and Marriot (2006) as well as Morris and Kuratko (2014) support Schumpeter's assumption of entrepreneurs as innovators. Innovativeness is the search of creative, uncommon or novel answers to problems and needs. These answers may include novel technologies and practices as well as new products and/or services. Entrepreneurship is a complex field which reaches beyond innovation because an innovative firm can only survive in an environment where there is opportunity.

The different views of entrepreneurship, as evident in literature, reveal two distinct viewpoints (Sabrina, 2013). The first viewpoint describes *entrepreneurship* in terms of independently owned, and often smaller, ventures and their owner-managers. The second viewpoint holds that the development and/or renewal of an economy, society or organisation needs micro-level role-players who are inventive and who can persevere in order to make things happen (Igwe, Icha-Ituma & Madichie, 2018). This study defines entrepreneurship as the management of risk and the process by which opportunities to innovatively create future goods, services and ideas are discovered, appraised and utilised. This resonates with Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2014: 9) who assert that entrepreneurship entails more than the *idea* of starting a business but also involves the willingness to accept the risk of a new business enterprise when exploiting an opportunity of profit and growth.

g) The Nature of Entrepreneurship Process

Entrepreneurship, as a process, comprises a set of decisions which entrepreneurs make when developing their businesses (Hamilton, 2015: 24). Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2014:15) assert that an entrepreneurial process is made up of steps. These steps reflect the process of starting a business and also constitute an overview of the entrepreneur's responsibilities. It is crucial for an entrepreneur to have a clear understanding of this process (De Coulon & Baltar, 2013: 322). One characteristics of the entrepreneurial process is that it is time consuming and may be challenging to an entrepreneur. Furthermore, the process constitutes an interaction of multidimensional, unique, complex and dynamic factors and circumstances which need to be considered as a whole before the actual business start-up (Deakins & Freel, 2003: 55).

There are several models which illustrate entrepreneurial process. These include: Carol Moore's model (Moore, 1986; Pearce II & Robinson, 1994; Bygrave, 2004), the motivation-opportunity-ability MOA model (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Ölander & Thøgersen, 1995) and Timmons' entrepreneurship model (Timmons 1999; Timmons & Spinelli, 2009: 110).

h) Carol Moore Model of Entrepreneurial Process

Carol Moore's model of entrepreneurial process was first defined by Carol Moore in 1986 to describe the entrepreneurial process and how it influences business growth. According to Moore (1986), there are four significant cycles in entrepreneurial process namely: growth, innovation, implementation and triggered event. The thrust of this model is that it offers a shift from the social scientific view of entrepreneurship to management (Bygrave, 2004). This model presents many explanations of the entrepreneurial process and stresses the activity and function-based viewpoints as critically significant to the success of the entrepreneurial process. Additionally, it focuses on the innovation and implementation of said innovative idea and the growth of the business (Bygrave, 2004: 5).

In addition, the entrepreneurial process model presents several critical factors (e.g. opportunity, role models, creativity, competitor and government) which propel the growth of the business at each stage (Bygrave, 2004). According to Bygrave (2004: 5), as is the case with

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most human behaviour, entrepreneurial traits are shaped by personal qualities and the environment. Personal qualities are those attributes of entrepreneurs which distinguish them from non-entrepreneurs. The descriptive entrepreneurial process model has stages and events which follow one other, and which are vital to research into entrepreneurship. However, the major criticism against this model is that entrepreneurship is principally defined by personal and situational factors. This is contrary to Timmons' framework in which *reward* is the major determinant. Reward is thus *not* the principal determinant in the Moore model which covers new business enterprises ranging from part-time pursuits, with little or no financial rewards, to high-potential start-ups which are expected to create considerable wealth. This model focuses entrepreneurship and marketing researchers' attention on innovation and the implementation of triggered innovative ideas in a business. The MOA model, which is discussed next, focuses on cycles, or stages, in the entrepreneurial process with regard to consumer behaviour.

i) The Motivation, Opportunity and Ability Model (MOA)

The MOA model focuses on consumer experience in order to understand motivation, opportunity and ability as determinants of consumer behaviour. The MOA model was originally conceptualised by MacInnis and Jaworski (1989), within the context of information processing, and further expanded upon by Ölander and Thøgersen (1995). The MOA model has been used by several scholars in a wide range of subject matter (e.g. Japson, Clarke & Ragsdell, 2014; Hung, Sirakaya-Turk & Ingram, 2011). For example, the MOA model in the organisational context assumes that worker performance can be influenced by a firm's ability to leverage the three MOA (motivation, opportunity and ability) components in a win-win manner (Ölander & Thøgersen, 1995). By *win-win* they mean that both the workers and the firm would benefit from efforts to apply the MOA model in the workplace. There are certain commonalities uncovered in debates regarding the MOA model. These include that all participants in the studies were involved in information processing, or decision-making processes, and that their decisions were largely influenced by three components: motivation, opportunity and ability (MOA).

By motivating a worker, his/her needs and wants can be influenced and this will result in he/she behaving in a certain way. Motivation is thus the incentive for individuals to behave in the way that they ought to have behaved in real time. For opportunity relevant factors or challenges, such as time and resources, may also facilitate behaviour. For instance, an individual seeks opportunities to complete a task that may result in short or long-term benefit. Abilities are the financial, cognitive, physical, emotional and/or social resources an individual can employ to perform a specific behaviour.

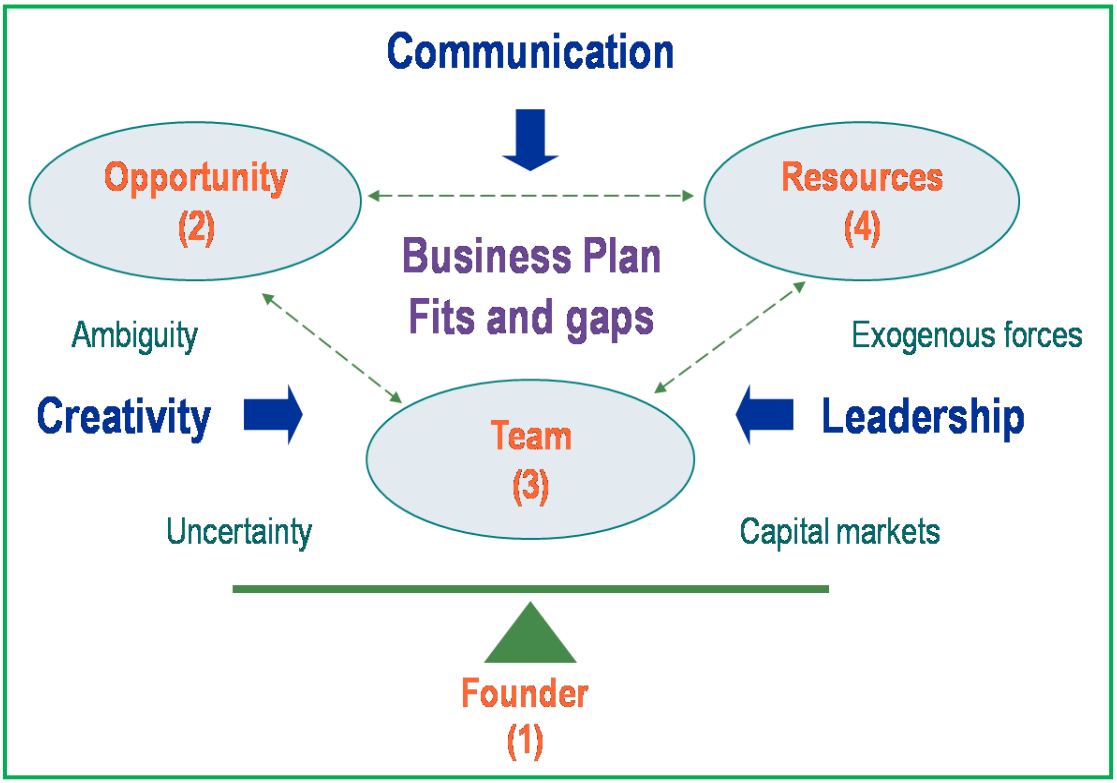
However, for an employee of an organisation, *motivation* is provided by rewards and incentives for certain types of behaviour and results gained by the organisation (Dobre, 2013). Opportunities, such as engaging employees in activities that make them feel as if they are contributing to the organisational success, may include the acquisition of abilities through training as well as an augmenting knowledge and skills used on the job (Delaney & Royal, 2017). Studies have shown that organisations which focus on these three components (motivation, opportunity and ability) achieve better organisational performance and growth in the form of increased quality delivery, profitability, productivity, customer satisfaction and growth of market share. The major downfall of this model lies in that it is difficult to theoretically justify the precise direction of all causal relationships in MOA. In the domain of entrepreneurial process, this model offers insight into how an entrepreneur may use motivation, ability and opportunity to influence the behaviour of consumers.

j) The Timmons' Entrepreneurship Model

Timmons' entrepreneurship model considers resources, teams and opportunities as the three significant factors which can help an entrepreneur obtain success, dependant on his/her ability to balance these significant factors. The entrepreneur seeks an opportunity and, upon finding it, he/she transforms this opportunity into a high-potential undertaking by assembling a team and other required resources to attain his/her entrepreneurial goal. In many instances, the entrepreneur risks his/her career, net worth and personal cash flow.

Bygrave and Zacharakis (2011: 54) define an entrepreneur "as an individual who identifies an opportunity and create a team/organisation to pursue the identified opportunity". A person is said to have entrepreneurial qualities if he/she has a strong internal locus of control, possesses managerial skills and is a risk taker. Bygrave and Zacharakis (2011) employed the Timmons model to identify three critical factors which contribute to business success namely: opportunity, entrepreneur/the management team and resources. Minniti in Ko and Liu (2015) asserts that the entrepreneurship model of Timmons can be conceived as a triangle which consists of opportunity, resources and the management team. The entrepreneur is situated outside this triangle and attempts to create equilibrium amongst the factors, as per Figure 1.

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Source: Adopted from Timmons (1999); Timmons & Spinelli (2009: 110)

Figure 1: The Entrepreneurial Process

This next section discusses the four key elements of the entrepreneurial process as included in Timmons' entrepreneurship model.

i. *Opportunity Identification and Evaluation*

There are many misconceptions regarding new ventures including the idea that an owner-manager must have a *new idea* to starta business. This is simply not true (Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2014). Instead, Idemobi (2016: 23) argues that an owner-manager just needs to identify an opportunity, develop a business idea to successfully address the identified opportunity and then meticulously implement that idea and to create a successful business. Once an owner-manager recognises an attractive opportunity, he/she can then step out to assess the external environment and identify an appropriate time to launch and run the business successfully (Brem, 2011).

However, Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2014: 15) maintain that *identifying* opportunity is challenging with sound business opportunities often stemming from an entrepreneur's vigilance to potential opportunities. Smith and Chimucheka (2014: 161) observed that the identification and utilisation of business opportunities are part of a creative process which requires some level of expertise. Van Aard (2011: 30) argued that *creativity* is needed for an entrepreneur to identify an opportunity with the potential of generating economic value in the market. The process of changing ideas into plausible business concepts, otherwise known as *opportunity recognition*, includes three stages (Venter, Urban & Rwigema, 2008: 132). In the first stage the market needs to be identified. The second stage denotes a comparison of new market needs with those of previous markets. The third stage is the identification of resources in the form of a business concept. Smith and Chimucheka (2014: 161) note that entrepreneurs should concentrate on seeking new ideas which can then be converted into opportunities. However, Timmons and Spinelli (2009: 111) caution that while opportunities are based on an idea, not all ideas are viable, and thus entrepreneurs require the necessary dexterity to identify those ideas which are, in fact, feasible and which could yield opportunities that would eventually birth a successful business. Creativity is thus fundamental to the successful assessment of a business ideas. It is key in *opportunity assessment* to identify the strengths and weaknesses of a single idea and then compare these to the overall strengths of several ideas. In this way one can determine which opportunities would, most likely, result in success. This is critical, as opportunities are ambiguous (Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2014). A reasonable assessment of external factors (such as customers, suppliers, timing and competition) *and*

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internal factors would highlight which resources are necessary in meeting customer needs in the market. This process is necessary if the entrepreneur wishes to obtain a proper understanding of where the best opportunities are situated (Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2014).

The emerging entrepreneur's past training, experience, education and skills all impact on the creation of business ideas. Therefore, it is essential to evaluate business ideas successfully (Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2014:15), particularly in the case of SMEs. Many SME owner-managers lose focus and fail to identify and/or evaluate business opportunities, causing them to stagnate. As Nieman and Nieuwenhuizen (2014) note, not all SMEs are entrepreneurial, and some operate without any strategic growth objectives and/or innovation.

ii. *The Management Team and the Entrepreneur*

An entrepreneur is the active force which draws together all the various mechanisms contained in the entrepreneurial process. To begin a new business venture, Zeng, Bu and Su (2011) maintain that *mere identification* of a business opportunity and *generation* of an idea is not enough. Owner-managers need to ascertain whether or not they possess the necessary entrepreneurial and management skills. To initiate and sustain a new venture, owner-managers need to be productive, growth-oriented and innovative. They must possess the knowledge and confidence to efficiently and effectively turn mere ideas into useful resources. This particular set of owner-managers must be able to take risks and, in this way, turn business ideas into profits (Ko & Liu, 2015). Owner-managers also need to exert enough effort and ensure that they are involved in all levels of the business. This involvement includes: identifying the target market, carrying out market research, making prediction regarding future market movements, evaluating the accessibility of various technology and choosing the appropriate technology for their business. An owner-manager sets up a vision, organises and inspires a team of skilled individuals to run the business and ensures that the business vision is achieved (Park & Krishnan, 2010). As advocated in Timmons' framework, the creation of an effective team is fundamental to the entrepreneurial process. The owner-manager needs to tactically put together a capable and knowledgeable management team who can accomplish the day-to-day operations of the organisation in a VUCA environment.

iii. *The Resource Requirement*

To startup a new business, an individual needs to identify different resources required to initiate and manage the business. Starting a new business is always unpredictable and an owner-manager should thus endeavour to keep the initial overhead costs at a minimum. He/she should also try to increase productivity while maintaining minimum ownership of capital assets to keep the initial investment low and thus grow the business (Kuratko, 2011). Furthermore, establishing a new business venture requires that the owner of such an enterprise obtain the necessary resources (including funds, land, labour, technologies and other form of resources) to achieve the set objectives. It is pivotal that the entrepreneur understands that resources can be either assets which are *tangible* (e. g. physical, human, financial) or *intangible* (e. g. knowledge). Resources can thus further be categorised in terms of threshold and distinctive capabilities helpful to gain a competitive advantage (Johnson et al., 2017). Threshold capabilities are those needed for an organisation to meet the necessary requirements to compete in a given market and achieve parity with competitors in that market (*qualifiers)* (Johnson et al., 2017). On the other hand, dynamic capabilities are those that are required to achieve competitive advantage. These include the ability to reconfigure a firm's resources and routines to gain a competitive advantage. Generally, capabilities refer to what one can actually do with resources and/or assets. Distinctive or unique capabilities are those that are of value to customers and which competitors find difficult to imitate (*winners)* (Johnson et al., 2017).

Owner-managers thus need certain resources which are useful in the exploitation of the identified opportunity. Notably, in business start-ups, SME owner-managers need to carefully manage the limited resources at their disposal. Hence, in this stage of entrepreneurial process, SME owner-managers must determine the kind of resources needed to achieve the set goals and strategies (Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2014: 127). This process commences with the owner-manager assessing current resources and then securing the resources needed in a timely manner. This should be done without giving up control because, as the business grows, more resources will be needed and control may therefore be relinquished (Nieman & Nieuwenhuizen, 2014: 16). The owner-manager needs to assess and identify those valuable, rare and inimitable resources needed by the organisation (VRISO) to deliver a competitive advantage (Johnson et al., 2017). Value arises when resources: become pivotal in taking advantage of opportunities and neutralising threats, provide value to customers and, are provided at a cost that still allows an organisation to make an acceptable return (Johnson et al., 2017). If resources and capabilities are not valuable, they create *competitive irrelevance* (Johnson et al., 2017). However, valuable resources and capabilities create *competitive parity* (Johnson et al., 2017). A temporary competitive advantage arises from the use of resources and capabilities, which are valuable and rare, but easy to imitate (Johnson et al., 2017). A sustainable competitive advantage is achieved not only when resources and capabilities are valuable, rare and inimitable, but also when the organisation is setup to exploit these resources and capabilities (Johnson et al., 2017).

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According to Timmons and Spinelli (2009: 377), it is crucial for the owner-manager to specifically understand all the different types of resources required for starting a business as well as the various types of competitive advantages. After the required resources have been acquired by the owner-manager, plans must be properly implemented to achieve the set goals (Timmons & Spinelli, 2009: 112). Thus, having discussed the three factors of Timmons' model, one can affirm that entrepreneurship is a vibrant process which starts when an owner-manager recognises an opportunity. He/she then decides the type and size of the team required and identifies other resource requirements including technologies, funds and labour necessary to exploit the known opportunity (Whitehead, 2011). Arguably, these three factors need to be balanced if the business is to be successful (Bygrave & Zacharakis, 2011). Minniti, as cited in Ko and Liu (2015) states that a certain level of risk ensues when the owner-manager is unable to maintain an absolute balance between all three factors. Any adjustment to any one of the three factors will directly, or indirectly, affect the other factors. For example, the mere *identification* of opportunity will not lead to success if an owner-manager is unable to scout for the required resources (Zarei, Nasseri & Tajeddin, 2011). The model of entrepreneurship by Timmons can be utilised to effectively appraise the potential opportunity by recognising the size, demand, structure of the market and the margin breakdown of the new business enterprise (Bygrave & Zacharakis, 2011).

Ko and Liu (2015) note that the Timmons model of entrepreneurship presents a borderline interpretation as to the process of entrepreneurship. The model shapes the basic capabilities of the entrepreneur to ascertain opportunities, purchase resources and develop an efficient management team. Minniti, as cited in Ko and Liu (2015), asserts that the Timmons model presents an all-inclusive view of the entrepreneurship process which rests on three interconnected factors as key to a successful business. Supporting the view, Bygrave and Zacharakis (2011) opined that another significant element in the Timmons model is the importance afforded to creativity, leadership and communication. According to them, the model demonstrates that an entrepreneur's leadership ability is important if growth of the entrepreneurial process is to take place. The model replicates the significant responsibility of the leader to effectively balance the three components of the entrepreneurship process to establish a perfect fit.

Smith, Mathews and Schenkel (2009) concur that a leader is also responsible for the formulation of an effective vision and for communicating this vision to the entire team, or organisation, to achieve its goals. If the vision is not spelt out clearly to the team, or if it is not successfully communicated, the survival of the new business will hang in the balance. Scally (2015) observed that failure by the leader to *cascade*a vision to other members of the team might create difficulties within the operational structure of the business. The entrepreneur thus, in essence, assumes the duty of persuading the team and building an efficient working environment.

Bhalerao and Kamble (2015) posit that the Timmons model of entrepreneurial process is normative in nature. That is, the three model components (team, resources and opportunity) form the basis, and the entrepreneur needs to strike a balance between these factors by utilising creativity, effective communication and leadership in the ambiguous external environment (Wahl & Prause, 2013). Wahl and Prause (2013) further maintain that there are numerous factors, other than creativity, effective communication and leadership, which may impact upon the success, or failure, of a start-up business. Some of these factors are *external* in nature (e. g. seasonal change in demand, power of suppliers) and cannot be controlled by the entrepreneur whilst some are *internal* and lie within the entrepreneur's sphere of control. An example of an internal factor is an entrepreneur's in capability to inculcate trust with regards to a business idea. He/she would thus be unable to gain commitment and/or support of others (Tracey, Phillips & Jarvis, 2011). Other factors include copied business ideas or selecting a very narrow market segment which may already be overloaded. A further factor which may inhibit the performance of a new business enterprise is the rigidity of the entrepreneur's plans. When a business enterprise is in its early stages, it is essential that the entrepreneur be flexible in his/her strategy to expand the business and make it succeed. A new business enterprise can often face catastrophe such as rapidly using all its capital which may result in burn out. In this case, the organisation will require extra funds, highlighting the dangerous initial stage of any new start up (Zhou & Rosini, 2015). Many scholars, including Bhalerao and Kamble (2015), Ko and Liu (2015) as well as Johnson et al. (2017), have highlighted the basic skills that an entrepreneur must acquire in order to successfully balance all three factors contained in the Timmons model of entrepreneurship process. Entrepreneurs need to be: ambitious, risk-takers, focused, good at building and maintaining social relationships, creative and inspirational. They need to rally their team towards achieving the firm's goals.

II. Conclusion

The fact that entrepreneurship is moving beyond the behavioural phase concentrating not on the personality of entrepreneurs, but on the activities they engage (Timmons 1999), it is evident that this paper focused on the processes underlying the "activity-based" concepts in order to reach more clarity on creativity and innovation in the entrepreneurship domain. The concept of entrepreneurship and definition of entrepreneurship have developed over time as the world's economic

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structure has changed and become more complex. Since its beginnings in the Middle Ages, when it was used in relation to specific occupations, the concept of the entrepreneur has been broadened to include the characteristics like risk taking, innovation, and creation of wealth. There are number of virtues like creativity, leadership, team building, motivation, problem solving, commitment and goal orientation that characterised most successful entrepreneurs.

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Strategic Integrative Approach of Urban Slum Community Development: A Case of Dushtha Shasthya Kendra in Bangladesh

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Abstract- Slum communities are widespread in Dhaka city of Bangladesh. Rapid urbanization is an underlying cause of forming slum communities in the city. Slum people in these communities confront various interrelated and multifaceted social, economic, and environmental problems. These problems impede them from maintaining a decent standard of living. In response, several urban development projects (primary and secondary health care projects, micro-credit projects, water and sanitation hygiene project, and human capital development cells) are inaugurated by a well-known non-profit social organization (Dushtha Shasthya Kendra (DSK)) to get out of destitute slum people from a vicious cycle of poverty. DSK undertakes a strategic integrative approach for the sustainable management of these projects. This unique approach strategically interconnects these projects to deliver unified development services to impoverish slum communities by developing community-based organizations (CBO). DSK emphasizes creating, maintaining, and managing self-sustained CBOs for operational sustainability and empowering slum communities to boost their self-efficacy by giving them leadership to access and manage local development resources.

