The Pan-African Journal of Business Management

Editorial Note

It gives me immense pleasure to bring before you the first issue of the fifth volume of the Pan-African Journal of Business Management (PAJBM), which is hosted at the Faculty of Business Management (FBM) at the Open University of Tanzania (OUT).

You might be aware that PAJBM is now under the new editorship of Dr. Bukaza Chachage (Chief Editor) and Dr. Raphael Gwahula (Associate Editor). I would like to register our appreciations to the outgoing editors (Prof. Jan-Erik Jaensson and Dr. Proches Ngatuni) for their hard work to establish and very successfully operate the PAJBM from the first to the fourth volume.

Our vision is to increase the visibility of PAJBM and authors' content at the national and global level, leading to international index inclusion and more citations, and thereby improving the impact of the journal. We hope this vision will add value to the existing knowledge base and create greater impact in the business and management research arena.

This issue sheds light on research focusing on foreign direct investment on unemployment rates in the East African community, accessible tourism for people with disabilities in Africa, factors affecting the use of mobile money services for loan repayment in Tanzania, efficiency analysis of foreign and domestic banks in the Gulf Cooperation Council countries, market orientation in export performance of small and medium-sized enterprises in Rwanda, marketing behaviour of street vendors in Tanzania, challenges affecting street venders in Tanzania and consumer attitude towards on-line banking in Ghana. The Editorial team hopes that the readers will find the articles make useful contributions to academic knowledge in the respective areas.

I would like to thank all the authors, team members, reviewers, advisors and board members for supporting the PAJBM. This time we received an overwhelming response from researchers globally. Due to delays from reviewers, we are not able to include all the papers in this issue. I assure you that they will be included in subsequent issues. Warm regards again to all contributors for their efforts and commitment. I look forward to continuing to work together.

Dr. Bukaza Chachage
Chief Editor

General information
The Journal is produced by the Faculty of Business Management at The Open University of Tanzania. It will accept theoretical, conceptual and research-based papers in a wide range of topics on business management concerning Africa. It also accepts cases, book reviews and summaries of dissertations.

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CONTENTS

iii

Impact of Foreign Direct Investment on Unemployment Rates in East African Community Founding Members: Who benefits the Most?

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Abstract: *The study analyses comparative effects of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) inflows on youth unemployment in East African Community (EAC) founding member countries of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. Based on time series data from 1990 to 2016, the Auto Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) regression revealed that, FDI significantly influences reduction in unemployment rate in Kenya by 0.708%. The results in Tanzania and Uganda showed that, FDI inflows increases unemployment rates by 0.337% and 0.852% respectively. The results revealed that, FDI is significantly benefiting Kenya young generation through job creation, as compared to Tanzania and Uganda. Unemployment rate in Kenya has been reduced significantly due to FDI inflow by 0.14 % by each percentage of FDI inflow. The favourable economic and social policies in Kenya, have been well integrated into investment policies and result into positive prospects of employment creations. In Tanzania and Uganda, FDI inflows have not been much effective on youth unemployment. Every percentage of investment growth, causes an increase of 0.34% and 0.85 % of unemployment in Tanzania and Uganda respectively. Based on these results, it is recommended that, both Tanzania and Uganda should revisit their FDI related policies to ensure the FDI programmes are beneficial in reducing unemployment rates.*

Key Words: Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), Unemployment rates, East African Community (EAC)

1.   Introduction

Despite of the common goal of increasing economic growth through a number of joint initiatives, countries involved in integration have also had their own country policies to achieve their objectives. Attracting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is one of the strategy to ensure improvement in macroeconomic and hence economic growth. Creation of decent jobs, poverty reduction, increasing exports, infusion of technology, skills and knowledge and support to local firms to access international markets are among the positive benefits of FDI (Mottaleb and Kallirajan, 2010). Globalization, competitiveness and free market economies are best facilitated by presence of FDI in the countries (He *et al*, 2009). Worker's exploitation by multinational

companies especially those investing in developing countries are some of the negative effects that are caused by FDI. such as;. Slavica and Andreja (2014) have confirmed that FDI is a source of economic development and modernization, income growth and employment. Others are additional domestic capital accumulation and essential spill over effects to the rest of economy.

Investors are also looking for some factors before deciding to invest. Conducive political environment, security, macroeconomic conditions, legal and regulatory environment, fiscal incentives are among the key drivers for investment decisions (World Bank, 2017). The East African Community members are also among the countries which have been attracting FDI to gain from its benefits like competitiveness and accessibility to new markets. The countries in East African Community are among developing economies, characterised by high population growth, low income, inequality, poor health and educational social services. With inadequate domestic resources, these countries are also among recipients of official development assistances (ODA) in the form of grants and loans of various instruments adding to FDI for job creation and accessibility of foreign markets.

The East African Community was established in 1967 and collapsed 10 years later in 1977. By then, there were three member countries of Kenya, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda. The re-establishment of the Community in 1999, was followed by EAC Treaty that was developed in September, 1999; ratified and went into force in July, 2000. It is an inter-governmental regional organization, that involves 4 pillars which are; Customs Union, Common Market, Monetary Union and Political Federation (EAC, 2017). While the Customs Union and Common Market pillars are in the implementation stage, the Monetary Union is in preparatory stage and Political Federation is at its infancy stage. Currently, EAC has six member countries including; Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, South Sudan, United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda. The block has a total of 150 million people as of 2015, in which 22% resides in urban[1]. The member countries cooperate in many areas including; trade, monetary and fiscal affairs, investments, infrastructure development, human resources, natural resources and wildlife management, health and education, language and culture. According to Mwasha (2012), among the benefits that the integration can provide to its membersinclude; the increased flow of FDI due to its market size, economic growth, market opportunity due to population size and job creation for the people. This study focuses on three founding member countries who initiated the regional integration, which are; Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. These countries have been involved in the Community creation process since its initiation stage, in many strategic policies regarding economic performance in the block and in their individual countries.

Despite of common interest of having a strong economic and political regional block, each country is unique and specific. There are several areas in which investors are interested to invest into each country of the EAC. These areas are based on different interests by each of the investors. Each country differs in the level of development, policy and regulatory frameworks, security and are ranked differently in easiness of doing business. The internal factors among the

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[1]www.eac.int

countries in EAC, play important roles in determining the extent of FDI inflow (Kinyuah, 2012). With different levels of FDI inflow, the benefits enjoyed could also be different. This study examined the impact of FDI inflow in the three EAC founding members.

There are a number of studies which have analysed FDI related issues in regions and at country levels (Kinyuah, 2012; Marco, 2011; Otieno et al, 2013, Rwothungeyo, 2015, Slavica and Andreja, 2014). However, analyses on how each country in the EAC comparatively have benefitted from the FDIs have been few (Otieno et al, 2013; Rothungeyo, 2015). Therefore, it is imperative to analyse how important sectors have been benefitted from FDI inflows so that, successes recognised and challenges analysed can be used to reflect on respective policies and regulatory frameworks in each countries of the EAC. This study sought how Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania have each benefitted from long run FDI inflows. It focused on the creation of jobs, i.e on how much the FDI has managed to reduce unemployment rates in the EAC member countries and each countries' expected benefits in their long term strategies. The study covered a period from 1990 to 2016 because of adequate data availability of the variables from this period. The remainder of the study is organised as follows: Section 2 gives theoretical and empirical evidences on FDI development perspectives and FDI impact on unemployment rates in various countries. It also highlights the FDI inflow and unemployment rates in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. Section 3 outlines the methodology used in analysing the effect of FDI inflows in the EAC countries and section 4 presents the results and discuss them. Conclusion and recommendations are given in section 5 of the study.

2. Theoretical Literature Review

2.1 Motive of Foreign Direct Investments

According to United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), FDI is an investment made to acquire lasting interest of an enterprise operating outside the economy of an investor, in which investor's purpose is to gain management voice in the investment[2]. Furthermore, to enhance the justification of FDI to host country, OECD (2008)[3] affirmed that, with the right policy framework, FDI can be an important source of financial stability, promotion of economic development and well being of a society. The organization furthermore clarified that, the investor can be an individual, a group of related individual, incorporated or unincorporated enterprises, public or private enterprises, or a group of related enterprises; which has acquire at least 10% of voting power in corporation or enterprise or equivalent and a resident in another economy.

A number of studies have explained evolvement of FDI and motivation behind investments. After World War II, FDI has been seen to play an important role at both national and international levels for entire economic development. FDI theories have been dynamic ever since with underpinnings of FDI, led to define the theories differently. According to Nayyar (2014), traditional FDI theories differ from modern perspectives of FDI motivation. Hymer (1960) and Kindleberger (1969) have been champions in explaining investments in areas where completion

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[2]www.unctad.org
[3]www.oecd.org

is stiff and strong. They were of the opinion that, companies could find ways of acquiring new markets, technology, skills, higher costs of information other than international trade. Because of international competition with local firms, challenges in research and development, new skills, high transaction costs, investment in foreign countries could be undertaken. They affirmed to multinational companies that, international trade involvement challenges can be overcome through investment in foreign countries for overall profit increase (Calvet, 1981). Williamson (1979) asserted that, because of imperfection of international markets using their capitals, skills and technology, internal markets in multiple countries could also create needed markets and achieve desired goals and objectives (Nayyar, 2014). Explaining further the FDI motive, Dunning (1973) as noted by Franco *et al* (2008) was of the opinion that, firms, in pursuit of seeking profit maximization objective, should possess their ownership of assets and skills in another nationality so as to exploit the new markets. Dunning stressed three important aspects in which firms operating in the foreign country could be benefitted which are an OLI(what is OLI?). These are:

i. Ownership of the specific assets;

ii. The assets should be at the location in which the firms operate and

iii. Production should be within the country in which firms operate.

Dunning's eclectic paradigm on FDI, has gained a wider attention on the current FDI theories as it combines both traditional and modern theories to FDI. However, it was criticized for inclusion of many variables. This criticism led to development of Investment Development Cycle (IDP) theory which is a modern theory in which investment decision is linked to development stage of the host country. This theory believes that, Government's interaction through its policies and laws, have a direct influence over FDI decisions. On modern FDI theories, Aliber (1970) asserted that, weaker currencies over strong hosting country's currencies could attract FDI and he tested his theory and worked in USA and Canada. This theory was however criticised for ignoring the pattern of FDI into the poor and developing countries, where the currencies are weaker.

Product Life Cycle was also explained as a motive of FDI that, because of stiff competition and technological advancement, products become matured and that firms could look into new areas of investment and product development at a cheaper costs (Lattore, 2008). This could be done through FDI. In case of FDI from developing economies, government's policies have been outlined as the most effective motive of all. Exerting policies that are restrictive at home country, could force the firms in the developing countries to invest abroad where policies are less tight. This was sighted as an example of many Indian companies to invest in other countries. This is also in line with political risks that make multinational companies to decide to invest into other countries (Nayak, 2014). The FDI theories have been dynamic. Many factors have been discussed by different studies on how have caused FDIs and how they have benefitted recipient countries. In general, technology sophistication, trade openness, human capital stock, geographical location and infrastructure are also important determinants of FDI.

2.2   FDI and Unemployment

Among the benefits that FDI is expected to bring to recipient country is employment opportunities particularly to youth. Among the strategies to reduce unemployment rate in

economies, is to create conducive environment for FDI, which is expected to bring in new expertise and technology which will enhance capabilities of the locals and hence employment opportunities (OECD, 2016). Though the benefits do not come automatically, the host countries have been urged to develop transparent and effective policies for attracting FDIs that could ultimately bring in positive spill over effects (Palat, 2011). One of the expected benefits of FDI is reduction of unemployment rate of host countries. Strat *et al* (2014) has also confirmed on the positive relationship between FDI and unemployment and that, when FDI increases, it creates employment opportunities hence reduction of unemployment of host country.

Hall (2011) has explained the confirmatory direct linkage between FDI inflow and reduction of unemployment rate. He noted that , when productivity slow down it increases unemployment rate. Since FDI is directly linked with increased productivity (OECD, 2016), its slow down have direct increase in unemployment rate. Availability of cheap labour in host country has been named as one of the determinants of FDI, in which, in return, grows the employment rate (Slavica and Andreja, 2014). Irpan*et al* (2016) explained that, one of the factors that caused economic down turn and increasing unemployment rate in Malaysia was the decrease of FDI inflow. Others that were named to be negative effects of FDI to host countries include; risk of political and religious influence, higher costs, influence on exchange rates and domestic investments.[4].

2.3   Empirical Evidences

Apart from theoretical perspectives on how FDI can negatively impact unemployment rate in host countries, a number of evidences have brought forward to nail this theory. Irpan*et al*, (2016), using ARDL, found out that, unemployment rate was reduced by increasing of FDI in Malaysia, after a period of rising unemployment rate between 1982 and 1986. The FDI was significantly found to reduce unemployment rate by 12.23%. A strong correlation between unemployment and FDI was found in Pakistan by Aqil*et al* (2014). They found out that, at least 0.47% of unemployment rate was reduced by FDI in Pakistan between 1983 and 2010. They analysed the relationship using correlation and Analysis of Variables (ANOVA) techniques.

In the same line, Maqbool*et al* (2013) found a negative correlation between unemployment and FDI, in such a way that, for every unit of investment, unemployment rate was reduced by 0.091%. They used ARDL method in their analyses in Pakistan from 1976 towards 2012. In Japan, Palat (2011) found out a strong correlation between FDI inflow and unemployment rate, using correlation and quadratic analyses. The Foreign Direct Investment in Balkan States during 2000 – 2014 showed no significant impact on reducing unemployment rates with the exception of Croatia, though the rates are still very high. These results were found by Grahovac and Softic (2017) using multiple regression analyses. On the same range, FDI was found to cause no statistical significance on unemployment in Macedonia during 1999 – 2013 as evidenced by Djambaska and Lozanoska (2015). The short term influence of FDI on unemployment rate was found in Poland by Balcerzak and Zurek (2011) during 1995 – 2009, where they suggested for the internal policies review to encourage long term impact of FDI on unemployment. Eldeeb (2015) found out that, FDI causes increase in unemployment rate in Libya from 1999 to 2014.

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[4]https://connectusfund.org

Using Ordinary Least Square method to find his results, he described internal policies to have caused the FDI not to work towards reduction on unemployment rates which was in the range of 30% during the period of study. Liu and Lu (2011) found out that, the outward FDI causes significant drop of unemployment rate in China using Johansen co-integration and Toda and Yamamoto Granger Causality Test from 1982 towards 2007.

From these results, it is evident that, FDI have negative effects on unemployment rates in many places, though some few studies showed different results. This study analysed comparative impact of FDI on unemployment for the three East African Countries of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda from 1990 to 2016.