Keywords: non-profit organization, slum community, community based organization (CBO), urban development.

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I. Introduction

Bangladesh is a developing country in the northeastern part of South Asia. It covers 147, 570 square km of landmass with a large population base of approximately 162 million (CIA World Fact Book, July 2020 estimation). The country has experienced rapid development in many areas (World Bank, 2019). Still, many development challenges are remained to resolve. The main development challenges of the country resonate around excess pressure on land and agriculture, persistent poverty and income inequality, unplanned urbanization, incompetent health structure, energy insecurity, inefficient water resource management, natural disaster, climate changes, and so on (Bangladesh Secretariat, 2012). Among these, unplanned rapid urbanization becomes one of the focal concerns for ensuring sustainable urban development.

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Rapid urbanization is a reason for forming informal slum settlements that impose limit on sustainable urban development. According to statistics, around 2.23 million slum people find their residence in the city of the country (BBS, 2014). The number of slum settlements is rapidly increasing at an alarming rate to manifest around 3,399 slums in Dhaka out of a total of 13,943 slums in the country (BBS, 2014). People from different regions of the country migrate to Dhaka in searching for their livelihood (Ishtiaque & Mahmud, 2011) in response to low employment opportunities in the rural economy (Black, Kniveton & Schmidt-Verkerk, 2013). Most of the migrated people are impoverished and take shelter in disadvantaged places in the city area to form slums (Farhana, Rahman & Rahman, 2012). It causes disproportionate growth of the urban poor population that augments the slum community in Dhaka city.

The concept of a slum community depends on various spatial contexts. The definition of a slum community is conditional on a set of socio-economic, political, cultural, livelihood, and environmental factors (Banks, 2012). A group of people from a slum community is called slum people who live in an uncomfortable and neglected part of an urban city where housing and living situations are poor (Begum & Moinuddin, 2010). Slum communities in Dhaka confront multifaceted social, economic, and environmental problems. The overcrowded slum settlements render the task of urban planning and development strenuous for public utility providers and local government agencies. In this backdrop, Dushtha Shasthya Kendra (DSK), a social enterprise, develops and integrates multiple development projects under urban development programs. Ensuring social, economic, and environmental justice of the slum habitat to uplift them from the vicious cycle of poverty and improve their standard of life underlies the core of the organizational objectives of DSK.

The current case study attempts to elucidate the mechanism of blending and connecting the major urban development interventions of DSK (the primary and secondary health care project, micro-credit project, water, sanitation hygiene project, and human capital

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development training cells). It highlights the operationalization of a community-based organization (CBO) that occupies a pivotal position in the strategic management of urban development projects of DSK. According to DSK, the coordinated activities of people from slum communities to accomplish specific development objectives are called CBOs (DSK Publication, 2017). CBO-based management of development projects sustainably improves the standard of living of slum people in the long run by channelling solutions to correlated problems from a single institutional framework. Thus, the objective of this case study is to explore the strategic integrative approach of slum community development as a unique urban development approach adopted by DSK in Dhaka city of Bangladesh.

II. Problems of Slum Community in Dhaka City

Slum people in Dhaka encounter several social, economic, and environmental problems. These problems exert paramount uncertainty and vulnerability for them. So, a brief but close examination of the problem confronted by slum people is worthwhile to mention as a background for inaugurating development projects by DSK.

Low Livelihood Status and Extreme Poverty Scenario: The livelihood conditions of slum communities are poverty-stricken. Poverties (income, consumption, and asset holding) are the most frequent problems in urban slum areas (Hossain, 2007). A baseline survey by Nazem and Hossain (2012) demonstrates that 27.10 per cent of slum people fall under extreme poor, 25.43 per cent are poor, 25.04 per cent belong to moderately impoverished, and 22.43 per cent are marginally poor. Slum-dwellers spend 65 per cent of their total income on food items, whereas 96 per cent of households rarely can manage more than two meals in a day. Usually, slum people are engaged in temporary, low-paid, insecure, uncertain, and inflexible employment. A report shows that only 32 per cent of slum households involve in the formal low-skilled job, 34 per cent are unskilled labourers, and 20 per cent engage in small vendor businesses (Banks, 2012). The main occupations of slum people include micro business, low skilled workers, garment workers, rickshaw pullers, day labourers, housemaids, vegetable vendors, shopkeepers, pushcart drivers, and many more (Alamgir, Jabbar & Islam, 2009; Rokanuzzaman, Hossain & Miah, 2013). The worst poverty scenarios across slum communities become evident that slum people stay lagging behind for attaining minimum livelihood status.

Poor Quality Housing and Threats of Eviction: Economically deprived slum people find their accommodation in undignified conditions in environmentally hazardous areas such as solid waste landfills, open drains, culverts, and near to contaminating industries (Alamgir, Jabbar & Islam, 2009). Most of the housing conditions are indigent (weak and temporary structure). It is also subject to high population density (around 891 persons per acre) (Islam, Mahbub & Nazem, 2009). Slum houses are composed of local cheap and non-durable raw materials (BBS, 2014). The weakly structured house may cause substantial human suffering in response to disasters like floods, cyclones, storms, earthquakes, and many more. In the meantime, threats of eviction become a common problem for slum people that create uncertainty for them. Several examples of eviction incidence are there. For instance, at least 400,000 people have shifted their residence in Dhaka from 1971 to 2010 (Islam & waMungai, 2016). The appearance of eviction has continued to date. After evictions, it seems to be arduous for slum dwellers to emigrate and resettle because most of them already have migrated to an area and have no other alternative places to be settled. Thus, evictions pose risks for slum people to lose their livelihood and render them in impoverished situations (Islam & waMungai, 2016).

Lack of Fresh Water, Sanitation and Health Services: Slum dwellers are restricted to entitle fresh water and sanitation facilities in Dhaka (Arias-Granada et al., 2018). Slum people do not possess a legal identity, residential address, or land ownership. So, they usually do not have the access to get water supply connections from public utility providers (Arias-Granada et al., 2018). Households in the slum community share their latrines and water sources with more than ten other families. Public utility authorities can only cover 37 per cent of slum people by delivering safe water (Arias-Granada et al., 2018). At the same time, 90 per cent of slum people share toilets, and 26 per cent use open spaces. Health problems are the by-product of these unhygienic environments. It leads to various seasonal, waterborne, infective, and chronic diseases such as fever, asthma, food poisoning, skin diseases, diarrhoea, hepatitis, poor mental health, and many more (Howden-Chapman, 2004). Slum people do not get proper treatment and medication when they become sick because they cannot afford to bear the higher cost of modern city hospitals and public health services provision is also constrained by limited resources.

Lack of Proper Education: Even though access to education is crucial for slum people to withhold from extreme poverty (Cameron, 2009), they have minimum access to educational services. Government schools deliver education services to only 26 per cent of slum

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children (Baker, 2007). Schools of various non-government organizations serve 27 per cent of slum people, and the remaining 47 per cent do not have any schooling experience (Baker, 2007). Demographic statistics also reveal that in the adult group (age above 15), approximately 36.2 per cent of males and 42.3 per cent of females have no schooling experience. In the children segment (age above 06 but below 15), around 14.1 per cent of boys and 8.9 per cent of girls stay far from primary school education (Razzaque, Chowdhury & Mustafa, 2019). The ambient of many primary schools for slum children is also not satisfactoryin terms of delivering pure drinking water and proper school sanitation facilities.

III. Case: The Inception of Dushtha Shasthya Kendra (DSK)

In 1985, a team of passionate social entrepreneurs (professionals, doctors, social activists, and volunteers) collaborated to inaugurate the journey using the name of Niramoy Free Friday Clinic. It was a clinic free of cost that dedicatedly operated on weak holidays to relieve distressed slum people from common diseases (DSK, 2018). In the beginning, the clinic was only voluntarily engaged in facilitating primary health in Dhaka. Meanwhile, in 1988, a devastating flood happened that adversely impacted on health conditions of the squatter slum in the city area. In response, DSK formulated a dedicated medical team to work formally in aiding the relief and delivering primary health care services to flood-prone slum people. In the meantime, the clinic obtained its legal status by registering with the Department of Social Service (Dha-02273) in 1989 and finally, emerged as an NGO in 1991, namely Dushtha Shasthya Kendra meaning a health centre for the impoverished with NGO Affair's Bureau (No 577) of Bangladesh (DSK Website).

a) *Major Urban Development Interventions of DSK for Slum People*

DSK started its journey by providing only primary health care services to extremely poor slum squatters in Dhaka. Once it achieved the initial success of the first project, it got the motivation to offer other related services for ameliorating the standard of living of slum people (DSK, 2000). Since then, DSK has been implementing several projects under the urban development program to solve various problems associated with urban public health, education and poverty. These projects range from health care projects (primary health care projects and hospital projects) to microcredit projects, environmental health projects (water supply, sanitation, and hygiene promotion), human resources training cells, and so on (DSK, 2004). DSK tailored these projects so that it could advance the social, economic, and environmental development of slum people by enabling them to be empowered and self-reliant through sustainable CBO development. In the subsequent sub-sections, a brief description is given of the major urban development interventions of DSK.

1. *Meeting Emerging Needs of Primary Health Care Services:* Slum people usually fall under the low-income group. They cannot afford high-cost health care services offered by private hospitals and clinics. The resource constraints of government health care providers are also high to fully satisfy the demand of disadvantaged people. As a result, slum people deprive of having necessary health care services. In filling this gap, DSK undertakes a primary health care project in Dhaka from its inception to build sustainable and participative health networks with the slum community (DSK, 2004). The primary health care project of DSK ensures the availability of health care services free of cost to the vulnerable slum group. However, only the member borrowers of the micro-credit project of DSK are eligible to access the primary health care services. The member borrowers, their children, husband or wife, father and mother become eligible to access the primary health care services. This project centers on three main components of clinical based activity, home visits by community health workers and training of traditional birth attendants (DSK, 2004). Community health workers frequently visit members' houses for regular medical checkups. Patients can also go to satellite clinics for medical treatments whenever required. And the traditional birth attendants are given training about hygienic practices to avoid unprecedented situations during parturition. DSK facilitates community-wide public health education campaigns for exchanging knowledge during the regular community meetings on micro-credit issues.
2. *Replicating Micro-Credit Model in Scaling up the Effects:* DSK has been operating the micro-credit model of Grameen Bank since 1992 as a poverty reduction strategy in the urban slum (DSK, 2014). This micro-credit model enables women in slum communities to empower economically by delivering inclusive financial services (Singha & Alam, 2020). DSK offers several innovative financial instruments, for example, a risk fund (akin to insurance) for livelihood security and property (livestock, crop), mobile services for receiving and issuing cash, money transfer, mobile top-up, account opening, micro-insurance, savings, remittances and so on (DSK, 2014). Women from a family with a monthly income of USD 25 to USD 30 in the range form a group to become eligible for getting micro-credit due to their backward socioeconomic position in society. Women from a group of five members of similar demographic

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status and mutual trust are eligible for accessing the micro-credit. Matching and combining a few groups is a CBO where the entrepreneurial traits of member borrowers are nurtured, harnessed and utilized to develop micro-businesses (DSK Publication, 2016). DSK delivers training to member borrowers on personal financial management, credit operation and management of group savings through the CBO operation. The micro-credit project of DSK positively impacts social rank, political consciousness and relative bargaining position of women in family and society.

3. *Ease the Access to Pure Drinking Water:* Slum people do not get pure water supply from Dhaka Water Supply and Sewerage Authority (DWASA) because they do not have the endowment of land ownership in city (Matin, 1999). The DWASA and other utility providers also have a negative perception regarding the financial ability of slum communities to pay bills on time. Informal water markets also have been operated by locally influential persons to sell water at an unreasonably higher price to squatter slum people. In this situation, DSK starts playing an intermediary role between the slum community (buyer) and the DWASA (supplier) for mitigating such market void (Matin, 1999). DSK bears the liability of paying security deposits and unpaid charges to DWASA on behalf of slum people and negotiates with DWASA and Dhaka City Corporation (DCC) to build water points for slum communities. DSK ensures the supply of pure water to slum people and creates a demand for pure water to slum people through a community-wide awareness campaign. DWASA and DSK jointly constructed the first water point in October 1992 which serves more than 200 households (Matin, 1999). DSK has established more than 3200 water connections with the coordination, guidance and strategic supervision of international donors, DCC and DWASA to benefit around 800,000 slum people in Dhaka (DSK, 2018). Moreover, DSK transferred the ownership of water points to the community in 2001. Now, slum communities can directly communicate with DWASA for new water points. They also can engage in financial transactions with DWASA. Thus, DSK puts forward a transformation in the water delivery system for the slum community by building a direct networking protocol for them with DWASA and by changing their social practices.
4. *Supporting Sanitation Facilities and Promoting Hygiene Awareness:* Slum settlers usually dispose of excreta at a nearby open drain and water body. They do not afford the initial investment of constructing, maintaining and adopting safe sanitation technology options. They lack awareness of using and maintaining hygienic practices and latrines. It causes a direct threat to the urban environment and the health of slum people. In response, DSK engages in promoting, supporting, guiding and sustaining hygienic practices among slum people (DSK, 2018). DSK segments and targets the slum community into multiple groups to conduct promotional campaigns. It disseminates information on the importance of using safe water, hand washing at six critical times, food hygiene, solid wastage management, menstrual health management, sanitation and hygienic practices to men, women, adolescent girls and children of slum communities. DSK arranges several interactive sessions such as focus group discussions, workshops and training to facilitate the awareness campaign.

   DSK also has been implementing an innovative awareness project in 27 urban primary schools since 2007. Teachers of schools teach and guide students to change their attitudes toward sanitation and hygiene practices so that students can transfer good practices from schools to their communities. It relieves slum children from various diseases (diarrhoea, dysentery, worm infestation) and increases their enrollments, attendance, welfare and learning performance. Along with awareness campaigns, DSK also provides two types of financial support: grant-based and lending based to create demand for hygienic technology options among slum communities (Singha, 2019). DSK mobilizes funds under the grant scheme from different donors and foundations to purchase, install and maintain sanitation hardware for slum people. It also sanctions loans for sanitation purposes at flexible maturity, terms, conditions and interest rates.
5. *Delivering Secondary Health Care Services at Affordable Prices:* DSK established a hospital in 1999 at Mohammadpur of Dhaka with the financial support of the Swiss Red Cross (DSK, 2013). The hospital delivers secondary and tertiary healthcare services to low-income slum people and middle-income people (DSK, 2010). Three categories of hospital services include: indoor patient services (patient admissions, labour and general surgical operation theatre), outdoor patient services, emergency services, mother and child care services, operation, and medical investigative services (diagnostic, laboratory, ultrasound, radiography), and ambulance services. Emergency services are open for 24 hours and outdoor services for 12 hours a day. The prices of these services are substantially low in contrast to the traditional private hospitals. The hospital only maintains a break-even cost to operate in the long run (DSK, 2019). The

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hospital has all modern upgraded pieces of equipment and a team of highly skilled and professional technicians. The hospital team consists of a director, gynaecologists, surgeons, oncologists, nurses, specialist doctors and supporting staff.

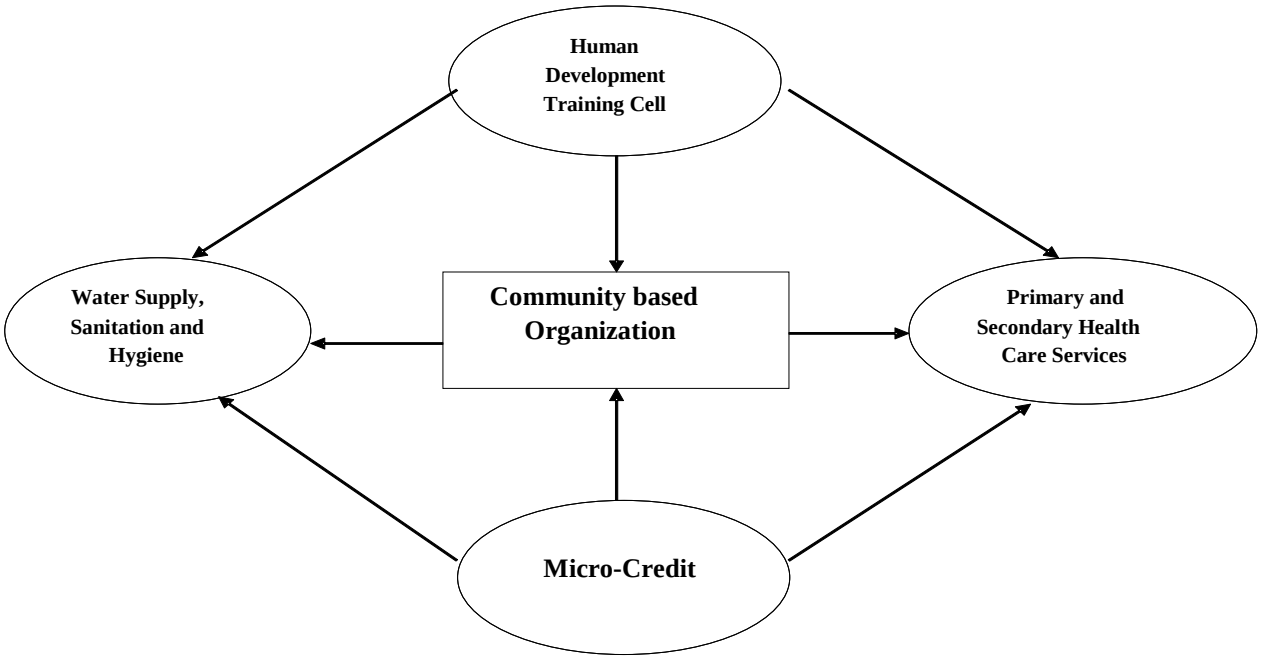
6. *Development of Human Capital that can Create Difference:* DSK emphasizes developing human capital as an enduring task to accomplish urban development objectives. It started a well-structured training cell in 1999 for capacity building of its staff and community members (DSK, 2004). The training module of the training cell aims to keep up the motivation and productivity of development workers and CBO members. DSK provides training to employees on microcredit project management; managerial skill development; orientation on service rules; accounting and management system; team and leadership building; office management; gender sensitivity; software; training on psychosocial counselling; and advanced training on saving and revolving loan. The grass root participants training of DSK includes management of CBO, gender, team building and leadership, disaster management, project planning, safe health behaviour development, monitoring approaches, communication skill development, financial management, reproductive health service, community-based disaster risk reduction, assessing health risk and safety and strategy for self-help group development. A pool of professional experts from DSK, government agencies, and other NGOs develop, deliver, evaluate and update the training materials. Through this training cell, DSK shares the organizational values, missions, visions, norms and culture among employees and slum community members to productively engage them to short term and long term development objectives.

IV. Discussions

DSK, a well-known social enterprise, extends its operational horizon to provide development assistance in slum communities at three layers. At the first layer of its operation, DSK begets its journey by supplying relief and primary health care to squatter slum communities in response to a devastating flood. Then, it acquires the legal identity as a non-profit organization. Even though DSK initiates its operation by delivering primary health care services, it does not confine its development services to the health sector only. It accumulates experiences and gathers knowledge about the problems confronted by the slum community. DSK learns from the slum context that earning a subsistence level of income and access to other basic amenities are essential to get out of slum people from the vicious cycle of poverty. So, DSK brings momentum to its operational excellence by diversifying its development project portfolio at second layer. The significant development projects of DSK include but are not limited to microcredit, hospital, water, sanitation and hygiene, and human capital development project. At the final layer of DSK's operation in the urban development, it plans to sustain and scale up the positive impacts by strategically integrating these projects through CBOs.

Figure one depicts the connections among major urban development projects of DSK, whereas CBOs underlie the heart of the interlinkages. It represents a unique urban development approach undertaken by DSK to illustrate a strategic integrative perspective of slum community development. Slum people confront a set of problems that are not independent. These problems are closely connected and have multiplicative adverse effects. So, the solution landscape of DSK base on delivering blended and aligned multiple development services to slum people. The integrated development service provisions of DSK aims to ensure social, economic and environmental value for the disastrous slum people at the same time from a single organization which has been achieved by formulating and operationalizing CBOs.

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Source: Author

Figure 1: Strategic Integrative Approach of Urban Slum Community Development

CBOs thrive on specific development purposes for slum people and ensure human participation in the development process, where the development goals are formulated and implemented by slum community members. CBOs coordinate various development activities of DSK. The microcredit borrower's groups develop CBOs with the direct help and guidance of DSK. Most of the members of CBOs are women who actively participate in the people-centric development process as co-creators in DSK's development projects. The executive committee of CBOs does have authority to accept, select and sanction loan applications. CBOs develop and maintain close networking with telecommunication services providers, financial institutions and donors for the operational sustainability of the micro-credit intervention. DSK effectively blends its primary health care project with the microcredit project (DSK, 2014). Community participation based health care services are delivered to borrowers of microcredit projects through CBOs to simultaneously impact public health and economic indicators (DSK, 1997). This community-driven mechanism reveals the growing participation rate of the borrower members of micro-credit to health care projects. In addition, DSK transfers 2.5 per cent of income earned by the microcredit project to finance primary health care projects. DSK hospital also allocates 5 per cent of gross income as a 'health equity fund' for the poor CBO members who can get secondary health services free of cost. Members of microcredit projects can also apply for loans for building the water points, and buying, installing and maintaining hygienic-sanitary technology (Singha, 2019). DSK adopts the model of self-governed CBOs to manage the water points in terms of cost of capital, operation and maintenance (Martin, 1999). A representative water committee is also formed for each CBO, headed by women, to support the community in solving local problems through proper planning, designing, selecting the location, and formulating water use rules. DSK transferred the ownership of water points to the community in 2001 for the first time. Since then, CBOs can construct and manage water connections and pay the bill to DWASA on behalf of slum people. CBOs also hold responsibility for the operation, maintenance and cleanliness of the sanitary hardware. In interconnecting these development projects, the human capital development cell of DSK plays a vital role. It enhances the capability of its employees and team leaders of CBOs. The training cell of DSK provides dedicated training to the staff on microcredit, water supply, sanitation and hygiene, and primary and secondary health projects. It also gives necessary training to CBO members, who directly influence the members of the slum community.