2.4   FDI and Unemployment rates in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania

Like many economies, the countries in East African Community have also been attracting FDI aiming at enhancing macroeconomic conditions, The key onehas been on the creation of job opportunities and hence reduction of unemployment rates. During the period of study, Uganda was experiencing the average highest FDI inflow (FDI), with the lowest youth unemployment rates followed by Tanzania. The highest youth unemployment rate has been experience in Kenya, with the lowest FDI inflow. The youth unemployment rates (UR) and the FDI inflow trends are presented in the Figure 1.
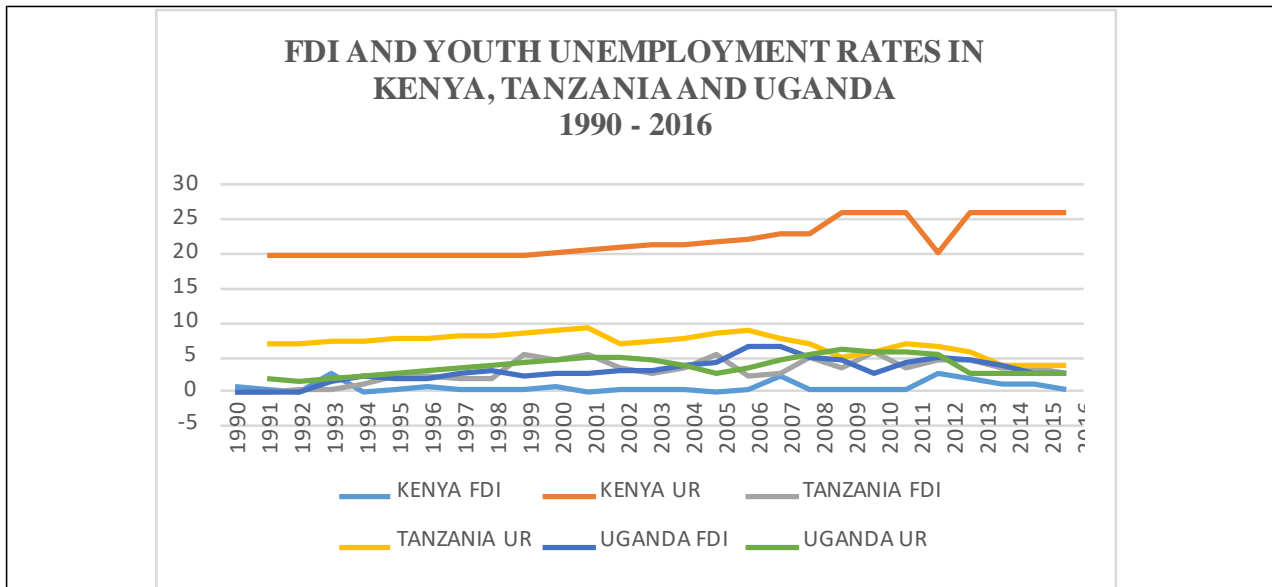
Figure 1: FDI and Unemployment Rates in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda: 1990 – 2016

The average FDI percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in Uganda in 27 years was 3.13%, while it was 3.06% in Tanzania and 0.73% in Kenya.

3.0 Methodology

The variables used for analysing the macroeconomic factors were independent variables of FDI percentage of GDP, population growth (POP) and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rates. The youth unemployment rate (UR) was dependent variable and was the rate of unemployment for youth between 15 – 45 years of age. All variables data were obtained in the World Bank data sheet[5].

The data variables were tested for stationarity by using Augmented Dickey and Fuller (ADF) which caters for small sample data and the Auto Regressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) method was used for regression analysis. The ARDL is suitable when data are stationary at level and at first difference (Nkoro and Uko, 2016). The FDI and GDP were expected to have negative impact to unemployment, while population growth was expected to have positive influence on unemployment. The estimated model is as shown in equation 1. The variables used are those in Maqbool *et al* (2013).

$$UR_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 FDI_t + \beta_2 GDP_t + \beta_3 POP_t + \mu_t \qquad \qquad ....1$$

whereas UR is unemployment rate which is dependent variable and FDI, GDP, and POP are independent variables which are Foreign Direct Investment, Gross Domestic Product and population growth. The β_0 is an intercept when all independent variables are zero and the other β's are the coefficient of change of independent variable to the change of dependent variable. The *t* is time variant of variables. To check whether the models are reliable and not spurious, the Histogram and Normality Test and Serial Correlation are taken on their residuals. The probabilities of JaqueBera and F-Statistics of the tests should be more that 5% to reject null hypotheses of abnormal distribution and presence of serial correlation of residuals respectively.

4.0 Results and Discussions

Unit Root Test

The unit root test performed revealed that, FDI data for Kenya; and GDP and POP for Uganda were stationary in level. Other variables were stationary after first difference as shown in Table 1. The maximum lag of 6 was automatically selected by Schwarz Information Criterion.

ARDL F-Bounds Test

The ARDL F-Bound Test was used to test whether the variables have long term relationship or not. The results revealed significant positive co-integration between variables in all three countries.

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[5]www.data.worldbank.org

Table 1: The Augmented Dickey and Fuller Unit Root Test

	UNIT ROOT				FIRST DIFFERENCE			
	UR	FDI	GDP	POP	UR	FDI	GDP	POP
Kenya	-1.5415	-4.5254*	-2.9753	-0.5686	-7.5519*	-	-6.2913*	-5.0759*
Tanzania	-0.6912	-2.8302	-1.8110	-2.0533	-4.4031*	-7.7688*	-6.0887*	-3.7617*
Uganda	-2.6979	-2.1559	-4.1346	-3.4829*	-3.3178*	-4.3319*	-5.7018*	-

Note: the * indicates the significance at 5% level.

: the – indicates that, the variable data is stationary at level.

All F-statistic values passed the critical value at 5% significant level of 3.67. Kenya showed a value of 9.15, Tanzania had a value of 5.99 and Uganda had a value of 13.85. The long term co-integration revealed the following results in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of ARDL Long term relationship of UR, FDI, GDP and POP in three East African Countries

COUNTRY	CONSTANT	FDI	GDP	POPULATION GROWTH
Kenya	0.877**	-0.708**	-0.144**	-0.177**
Tanzania	-0.319**	0.337**	0.443**	2.412*
Uganda	0.071	0.852**	-0.090	-0.013

Note: ** denote significance at 5% level and * denotes significance at 10% level.

The ARDL regression revealed that, FDI significantly influences reduction in unemployment rate in Kenya by 0.708%. This result is the same as found by Aqil*et al* (2013) and Irpan*et al* (2016) which was as expected. The growing GDP in Kenya was found to reduce unemployment by 0.144%. However, population growth reduces the unemployment by 0.177%. The results in Tanzania and Uganda, showed that, FDI inflow increases unemployment rates by 0.337% and 0.852% respectively. These results were the same as those that were found out by Eldeeb (2015), contrary to what has been expected. The increased GDP and population growth in Tanzania influenced unemployment rates by 0.443% and 2.412% respectively. GDP reduced unemployment in Uganda as expected, by 0.09%. Population growth reduced unemployment rate by 0.013% in Uganda, though not at significant levels. Both regressors and dependent variables lagged at four periods whereas the lag length was determined by Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) in all countries.

Model Tests

The tests were carried out to check whether the coefficients and residuals in the models were fit and do not correspond to any spurious relationships. The result showed that, both Histogram Normality Test and Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test rejected their respective null hypotheses with their probability values of more than 5% as shown in the Table 3.

Table 3: The Model Tests

COUNTRY	HISTOGRAM NORMALITY TEST	SERIAL CORRELATION TEST
Kenya	JB – 0.359; Prob 0.835	F-statistics – 0.466; Prob. 0.642
Tanzania	JB – 0.918; Prob. 0.632	F-statistics – 1.097; Prob. 0.371
Uganda	JB – 0.229; Prob. 0.891	F-statistics – 0.074; Prob. 0.933

The Jarque Bera (JB) of Kenya model was 0.359 with the probability of 0.835. The Tanzania FDI effect on unemployment had a Jarque Bera value of 0.918, with the probability of 0.632, while that of Uganda had the Jarque Bera of 0.229, with probability of 0.891. For serial correlation test, the F-statistics in Kenya had a value of 0466 with probability of 0.642, while of Tanzania residuals had F-statistics of 1.097 and probability of 0.371. The Ugandan model residuals had F-statistics value of 0.074 with the probability of 0.933. The lag length for the serial correlation tests was 2.

5.0   Conclusion and recommendations

The study analysed comparative effects of FDI inflow on youth unemployment in EAC founding members of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, from 1990 to 2016. The founding membershad a common goal of increasing equitable economic growth through increased FDI in the region and in their individual countries since at their foundation stage. Despite of common objective, each member country had a specific strategy to attract FDI in their own countries for improving their macroeconomic environments. Youth unemployment is one of the common challenges facing these member countries and each individual country strategies are being implemented to ensure that, jobs are created for the young generations, through education, skills and knowledge improvement among others.

The results revealed that, FDIwas significantly benefiting Kenya young generation through job creation, as compared to Tanzania and Uganda. Unemployment rate in Kenya has been reduced significantly due to FDI inflow by 0.14 % by each percentage of FDI inflow. The favourable economic and social policies in Kenya, have been well integrated into investment policies and have resulted into positive prospects of employment creations. In Tanzania and Uganda, FDI inflows have not been very much effective on youth unemployment. Every percentage of investment growth, caused an increase of 0.34% and 0.85% of unemployment in Tanzania and Uganda   respectively.

In Tanzania, the GDP growth has not resulted into sufficient job creation for the locals and unemployment increased among youth by 0.44% for every percent of growth. In Uganda, the case had been opposite, whereas, economic growth, favours youth employment by 0.019%. The population growth had been significantly precipitating youth unemployment in both Kenya and Tanzania, in which the effect was higher in Tanzania by 2.42% compared to Kenya which was 0.18%. Uganda had well utilized population dynamics especially of the growing youth population whereas for every percent of population growth, unemployment was reduced by 0.01%.

Based on these results, it is recommended that, both Tanzania and Uganda should revisit their investment policies to ensure the FDI programmes implemented in their countries, are those that can absorb the available skills and knowledge of youths in their respective countries. Concurrently, these countries should enhance their youth enhancement programmes so that they are well equipped with the skills and knowledge required in the FDI programmes. These countries should enhance population management programmes so that, unemployment challenges are well and significantly addressed by economic opportunities available.

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Accessible Tourism to People with Disabilities in Africa: A Review of the Existing Literature

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Abstract: *Although most of the African countries have laws and regulations that protect the rights of people with disabilities in every aspect of their lives, including leisure and tourism, people with disabilities still do not enjoy tourism attractions. The main objective of this study was to review the published articles in Google Scholar, EBSCOhost, and Science Direcon African accessible tourism. The study specifically analyzed the extent to which the existing published studies have addressed accessibility in accommodation, transportation, destinations, accessible amenities/recreation as well as in information. Based on a content analysis of the analyzed academic articles from both supply and demand side, this study found out that most of the African countries were still not capable of accommodating travellers with disabilities. Limited facilities at the tourist sites, negative attitudes toward disabled people, limited assistive technologies, inaccessible transport facilities as well as the provision of inaccurate and out of date travel information were among the key factors limiting travellers with disabilities from taking leisure trips to African tourist destinations. The African governments have to start preparing the environment conducive for the suppliers to start providing services that will offer positive and memorable tourist experience to travellers with special needs.*

Keywords: Accessible Tourism, Tourism for people with disabilities, People with Disabilities, Africa Tourist Destinations

1.0 Introduction

Tourism is an important sector for the economic development of most African economies (UNCTAD, 2017). The sector has helped most of the African countries to move away from the dependent economy to the service sector (Mariki *et al.,* 2011). It is the fastest-growing sector that contributes significantly to employment creation, foreign exchange, investment, strengthening regional integration, as well as reducing poverty for most of the countries (Africa Tourism Monitor, 2016). This sector also serves as a tool in establishing closer bonds between cultures, countries, and people (Acha-Anyi, 2018). The importance of this sector in African countries has been reflected by the amount of foreign exchange that has been generated over the years. For example, it was reported that the continent received about $ 36.2 billion in 2018 from 62.9 million received in 2016 from the international visitor arrivals (African Development Bank Group News, 2018). It is estimated that the sector will contribute $269 billion to the GDP of the African continent and it is projected to offer 29 million new jobs by 2026(African Development Bank Group News, 2018).

The tourism sector has continued to progressively become a primary social need. The sector is reported to have a positive effect on people that are directly involved in the sector (Ozturk, Yayli, & Yesilitas, 2008; Eichhorn, Miller, & Tribe, 2013). This sector is known for its role in

bringing people together (Edusei *et al.,* 2015). Unfortunately, the participation of people with disabilities in the tourism industry has been limited compared to able-bodied individuals. Globally, it is estimated that about 15% of the world's population, which is around 1 billion people live with some form of disability of which 2% to 4% experience significant difficulties in functioning (World Health Organization, 2019). This figure is expected to increase and reach 1.2 billion people by 2050 (Vila, Darcy, & González, 2015) due to demographic changes, natural disasters, accidents, as well as the increase in chronic diseases such as; diabetes, cardiovascular disease, cancer and other mental health issues (UNWTO, 2011). The global statistics indicate that between 110-190 million people which is 1/5th of the world population in the tourism market would require accessibility (Burnett & Bender-Baker, 2001). Developing countries are estimated to have a higher growth rate (NIA & NIH, 2011), about 75% of the world's disabled population lives in developing countries such as; Africa, Latin America, and South-East Asia.

Due to increase in the number of people with disabilities globally, several initiatives were taken to make sure that the rights of people with disability requirements were protected. In the 1990s, the world started movements to fight for the rights of people with disabilities. Americans with Disability Act of 1990 and the Disability Discrimination Act of 1995 are some of the initial policies and acts that championed the development of social mentality. In the 2000s, other conventions such as; the United Nations' Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities of 2006 under article 9 was introduced to recognize the fact that people with disabilities have a right to access buildings, physical environment, information, and communication and the convention under article 30 claims that disabled people have the right to cultural life including leisure and sport.These acts imply that all individuals regardless of their physical nature are free to participate in social or leisure activities without any hindrances. The outcomes of American's Disability Acts (ADA) and other similar conventions have brought to positive impact on the idea of establishing and providing accessibility features to cater to the needs of all people.

Despite all the efforts to protect the rights of people with disabilities in tourism, the sector is far from being accessible to all and it is like a dream that can never be realised by many(Bélanger & Jolin, 2011). People with disabilities are still excluded from enjoying tourism activities and disabled travel market has been ignored (Florence, 2018) and it is an untapped market for tourism (Avis, Card, & Cole, 2005). As a result, very few countries and companies have shown interest in serving them (Snyman, 2004), because they see it as a niche market (Vila, González, & Darcy, 2019). This is why hotel owners and managers don't take an active role to promote hotel rooms appropriately to people with disabilities(Darcy, 2000).Travel agents, on the other hand, are inhibitors to people with disabilities(McKercher *et al.,* 2003), while some of the service providers are not willing to serve them (Daniels, Rodgers, & Wiggins, 2005). Others service providers are unaware and unresponsive to their needs (Freeman & Selmi, 2010) because they believe that the demand for this target market is weak (Shi, Cole, & Chancellor, 2012) and that people with disabilities have less income and they are highly dependent on their pensions (Souca, 2010).

This travel market is also seen as an expensive tourism market to satisfy (Burnett & Bender-Baker, 2002; Chikuta, Kabote & Chikanya, 2017). Issues such as; building ramps, providing enough parking spaces, constructing disability-friendly rooms as well as installing expensive technology to communicate with disabled people reflect some of the common perceptions

emerging from tourism and travel-related business suppliers regarding serving people with disabilities. Because of such allegations, a good number of researchers thought that there was no need to invest in this area. This is why studies of people with disabilities in tourism are limited (Shi, Cole, & Chancellor, 2012). Most of them started at the end of the 1980s and in the middle of the 1990s (Cavinato & Cuckovich, 1992).