By formulating CBOs to connect different development services for delivering integrated social, economic and environmental value, DSK contributes to transforming the social practices of slum communities.

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DSK sorts a path for members of CBOs to be empowered to communicate and interact with various stakeholders such as slum people in a slum community, government organizations, local and international civil society, local governments, legal and political institutions, and donor agencies. CBOs thus act as a vehicle of strategic management of empowerment and leadership skill development for the slum community to uptake the responsibility of advancing their status quo of their own. They identify and execute community development planning which is specific, measurable, achievable and realistic with the guidance, supervision, resource supply and training of DSK. CBO development strengthens the capacity of the slum community for local development goals. Slum people can analyze the problems they confront, plan and monitor the development activities for solving the problems, find and mobilize a pool of resources, allocate the budget, proceed with the necessary paperwork, and execute periodically (weekly, monthly, yearly) meetings. CBOs also generate project funds by collecting funds from members and engaging in some revenue-generating activities. That's how DSK chooses the sustainability of its operational capacity as a means of the creation of self-sustained CBOs. These self-governed CBOs learn to manage community resources and development aid from the government, donors, foundations and civil societies to enhance the operational capacity of delivering development services.

V. Conclusion

The strategic integrative approach to urban slum development of DSK under social entrepreneurship for slum people already has proved successful. DSK provides the means, motivations, legislative and resource support to form CBOs. It also helps transform self-reliant and self-governed CBOs for sustainable urban development in the long run. CBOs work as a social platform or a representative agent to negotiate and bargain for the social welfare of the squatter slum people. The urban development interventions of DSK, which are channelled and connected through the operation of CBOs, bring about system-level change to get out slum people from a vicious cycle of poverty. For example, the unique and realistic sustainable water supply model of DSK leads to social changes in the power relationship among multiple stakeholders (slum dwellers, the landlords, the water utility and the city authority) (Matin, 1999). It reshapes the dynamics of the power structure in the society to guide toward sustainable cities. This intervention is widely diffused and replicated by various domestic and international development institutions and the Government of Bangladesh in both rural and urban settings (Akash & Singha, 2011). Meanwhile, the awareness campaign regarding hygiene and sanitation practices among students is another innovative way of bringing change from the grassroots. This project of DSK focuses on developing a learning chain from teacher to child, child to child, child to parents and parents to community for effectively disseminating the message of sanitation and hygienic practices. When government health care services are constrained, and the private provision remains unreachable considering higher prices, DSK hospital becomes a hope for accessing secondary and tertiary health care services for urban slum people. DSK also has scaled up its operational excellence of micro-credit to empower economically marginalized people in geographically dispersed areas of Bangladesh. DSK also emphasizes developing human capital for sustainability. It provides well-designed training on different development issues to its employees, members of CBOs and other development partners. In this way, DSK scaled up its operational excellence to eradicate extreme poverty and improve the health status of any disadvantaged group in Bangladesh. DSK has successfully diffused and operated this unique development perspective in three other mega-urban cities in Bangladesh. It also has expanded its operational horizon to the rural, coastal and wetland regions domestically and in the foreign countries like Rwanda, Afghanistan and Zambia. Experiences accumulated from one project and context assist the social enterprise (DSK) in understanding the problems and solutions of new projects and integration of those projects. DSK designs and integrates some necessary services delivered by multiple projects that promote social, economic and environmental value to poor people in getting them out of a vicious cycle of poverty.

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Assessment of Quality of Healthcare Services in Select Hospitals: A Servqual Approach

By Sabyasachi Rath

Abstract- The pursuit of quality healthcare has been the subject of all organizations; may it be the government, the nongovernmental and the private bodies that have concerns for health for all. There are many approaches to designing and delivering quality of services to the people. Servqual approach a seminal work of parasuraman et.al (1985) has been well received universally. But many studies with modified methodologies were conducted in divergent service setups. One such setup is healthcare organizations. This study attempts to assess quality of services in public and private hospitals in the twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad, which are known as Health capitals of India, due to the extensive healthcare facilities available. Results reveal that both type of hospitals have gaps in the quality of services as expected and perceived by the patients. Implications have been drawn for closing the gaps in the services.

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I. Introduction

The external health care environment is often described as hyper turbulent, which means managers cannot find and implement solutions to a particular problem before the nature and scope of the problem change. This type of decision-making environment results in managers collectively turning their attention to those matters with which they are most comfortable or that are the most visible or best understood. Although a focus on internal, day-to-day concerns may seem natural and comfortable, unfortunately an internal-only approach means that the all-important external decision-making arena may be neglected. At this juncture the concept of healthcare marketing comes in the picture. In the past, health-marketing professionals were quite concerned about assessment of customer satisfaction. In the recent times, quality of healthcare services is considered to be the precondition to the quality of healthcare. (Berry, L. L., Parasuraman, A. and Zeithaml, V. (1988)".

Quality information is important to consumers and providers alike. However, the essential elements of "quality" may be understood in quite different ways and ranked with different priorities among various consumer and professional groups. For example, health professionals may relate to objective and technical measures of quality, such as statistical measures of clinical performance. Lay consumers of health services may base quality on less technically complex and more.

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Assessment of quality of services provided by the hospitals in these days has been a serious concern for the hospitals and health care organizations owing to the excessive demands imposed on them by the users, consumer for a, government and the society at large. As a result, many hospitals have resorted to such assessment not only for the reasons of compliance but for the improvement of the services to the satisfaction of the users. Nevertheless, such efforts have not been much strengthened by research perspective owing to the lack of adequate qualification on the part of the providers and also lack of time to scientifically carry out such assessments by the executives. Hence there is a need to do some scientific analysis in this area of patient satisfaction.

II. Present Study

The SERVQUAL approach to measurement of service quality has attracted considerable attention since it was first introduced by Parasuraman et.al (1985). The approach starts from the assumption that the level of service quality experienced by patients is critically determined by the gap between their expectations of the service and their perceptions of what they actually receive from a specific service provider.

In this study, an attempt has been made to follow such approach and do the gap analysis using the perceived service quality scores and expected service quality scores. The difference between perceived scores and the expected scores is the gap in the quality of services. Further, in this paper, gap analysis has been carried out separately for the public hospitals, and private hospitals.

A comprehensive service quality measurement scale was developed on a marketing perspective by Parasuraman, Zeithanl and Berry (1988) to provide an instrument for measuring service quality across a broad range of service industries. To that extent, using same methodology suggested by them has been adapted in this study.

Thus keeping in view the objective of this study, it has been hypothesized that there will not be any significant gaps in the perceived and expected service quality as responded by patients from both public and private hospitals. Thus this null hypothesis has been tested and results in this regard are presented in the following sections

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III. Method

Using a descriptive-analytic research design quality of services in the select hospitals in the twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad of Andhra Pradesh state. Two types of hospitals were selected on the basis of their ownership namely public hospitals and the private hospitals. Besides they were qualified on the basis of their bed strength. As such, three hospitals in the private ownership and three hospitals in public ownership have been short-listed. Using a 2x2 factorial design (two types of hospitals and two service units in these hospitals), the sample for this study includes 300 patients (150 from private hospitals and 150 from public hospitals) selected by using stratified disproportionate random sampling method. The patients were selected randomly on the basis of the hospital they visited for the services. Thus, in all, there were 25 patients from each hospital resulting in 100 patients per ownership, 75 spread over type of care namely intensive care unit or general care unit from hospitals were selected for this study. All these were administered the structured interview schedule. Thus, in all, the total sample is 300.

The interview method was utilized and the interview schedule included two parts. questions pertaining to personal background, a standardized scale pertaining to assessment of their satisfaction developed for this study, and a standardized scale developed to assess quality of services, using SERVQUAL approach, provided by the hospitals the split half reliability of the scale was computed.

All the scales used in this study were examined for their reliability and were found to be highly reliable with more internal consistency.

In order to examine the gaps in the expected and perceived services quality, means, Sds and t-test values were computed for testing of the null hypothesis.

IV. Results and Discussion

The null hypothesis has been tested using means, SDs and the t-values computed for all the dimensions of quality of services using servqual approach. Further the expected and the perceived scores on all the dimensions of the service quality have also been presented separately. Thus the results in this regard are presented in the following tables.

Table 1: Gap Analysis of Quality of Expected and the Perceived Healthcare Services in Public Hospitals

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Paired Means Differences	Paired SD Differences	T	Df	P=
Pair 1	Tangible Perceived	9.53	2.73	.223	-3.26	2.03	-19.65	149	.000
	Tangibles Expected	12.79	2.64	.216					
Pair 2	Reliability Perceived	3.75	1.98	.162	-3.24	1.93	-20.51	149	.000
	Reliability Expected	6.99	1.96	.160					
Pair 3	Responsiveness Perceived	5.55	1.51	.124	-3.20	2.04	-19.18	149	.000
	Responsiveness Expected	8.75	2.26	.185					
Pair 4	Assurance Perceived	4.83	1.73	.142	-3.06	2.11	-17.74	149	.000
	Assurance Expected	7.90	2.35	.193					
Pair 5	Empathy Perceived	3.05	1.84	.151	-3.26	2.00	-19.94	149	.000
	Empathy Expected	6.31	1.98	.162					

It is clear from the table that as regards tangibles in public hospitals services, the difference between expected score (mean=12.79) and the perceived (mean=9.53) is 3.26. Such difference in the tangibles as dimension of services quality in public hospitals is statistically significant which is evident from the paired t-test value presented in the table. This means that there is a wide gap by 3 counts in the tangibles as dimension of services quality in public hospitals.

With regard to reliability, the perceived score (mean=3.75) was less than the expected score (mean=6.99) by 3 counts which is the gap. Such gap or difference in the quality scores is statistically significant which is also evident from the paired t-test value presented in the table. This means that the reliability of services in public hospitals has a wider gap as difference found by the patients.

As regards responsiveness of the services of health care as dimension of quality of services, it is found that the perceived score (mean= 5.55) was lesser than the expected score (mean= 8.75). The gap found between them is by 3.0 units. The paired t-test value suggests that such gap in the responsiveness of the healthcare services in the public hospitals is statistically significant. This means that patients from public hospitals expected more responsiveness from these hospitals.

It is further found that with regard to assurance, it is clear from the table that the perceived service quality is less (mean= 4.83) than the expected score (mean=7.90). The gap was found to be 3.0 units. Such difference in their perceived and expected mean score was also found to be statistically significant which is evident from the f-value presented in table.

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This means that patients expect more assurance in the quality of services provided to them by the public hospitals.

Lastly, with regard to empathy, it is found that the perceived score was less (mean=3.05) than the expected score (mean=6.31). The gap was found to be 3.0 units. Such gap was also found to be statistically significant which is evident from the paired t-test value presented in the table. This means that the patients in the public hospitals feel that the public hospitals should empathize more with them.