Most of the existing literature on disabilities and tourism is from the United States (Huh & Singh, 2007), Canada (Joppe, 2003) and various countries within European countries (Guzmann, 1999). This is so because; developed economies have introduced laws at the national and supranational level to assist them with the provision of services to people with disabilities (Richards, Pritchard, & Morgan, 2010; Bombom & Abdullahi, 2016). In contrast, there are limited studies that have been done in Africa. This is because; African states started taking their active role in issues related to international rights of persons with disability covenant (UNCRPD) only in 2006. The intention was for the countries to make sure that all citizens with special requirements were provided with opportunities that improved their socio-economic wellbeing (Manatsa, 2015). Even though Africa has been involved in the movement towards protecting the rights of disabled people, the emerging market is still under-represented (Mensah, Badu & Opoku, 2015).

Disabled people in Africa have been facing a lot of barriers regarding leisure and tourists opportunities. Table 1 summarises some of those challenges.

Table 1: Barries Facing Disabled people in Africa

S/No.	Barriers	Source
1.	Negative attitude from the society and service providers	Naami, Hayashi, & Liese, (2012); Oladokun, Ololajulo & Oladele, (2014); Mensah, Badu & Opoku, (2015);Bombom & Abdullahi, (2016); Issahaku, 2017; Adam, Boakye & Kumi-Kyereme, (2017),
2.	Lack of accessible accommodation	Bisschoff & Breedt, (2012); Chikuta, (2015); Khumalo &Ndlovu, (2017); Mangwiro *et al.,* (2018); Meskele, Woreta & Weldesenb, (2018)
3.	Limited facilities at the cultural attraction areas	Lwoga & Mapunda, (2017); Refaat & Ibrahim, (2017); Ibem *et al.,* (2017); Chikuta, Kabote & Chikaya, (2017)
4.	Lack of trained personnel to communicate with disabled people	Tamer, (2011); Oladokun, Ololajulo & Oladele, (2014); Lwoga & Mapunda, (2017); Refaat & Ibrahim, (2017); Chikuta, Kabote & Chikaya, (2017); Chikuta, DuPlessis & Saayman, (2018),
5.	Lack of clear and up to date information	Adam, Boakye & Kumi-Kyereme, (2017); Chikuta, DuPlessis & Saayman, (2018),
6.	Ignorance of service providers	Spencer & Mnqayi, (2017); Abd-Elraof, Dawood &Mohamma, (2018); Chikuta, DuPlessis & Saayman, (2018),
7.	Inaccessible transport systems	Bombom & Abdullahi, (2016); Chikuta, DuPlessis & Saayman, (2018)
8.	Lack of appropriate activity for disabled people	Chikuta, Kabote & Chikaya, (2017)

Scholarly articles reviewed accessible tourism to people with disabilities in Africa in its totality is lacking. Given this lacuna, the intention of this study was to review the scholarly articles on accessible tourism to people with disabilities in the context of Africa. It assessed the extent to which the existing accessible tourism articles published in Africa have focused on addressing issues related to accessible accommodation, accessible transportation, accessible destinations, accessible amenities/recreation as well as access to information. This study focused on those areas because people with disabilities are highly deprived of enjoying tourism offerings because of limited accessible accommodation, limited accessible transport, lack of facilities at the tourism sites as well as unclear and out-dated travel information (Eichhorn *et al.,* 2007). Furthermore, information regarding accessible accommodation and accessible attractions is crucial to people with special needs because they have a significant impact on their decision to select destinations (Gladwell & Bedini, 2004).

This analysis was motivated by the fact that there is an increase in the number of disabilities in Africa. For example, based on 2010 census data, it was reported that 3% of Ghana's total population was covered by people with disabilities (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014), about 10% of the total population in Zimbabwe were disabled people (Choruma, 2007), 7.5% of the population in South Africa was covered by disabled people (Rearden, 2017 cited in Spencer & Mngayi, 2017), Egypt was reported to have 951,152 disabled people (Al-Ahram Weekly Newpaper, 2010). Based on Tanzania's National, Population, and Housing Census data of 2012, it was estimated that 5.8% of all citizens in Tanzania were people with disabilities (URT, 2013). Therefore, these statistics reflect a significant message to tourism industries. Therefore, tourism industries in African countries need to develop an interest to understand the needs of this emerging travel market.

Meeting the needs of people with disabilities helps service providers to attain both social and corporate responsibility (Chang & Chen, 2012). The ability to satisfy this travel market will not only be an obligatory task or a charity case as it used to be seen, but rather a means to attain equity and equality which are pillars of tourism's sustainable development (Lwoga & Mapunda, 2017). The assessment of accessible tourism in the context of Africa will provide insights on what needs to be done to accommodate people with disabilities. Moreover, with the increasing life expectancy in most parts of the world, the growth of urbanization, frequent occurrences of accidents in African countries, the population of disabled people is increasing at a faster rate. The disability travel market is a rapidly growing tourism market that includes people suffering from some form of impairments as well as the aging population which, frequently, develops sicknesses that lead to disability (Buhalis & Michopoulou, 2011). This travel market covers family members, friends, and caretakers/givers. This shows that the disabled travel market is a potential new market in the world of tourism industry; hence it should not be ignored. Furthermore, despite all the challenges affecting them from taking leisure trips, disabled people do travel and they have the same travel motivations just like able-bodied persons (Chikuta, DuPlessis & Saayman, 2017) and they are willing to pay any amount to get their desired services (Mangwiro *et al.,* 2018).

Table 2: African Accessible Tourism in Existing Studies

S/N	Author(s)	Aim of the study	Data analysis	Major Findings
1	Odufuwa (2007	Mobility pattern of disabled people & the barriers that hinder their access to basic needsin Nigerian Cities	Regression statistical techniques.	Determinants of traveling in company of relatives differs by the extent or severity of the physical disability, travel environment, available modes, distance, purpose of travel and immobility of disabled people in developing countries
2	Mensah, Badu, & Opoku (2015)	Barriers persons with disabilities face when accessing recreational facilities in Ashanti region of Ghana.	Descriptive statistics	People with disabilities faced barriers to facilities and structures at tourist destinations.
3	Bisschoff, & Breedt, (2012)	Reports on a consumer service index (CSI) model that was developed for the accommodation industry in South Africa	Qualitative research	Key areas in the hotels with problems were thereception, bathrooms, bar area and swimming pool.
3	Chikuta, du Plessis, & Saayman, (2017	investigated the travel motives of people with disabilities to national parks	EFA ANOVA Spearman correlation	People with disabilitieshave the same motivation for nature-based travel as the able-bodied individuals.
4	Lwoga, & Mapunda, (2017	Barrier approach to examine the challenges faced by cultural tourism sites in Tanzania,	Qualitative case study	To a certain extent, the site caters for people with disabilities.
5.	Issahaku, Akwasi & Kwaku (2016)	Leisure motivations of disabled people in Ghana.	The independent samples one way ANOVA	Leisure motivations of disabledpeople are Heterogeneous.
6	Issahaku (2017)	Explore the leisure aspirations of people with visual impairment in Kumasi Ghana	Discriminant Analysis	Inability to participate in different activities was caused by financial constraints, lack of social support and inaccessible physical environment.

S/N	Author(s)	Aim of the study	Data analysis	Major Findings
7	Chikuta (2015)	Do the facilities meet the expectations of tourists with disabilities in Zimbabwe?	Content Analysis Descriptive statistics	The existing facilities are not user friendly to people with disabilities.
8	Bombom & Abdullahi, (2016)	Travel patterns & challenges encountered by the physically disabled in Jos Nigeria		Physically disabled people feels that the society is discriminating them even in access to transportation.
9	Refaat and Ibrahim (2017)	Accessibility problems & challenges which prevent the improvement of theselected famous ancient sites Monuments in Alexandria (Egypt)	Exploratory study	Sites are partly accessible but not totally disability-friendly.
10	Spencer, & Mnqayi, (2017)	To assess whether owners of accommodation, transport service providers and tourism officials understand the concept of universal accessibility in South Africa.		Tourism service providers in the areas do not theoretically and practically understand the concept of universal accessibility in tourism.
11	Mangwiro et al (2018)	Explore the perceptions of people with disabilities on the compliance of Zimbabwean hotels in the provision of innovative facilities for guests with disabilities in Harare.	Thematic analysis.	Zimbabwe still lag behind in terms of accepting the need to introduce innovative facilities to accommodate people with disabilities.
12	Tamer (2011)	Investigate the ability of the Egyptian hospitality industry to accommodate special needs customers.	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.	Staff should be provided with the proper training required to attract and satisfy such a sensitive segment.
13	Adam, Boakye, & Kumi-Kyereme (2017)	Leisure constraints of visually and physically disabled people in Ghana	Content analysis	Leisure constraints of visually and physically disabled people involved in the study are human induced.
14.	Ibem et al., (2017)	The extent to which the design, planning, and construction of museum buildings and facilities in Nigeria comply with the principles of universal	Content analysis.	The three museums complied reasonably well when it comes to approachability but performed below average in accessibility and usability parameters.

S/N	Author(s)	Aim of the study	Data analysis	Major Findings
		design and promote users' satisfaction.		
15	Meskele, Woreta, & Weldesenb (2018)	Evaluate accessible tourism challenges and development issues in hotels and attraction sites in Ethiopia.	Cross-tabulation	Ethiopia is facing a lot of challenges in accommodating people with disabilities.
16.	Abd-Elraof, Dawood, & Mohamma (2018)	Explore and evaluate disabled services and facilities provided for persons with disabilities in resorts in Egypt	Descriptive statistics One-way ANOVA	Significant percentages of the approached resorted had provided varied services and facilities for people with disabilities
17	Chikuta, du Plessis & Saayman (2018)	To establish the accessibility expectations of nature tourists in Zimbabwe and South Africa.	A one-way ANOVA Spearman's rank order	People with disabilities, regardless of their type of disabilities regard employee attitudes highly.
18	Khumalo, & Ndlovu, (2017).	Investigate the accessibility of B&B facilities by wheelchair bound persons in Durban.	Cross-tabulation	The majority of B&B facilities were found not friendly to people with disabilities.
19.	Cleopas (2019)	Application of the virtual reality 360° concept to the Great Zimbabwe monument to produce virtual tour videos of this world-scale heritage site.	Thematic analysis	The virtual tour videos are expected to be uploaded on a server for access by the entire world on computers, tablets and smartphones for a fee to allow patrons to navigate the monument's key archeological sites.
20.	Oladokun, Ololajulo & Oladele (2014)	Factors enhancing special needs people participation in recreation and cultural tourism activities in Osogbo Metropolis.	Chi-square	The physical environment, economic conditions and societal attitude limits people with special needs from enjoying tourism.
21	Chikuta, Kabote & Chikanya (2017)	Challenges encountered by tour guides when touring people with disabilities at museum and national parks in Zimbabwe.		Inadequacy regarding equipment to cater for people with disabilities affects tour guides.

2.0 Methodology

The main focus of the current study was to review and analyze all the studies that have been done in the area of accessible tourism in Africa and shed lights as to what extent have the published academic articles addressed issues of accessible tourism in connection to transport, amenities/recreation, accommodation, destination, and information. In the current study, an author-driven review approach was employed. This implies that literature was reviewed from the author's interpretation than from the point of the concepts of view. This method was appropriate in the current study because issues regarding accessible tourism seem to be evolving in the area of tourism and hospitality industry. Additionally, this method helps a researcher to capture the intended meaning of the concepts from the researchers' original idea. The researcher reviewed the academic published articles in the area of accessible tourism in Africa regardless of their years of publications.

This study involved an extensive desk literature review. In this study, only full-length articles published in academic journals, mainly in tourism and hospitality were included. Conference articles, book reviews, abstracts, editor prefaces, internet columns as well as conference proceedings were excluded from the analysis because of their limited if any, contributions to the existing knowledge. However, information from WHO country reports and country statistical data related to disability were used to justify the existing problem. Some of the information such as definitions of key terms such as disabled people and accessible tourism was taken from books. Three main tourism database search engines such as EBSCOhost, science direct, and Google scholar were used to download the reviewed articles. These databases are the largest and most popular online search engine databases used in tourism and hospitality studies (Buhalis and Law, 2008).

In the process of searching for articles, the researcher used several keywords to search for the articles, words such as "accessible tourism" "people with disabilities" "Africa" "tourism" "hospitality" were used separately and at times a combination of words was employed to generate the relevant articles for the study. Additionally, references cited in the published articles were also traced to assess their relevance in the study. The decision to include an article for the analysis was primarily based on its relevance to the theme of the study. The initial search retrieved a total of 258 articles. Then, each article was critically reviewed twice by the researcher to justify its inclusion and to ensure its accuracy and objectivity. The final searching process yielded 21 full-text articles that were considered relevant for the analysis in the current study (Refer Table 1). The researcher reviewed all 21 and assigned them to five research themes both from supplier and demand sides. Finally, it was concluded that "accessible tourism" "people with disabilities" and "Africa" were among the main key search words used to get the final articles. As some studies discussed accessible tourism in several ways, one study was assigned to more than one theme if the study focus was multifaceted.

Content analysis was employed to analyze content and concepts in the studies. This technique is a common data analysis method in the social sciences (Berg, 2009). This method involves a careful, detailed, systematic assessment and interpretation of a particular body of material to identify patterns, themes, biases, and meanings. The technique identifies the meaning of the text

and, therefore, maintains a qualitative textual approach (Elo & Kyngä, 2007). The advantage of this method is that if done properly, it offers replication of outcomes (Duriau, Reger, & Pfarrer, 2007), it is analytically flexible (Duriau, Reger, & Pfarrer, 2007), can be employed for inductive or deductive research (Elo & Kyngä, 2007). This technique allows different levels of analyses to be performed by using qualitative or quantitative approaches (Duriau, Reger, & Pfarrer, 2007).

Table 1 presents the summary of all the accessible tourism studies and their categories in five themes of transport, recreational/amenities, accommodation, destination, and information. The analysis revealed that three (2) articles fell in transport theme; twelve (9) articles were in amenities/recreation theme, seven (7) were in accommodation, three (3) in the destination and none of the studies has focused entirely on assessing accessible information to disabled people. In the subsequent section, the key findings of the existing literature were critically examined. At the end, the study demonstrates the contributions of the study and gives managerial implications.

3.0 Presentations of the findings

3.1 The Concept of Accessible Tourism

Accessible tourism is an evolving concept in the field of study that may affect tourism destination competitiveness in the future (Michopoulou *et al.,* 2015). Generally, accessibility in a simple term entails making all products, services, and the environment available to everyone, and this is considered as a prerequisite to removing discrimination by including people with disabilities in the society. Accessible tourism allows the adaptation of the environmental resources, tourism services, and products to grant an equal opportunity for all visitors to have access and enjoy tourism based on principles of universal design standards (World Health Organization, 2016). Accessible tourism is also referred to as disabled tourism (Burnett & Bender-Baker, 2001), easy access tourism (Cameron, 2000), barrier-free tourism (ENAT, 2017), inclusive tourism (Buhalis et al., 2005) as well as universal tourism. Others have defined it as a form of tourism that involves collaborative efforts between stakeholders that allows people with access needs, including mobility, vision, hearing and cognitive dimensions of access, to function independently and with equity and dignity through delivery of universally designed tourism products, services, and environments (Buhalis & Darcy, 2011). This definition did not exclude those travelling with children in prams, people with disabilities and senior travellers. For this study, accessible tourism is simply a form of tourism that allows all travellers regardless of their physical or social, economic characteristics or impairments to enjoy tourism offerings with ease without any barriers.

3.2 Definition of Disabled People

Disability can simply be seen as a restriction or lack resulting from an impairment of ability that one encounters which limits them from performing an activity in the manner or within the range considered as normal for a human being (United Nations, 2008). The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2008, clarifies disabled persons to include those with hearing, visual, communication, mobility, agility, pain, learning, memory, developmental, or psychological/psychiatric difficulties to the extent that could hinder their participation within

society. In this study, disabled people included senior travellers, those with impairment either mobility, sensory, communication, intellectual/mental, and hidden impairment or some combinations of these that limit them from taking an active role in leisure or tourism activities.

3.3 Accessible Tourism and Transport

Accessible transportation system is crucial for making sure that there is equality for all people in society (Bombom & Abdullahi, 2016). The provision of inclusive transportation services is one of the best strategies to overcome challenges affecting people with disabilities in the society. Several studies have addressed issues related to accessible tourism and transport system in Africa. For example, Odufuwa (2007) examined the sustainability of public transport for disabled people in Nigeria. It was found that immobility in developing countries is one of the major limitations affecting the livelihood of people with disabilities. Transport service providers in Africa are ignorant regarding offering service to people with disabilities. Commercial vehicle drivers are not willing to serve them because they believe that they come from low social status. This negative notion affects the ability of service providers from offering fair treatment to people with disabilities, hence disabled people feel like that the society is discriminating against them even when they can pay for their transport still they end up facing challenges from the providers (Bombom & Abdullahi, 2016).

Using a case study of Kwazulu-Natal, Specer and Mnqayi (2017) assessed whether transport service providers understood the concept of accessibility. It was found out that transport service providers among others were not aware of accessibility issues or how accessibility helped to improve the local economy. Most of them were not convinced that universal accessibility would offer a positive contribution to the economic development of uMhlabuyalinga Municipality hence most of their establishment failed to accommodate the needs of disabled people. The overall findings from Bombom and Abdullahi (2016), Odufuwa (2007), Specer and Mnqayi (2017) implied that disabled people in Africa are not given priority when it comes to the transport system. They are neglected based on their level of impairment and their socio-economic traits. If this situation is not going to change, the continent will lose a significant amount of revenue from this growing travel market. Therefore, special training is needed to train transport service providers regarding the importance of this travel market. The knowledge gained will be able to change their attitude towards disabled people.

3.4 Amenities/Recreation and Accessible Tourism

Mensah, Badu, and Opoku (2015) assessed the barriers affecting people with disabilities when visiting recreational facilities in Ghana. It was found out that disabled people do face a lot of challenges when accessing tourist attractions. These challenges affect their travel behaviour hence hindering them from visiting various attractions. Among the key factors affecting them included; limited income, restrictive physical barriers, and negative attitude from service providers. Furthermore, they were limited by the absence of accessible toilets, flexible tables, and chairs, inaccessible pathways for the wheelchair, and the absence of canopy walkways.

Chikuta, duPleissis, and Saayman (2017) assessed the travel motives of people with disabilities to national parks using respondents from disabled peoples associations in Zimbabwe and South

Africa. It was revealed that disabled people had similar travel motivations as able-bodied persons. This is why they have been seen visiting national parks with their family and friends. Therefore, a notion that people with disabilities were weak and cannot take part in any tourism activity did not hold water. Far from that, disabled people are taking an active role in nature activities just to prove a point that they can do is just like others. They do so also to enjoy the healing effect of being near nature. A year after, Chikuta, duPlessis, and Saayman (2018) assessed accessibility expectations of nature tourists with disabilities at national parks using disabled people representatives from Zimbabwe and South Africa. It was revealed that disabled people were worried about the way service providers were treating them. Furthermore, the facilities at the national parks were not user friendly to people with disabilities. Presence of staircases, lack of information (in accessible format e.g., Braille), negative attitude from employees, lack of knowledge to sign language were among the key problems that affected disabled people.

Chikuta, Kabote, and Chikanya (2017) addressed challenges that faced tour guides when guiding people with disabilities at Antelope Park located outside Gweru off the Harare and Bally Vaughan Bird & Game sanctuary in Harare. The findings from the focus group discussions and interview from tour guides, revealed that there was inadequacy of the facilities such as; vehicles to carry them, limited extra assistive types of equipment such as; wheelchairs, crutches, walking stick, and portable ramps as well as lack of user-friendly activities for disabled people to undertake while they were at the recreational areas.

Issahaku (2017) examined reasons that affected disabled people from enjoying leisure activities at Kumasi Metropolis. Results from the discriminant analysis revealed that disabled people liked jogging, playing board games, playing football, reading, visiting friends as well as visiting recreational sites. However, their desire to take a role in leisure activities was limited by funds, lack of social support as well as the inaccessible physical environment. As a result, visually impaired people thought that the presence of the limitations limited them from enjoying leisure activities.

In the area of cultural tourism, Lwoga and Mapunda (2017) applied the barrier approach to examine challenges affecting disabled people when visiting cultural and heritage sites in Tanzania. The findings from an in-depth interview revealed that cultural sites had limited facilities to cater to the needs of disabled people. Sites have been facing a lack of funds to invest in designing buildings that are disabled user friendly. Limited skilled personnel to communicate using sign languages, also fear to adjust the buildings to accommodate disabled people are among the key issues affecting the effective operation of the sites. In the same field of study, Refaat and Ibrahim (2017) examined accessibility problems that affected disabled people when they visited the famous ancient monument in Egypt. In the study, four historical sites were selected and 30 archaeologists were interviewed. In the end, the study revealed that somehow some of the facilities at the site were disabled people user friendly. However, the site was suffering from not having enough car parking spaces to accommodate wheelchair users, lack of ramps, and lack of front desk operators to assist disabled people. Furthermore, lack of directional signs, underfoot warnings, Braille texts, and seats for wheelchair users were other limitations that affected disabled people from enjoying leisure activity.

In the same area of study, Ibem *et al.,* (2017) examined the extent to which the design, planning, and construction of museum buildings and facilities in Nigeria comply with the principles of universal design and promote user satisfaction. Findings from the content analysis highlighted that three museums somehow complied with the regulations. However, most of the facilities at the museums were not user friendly to people with disabilities. It was noted that two of the museums had applied the approachability standard by having roads that were user friendly to all visitors except the Badagry Museum which showed a low level of compliance. Entries to all three museums were not designed to accommodate disabled people, rather they were meant for able-bodied persons. It was revealed that the entry points had no ramps to assist wheelchair users, the buildings had more than one floor, lack of personnel to communicate with disabled people via sign language, and toilets were not accessible to children and disabled people.

Similarly, Oladokun, Ololajulo, and Oladele (2014) assessed the factors influencing people with special needs to take part in recreation and cultural tourism activities in Osogbo. They employed a questionnaire to members of JONAPWD, an association of special needs in Olorunda and Osogbo Local Government Areas. The study pointed out that inaccessible physical environment, economic, and societal negative attitudes were the key challenges affecting disabled people from enjoying cultural attractions. Therefore, a clear message from this study implies that some of the problems that affect disabled people emanate from the society they are living in.

In the same field of cultural tourism, Njerekau (2019) examined the application of a 360-degree concept to the great Zimbabwe monument to produce virtual tour videos of the one of the world heritage site. Using thematic analysis, it was revealed that having a 360-degree camera was helpful to develop clear images of the monument. The intention of developing that technology was for all people to have equal access to see the beauty of that site without neglecting anybody. The project led to the establishment of 4 virtual videos that would be enjoyed by all people including those with disabilities.

3.5 Accommodation and Accessible Tourism

In the area of accommodation, several studies were done to assess whether the existing accommodations were user-friendly to disabled people. Bisschoff and Breedt (2012) developed a consumer service index to assist the accommodation industry in South Africa to offer flexible service to people with disabilities. Using a qualitative study, it was revealed that reception, bathrooms and swimming pools were not accessible to senior and disabled people. Furthermore, it was highlighted that the then existing accommodations could only offer 15% of all the services needed by disabled people.

Spencer and Mnqayi (2017) assessed whether accommodation service providers understood the concept of universal accessibility at Sodwana Bay and Kosi Bay in Kwazulu-Natal of the uMhlabuyalingana Municipality South Africa. It was found out that somehow the accommodation facilities were able to satisfy the needs of a broad range of customers. It was found out that there was availability of enough parking spaces, clear signs and ramps to assist disabled people. But surprisingly, some of the providers thought there was no need to develop facilities that follow universal designs.

Mangwiro *et al.* (2018) assessed the perceptions of people with disabilities following the compliance of Zimbabwean hotels. Using thematic analysis, it was revealed that Zimbabwe was still lagging when it came to compliance of universally designed facilities, even though disabled people were willing to pay as much as was needed to get accessible facilities. The accommodation facilities lacked electronic ramps, Braille written menu, clear signage and accessible facilities in the rooms.

In Egypt, Tamer (2011) assessed the ability of Egyptian hospitality to accommodate customers with special needs. It was revealed that the hotel staff had failed to communicate clearly to customers. It was found out that the design, layout, entertainment, and hotel rooms lacked accessibility requirements to assist them. In the end, it was advised that hotel staff needed to be trained so that they could communicate clearly with disabled customers. In the same country, Abd-Elraof, Dawood, and Mohamma (2018) examined how resort establishments in Egypt were user-friendly to people with disabilities. Evidence from descriptive statistics and one-way ANOVA revealed that most of the resorts had accessible public toilets, special rooms, enough parking spaces. As a result, the resort owners were able to improve the image of their establishments and increase customer satisfaction. Although the resorts were able to provide what was needed by their customers, few of them managed to rent those resorts. The study further revealed that there were high operating costs, limited facilities to assist communication, and lack of skilled staff to handle disabled people.

Meskele, Woreta, and Weldesenb (2018) evaluated challenges affecting hotels when accommodating disabled customers. Based on thematic analysis, it was revealed that 4 hotels in the cities failed to have an elevator, pushchair, restaurant, and accessible furniture to support disabled people. But on the other hand, most of the hotels were able to provide accessible drop-off areas for a motor vehicle, accessible entry doors with level floors, clear signage, and free space beside toilets. Additionally, some of the hotels in Bahirdar and Gondar had more accessible facilities than hotels from Debark and Lalibela.

Khumalo and Ndlovu (2017) investigated the accessibility of bed and breakfast (B&B) facilities to assist wheelchair users in Durban. It was found out that majority of the establishment facilities lacked user-friendly services; spacious rooms, limited reliable information and the overall environment was not barrier-free hence limiting disabled people from enjoying the accommodation.

3.6 Destination and Accessible Tourism

Issahaku, Akwasi, and Kwaku (2016) assessed the leisure motivations of disabled people in Ghana. They employed the leisure motivation scale in examining visitors' motivation. It was found out that competency, social, intellectual and stimulus avoidance motivated visitors to Kumasi. Furthermore, it was highlighted that visitors' motivation varied across marital status, household size, sex, and employment status. Additionally, the study reported that disabled people were taking similar activities as those undertaken by the able-bodied person. Chikuta (2015), on the other hand, examined whether there were enough facilities to accommodate disabled people in Zimbabwe. It was reported that Zimbabwe as a tourist destination was still lagging behind in terms of providing accessible facilities to accommodate disabled people. As a result, most

disabled people were failing to take leisure trips to Zimbabwe. Additionally, the study revealed that 30% of hotel establishments did not have elevators and ramps to assist disabled people.

Adam, Boakye & Kumi-Kyereme (2017) discussed the leisure constraints of visually and physically impaired people in Ghana. The findings from focus group discussion and interview revealed that the disabled persons were constrained by the behaviour of people in society. Negative attitudes, limited support from family & friends, and exclusion from social and national programmes affected their desire to undertake leisure trips. Furthermore, it was also concluded that society as a whole did not take initiatives to address issues related to disabilities. Therefore, negative perceptions that are involved in people's minds were still clouding their judgment to the point when they did not see the value of taking actions in issues related to disability.

3.7 Information and Accessible Tourism

Most of the African countries are accused of being unable to provide clear and up-to-date travel information to travellers. Most of the websites in African countries have focused only on displaying information related to popular destinations, accommodation, and climate. Due to the limited ability to provide travel information, very few studies have reported issues related to travel information and accessible tourism in Africa. The existing studies have highlighted that lack of trained staff on how to use assistive technologies and those who can use sign language are among the key challenges affecting disabled people when travelling to various attractions (Lwoga & Mapunda, 2017; Chikuta, DuPlessis and Saayman, 2018). This problem has limited them from getting clear and up-to-date information regarding accessible facilities in various destinations. For disabled people to get clear messages, right marketing strategies need to be used. The use of leaflets, booklets &guidebooks, audio media tours &listening devices, tactile media is needed when communicating with disabled travellers. For example, text messaging is needed to help deaf customers when they want to order room services or contact the front office (Chikuta, duPlessis, and Saayman, 2018).The deaf can hardly get a message to public information as both national and private information and communication service providers are neglecting them except for national Televisions (Ghana Federation of the Disabled, 2008) and few private Televisions. In Africa, the major means of communication including newspapers, books, and educational materials are not accessible to disabled people to use them. This study argues that the presence of assistive devices can help people with disabilities be independent and confident to take part in social and leisure activities just like others.

4.0 Discussion and Conclusion

Africa is the second-fastest-growing tourist destination in the world (Adeola, Boso, & Evans, 2018).The continent is blessed with multiple tourist attractions ranging from natural to man-made attractions. As a result, a significant number of international tourists are pushed to visit attractions such as; Mount Kilimanjaro (Tanzania), Masai Mara (Kenya), Dunes (Namibia), Nyika plateau national parks (Malawi) and Pyramids (Egypt) just to mention a few. Yet, despite the attractions, the environment in the African countries is not user friendly to host disabled travellers. This has been revealed from the findings of the existing accessible tourism studies in Africa. In Africa, disabled people are seen as bad luck or punishment that emerged from evil deeds or sin committed by parents or family members (Naami, Hayashi, & Liese, 2012). Society believes that disabled people are cursed hence this perception makes it very hard for the African

community to accept them. Misconceptions and myths involved in disability originate in the cultural belief systems. Unless ethnic groups in Africa are trained to value and respect disabled people, the endless harassment towards them will never end. However, one of the strategies to get rid of the problem could be to enact disability social policy. This policy will help to stop the negative attitude towards disabled people. Through such policy, the African governments can force tourism service providers including transport officers, frontline staff, and destination workers to be supportive and to offer user-friendly services to people with special needs. Change of societal attitude will help disabled people to be active in jogging, playing football, reading as it was highlighted by Issahaku (2017) that disabled people don't participate in those because of lack of social support.