Table 2: Gap Analysis of Quality of Expected and the Perceived Healthcare Services in Private Hospitals

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Paired Means Differences	Paired SD Differences	T	Df	P=
Pair 1	Tangible Perceived	12.23	1.40	.115	-1.90	1.20	-19.27	149	.000
	Tangibles Expected	14.13	1.93	.158					
Pair 2	Reliability Perceived	8.07	1.10	.090	-1.87	1.36	-16.84	149	.000
	Reliability Expected	9.95	1.77	.145					
Pair 3	Responsiveness Perceived	6.99	.85	.070	-1.74	1.49	-14.28	149	.000
	Responsiveness Expected	8.74	1.70	.139					
Pair 4	Assurance Perceived	8.56	1.20	.098	-1.71	1.53	-13.63	149	.000
	Assurance Expected	10.27	2.04	.167					
Pair 5	Empathy Perceived	5.63	1.26	.103	-1.94	1.36	-17.38	149	.000
	Empathy Expected	7.57	1.97	.161					

With regard to the gap analysis in private hospitals, it is quite clear from the table that the quality of tangibles expected (mean14.13) by the patients in relation to their perceived tangibles (mean=12.23) reveals that though the gap is by 2.0 units approximately, yet such gap was found to be statistically significant as evident from the paired t-test value presented in the table. This indicates that the patients do perceive a significant gap in the expected and the perceived quality of tangibles as part of services quality in the private hospitals.

As regards, reliability of the health care services in private hospitals, patients perception of the reliability of services (mean=8.07) is lesser than their expected score (mean=9.95). Thus there exists a gap of 1.8 units. Such gap was also found to be statistically significant which is evident from the paired t value presented in the table.

In case of responsiveness of the services, it was found that the responsiveness expected (mean 8.74) was more than the responsiveness perceived (mean=6.99). The gap between them was found to be 1.74 units. Such gap was also found to be statistically significant. This indicates that though the gap was found to be relatively less, yet such gap was found to be significant from the t-value presented in the table.

With regard to assurance, it could be seen from the table that the perceived assurance (mean=8.56) is less than the assurance expected (mean=10.27). Thus the gap between them was to be 1.71 units. Interestingly such gap is found to be statistically significant.

Lastly, with regard to empathy, it is seen from the table that the empathy expected (mean=7.57) was more than the empathy perceived (mean=5.63) by the patients. The gap was found to be 2.0 units. Such gap was also found to be statistically significant. This indicates that that though the gap in such service dimension was thin, yet such gap was found to be a significant one.

In conclusion, it could be said that the gaps existing in perceived and expected quality of services was more in case of public hospitals on all the dimensions of services quality when compared with those of private hospitals. Bu and large, patients expressed certain gaps in their perceived and the expected services in both types of hospitals, yet such gaps were found to be m ore in public hospitals than in private hospitals, thus the null hypothesis that "there is no gap in the perceived and the expected quality of healthcare services in the hospitals as reported by the patients" is rejected since, it was found that in both public and private hospitals, when separate gap analyses were run, statistically significant gaps were found in these hospitals separately.

V. Implications

How to fill the services gaps? The following implications were drawn for filling in the gaps.

1. *Learn about Patients Perceptions:* As they are individuals, each patient will perceive things differently in the same situation. While many

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measurement programs attempt to get at mass averages from which hospitals will build or rebuild their quality and patient's service programmes, it is imperative that the managers at least consider identifying each patient's individual perspective.

The perceptions that are to be identified should include: what patients look for in the hospitals; why they change hospitals; what might make them change again in the future and how soon; what are their criteria for acceptable service quality performance; what must they perceive to be minimally satisfied; what must managers do to make them extremely satisfied; and what must managers do for them so that they will continue to be repeat patients in case of their health considerations.

2. *Determination of Patients' Needs, Wants, Requirements and Expectations:* Patient satisfaction measurements not only must determine how the patients feel about the services they receive but also asses what they need and want from the hospitals currently and in future.
3. *Closing the Gaps:* There are many gaps that exist between patients and hospitals identified in this study. All the gaps are based on differences in perceptions between what the hospitals believed it has provided and what the patients perceived to have received. Here is a list of the important ones.

i. The gap between what a hospital thinks a patient wants and what the patient actually wants.
ii. The gap between what a hospital thinks a patient has bought and what a customer perceives has been received
iii. The gap between the service quality the hoapital believes it is providing and what the patient perceives is being provided
iv. The gap between the patient's expectations of service quality and actual performance.
v. The gap between marketing promises and actual delivery.

Therefore closing these gaps is critical to the success in satisfying and retaining the patients to the hospitals.

4. *Inspection for Improving Service Quality and Customer Satisfactions:* Hospitals must set standards of performance as stated earlier, inform the staff and the patients of those standards and then measure the actual performance against those standards.
5. When goals are set for the hospital services based on patients' requirements and expectations, then publicly measure the hospitals' performance towards those goals. This is a best choice for improving both hospitals quality and the services to the patients.
6. *Improved Performance Leads To Increased Profits:* While there is no guarantee that this will occur, it is a safe assumption hat if services are improved while delivering them, hospitals will benefit from increased profits. More patients will want to use services from such hospitals., thereby increasing the bed occupancy and also the volume of diagnostics for the patients, thereby contributing to profits.
7. *Draw Road Maps:* There are many good reasons to measure service equality performance and patients' satisfaction levels. While gaps are identified and learn about how to close them, it only gives hospitals an opportunity to learn further how the hospital is doing right here and right now. And also it enables to initiate further steps for the future.
8. *Process of Continuous Improvement:* If hospitals do not try to continuously improve the services offered, someone else will and then the patients from one hospital will change their loyalty. While asking patients about how you can do better, ask employees as well for suggestions, and recommendations. This will make incremental improvements.

VI. Conclusion

Health care leaders once felt that marketing was only for other industries or had extremely limited use in health care. Today, however, health care marketing is viewed as a necessity that can offer a health care organization a competitive advantage as well as a benefit that can be offered to potential collaboration partners. Historically, in the era of cost-plus reimbursement, health care marketing efforts were put in place for the narrow purpose of increasing the utilization of services. Today's health care leaders, however, understand that reimbursement initiatives from government programs and managed care organizations define organizational success as the ability to control the cost of providing services, and not as the ability to fill beds. This study attempted to assess the service quality gaps that existed in public and private hospitals. Results show that both types of hospitals had services gaps. Implications for filling the gaps have been made.

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Recreation and Holiday Practices among Workers in Manufacturing Companies in Nigeria

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Abstract- Recreational activities have been argued to positively influence human health and quality of life. This study investigates the influence of recreation and holiday practices on the attitudes and performance of workers in manufacturing companies. Multistage sampling technique was adopted to select samples; purposive sampling method was employed in selecting Lagos and Ogun State and three Local Government Areas in each based on the concentration of manufacturing companies they have. Purposive and availability sampling was further used to select companies above ten years old and workers that have spent above five years and willing to partake in the study. Snow-balling method was lastly employed to select 300 respondents from the companies. Data were collected through the use of questionnaire and further analysed and presented through the use of tables, chart, simple percentages and t-test. Result revealed that there is no significant relationship ($p = 0.177$) between recreation and holiday practices and employee job satisfaction. The study however found that there is a significant relationship ($p = 0.001$) between recreation and holiday practices and employee performance.

Keywords: *recreation, holiday, manufacturing companies, workers.*

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Recreation and Holiday Practices among Workers in Manufacturing Companies in Nigeria

Ibraheem Adesina Kukoyi [α] & Opemipo Alaba Ijose [σ]

Abstract- Recreational activities have been argued to positively influence human health and quality of life. This study investigates the influence of recreation and holiday practices on the attitudes and performance of workers in manufacturing companies. Multistage sampling technique was adopted to select samples; purposive sampling method was employed in selecting Lagos and Ogun State and three Local Government Areas in each based on the concentration of manufacturing companies they have. Purposive and availability sampling was further used to select companies above ten years old and workers that have spent above five years and willing to partake in the study. Snow-balling method was lastly employed to select 300 respondents from the companies. Data were collected through the use of questionnaire and further analysed and presented through the use of tables, chart, simple percentages and t-test. Result revealed that there is no significant relationship (p = 0.177) between recreation and holiday practices and employee job satisfaction. The study however found that there is a significant relationship (p = 0.001) between recreation and holiday practices and employee performance. The study concludes that recreation and holiday practices should be sustained and improved upon to have good employee performance thereby sustaining and improving organizational productivity.

Keywords: recreation, holiday, manufacturing companies, workers.

I. Introduction

Recreation has emerged as one of the primary social good which the rational citizen wants and which an organization or any institution might be expected to provide. In the turbulent business environment, the main aim of every manufacturing industry is to improve its productivity but this can never be possible without efficient performance of employees. Yet one of the major challenges facing many countries has been the need to improve the performance of employees. It is a common saying that *"all work and no play make Jack a dull boy"*. This implies that, to bring out the best in workers, there is need for recreation in work schedule.

The call for reduction in the number of hours which workers spent while working received significant attentions after the Third World War in European countries and the United States (Labour Review, 1927). In the USA investigations have also brought about questions on what workers would be making use of the leisure time secured through the shorter workday for. Although, many organisations and individuals are passionate about jobs with suitable leisure hours and the importance of outdoor recreation to the well-being of the people has been particularly emphasized by the American Government (Labour Review, 1927). It is the interest of this study to establish the symbiotic effects of encouraging recreation and holiday at work places to both employers and employees.

According to Naude et'al. (2012), leisure has impact on the overall quality of work life of employees and the physical health and safety of workers. Therefore, investigating the recreation and holiday practices that workers in manufacturing companies engage in during their leisure time is significant to national development given the role of manufacturing sector in an economy.

The manufacturing sector is a potential instrument of modernization, a creator of jobs, and a generator of positive spill-over effects (Nyameh, 2013). More so, the growth in manufacturing output has been a key element in the successful culture transformation of most economies that have seen sustained rises in their per capita income (Sajuyigbe *et'al*, 2013). Focus should therefore be on manufacturing good products and those factors that may foster its growth. There is a need for managers of manufacturing industry to ensure that employees have enough time for leisure as this will help them to understand the need for creativity and to be committed to changing their behaviour at work, in new and improved ways (Robbins and Judge, 2013; Officha *et'al.,* 2013).

Many organizations have policies guiding the workers in pursuing their interest at heart to achieve their ultimate goal at the expense of their employees. Duly, most manufacturing companies are aware of recreation and holiday practices but at what level are the employee allowed to engage in it. Despite the advocacy of recreation to enhance better life for work-family life balance which definitely will serve as a booster, many manufacturing companies failed to have corresponding view growth as expected due to lack of effective holiday and recreation policy implementation. Nigeria as a case study has quite a lot of policies guiding workers, working hours and worker's safety, but there are some challenges such as poor implementation, initiatives,

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level or rank of workers etc. hindering effectiveness of the policies on workers

The choice of Lagos and Ogun State as study area for this research is as a result of the fact that these two states have been reported to have the highest number of manufacturing companies in Nigeria. Over 80% of production activities in Nigeria have been reported to take place in these two states. According to data supplied by the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN), almost 95% of manufacturing activities in the first half of the year 2019 took place in the two states (Odinaka, 2020). Lagos and Ogun State have also been reported to account for 3.2 trillion naira out of Nigeria's 3.7 trillion naira production output in the second half of the year 2021 (Femi, 2022). The two states were reported to be responsible for 86% of manufactured goods consumed in Nigeria and exported. This further establishes the fact that Lagos and Ogun State are currently the industrial hub of Nigeria (Femi, 2022).

a) Aim of Study

This study intends to investigate the attitudes and perception of manufacturing company workers in Lagos and Ogun State towards engaging in recreation and holiday activities in their work place with a view to underscoring its effect on job satisfaction and their performance at work.

b) Objectives of Study

1. Identify factors that influence recreation and holiday practices among workers in manufacturing companies.
2. Identify activities that workers in manufacturing companies engage in for recreation and holiday purposes.
3. Investigate the perception of manufacturing company workers on the effect of recreation and holiday on their performance in their work place.

c) Research Hypotheses

This study is guided by the following hypothetical statements:

Hypothesis1:

Ho: Recreation and holiday have no significant effect on employee's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2:

Ho: Recreation and holiday practices have no significant effect on employee's job performance.