Training of front office staffs, transport officers, hoteliers, destination officers, travel agents operators as well as tour guides on how to use sign language will solve the communication problem to disabled travellers. Furthermore, communication such as sound announcements, video recordings, audio-tours, sound foot warnings can be used by service providers when promoting tourist attractions to the visual, wheelchair as well as to senior travellers while, leaflets, booklets, guide tour-books can be used for hearing-impaired travellers. Since Chikuta, duPlessis, and Saayman (2017) identified that disabled people like nature-based activities such as; visiting museums, monuments as well as visiting national parks, then destination managers need to make sure that they develop a special package to accommodate nature activities when marketing tourist attractions to disabled people. Training of staff will also attract hearing-impaired travellers to travel more to tourist attractions since they place more values on the way front staffs treat them than any accessibility features (Chikuta, duPlessis and Saayman, 2018).

Additionally, existing disability laws and policies in African countries need to be reviewed to impose strict penalties to service providers who refuse to offer accessible services to disabled people. This will force them to follow the guidelines stipulated in the policies. Also, disabled people need to be involved from the development to the implementation stage of those policies since they are the main beneficiaries of those policies.

Ministries responsible for tourism in African countries need to make sure that they evaluate accessibility facilities such as availability of ramps, spacious rooms, spacious parking spaces, directional signs, underfoot warnings, Braille, accessible toilets, and available skilled front office personnel before they grade accommodation establishments. This will force the accommodation owners to develop facilities that are user-friendly to customers with special needs. Frequent visits should be done by tourism officers to accommodation establishments to assess whether the approved facilities are still in good condition to accommodate disabled people. A similar technique should be adapted in other sectors such as transport and attractions sectors. The technique will attract a significant number of disabled travellers because some of them are willing to pay any amount to get the desired experience (Mangwiro *et al.,* 2018). For instance, having space between seats will not only assist wheelchair users to sit comfortably in public transports but will also offer a positive experience to people with mobility challenges (senior travellers, small kids, and pregnant women) since they put more emphasis on public transport more than other accessibility issues.

Furthermore, African countries need to start collecting data because there are no exact actual disability data (Chikuta, 2015; Bombom &Abdullahi, 2016; Lwoga & Mapunda, 2017; Meskele, Woreta & Weldesenb, 2018). The statistics can be used to identify travel behaviour of people with disabilities as well as predicting their activity preferences. Such information can help to monitor behaviour changes from this travel market. Since it is reported that disabled peoples' travel motivations are heterogeneous (Issahaku, Akwasi & Kwaku, 2016); therefore, such information can be useful to service providers when developing marketing strategies.

It is believed that there is a positive relationship between poverty and disability (Odufuwa, 2007). Therefore, service providers in African countries need to set special prices to attract those with low income to visit various attractions. This is important since some of them are unemployed hence they have low income (Mensah, Badu & Opoku, 2015). A low transport cost, accommodation, reasonable entrance fees in parks and cultural attractions should be used as one of the ways to attract them. African governments should also provide support to service providers by reducing taxes when they import assistive facilities such as special cars/ buses, toilets, wheelchairs, walking sticks, beds for people with disabilities. This will push service providers to start offering accessible services.

There should be an agreement between conservationists and tourism developers regarding adjusting cultural and heritage attractions such as museums, monuments, and archaeological sites to meet universal standards without jeopardizing the authenticity of cultural areas (Lwoga & Mapunda, 2017). The two parties need to sit together and see how cultural attractions can be redesigned to accommodate disabled people. However, with ICT in place, cultural attractions can be accessible to disabled people.

The focus of the current study was to exclusively analyse academic articles on African accessible tourism in Africa. After examining twenty one (21) academic journals in the area of accessible tourism, this study has contributed to the existing literature by distinctly answering the research question: "to what extent have the published articles on accessible tourism in Africa focused on addressing issues related to accessible accommodation, transportation, amenities/recreation, accessible destination as well as access information from both suppliers and demand sides?" This study concludes that to the smallest extent, the published works have addressed issues related to accessible information. Most of the studies have addressed challenges affecting disabled people in transport, accommodation, attraction sites as well as when they reach tourist destinations.

Overall, the study concludes that the disabled travel market is the fastest-growing niche that cannot be ignored by the tourism stakeholders in African countries. Therefore, African governments need to develop appropriate marketing strategies using language that is user-friendly to people with special needs. Furthermore, special packages to include nature activities should be developed but the packages have to be of a reasonable price to attract disabled people. Additionally, the existing disability laws and policies in African countries should be reviewed by including disabled people or their representatives via their formal associations. Disabled people have to be involved from the initial stage to the implementation stage of policy development because they are the key beneficiaries of accessible tourism. Frequent visits to tourist offerings by tourism officers should be done to make sure that accessible facilities are available to accommodate disabled people. Travel agents and tourism information centres in African

countries need to make sure that information is given using proper communication channels so that disabled people get clear travel information. Provision of proper communication will help disabled people in choosing proper accommodation, transport, amenities as well as accessible destination.

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Factors Affecting Use of Mobile Money Services on Loans Repayment for Saving and Credits Cooperative Societies (SACCOS) in Rombo District, Tanzania

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Abstract: *This study assessed the factors affecting the use of mobile money on loan repayment in Savings and Credits Cooperative Societies (SACCOS) in the Rombo District in Tanzania. Specifically, the study assessed the influence of perceived usefulness (PU), perceived ease of use (PEOU) and perceived risks (PR) of mobile money service on loan repayment in SACCOS. The study used descriptive and correlation analysis and a population of 17 SACCOS. Two SACCOS with a population of 2,724 borrowers were used to select the sample size of 120 borrowers using a systematic random sampling technique. The findings indicated that only 36% of borrowers repaid loans using mobile phones. Through correlation analysis, the results indicated that PU and PEOU did not significantly influence the mobile loan repayment while PR negatively and significantly influenced the mobile loans' repayment. The study recommends the formulation of policies that will guide mobile money loan repayment in Tanzania. The study further recommends that SACCOS clients should be trained on the importance of repaying loans through mobile money. This will enable tracking of the repaid loans and increase the loans repayment performance which seems to be a challenge for most of the SACCOS in Tanzania.*

Keywords: Mobile money services, Loan repayment, Savings and Credits Cooperative Societies (SACCOS), Tanzania

1.0 Introduction

Mobile money payment is any financial transaction done using a mobile phone device (Mas & Radcliffe, 2010). The use of mobile money in payments of various transactions in Tanzania was estimated to be over 3.6 billion U.S. dollars in 2019 where the services were provided by M-Pesa, Airtel Money, Tigo Pesa and EzyPesa, HaloPesa and TTCL Money (O'Dea, 2020).

This study was conducted to assess the factors affecting the use of mobile money on loan repayment in Savings and Credits Cooperative Societies (SACCOS) in the Rombo District in Tanzania. The study was conducted at Rombo District in the Kilimanjaro Region which hosts the Kibo and Mawenzi peaks of Mount Kilimanjaro. According to the population census of 2012, the population of the Rombo District was 260,963 inhabitants. The people of Rombo District engage in agriculture (90%), small businesses (7%) and workers employed in diverse sectors (3%). Rombo District had 17 SACCOS which provides financial services to residents (Rombo District Council   Profile,   2021).

Savings and Credit Cooperative Societies (SACCOS) are voluntary associations from which members regularly pool their savings and subsequently obtain loans used for different purposes (Ndiege, Mataba, Msonganzila & Nzilano, 2016). SACCOS offer services such as; remittances, deposits, savings, training and insurance (URT, 2017). The first SACCOS was formed by the Ismailia group in 1938 in the Moshi town of Tanzania. Nevertheless, SACCOS grew in number in the 1960s while in 1975 were abolished because parastatal village crop authorities performed their functions during the establishment of communal villages (Maghimbi, 2010). In the 1990s they resurfaced again (Bee, 2007). Loans issuance in SACCOS meets the mission of poverty alleviation for clients and the profitability of SACCOS (Ibtissem & Bouri, 2013).

According to Qin and Ndiege (2013) and Bwana and Mwakujonga (2013), SACCOS contribute to about 40% of Tanzania's GDP, employ secondary school and college leavers and finances the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in both urban and rural areas. The Government of Tanzania has recognized the significance of SACCOS in promoting socio-economic development, in both urban and rural areas and hence encouraged their spread (Ndiege et al., 2016). Therefore, over the past decades, Tanzania has experienced rapid growth of SACCOS because of government sensitization (Magali, 2013). According to Magali (2018), the challenges facing SACCOS in Tanzania are credits default for most of the SACCOS, poor credit risk management practices, embezzlement, lack of strong leadership, operations inefficiency, dishonesty, fraud, insufficient capital, lack of investment skills, poor corporate governance practices and inadequate supervision from the government.

Tanzania Cooperatives Development Commission (TCDC) (2019) reported that in 2018 out of 6,137 SACCOS that appeared in the Tanzania directory of Cooperative Registrar 44.11%, 35.16 %, and 20.73% were active, dormant and untraceable respectively. Moreover, the audit reports for the year 2018/19 showed that number of audited SACCOS were only 2,707 or 44% of all SACCOS in Tanzania. Moreover, the report revealed that only 53.49% of the audited SACCOS were active and only 18.02% had a clean audit report. Loan delinquency is the main challenge that threatens the performance of SACCOS (Mitei, Bosire & Kirui, 2016). According to URT (2017), non-repayment of loans is still a problem for some SACCOS in Tanzania. Magali (2013) declared that poor loan repayment affects both the performance and sustainability of SACCOS. According to Rombo district cooperative department, by December 2018, loans issued to 8,496 borrowers were Tanzanian Shillings (TZS) 14,319,284,648 (equivalent to 6,198,824.5 USD). The loans outstanding were TZS 3,075,277,955 (1,331,289.2 USD), out of which 16% were defaulted.

Mobile money services facilitate saving, borrowing and receiving remittances and hence reduces transaction costs (Munyegera, 2015). Mbiti and Weil (2011) have asserted that electronic payment for goods and services is the secondary function of mobile money payment. Kamande, Kamanzi, Kituyi, and Qureshi, (2021) have further asserted that distance between SACCOS and clients sometimes limit service provision in the rural area and hence mobile phone services can overcome the distance problem.

The empirical literature review indicates that some of the studies which have assessed the factors affecting mobile money technology acceptance in Tanzania include Anthony and Mutalemwa (2014), Lema (2017) and John, Gwahula and Msemwa (2018). Abdinoor and Mbamba (2017)

and Richard and Mandari (2017) concentrated on the banking, telecommunication industry and SMEs. Moreover, To and Trinh (2021) revealed the positive influence of perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and enjoyment on the adoption of mobile wallets in Vietnam. Akinyemi and Mushunje (2020) asserted that acceptance of mobile money technology in rural Africa was possible because it was faster, safer, easier, more trustworthy and more convenient. Flavian, Guinaliu, and Lu (2020) disclosed that the adoption of credit cards payment in Spain and the USA were influenced by perceived ease of use, mindfulness, perceived usefulness attitude and subjective norms.

Opare (2018) revealed that mobile money services improve the efficiency of the transaction for commercial banks in Ghana. Aron (2018) and Chirchir and Simiyu (2016) stressed that mobile payments facilitated trade that contributed to the profitability of SMEs owners in Kenya. Moreover, Klapper (2017) argued that digital payments may increase the profitability of the firm by reducing travel time and expenses. Klapper (2017) opined that digital payments may increase the profitability of the firm by reducing travel time and expenses. Lubutse (2020) revealed that age, gender, occupation, membership status, agent experience, service time and possession of a smartphone influenced access to mobile banking services for SACCOS clients. However, his study did not assess how mobile money services affected loan repayment.

The variables of this study relate to the technology acceptance model (TAM) which was proposed by Davis in 1989. Davis asserted that perceived usefulness (PU), perceived ease of use (PEU), attitude towards use, intention to use and behavioural intention to use influence the adoption of the technology. Other scholars such as; Davis et al. (1989) and Venkatesh and Davis (2000) modified TAM and included the variables of demographics (Omol, et al., 2017; Akinyemi & Mushunje, 2020), social pressure, community trust and culture (Wamuyu, 2014), education (To & Trinh, 2021; Burke, Goldman, et al., 2016; Perkins & Annan, 2015), consumers' awareness (Sudhir et al., 2012; Abdinoor & Mbamba 2017), preference (Kumar & Seri, 2014; Light, 2013). This study applied TAM with variables proposed by Omol et al. (2013) because the variables capture well the variables of PU, PEOU and PR and to the best of our knowledge, the link between the variables of TAM and loans repayment performance is missing in the previous literature. This study contributed to the TAM model by assessing the extent to which the variables of the model such as; PU, PEOU and PR are essential for promoting the mobile repayment of loans in SACCOS.

2.0 Methodology

The study used a descriptive research design, a population of 17 SACCOS and a sample size of 2 SACCOS with a population of 2,724 SACCOS' members with loans. The surveyed clients were selected by using systematic random sampling and the structured questionnaire was used for data collection. The questionnaire contained the demographic and technology adoption variables. The 5-Likert scale of 1 strongly disagree, 4 disagree, 3 neutral, 4 agree and 5 strongly agree were used to rate the adoption-related variables. The sample size was determined based on the formula developed   by   Yamane   (1967).

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Whereby; n = estimated individual sample size, N = total number of people within the study area (2,724 members), e = standard error, which is 5% (0.05) was used to obtain manageable respondents. Therefore, n = 2,724/ (1 + 2,724(0.05)^2; n = 349. Due to the homogeneity of SACCOS' clients, the study surveyed only 120 borrowers. However, 117 of them returned the questionnaires equivalent to 95% response rate. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), 50% of the response rate is adequate for a social science survey.

The respondents' consent was sought, confidentiality was considered and all used works were cited thoroughly to curb the problem of plagiarism. The questionnaires were checked to confirm the data completeness and follow-up using mobile phones was done in the case of incomplete or unclear information. Also, the researchers checked if there were outliers and two questionnaires with a high amount of loans than the average borrower was excluded in the analysis and the researchers replaced the outliers with other borrowers in the population list. The researcher numbered the questionnaires before entering the data in SPSS to enable tracking of entries. The variables from the questionnaire were coded and data were entered into SPSS software. The analysis of data was done using descriptive and correlation analysis.

The draft questionnaire was discussed with the Rombo District Council Cooperative Officer to enhance its validity. Similarly, the variables from the questionnaire were adopted from Omol et al. (2017), who assessed the factors influencing acceptance of mobile money applications in enterprise management in Kenya. Furthermore, the questionnaire was pre-tested to 10 SACCOs clients before the data collection (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). The reliability of the data used the test-retest method, which examines the correlation among the variables. This technique uses Cronbach alpha statistics to discern the reliability of data. Quansah (2017) declared that if the ranges of Crobanch alpha lies between 0.70 to 0.95, then the data are reliable. The results of Cronbach alpha from Table 3.1 indicate that the data did not face the reliability problem.

Table 1: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Number of Items
0.817	0.704	6
0.796	0.752	4
0.827	0.793	4
0.853	0.816	3
0.817	**0.704**	**17**

3.0 Results and Discussion

3.1 Demographic information

3.1.1 Sex of borrowers

The study findings showed that 42.1% of the respondents were males while 57.9% of the respondents were females. The results indicated that females participated more in SACCOS activities than males. This could partly be due to the female's responsibilities in their families and their motive to overcome the challenges of poverty. The results are in tandem with the study by Amiry (2013) who indicated that females were more attracted to join SACCOS to access capital for their businesses in Kinondoni District, Dar es salaam.

3.1.2 Age ranges

The findings showed that the majority (63.2%) of SACCOS' clients were aged between 18 and 40 years while those who were aged between 41 and 60 years and 61 and above were 35.1% and 1.8% respectively. The data implies that most of the respondents belonged to the active age group and hence can participate actively in economic activities. The study revealed that youths preferred paying their loans using mobile money than other groups (youths were 28% while the elders were 8%). The results suggested that if youths could be the best loans payers, SACCOS could prefer to lend them because of their flexibilities in loans repayments and this could make more youths engage in economic activities and boost both domestic and national economy. Modiglian (1970) indicated that age structure may influence private saving behaviour. In this case, it may influence loan borrowing and investment. Assaker (2019) also revealed that older aged travellers were the main users of online generated content. Lubutse (2020) further revealed that age determined the mobile money payment for SACCOS' clients.

3.1.3 Education level

The study manifested that 34.2% of respondents had primary education, 43% secondary education, 12.3% college and 10.5% university education. The findings showed that the majority of SACCOS borrowers possessed the basic education which may help them to utilize the loans borrowed from SACCOS properly. Kilemile (2017) found out that education affected positively the financial sustainability of SACCOS. These results were contrary to Magali (2013) who found out that the education of the SACCOS' staff negatively influenced the loans' repayment for rural SACCOS in Tanzania. Therefore, the study concluded that possessing a higher level of education for SACCOS staff and clients was not enough to promote loan repayment, if not used wisely.

Table 2: Borrowers' Demographic information (N=117)

Sex	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	48	42.1
Female	66	57.9
Age range		
18-40	72	63.2
41-60	40	35.1
61 and above	2	1.8
Education level		
Primary	39	34.2
Secondary	49	43.0
College	14	12.3
University	12	10.5
Modes of loan repayment		
Cash	72	63.2
Mobile money	41	36.0
Both	1	.9

3.1.4 Modes of loans repayment

The study noted that 64% of borrowers repaid loans using cash while 36% repaid loans using the mobile money service. The findings further revealed that 0.9% of the borrowers used both cash and mobile money service. Despite this, the World Bank (2012) has witnessed that electronic bill payment is more transparent, safe and cost-effective. The findings from this study revealed that the majority of SACCOS of borrowers were not sensitized enough to use mobile money services in the repayment of loans. The majority of respondents asserted that they preferred cash repayment to avoid high transaction charges and the possibility of losing money when making mobile money transactions. Chale and Mbamba (2014) have revealed that the cash model of payment dominated when it comes to purchasing stock and payment of goods and services.

3.1.5 The Influence of Perceived Usefulness (PU) of Mobile Money Service on Loan Repayment in SACCOS

The perceived usefulness as a stimulator for repaying the loans through mobile money received the following responses: 74.6% of borrowers agreed that quick repayment of the loan was a motivating factor for using the mobile money service while 47.8% of borrowers accepted that payment through mobile money reminded them the time to repay the loans. The findings further revealed that 91.2% and 88.5% of borrowers perceived that the use of mobile money reduced the time and costs of the transaction respectively (Table 2). The findings indicated that the majority of SACCOS' clients were aware that using mobile money services in repayment of loans reduced time and financial resources.

However, only a few borrowers agreed that paying through mobile money was quick compared to cash payment (Table 2). The findings correspond with Adam and Walker (2016) who indicated that mobile phone payment was quicker compared to cash payment. The payment mode also helped the rural population who had few options for formal monetary transactions. Anthony and Mutalemwa (2014) uncovered that the high cost of mobile money services discouraged users. The findings of the current study further indicated that the SACCOS'

borrowers perceived that it was useful to repay the loans using the mobile money service. The results correspond with To and Trinh (2021) and Abdinoor and Mbamba (2017), who acknowledged the usefulness of mobile money services in the payment of various transactions.

Table 3: The Influence of Perceived Usefulness (PU) of Mobile Money Service on Loan Repayment in SACCOS

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Enabled quick repayment of loans	85	72.6
Reminded borrowers to repay loans	56	47.8
Made borrowers save time	104	91.2
Made borrowers reduce costs	101	88.5

3.1.6 The Influence of Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) of Mobile Money Service on Loans Repayment in SACCOS

The findings on the perceived ease of use (PEOU) on repayment of loans through mobile money services are indicated in Table 4. The findings show that more than half (57.8%) of SACCOS members agreed that using mobile money on loan repayment was easy. Moreover, the findings showed that only 46.4% agreed that it was simple to correct mistakes that occurred during the mobile money transactions. The response relating to this question was less than 50% indicating that there were challenges associated with the correction of mistakes that occurred during the mobile money transactions. The results, however, indicated that the majority (62.3%) of respondents agreed that no need for special training regarding repaying loans using mobile money, implying that repaying loans through mobile money services was perceived to be easy. The results are supported by Flavian et al. (2020), Richard and Mandari (2017) and Abdinoor and Mbamba (2017).

Table 4: The Influence of Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) of Mobile Money Services on Loan Repayment in SACCOS (N=117)

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Using mobile money on loan repayment is easy	66	57.8
It is simple to correct mistakes during mobile money transaction	53	46.4
No need for special training	71	62.3

3.1.7 The Influence of Perceived Risks (PR) of Mobile Money Service on Loans Repayment in SACCOS

On the variables of the perceived risk of using mobile money on loan repayment, the responses were as follows: About 86.3% agreed that repaying loans through mobile money avoided stealing of money (Table 5). This implies that using mobile money in loans repayment reduced the risks of moving with cash, which may attract thieves to steal it. The findings further indicated that the majority of the SACCOS' clients avowed that repaying the loans through mobile money enhanced the good record-keeping since the mobile money companies keep the electronic mobile money transactions. The SACCOS' clients further agreed that repaying loans using mobile transactions avoided expending the loan money. The findings implied that when borrowers stay

with cash while waiting for repayment of loans, they may be tempted to use it for other unplanned expenditures. However, mobile money transaction enables immediate repayment of loans. Furthermore, 77.8% of borrowers stated that repaying loans through mobile money reduced the risk of corruption to the loan committee to seek the loans repayment delay favour. Scholars emphasized that perceived risk influenced the acceptance of mobile money payment such as Omol et al. (2017), Lema (2017), John et al. (2018) and Richard and Mandari (2017).

Table 5: The Influence of Perceived Risks (PR) of Mobile Money Service on Loan Repayment in SACCOS

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Perceived risk theft avoidance	101	86.3
Perceived risk enhances good record keeping	94	80.7
Perceived risk-avoiding using the money for other expenditure	95	81.2
Perceived Risk anti-corruption means	91	77.8

4.0 The Results from Correlation Analysis

The results from the correlation analysis in Table 6 indicate that PU and PEOU do not significantly influence the mobile loan repayment while PR negatively and significantly influences the repayment of the loan through mobile phones. The implication of the results is that majority of the SACCOS' borrowers did not use the mobile money services in the repayment of loans because they did not understand its usefulness or because they did not perceive it as easy to use it. Rather, the findings show SACCOS borrowers did not use mobile money in repayment of loans because they perceive that it is risky to use it.

Table 6: Correlation Tests of Independent variables and loans repayment

Variable (s)	Value	Sign
Perceived usefulness	0.083	Positive
Perceived Ease use	0.096	Positive
Perceived risk	-0.292**	Negative

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7: Correlation Table   Correlations

Variable		The logarithm of the loan repaid	Total Usefulness	Total Perceived of Ease use	Total Perceived Risk
Logarithm of the loan repaid	Pearson Correlation	1	.083	.096	-.212*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.382	.309	.023
	N	114	114	114	114
Total Usefulness	Pearson Correlation	.083	1	.091	.513**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.382		.334	.000
	N	114	114	114	114
Total Perceived of Ease use	Pearson Correlation	.096	.091	1	.033
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.309	.334		.729
	N	114	114	114	114
Total Perceived Risk	Pearson Correlation	-.212*	.513**	.033	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.000	.729	
	N	114	114	114	114

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

5.0 Conclusion and Recommendations

The findings indicated that only 36% of borrowers repaid loans using mobile phones and the rest (64%) hesitated to lose their money when making mobile money transactions. Moreover, the correlation analysis revealed that perceived risk was negatively correlated with payment of loans using mobile phones and other variables while the influence of perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use were not significant. The study recommends the formulation of policies that will guide the electronic (mobile money) repayment of loans in Tanzania. URT (2019) declared that its electronic bill payment maintains bill consistency, enhance timely availability of data and prevents the risk of losing money and SACCOS may reveal these benefits if the majority of borrowers will repay loans through mobile money services. Therefore, the policymakers dealing with SACCOS should formulate policies that will promote the use of mobile money services in loans repayment. The study further recommends that SACCOS borrowers should be trained on the importance of repaying loans through mobile money services should be conducted. Mobile money payment seemed to be an effective way of revenue collection in various areas, such as in government agencies. Most of the SACCOS are located in rural areas where some face the challenges of distances and communication barriers. Hence, repaying loans through mobile money services may improve the loans repayment performance for SACCOS located both in urban and rural areas.

This study contributed to the TAM model by revealing that variables of the model such as; PU, PEOU and PR are essential for promoting the mobile money repayment of loans in SACCOS. However, analyzing data using descriptive and correlation analysis was the major limitation of this study. Since, advanced quantitative data analysis methods, such as regression or Structural Equation Modeling could produce more precise results. Moreover, the use of mixed-method designs and the application of the moderating variables are recommended for future studies. Future research may also investigate how transaction charges influence mobile loans repayment in SACCOS.

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Efficiency Analysis of Foreign and Domestic Banks and its Determinants: Evidence from Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) Countries

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Abstract: *This paper aims to assess the foreign and domestic banks efficiency and its determinants in Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. In total, 50 foreign and domestic banks were examined for the period of five years from 2015- 2019. The two stage procedures approach was used by this paper to analyse banks efficiency. First input- oriented Data Envelopment Analysis model was used to analyze the efficiency scores and in the second Tobit regression model was applied to investigate the efficient drivers. Furthermore, nonparametric Kruskall-Wallis and Mann Whitney tests and the parametric (t-test) were applied to compare the efficiency between foreign and domestic banks. On average, the findings showed that many domestic and foreign banks in GCC countries were inefficient with mean efficiency scores of less than 100%. The overall banks inefficiency could be explained by managerial inefficiency in exploiting their resources to the fullest; second domestic banks groups on average were more efficient than foreign banks groups supporting home field advantage theory. Finally the multivariate regression analysis highlights that; bank size, credit risks, management quality and liquidity were the most significant efficiency drivers. The findings were useful to the regulators and bankers in GCC countries on operating performance of banking industry and its future evolution. The study results were important because the study pinpoints the drivers of efficiency and its sources of inefficiency, it would help regulator and banks with strategic planning. This will assist the countries to maintain a healthy and sustainable financial system in an economy.*

Keywords: Bank efficiency determinants, Bank industry, GCC countries, Efficiency drivers, two-stage DEA

1.0   Introduction

Banking sector plays a significant role in country's economic growth, since no economic growth can be achieved unless mobilized funds through banking system is efficiently channelled and allocated in the viable investments. The efficiency of banking system affects positively the economic growth of a country and in the same way inefficiency of banking system could results into the negative consequences to the economic growth as a whole (Levine 1998: Berger and Humphrey, 1997; Amel et al., 2004; Brissimisa et al., 2010). Banking system not only allocates mobilized deposits through intermediation process but exceptional provides liquidity and efficiency payment system service both locally and internationally to the economy which gives the sector a key role over other financial institutions (Heffernan, 2005; Matthews & Thompson, 2008). Following the important role played by banking sector to the economy; evaluation of banking sector efficiency has increased attention to academicians, researchers, regulators, and

managers and the focus of analysing performance changing from traditional financial ratios to a multi-dimensional perspective (Seiford & Zhu, 1999; Al-Khasawneh et al, 2012).

In the GCC countries banking industry plays important role in financial development since corporate bond and stock markets are usually underdeveloped. Therefore, the economies of these countries can be enhanced and improved if there is a well functioning and efficient banking system. In 1990's, the GCC countries underwent major transformations in the financial systems with the presence of foreign owned banks and substantial acquisitions and mergers. Financial systems liberalization process initiated in GCC countries was aimed at creating a more efficient, profitable, diversified and resilient banking industry. The philosophy underlying these reforms was to make the banking industry in GCC countries more market oriented. While these reforms and transformations were being implemented, the global economy also witnessed a major changes towards integration of global financial services. Therefore, these transformations of banking system has increased competition between domestic banks and foreign banks, because GCC countries were committed to major restructuring and liberalize their banking systems in line with World Trade Organisation (WTO) (Aghimien et al, 2014).

The presence of foreign banks has both positive and negative impact in domestic financial system in the country, thus, the foreign banks entry in GCC countries was just like a coin which has both pros and cons. It either created potential benefits or brings harms to domestic banks. Therefore, comparing the efficiency performance of domestic and foreign banks become very essential because little was known about banking sector efficiency and its drivers since the foreign banks entry in a domestic financial landscape after financial sector reforms in GCC countries.

The overall objective of this paper was to analyze the efficiency and investigate the drivers explaining the efficiency of domestic and foreign banks in GCC countries from 2014- 2019 with two procedures. First DEA model was applied to estimate TE, PTE and SE. DEA technique was used in this study because the method has been widely used by researchers to analyse banks' efficiency (Coelli, 1996: Seiford and Thrall, 1990). In the second stage, the Tobit regression was employed to identify the drivers of banks' efficiency.

All study findings are valuable and useful and may provide some important insights to all stakeholders including: policy makers, regulators, investors, bank managers and customers. This paper tends fill up the gap in the banking sector performance literature through analysing GCC banks efficiency and their drivers using DEA models and Tobit regression with the 2015-2019 because little studies have been looked into this issue.

The paper is organized as follows: the next section presents the theoretical and empirical literature in relation to banks efficiency and its drivers using DEA model and Tobit regression. Section 3 outlines the methodology and data used by this study, Section 4 discusses the empirical results and, finally, the study is concluded in Section 5.

2.0 Literature Review

Well established banks efficiency literature has been extensively done in developed economies such as; US, UK and some European countries. In this context, extensive studies were analyzed

on banks efficiency and its drivers provided important information not only to the needs of policy makers, regulators, shareholders, banks managers and customers, but also contributing to the knowledge of banking sector performance literature.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

In comparing the efficiency analysis of domestic and foreign banks two theories were suggested by Berger at el (2000) known as home field advantage and global advantage theories which will be briefly reviewed in the context of banking sector efficiency.