II. Literature Brief

Recreation is an essential part of human life and finds many different forms which are shaped naturally by individual interests but also by the surrounding social construction and availability of required facilities. Akintunde (2001), posit that recreation is a voluntary act, despite not compulsory, leisure (recreation period) has been made statutorily part of daily work place schedule in many organisations. Recreation can serve to combat social ills, just as at a fundamental level, educational and health services tackle ignorance and illness respectively but most private sector, commonly manufacturing companies rarely permit their workers to engage in recreationat work, which at the end lead to lack of fitness and wellbeing of workers, lack of involvement in skillful worthwhile activities, stress and boredom. The advancement of recreation activities, leisure and holiday in all the sectors of the business economy (primary, secondary and tertiary) is very essential as this would help to enhance the level of mental, physical and social aspect of health of an individual in a society in furtherance for economic growth and development.

It has been reported that recreation formed a core element of most welfare programs in Australia and America (Brandes, 1976) and it has remained significant as part of personnel management strategy. Although, recreation as a strategy to improve productivity in work places can only be effective when workers are allowed to freely choose their recreational activities or made to at least have access to what interest them and that which can fascinate them into relaxation mood. Otherwise, the recreation period might not be judiciously utilized by workers, when this happens, the essence of creating a recreation time for workers in workplaces (improved productivity) would not be achieved. According to Akintunde and Ukpong (2010), the concept of recreation for workers revealed that every individual requires health fitness and the healthier a man is, the more productive he will be.

Aditi (2012), posit that outdoor recreation should be encouraged in work places as it promotes healthy relationship amongst employees as well as between management staff and their subordinates. Damaro and Aruoren (2015) reported that engagement in offsite events are employed by successful organisations as human resources development function and means of promoting recreational activities and enhancing team building among their employees. Manali (2012), further emphasize the essence of outdoor recreation as a means of relaxing our mind and something worth of investing in. Mokaya and Kipyegon (2014) also reported that work place recreations have effect on employee's performance and it motivates employees to stay committed to their job and contribute to organisational success.

Recreational activities can be communal or solitary, active or passive, outdoors or indoors, healthy or harmful, and useful for society or detrimental (Kyle *et al.*, 2003). Recreation can also contribute to improving mental health by reducing stress and depression and enhancing emotional and psychological well-being. Recreation is an activity of body and mind which gives relief from tension and fatigue. Therefore, the implementation of recreation and holidaying practices

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as a sub-variable of performance management has been seen as a tool to enhance employee's productivity by managing their performances (Poister, 2003).

Naude et'al. (2012) investigated the effect of leisure on the overall quality of work life of front office employees in a hotel group using a self-administered survey. The relationship between leisure time and leisure preferences and quality of work life was determined with the use of Confirmatory Factor Analyses and Spearman Correlation Coefficient. The study reported that, leisure has effect on the overall quality of work life and it also influences the physical health and safety of workers. Naude et'al. (2012) also reported that the front office employees of the hotel group do not have sufficient time to engage in recreational activities during their leisure period. Brett and Stroh (2003), in a previous study reported that, a recent practice in workplace is for employees to engage themselves in work-leisure trade-off. This means employees bargaining to use their leisure period at work to engage in work-place assignment in order to get additional pay (reward) at work at the expense of their leisure time. This results in either getting lesser time or no time for recreation at all.

Lautizi *et'al.* (2009) reported that compensation, such as pay, leave bonuses and promotion can influence performance levels. This has however affected manufacturing companies in reaching their set objective as it is understood that an organization's success and employee's performance relies heavily on how much attention is paid to its employee compensation policies. A leave of absence 'holiday' can be in form of compensation to a hardworking staff where by giving room for recreational activities which gives benefit of improved physical and mental health, rest, and social benefit of human potential development.

The manufacturing sector plays a vital role in a modern economy and has many dynamic benefits crucial for economic growth. In any advanced economy or even growing economy, the manufacturing sector is a leading sector in many respects. It is an avenue for increasing productivity in relation to import replacement and export expansion, creating foreign exchange earning capacity, rising employment and per capita income, which causes unique consumption patterns. Furthermore, it creates investment capital at a faster rate than any other sector of the economy while promoting wider and more effective linkages among different sectors (Oladejo and Yinus 2014). In terms of contributing to the Gross Domestic Products of Nigeria, the manufacturing sector is a major contributor. It is therefore imperative that researchers investigate the responsiveness of manufacturing companies to recreation and holiday practices being adopted and practiced. It is on this basis that this study focuses on investigating the recreation and holiday practices amongst workers in selected manufacturing companies in Lagos and Ogun State.

III. Methodology

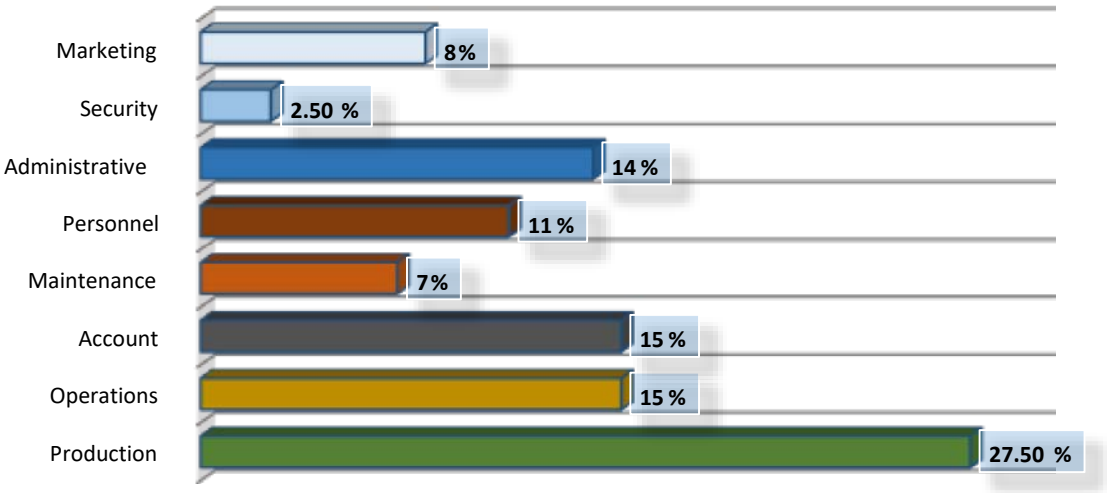
This study adopted descriptive survey as research design. Sampling was done through multistage sampling method. Lagos and Ogun State were purposively selected because of the high concentration of manufacturing companies in these two locations in Nigeria. Out of the twenty LGAs in Lagos State, purposive sampling method was further utilized in selecting three LGAs known for high concentration of manufacturing companies (namely: Ikeja, Oshodi-Isolo and Apapa LGAs). Also in Ogun State, out of the twenty LGAs present, purposive sampling method was used to select another three LGAs based on the high presence of manufacturing companies there (namely: Ado-Odo/Ota, Ifo and Sagamu LGAs). Purposive and availability sampling method was further used to select five manufacturing companies that are above ten years old in existence and willing to participate in the study across the industrial layout in each of the six selected LGAs, making a total of 30 companies. Snow-balling method was further employed to select 10 employees who have spent more than five years in their respective company from various departments/units in each of the selected manufacturing companies through their respective human resources manager. The total sample population was 300 respondents. Data were collected through the use of a well-structured questionnaire. Data gathered were analysed and presented through the use of tables, charts, simple percentage and t-test.

IV. Results and Discussion

a) Distribution of Respondents According to Department/Unit in their Workplace

The distribution of respondents based on department/unit they belong to in their workplace is presented in figure 1. Majority (27.5%) of the respondents were in production department, 15% respondents were in operations department as well as 15% in Account department, 14% respondents were in administrative department, 11% respondents were in personnel department, 8% respondents were in marketing department, 7% respondents were in maintenance department and 2.5% respondents were in security department. This implies that bulk of the respondents for the study are from departments that are directly involved in production which is usually the center of focus in any manufacturing company, followed by operations account, administrative and personnel which are very key in decision making, especially on matters that relate to policy formulation and implementation. The issue of workers welfare is usually under the personnel and/or administrative department and the subject matters in this study "recreation and holiday" issues in an establishment is not likely going to be strange to them.

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Source: Fieldwork (2021)

Figure 1: Distribution of Respondents According to Department/Unit in their Workplace

Given the above distribution of respondents in this study as shown in Figure 1, it is evident that most manufacturing workers have the largest pull of their workers in the production unit. The kind of workers in the production units of a company in collaboration with other units would define the kind of product the company offers. The level of input from the workers in terms of their performance at work also would influence the company's productivity. Hence the opinion of workers can be relied upon investigating to subject matter in this study.

b) *Influencers of Recreation and Holiday Practices in the Manufacturing Companies*

Table 1 presents information on issues that influence the recreation and holiday practices of workers in the manufacturing companies. Majority (61.0%) of the respondents work for 5 days in a week, 19.0% work for 6 days in a week, 11% respondents work for 7 days in a week while the remaining 9.0% respondents work for 4 days in a week. Most (74.0%) of the respondents work for 8 hours per day, 17% work for 10 hours per day while the remaining 9.0% work for more than 10 hours per day. Also, most of the respondents (84.0%) do have break in between working hours while 16% of the respondents do not have break at all in between working hours. None the less, majority (63.7%) of the respondents have experienced going on work leave prior this study while 36.3% of the respondents have not gone on work leave before. In addition, 63.0% of the respondents received their leave bonus before proceeding on leave, 31.0% respondents received their leave bonus after leave while 6.0% does not receive leave bonus at all.

Table 1 equally shows that majority (31.7%) of the respondents are of the opinion that eligibility of employees for work leave should be based on years spent on the job, 28.0% respondents opined that it should be based on employee's department, 24% respondents opined that it should be based on employee's position in the organization while, 16.3% respondents opined that it should be done indiscriminately. Most (71.3%) of respondents affirmed that they can spend from their personal income to go for recreation and holiday activities. Equally, majority (80.7%) of the respondents engages in recreational activities aside from their daily recreation at work which is usually characterized by short time while 19.5% respondents do not engage in recreation outside their work period. Never the less, aside from daily recreation period at work, majority (38.0%) of the respondents engages in other recreational activities on monthly basis, 27.7% respondents recreate on weekly basis while the remaining 34.3% respondents recreate at any convenient time they like. The results from Table 1 indicates that even though not in all cases, most manufacturing companies have provision and policies that allows their workers partake in recreation and holiday activities. This is because majority of the respondents reported that they work for five days in a week for eight hours in a day which is the conventional work period in Nigeria. Hence they have their weekends and evening hours to their discretionary use. In addition, majority also reported that they do have daily break periods, annual leave and leave bonuses paid before proceeding on leave at their work places. This would encourage workers to engage in recreation and holiday activities as reported in table 1.