2.1.1 Global Advantage Theory

The global advantage theory proposes that foreign banks might have the benefits from principle of comparative advantages relative to domestic banks (Berger et al 2000). The global advantage hypothesis proposes that foreign banks are more efficient than domestic banks for a number of reasons such as; advanced technology, competent management with high skills of risk management, high quality employees, best practice policies and procedures, high level of international experience, sophisticated investment, serve profitable multinational customers and better access to capital markets (Berger et al, 2005). The hypothesis was supported by (Sabi, 1996: Denizer, 2000: Havrylchyk, 2006: Helhel 2015) with similar findings that foreign-owned banks were more efficient and hence could produce much more profits than domestic-owned banks due to better utilization of risks management and application of modern information technologies.

2.1.2 Home Field Advantage Theory

The hypothesis argues that domestic owned banks are generally more efficient than foreign owned banks. This is due to the fact that foreign owned banks could have disadvantages over domestic owned banks due to the organizational diseconomies to monitor and operate an institution from a distance home country which could cause limited access to soft qualitative information, lack of understanding of local conditions and various socio-economic barriers against foreign banks such as culture, language, supervisory structures, currency, regulations and specific market characteristics for operating country(Berger et al, 2005). The hypothesis was supported by (Sathye, 2001: Sufian, 2007) who found similar results that foreign owned banks to be less efficient than domestic banks.

2.2 Empirical Studies on Banks Efficiency

DEA approach has been widely applied to analyze banks efficiency, mostly reported efficiency literature were mainly conducted in well developed countries such as the US, UK and other European countries. Using Australian banks, Sathye (2001) used DEA technique to analyse the allocative and technical efficiency and found out that foreign owned banks to be less efficient than domestic banks and technical inefficiency contributed to the main source of OTE. Wu (2007) analyzed the efficiency of banks in Australia using both Malmquist productivity index approach and DEA approach from 1983 to 2001 during the period of post deregulation and found out that foreign banks showed superior efficiency. On the other hand, Bhattacharya et al. (1997) employing a two-stage DEA approach to investigate the impact of liberalization on Indian banking sector efficiency found out that publicly owned banks were more efficient than foreign banks. Sathye (2003) employing DEA to measure the efficiency of Indian groups of banks and found out that foreign banks group were efficient than Indian private owned banks group. Sufian

(2007) used DEA approach to analyse OTE, PTE and SE of domestic and foreign Islamic banks in Malaysia. The results found out that domestic Islamic banks were more efficient compared to foreign Islamic banks and in general the efficiency of Islamic banks in Malaysia was decreased in 2002 before it was slightly increased in 2003 and 2004. Similarly, Sufian and Kamarudin (2015) used DEA approach to evaluate the efficiency of the sample of 6 foreign Islamic and 15 domestic Islamic banks in south Asian countries from 2006 to 2011 and indicated that domestic Islamic banks efficiency scores were more than foreign Islamic banks. Similar findings to Kamarudin et al (2017) who examined OTE, SE and PTE scores of domestic and foreign banks in Brunei, Indonesia and Malaysia from 2006 to 2014 using DEA, Kruskall Wallis and Mann Whitney found out that domestic Islamic banks efficiency level was more than foreign banks. Sufian and Habibullah (2012) found different results in Malaysian banks during the financial crisis period in 1997 and the findings showed that foreign banks TE was higher than domestic owed banks.

2.3   The Drivers of Banks Efficiency

The second objective of this paper was to examine the relationship between banks efficiency and banks specific (internal) factors which werepossible sources of banks inefficiencies (Kumbhakar & Lovell, 2000). The drivers of banks' efficiency had been empirically investigated by many previous researchers. However, most of them were from the developed nations. In the literature there are micro and macro drivers with significant influence, this paper focused only on micro bank specific factors.

2.3.1. Bank Size

Pasiouras et al (2007) used DEA method and a Tobit regression model to evaluate the efficiency and its determinants of banking sector in Greek. The results found out that the bank size was positively related with bank efficiencyThe findings were similar to Sufian, 2009: Yayar & Karaca 2014: Nizamülmülk & Yilmaz, 2016) who found out that bank size was positive and significant with banks efficiency. In contrary to those findings (Daley & Mathews 2009: Cook et al. 2000) used DEA and panel data to estimate the determinants of banks efficiency and found out that bank size and efficiency were negatively significantly related. This study expected a positive effect with banks efficiency and proposed the following hypothesis:

H₂: Bank efficiency is positively affected by bank size

2.3.2   Profitability

Casu and Molyneux (2003) used a Tobit regression to investigate the European banks efficiency determinants and found out that profitability ratios and bank efficiency were positively related. Similar results were noted by Hassan and Sanchez (2007) from Latin America banks, Sufian (2009) for banks in Malaysia, Rosman et al. (2014) for Middle Eastern and Asian countries banks and Mamatzakis et al. (2015) for Japanese commercial banks found out that the profitability was significantly positive related to banks efficiency. Based on the above discussion, this paper expected a positive effect of profitability on banks efficiency. Thus, the following hypothesis was developed:

H₂: Bank efficiency is positively affected by profitability

2.3.3 Credit Risks

Delis and Papanikolaou (2009) investigated the determinants of banks efficiency in European banks by using a semi parametric two stage method and credit risks and presented a negative relationship with bank efficiency.Similar results were presented by Sanchez and Hassan (2013) who found out that credit risks measured by loan loss reserves had negative relation with bank efficiency. Sufian and Noor (2009) in Middle East and North Africa and Asian countries in the period of 2001to 2006 using Tobit regression model found out that non performing loans and banks efficiency had a negative relation. Naceur and Goaied (2008) investigated the determinants of banks efficiency using Tobit regression model and found a greater credit lower banks efficiency and Yilmaz, did a similar study as to Güneş (2015) by using panel data in Turkish banks found out that lower credit (lower nonperforming loans) had positive effect on bank efficiency and profitability and Saha et al. (2015) found out that non-performing loans had significantly negative effect on banks efficiency. In contrary to Kumar and Gulati (2008) for Indian banking sector by using logistic regression analysis found that credit risk did not have any significant effect on OTE. Based of the above empirical evidence this paper expected negative effect of credit risks on banks efficiency and proposed the following hypothesis:

H₃: Bank efficiency is negatively affected by credit risks

2.3.4 Bank Liquidity

Naceur et al. (2009) analyzed the level of bank efficiency using a Meta frontier calculated by DEA and the Tobit regression model to evaluate the effect of capital strength, the findings revealed that highly liquidity increased banks efficiency. The findings were consistent with (Bourke,1989: Ajibike & Aremu ,2015) who found out a positive effective of banks' liquidity on performance. This was in contrast to Alshatti, 2014: Marozva, 2015 who found out a negative impact of liquidity on banks' efficiency and this paper expected positive effect of liquidity on banks efficiency and developed the following hypothesis:

H₄: Bank efficiency is positively affected by liquidity

2.3.5 Management Quality

Sufian (2009) investigated the Malaysian banks efficiency determinants from 1994 to 1999 using Tobit regression and found out that bank management quality which was measured by noninterest expenses to total assets had negative and significant effect with bank efficiency.The findings were supported by Saha et al. (2015) who examined the determinants of banks efficiency in Malaysia from 2005 to 2012 and found out that management quality had negative significant relationship with banks efficiency. This study expected negative relationship between management quality and banks efficiency and developed the following hypothesis.

H₅: Bank efficiency is positively affected by management quality

2.3.6 Capital Strength

Naceur et al. (2009) analyzed the level of bank efficiency using a Meta frontier calculated by DEA and the Tobit regression model to evaluate the effect of capital strength.The findings revealed that highly capital strength increased banks efficiency. The finding was similar to Sanchez & Hassan, 2013: Pasiouras, 2008: Tecles & Tabak, 2010: Rosman et al. 2014 which

found out positive relationship between the level of capitalization and banks efficiency. However, these findings were inconsistent with Bhattacharyya, Lovell & Sahay, 1997: Casu & Molyneux, 2003: Sufian, 2009 which found out no any relationship between the degree of capitalization and bank efficiency. The positive effect is expected in this paper and therefore it is hypothesized that:

H_4: Bank efficiency is positively affected by capital Strength

2.3.7 Financial Leverage
Nizamülmülk and Yilmaz (2016) applied Tobit Regression model to examine the determinants of banks efficiency in Turkey using 32 banks for the period from 2007 to 2013. Theyfound out a negative relationship between financial leverage and TE. The findings were similar with (Catalbas & Atan 2005: Isik & Hassan 2003, Batir, et al, 2017) who found a negative relationship between leverage and banks efficiency. This study expected a negative relationship between leverage and banks efficiency and it proposed the following hypothesis:

H_7: Bank efficiency is positively affected by financial leverage

The above discussion indicated that the studies on banks efficiency and factors influencing efficiency in the same study were limited in GCC countries. Therefore, through this study contributions can be made in the literature by comparing efficiency performance and its drivers of banks' efficiency in GCC.

3.0   Methodology

3.1   Sample and Sources of data
Data was collected from a list of 25 domestic banks and 25 foreign banks in GCC countries during the period of 2015-2019 (Table 3.1). The Bank Scope database was the main source of data for this study which was produced by the Bureau van Dijk. Most of specific banks' data in the World were obtained in Bank Scope database. In addition, the specific countries data of original currencies' were disclosed in Bank Scope database which also gives the option to convert the banks data to any other country currency. In order to maintaining homogeneity and comparability the data currencies for all six GCC countries were converted into US dollars. The data in this study was selected by using a purposive sampling technique. The choice of the study's sample was based on the following criteria, the selected bank has been in operations during the period of study and among the top ten banks in the country.

Table 3.1: Sample Size of Selected Domestic and Foreign banks in GCC

S/N	Domestic Banks (UAE)	Foreign Banks (UAE)
1	Emirates NBD	HSBC Bank
2	National Bank of Abu Dhabi	Barclays Bank
3	Abu Dhabi Commercial Bank	Standard Chartered Bank
4	Commercial Bank of Dubai	Citibank
5	First Gulf Bank	Bank of Baroda
S/N	Domestic Banks (Oman)	Foreign Banks (Oman)
1	National Bank of Oman	Standard Chartered Bank
2	Bank Muscat	HSBC Bank
3	Oman Arab Bank	Habib Bank Ltd
4	Bank Dhofar	Bank of Beirut
5	Bank Sohar	State Bank of India
S/N	Domestic Banks (Qatar)	Foreign Banks (Qatar)
1	Qatar National Bank	HSBC Bank
2	Commercial Bank of Qatar	Standard Chartered Bank
3	Doha Bank	Gulf Bank
4	Al Khalij Commercial Bank	Mashreq Bank
5	International Bank of Qatar	Arab Bank Limited
S/N	Domestic Banks (Saudi Arabia)	Foreign Banks (Saudi Arabia)
1	National Commercial Bank	Deutsche Bank
2	Samba Financial Group	Emirates Bank
3	Banque Saudi Fransi	Bank Muscat
4	Arab National Bank	BNP Paribas
5	Riyad Bank	National Bank of Kuwait
S/N	Domestic Banks (Bahrain)	Foreign Banks (Bahrain)
1	National Bank of Bahrain	Citibank
2	Ahli United Bank	HSBC Bank
3	National Bank of Kuwait	BNP Paribas
4	Commercial Bank of Kuwait	HSBC Bank
5	Al Ahli Bank of Kuwait	Citibank

Source: GCC central banks & Bank Scope database (2019)

3.2.2 Inputs and Outputs Variables Selection for DEA Model

The study used intermediation approach opposed to the production approach the modified version (Berger and Humphrey, 1997) for choosing input and output variables because the paper was focused on the analysis at the bank level. Two outputs and three variables were used for computing efficiency scores (Table 3.2). Since DEA approach efficiency results are affected by size of the sample, the sample size used by this study was in line with the rules of the thumb available in DEA literature. The study followed the DEA convention that the minimum number of DMUs were greater than three times the number of inputs plus output $[(n > 3(m + s)]$, where n=number of DMUs, m=number of inputs and s=number of outputs(Cooper et al. 2007) . Given

m=3 and s=2, the sample size (n=50) selected in this paper exceeds the desirable size as suggested by the rules of thumb to have sufficient discriminatory power.

Table 3.2: Inputs and Outputs Variable selected for DEA Model

Variables	Previous Research
Input	
Total deposits (X_1)	GrifellTatje´ & Lovell 1999: Sathye ,2003: Darrat et al 2002: Kamarudin et al 2017
Staff numbers (X_2)	Seiford and Zhu ,1999: Fukuyama & Weber,2002: Sathye,2003: Kamarudin et al 2017
Total expenses (X_3)	Bhattacharyya et al, 1997: Sathye ,2003: Seelanatha 2012
Output	
Total Loans (Y_1)	Bhattacharyya et al 1997: Fukuyama & Weber, 2002: Seelanatha 2012: Kamarudin et al 2017
Total income (Y_2)	Bhattacharyya et al. 1997: Seiford and Zhu,1999: Sathye 2000: Kamarudin et al, 2017
X_1 (deposits + short term funding): X_2 (total number of employees): X_3 (total operating and non operating expenses): Y_1 (total of short-term + long-term loans): Y_2 (interest income + non-interest income)	

Source: Literature review, 2020

3.3   *Selection of variables for Tobit Regression Model*

This paper used seven determinants that may explain banks' efficiency. Literatures specify the determinants that explain the banks' efficiency. Some researches examine only banks internal factors and others identify both banks internal and external drivers. Based on conducted previous researches this paper only examined bank-specific variables because those were controllable internally   by   the   management   (Table   3.3).

Table 3.3: Explanatory variables for Tobit Regression Model

Variables	Previous Research
Bank size	Daley & Mathews 2009:Cook et al. 2000: Pasiouras et al. 2007: Sufian, 2009: Jackson & Feth, 2000: Yayar & Karaca 2014: Nizamülmülk & Yilmaz, 2016
Profitability	Casu & Molyneux ,2003: Hassan & Sanchez 2007: Rosman et al. 2014: Mamatzakis et al. 2015
Credit Risks	Delis and Papanikolaou ,2009: Hassan & Sanchez, 2007: Sufian & Noor, 2009: Naceur et al. 2009: Saha et al. 2015
Liquidity	Bourke,1989:Naceur et al. 2009: Ajibike & Aremu ,2015: Alshatti, 2014: Marozva, 2015
Management Quality	Sufian ,2009: Saha et al. (2015)
Capital strength	Bhattacharyya, Lovell & Sahay, 1997: Casu & Molyneux, 2003: Sufian, 2009: Kwan & Eisenbeis 1997: Hassan & Sanchez, 2007 Pasiouras, 2008: Tecles & Tabak, 2010: Rosman et al. 2014
Financial Leverage	Catalbas & Atan 2005: Isik & Hassan 2003, Batir, 2017: Yilmaz ,2016:

Source: Literature review, 2020

3.4 Methodological framework

3.4.1 Data Envelopment Analysis Model

Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) model was used to analyse relative efficiency scores, the paper employed input oriented both CCR and BCC to estimate the scalar measures of TE and PTE (Charnes et al 1978: Banker et al. 1984). DEA techniques for analysing Decision Making Unit (DMU) efficiency scores in different scale assumptions were explained in the following equations:

Input oriented models:

$$Min = \theta \quad \ell\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} S_t + \sum_{k=1}^{r} S_k^+ \,|\right) \qquad 3.1$$

$$St. \quad \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j x_{ij} + S_t = \theta x_{iq}' \qquad 3.2$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j y_{kj} \quad s_k^+ = y_{kq} \qquad 3.3$$

$$\lambda_i \geq 0, s_i^+ \geq 0, s_i \geq 0 \qquad 3.4$$

$$CCR \quad \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j \quad free \qquad 3.5$$

BCC $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j = 1$ 3.6

Where λj, $j = 1,2,.., n$ are weights of all DMUs $s\text{-}i$, $i = 1,2,.., m$ are slack variables of particular inputs and $s+k$, $k = 1,2,..., r$ are surplus variables of particular outputs. The ratio θ_o^{CCR} / θ_o^{BCC} gives the scale efficiency scores. All aforementioned the measures of efficiency were bounded between zero and one.