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Table 1: Influencers of Recreation and Holiday Practices of the Respondents

Parameter	Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Average Number of Days Respondents Work Per Week	4 days	26	9.0
	5 days	183	61.0
	6 days	58	19.0
	7 days	33	11.0
	Total	300	100
Hours of Work Per Day	8 hours	222	74.0
	10 hours	51	17.0
	>10 hours	27	9.0
	Total	300	100
Availability of Break/Recreation Period at Work	Break Time Available	252	84.0
	No Break Time	48	16.0
	Total	300	100
Availability of Work Leave Period for Workers	Work Leave Available	191	63.7
	No Work Leave	109	36.3
	Total	300	100
Availability of Leave Bonus for Workers Going on Leave	Available Before Leave	189	63.0
	Available After Leave	93	31.0
	not Available at All	18	6.0
	Total	300	100
Employee's Perception on the Eligibility Criteria for Work Leave	Position in the Workplace	72	24
	Years on the Job	95	31.7
	Departmental Basis	84	28
	Indiscriminately	49	16.3
	Total	300	100
Aside from Leave Bonus Paid at Work, can you Spend your Personal Money on Going for Holiday or Recreation Activities	Yes	214	71.3
	No	86	28.7
	Total	300	100
Do you Engage in Recreational Activities Aside from your Daily Break at Work	Yes	242	80.7
	No	58	19.3
	Total	300	100
How Often do you Engage in Recreational Activities Aside from Break at Work	Weekly	83	27.7
	Monthly	114	38.0
	Anytime	103	34.3
	Total	300	100

Source: Fieldwork, (2021)

c) *Activities Manufacturing Company Workers Engage in for Recreation and Holiday Purposes*

Table 2 shows the activities engaged in by the respondents. The table indicates that amongst activities engaged in by workers in the manufacturing companies, engagement in exercise and games ranked highest (9^{th}) with 54.8% of the respondents getting highly involved in exercise and game, 34.3% of respondents are moderately involved while 11.0% of the respondents are not involved in exercise and game. Activities engaged in for recreation and holiday that ranked close to exercise and games are listening to music (8^{th}) and travelling (7^{th}). However, clubbing ranked least amongst recreational activities engaged in by the workers. Activities that ranked close to clubbing are picnic and visit to cinema to watch movies. Other activities engaged in for the purpose of recreation and holiday areas presented in table 2.

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That majority of the respondents engaged themselves in exercise and games could be as a result of the knowledge about the health benefits of keeping body and mind fit through regular exercise in addition to the fact that, some body exercise activities are relatively achievable within space, with or without equipment and cheaper in terms of cost compare to many other recreational activities. Listening to music is also relatively easy to achieve for recreational purpose because this can be done with ease almost everywhere. Travelling is not relatively as easy and cheap as engaging in body exercise and listening to music, but the fact that it is one of the highly ranked recreational activities the respondents engaged in could be as a result of the fact that majority of them have time and money relatively useful for this recreational purpose as evident in table 1.

None the less, issues relating to personality and willful allocation of relative scarce discretionary resources such as free time and money in addition to accessibility could be part of reasons why activities such as clubbing, picnic and going to cinemas ranked low amidst recreational activities that workers in manufacturing companies highly involve in.

Table 2: Activities Employee Engages in During Recreation and Holiday Periods

Activities	Highly Involved %	Moderately involved %	Not involved %	Mean Value	Std. Deviation	Rank
Exercise and game	54.8	34.3	11.0	1.56	0.684	9th
Picnic	35.7	41.9	21.4	1.86	0.784	2nd
Shopping	42.4	43.3	14.3	1.72	0.700	6th
Swimming	31.4	59.0	9.5	1.78	0.603	5th
Going to cinema/watching movies	34.3	46.7	17.6	1.83	0.707	3rd
Family retreat	35.7	46.2	18.1	1.83	0.736	3rd
Reading	41.9	32.9	22.9	1.80	0.793	4th
Listening to music	47.6	37.6	14.9	1.66	0.711	8th
Travelling	36.7	56.2	7.1	1.70	0.5	7th
Clubbing	25.7	19.0	54.3	2.31	0.891	1st

Source: Fieldwork (2021)

Note: Recreational Activities are Grouped and Listed in the Order at which Respondents Mentioned them

d) Perception of Manufacturing Company Workers on the Effect of Recreation and Holiday Practices on their Work

Table 3 presents results on the perceived effect of recreation and holiday on employees' performance. The table shows that 'feeling physically relaxed' ranked highest (11th) amongst the effects that the workers in the manufacturing companies perceived that recreation and holiday have on them. Majority of the respondents (98.1%) were in agreement with the statement that recreation and holiday make them feel physically relaxed. This is in agreement with Lautizi *et'al.* (2009) that "recreational activities gives benefit of improved physical and mental health, rest, and social benefit of human potential development." Other perceived effect that ranked close to aforementioned effect are strengthening of family bond (10th) and keeping mind healthy (9th). This is also in agreement with the position of Poister (2003) that "recreation can also contribute to improving mental health by reducing stress and depression and enhancing emotional and psychological well-being". Parameters that ranked 8th (resume work more energized after recreation) and 7th (recreation relieves stress and tension) are also very key in a manufacturing company as this can help improve productivity and profit which is the goal of most companies. This is also in agreement with the Poister (2003) that "the implementation of recreation and holidaying practices as a sub-variable of performance management has been seen as a tool to enhance employee's productivity by managing their performances".

Table 3 further revealed that the least ranked amongst the perceived effect of recreation and holiday amongst workers in the manufacturing companies is "loss of interest in the work". This implies that going on recreational activities or holiday would not really make a worker lose interest in the work rather, this would make them more energetic and productive at work. This is in agreement with the position of Robbins and Judge (2013); Officha *et'al,* (2013) that "there is a need for managers of manufacturing industry to ensure that employees have enough time for leisure as this will help them to understand the need for creativity and to be committed to changing their behaviour at work, in new and improved ways".

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Table 3: Perceived Effect of Recreation and Holiday on Employees' Performance

You Feel Physically Relaxed	70.0	28.1	1.9	-	-	1.30	0.231	11th
Family Bond is Strengthened	61.4	36.7	1.9	-	-	1.40	0.280	10th
Gaining a Sense of Self Confidence	48.1	46.7	4.3	1.0	-	1.58	0.388	4th
Loss of Interest in Work	3.8	6.7	8.6	33.3	47.6	4.14	1.157	1st
Aids to Gain a Sense of Belonging	39.5	52.9	5.7	1.9	-	1.70	0.441	2nd
You Resume More Energized than before	56.2	41.9	1.9	-	-	1.46	0.288	8th
Relieves You of Stress and Tension	54.3	44.8	1.0	-	-	1.47	0.269	7th
Keeps Mind Healthy	61.0	38.1	1.0	-	-	1.38	0.238	9th
Increase Work Motivation	51.9	46.2	1.0	-	-	1,67	3.877	3rd
Helps Maintain Work-Life Balance	56.2	38.1	5.7	-	-	1.48	0.347	6th
Increase Productivity	52.9	45.2	1.9	-	-	1.49	0.289	5th
Improve Job Satisfaction	45.7	51.4	1.9	1.0	-	1.58	0.340	4th

(Source: Fieldwork 2022)

e) *Result of Hypotheses Test*

i. *Hypothesis 1: There is no Significant Relationship between Recreation and Holiday Practices and Employee Job Satisfaction*

Table 4: Hypothesis 1 Result

N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig.	P-value
Recreational and Holiday Practices	300	1.661	0.252	-1.355	0.177
Job Satisfaction	300	1.713		0.497	

** No Significant Relationship*

Table 4 shows that the p-value is 0.177 which is greater than 0.05 (cut-off value) level of significance, this indicates that we accept the null hypothetical statement by affirming that there is no significant relationship between recreation and holiday practices and employee job satisfaction. This meant that allowing workers in the manufacturing companies to engage in recreational and holiday activities does not translate to job satisfaction for the workers. This result further aids the understanding of some workers' attitude to recreation and holiday practices as reported by Brett and Stroh (2003) in their research findings on the behaviour of some workers that do engage themselves in work-leisure trade-off, by bargaining to use their leisure period at work to engage in more work in order to get more pay (reward) at work, at the expense of their leisure time which is meant for recreational purposes. The implication of this result is that what brings about job satisfaction goes beyond permitting recreation and holiday practices. Other elements of job satisfaction such as career advancement, good pay etc. must be put in place to ensure job satisfaction for workers.

ii. *Hypothesis 2: There is no Significant Relationship between Recreation and Holiday Practices and Employee Performance*

Table 5: Hypothesis 2 Result

N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	p-value
Recreational and Holiday Practices	300	1.661	0.252	-7.309	0.001**
Job performance	300	1.945	0.524		

Significant at p< 0.01

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Table 5 shows that the p-value is 0.001 which is lesser than 0.05 (cut-off value) level of significance, this indicates that we reject the null hypothetical statement by reclaiming that there is a significant relationship between recreation and holiday practices and employee performance. This meant that allowing workers in the manufacturing companies to engage in recreational and holiday activities translate to improved employee performance. The implication of this result is that even though recreation and holiday may not solely or directly bring about job satisfaction for workers, it is directly impactful on employee performance which has a direct impact on the productivity of the company. This result is in agreement with the position of Mokaya and Kipyegon (2014), that work place recreation have effect on employee's performance and motivate employees to stay committed to their job and contribute to organizational success. In other words, improved employee performance would bring about increased productivity which will in-turn bring about increased revenue and profit which is one of the main goal of many manufacturing company.

V. Conclusion and Recommendation

This study found that most manufacturing companies in the study area have policies that permit workers to engage in recreation and holiday, and most of the workers engage in some recreation and holiday activities. The study however concludes that, recreation and holiday practice does not directly influence job satisfaction but it is directly influential on employee performance which is critical to organizational productivity. Therefore, employers should prioritize the overall fitness of their employees to make them highly productive. In view of the foregoing, the study recommends that organisations with good recreation and holiday practices should sustain it and improve on it in order to improve the performance of their employee and benefit from improved organizational productivity which may lead to increased profit for the organization. A collection of which can guarantee an improved economic growth for the nation.

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9. Produce good diagrams of your own: Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

10. Use proper verb tense: Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense to present those events that have happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate events that will happen in the future. Use of wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid sentences that are incomplete.

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.

13. Use good grammar: Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.
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.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.

19. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

20. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

21. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

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

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

Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

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

Final points:

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

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

The discussion section:

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

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

General style:

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

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

Mistakes to avoid:

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



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

Title page:

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

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

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

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

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

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

Approach:

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

Introduction:

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

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

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

Approach:

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

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

Procedures (methods and materials):

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

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

Materials:

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

Methods:

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

Approach:

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

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

What to keep away from:

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

Results:

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

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

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



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Content:

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

What to stay away from:

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

Approach:

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

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

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

Figures and tables:

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

Discussion:

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

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

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

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

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

Approach:

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

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

The Administration Rules

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

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