3.4.2   Tobit Regression Model

Tobit Regression Model was applied to test statistical relationship between banks efficiency measured by PTE and banks specific (internal) factors due to the fact that the truncated data could be accounted by the model (Casu & Molyneux, 2003). Because the dependent variable was limited or censored from below, thus Tobit Regression Model was more appropriate for this study than Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression (Maddala, 1983; Greene, 1997). The paper used Tobit regression model which was first developed by Tobit (1958) and was given in the following functional form:

$$y_i^* = \beta_1 + \beta_2 X_{2i} + ...\beta_k X_{ki} + \mu_i \qquad\qquad 3.7$$

$$y_i = 0 \quad if \quad y_i^* \leq 0 \quad and$$

$$y_i = y_i^* \quad if \quad y_i^* \geq 0$$

The equation above was extended by including the explanatory variables and efficiency scores as dependent variables as follows.

$\Theta_{it} = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 (log. A_{it}) + \beta_2 (ROA_{it}) + \beta_3 (NPL_{it}) + \beta_4 (LQD_{it}) + \beta_5 (NIE_{it}) + \beta_6 (EQTA_{it}) + \beta_6 (LEV_{it}) + \mu_{it}$

Where: Θ_{it} = PTE scores of Bank i at time t , α_0 = Intercept, $LogA_{it}$ = size of bank i at time t, ROA_{it}= profitability of bank i at time t, NPL_{it} = credit risk of bank i at time t, LQD_{it} = liquidity ratio of bank i at time t, NIE_{it} = Management quality of Bank i at time t, $EQTA_{it}$ =Capital strength of bank i at time t, LEV_{it} = financial leverage of Bank i at time t and μ_{it}= Error term

3.5   Definition and Measurement of Variables

Table 3.4 presents the descriptions summary of the variables used on banks' efficiency together with expected effect on banks' efficiency.

Table 3.4: The Descriptions of the variables

Variables		Symbol	Descriptions	Expected Sign
Pure Technical Efficiency		DEA_{PTE}	the efficiency scores DEA - BCC Model	N/A
Bank size	H_1	log A	Natural log of banks total assets	+
Profitability	H_2	ROA	PBT/Total Assets	+
Credit Risks	H_3	NPL	Total Non Performing loans/Total loans	-
Liquidity	H_4	LQD	Total Loans/Total Assets	+
Management Quality	H_5	NIE	Total non Interest expenses to total assets	-
Capital strength	H_6	EQTA	Equity/Total Assets	+
Financial Leverage	H_7	LEV	Ratio of total debt to total assets at year-end	-

Source: Literature review, 2020

4.0   Results and Discussion

4.1   Efficiency of Domestic Banks

The summary results of the mean efficiency scores of domestic banks are shown in Table 4.1 for years 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019 and for all years and panels. The results indicated the mean of TE and PTE for GCC has been on an increasing trends from 73.2% to 81.5% and 80.8% to 90.8% during the years from 2015 to 2016 respectively, then showing downward trends for both efficiency scores in year 2017 to 78.5% and 88.6% respectively, before was rising again from 84.8% to 87.5% and 90.7% to 95.8% during the years from 2018 to 2019 respectively. The findings for all domestic banks in the whole period of study (Panel 6) indicated that the domestic banks were characterized with large asymmetry among banks in respect to their scores efficiency that ranges between 36.8% - 100% and 38.8% - 100% for TE and PTE respectively. The mean efficiency scores revealed to be 82.7% and 90.4% for TE and PTE respectively. This implies that, banks if produce their output on the efficient frontier instead of their current location; they would need only 82.7% of their inputs currently utilized. The connotation of these findings was that the magnitude of inefficiency scores in domestic banks in GCC countries was 17.3%. This proposes that, by applying the best available technology on average the sector could reduce its inputs of operating costs and number of staff by at least 17.3% and still the same level of output can be produced. In general, the findings indicated that banks were using up more inputs than the level of outputs they were producing. This implying that domestic banks had wasted 17.3% of their input resources in producing the same level of output; the findings showed that, efficiency scores in PTE was higher than TE due to the reason that the scores efficiency resulted from VRS scores are greater than or equal to CRS (Banker et al, 1984)

Table 4.1 Summary Results of Efficiency Measures for GCC domestic-banks from 2015 to 2019.

Efficiency Scores	No. DMUs	Min.	Max	Mean	SD
Panel 1: Domestic banks: 2015					
OTE	25	0.388	1.000	0.732	0.218
PTE	25	0.386	1.000	0.808	0.186
SE	25	0.542	1.000	0.906	0.133
Panel 2: Domestic banks: 2016					
OTE	25	0.446	1.000	0.815	0.192
PTE	25	0.468	1.000	0.908	0.144
SE	25	0.578	1.000	0.898	0.145
Panel 3: Domestic banks: 2017					
TE	25	0.369	1.000	0.785	0.235
PTE	25	0.472	1.000	0.885	0.168
SE	25	0.508	1.000	0.887	0.166
Panel 4: Domestic banks: 2018					
TE	25	0.549	1.000	0.848	0.146
PTE	25	0.588	1.000	0.907	0.133
SE	25	0.785	1.000	0.935	0.085
Panel 5: Domestic banks: 2019					
TE	25	0.664	1.000	0.875	0.132
PTE	25	0.742	1.000	0.958	0.076
SE	25	0.764	1.000	0.913	0.108
Panel 6: All Domestic Banks: All Years					
TE	125	0.368	1.000	0.827	0.186
PTE	125	0.388	1.000	0.904	0.142
SE	125	0.484	1.000	0.915	0.126

Source: Author computation, 2020

4.2 Efficiency Scores of GCC Foreign Banks

Table 4.2 illustrated the summary results of average scores efficiency of the foreign owned banks for all years of study and for all panels. The mean of TE and PTE for banks indicated that there was an increasing trend from 67.6% to % 76.2% and 78.6% to 84.6 % during the years from 2015 to 2016 for TE and PTE respectively. Then was followed by a slightly downward trend for both mean efficiency scores in years 2017 to 73.8% and 82.7% respectively, before the trend was

rising again from 85.4% to 92.2% and 90.4% to 95.6 % during the years from 2018 to 2019 for both OTE and PTE respectively.   The findings in all years (Panel 6) for all foreign banks indicated that the foreign banks were characterized with significantly large asymmetry among banks in respect to their scores efficiency which ranges between 0.2% - 100% and 18.6% - 100% for OTE and PTE respectively. The efficiency scores mean turned out to be 71.8% for TE. This suggests that on average, foreign banking sector, if producing its outputs on the efficient frontier instead of its current (virtual) location, would need only 71.8% of their inputs currently used. The connotation of this finding was that, the magnitude of inefficiency scores was 28.2%. This suggests that, by applying best practice technology the sector on average could reduce their inputs of operating costs and staff by at least 28.2% and still the same level of outputs can be produced. In general, the findings showed that foreign banks were using up more inputs than the level of output they were producing.   In other words, foreign banks had wasted 28.2 % of resources in producing their levels of output. The decomposition of TE into the components of PTE and SE the findings indicated that PTIE was SIE of GCC foreign banks in all years, the findings results are consistent with (Aghimien et al 2014) and earlier studies that the dominant factor   affecting   banks   in   GCC   countries   is   managerial   inefficiency.

Table: 4.2 Summary Results of Efficiency Measures for GCC Foreign Owned Banks from 2015 to 2019.

Efficiency Scores	No. DMUs	Min.	Max	Mean	SD
Panel 1: Foreign - banks: 2015					
TE	25	0.443	1.000	0.676	0.206
PTE	25	0.626	1.000	0.786	0.146
SE	25	0.468	1.000	0.838	0.221
Panel 2: Foreign banks: 2016					
TE	25	0.621	1.000	0.762	0.174
PTE	25	0.666	1.000	0.846	0.162
SE	25	0.848	1.000	0.942	0.076
Panel 3: Foreign banks: 2017					
TE	25	0.526	1.000	0.738	0.165
PTE	25	0.644	1.000	0.827	0.132
SE	25	0.758	1.000	0.888	0.112
Panel 4: Foreign banks: 2018					
TE	25	0.823	0.914	0.854	0.051
PTE	25	0.828	0.986	0.904	0.0658
SE	25	0.836	0.996	0.934	0.068
Panel 5: Foreign banks: 2019					
TE	25	0.832	1.000	0.922	0.081
PTE	25	0.922	1.000	0.956	0.042
SE	25	0.864	1.000	0.964	0.053
Panel 6: All Foreign Banks: All Years					
TE	125	0.002	1.000	0.718	0.262
PTE	125	0.186	1.000	0.842	0.189
SE	125	0.021	1.000	0.853	0.224

Source: Author computation, 2020

4.3. Robustness Tests

The empirical results of data obtained from DEA computation was robustness tested in two different groups of independent sample namely domestic and foreign owned banks. It was recommended that for two independent samples coming from populations having the same distribution Mann Whitney [Wilcoxon] is relevant test (Coakes & Steed, 2003). The technique of robustness testing was used by previous studies (Isik & Hassan, 2014: Sufian et al 2012). In this paper parametric (t-test) and non-parametric (Mann Whitney and Kruskall-Wallis) were

conducted to obtain robust test results. In Table 4.3 the parametric t-test results revealed that domestic banks scored 0.827 where foreign banks scored 0.718 for TE test. In terms of PTE and SE test, domestic banks scored 0.904 and 0.915 while foreign banks were 0.842 and 0.853 respectively. The findings indicated that TE,PTE and SE were statistically and significant at at 5%, level which implies that the analysis had sufficient evidence to claim that the TE, PTE and SE performances of foreign banks were lower than domestic banks in GCC countries. Comparing to the mean efficiency scores results of domestic banks and foreign banks, it is clearly observed that the efficiency scores of all types for foreign banks were less compared to domestic banks. The finding may infer that domestic banks utilize their inputs more efficiently. The findings results favour Home field advantage hypothesis as domestic banks are more efficient than foreign banks. Therefore, the findings indicate that the global advantage hypothesis does not exist in GCC countries. The findings were compatible with the previous studies of (Sathye, 2001: Mesut, 2013: Sufian, 2017) which confirmed that foreign owned banks were less efficient than domestic banks.

Table 4.3: Efficiency Measures for Robustness tests of Domestic and Foreign banks 2015–2019

 Groups Test

	Parametric- tests		Non Parametric - tests		Kruskall Wallis tests	
	t-tests t(Prb>t)		Mann Whitney tests z(Prb>z)		χ^2 (Prb>χ^2)	
	Means	T	Means-rank	Z	Means-rank	χ^2
TE						
Domestic banks	0.827	2.668	108.92	-2.869	108.92	7.788
Foreign banks	0.718		80.51		80.51	
PTE						
Domestic banks	0.904	2.638	108.53	-2.566	108.53	6.674
Foreign banks	0.842		84.88		84.88	
SE						
Domestic banks	0.915	2.056	108.44	-2.648	108.44	6.058
Foreign banks	0.853		83.88		83.88	

 Significance Test at 5%
Source: Author computation, 2020

4.4   The Drivers of Banks Efficiency

Tables 4.4 presents the summary of regression results of factors explaining banks efficiency using Tobit regression model. Tobit regression model was used as a second stage to examine how banks' specific factors affect banks efficiency in GCC countries

4.4.1   Effect of bank Size on Efficiency

The study used LogA as proxy of banks size and result found a positive and significant relationship between banks size and PTE, as expected from study hypothesis. The implication of this finding is that large size banks in GCC countries were more efficient due to the economies of scale arguments. This study finding was consistent with previous studies by (Sufian, 2009: Jackson & Feth, 2000: Yayar & Karaca 2014: Nizamülmülk & Yilmaz, 2016) who found out that bank size have a positive and significant effect on banks efficiency. In this case, the large banks in GCC countries are efficient in transforming inputs into outputs regardless of their size of scale. The possible reasons for positive effect of banks size on efficiency could be large banks pay less inputs costs and attaining increasing return to scale due to allocation of fixed costs over a large volume of banking services or efficiency obtains from workforce specialization (Hauner, 2005).

4.4.2   Effect of Profitability on Efficiency

The study used ROA to measure bank profitability and exhibited positive and significant relationship with banks PTE, as expected and implied that banks with high efficient were able to earn more profits. This finding was consistent with the results found out by (Casu and Molyneux 2003: Sufian, 2009: Malaysian banks, Rosman et al. 2014: Mamatzakis et al. 2015),

4.4.3   Effect of Credit Risks on Efficiency

Total Non Performing loans to Total loans (NPL) as a proxy of credit risks exhibited negative relationship with banks PTE, as expected in this paper, indicating   that increase in credit risks increased inefficiency of banks. The finding is similar to previous studies conducted by (Barr et al. 2002: Hassan and Sanchez, 2007: Sufian and Noor, 2009) who found out a negative effect of nonperforming loans on banks' efficiency. The finding implied that the banks managers in GCC countries should emphases more on credit risks management,

4.4.4   Effect of Bank Liquidity on Efficiency

The bank liquidity measured by loans to total assets found out to be positive and to have significant relationship with banks PTE as expected in this study. The finding implies that banks with higher liquidity ratios in GCC countries tend to have higher efficiency scores. The finding is consistent with the previous findings by (Isik & Hassan 2003: Casu & Girardone, 2004 and Sufian, 2009) who found out a positive effect of liquidity on efficiency but statistically insignificant. Isik and Hassan (2003) suggested that the positive effect of loans activity on banks efficiency could be caused by the relatively efficient banks their ability to manage bank operations more productively, which enables the banks to have lower costs of operation which made it to offer more reasonable loans terms giving them to gain larger share in loans market segment.

4.4.5 Effect of management quality on efficiency

The management quality measured by total non-interest expenses to total bank assets (NIE/TA) were found to be a negative and significant relationship with banks' PTE, as expected in the proposed hypothesis. The implication is that, more noninterest operating expenses lead to inefficient in utilizing inputs for a given level of output. This finding supports the previous studies of (Sufian (2009: Saha et al. 2015) and Claessens et al. (2001) who suggested that the deterioration of banks efficiency level is caused by overstaffing.

4.4.6 Effect of Capital Strength on Efficiency

The ratio of total equity to total assets as a proxy of capital strength was a significant and positive effect on PTE, as expected in this study. This positive relationship with bank efficiency was expected by this study in viewing that high equity level as a cushion for the future losses in GCC banks. This finding is similar to (Isik & Hassan, 2003: Casu and Girardone 2004: Pasiouras, 2008: Rosman, 2014) found capital strength was positive and statistically significant related to banks efficiency.

4.4.7 Effect of Financial Leverage on Efficiency

The study used ratio of total debt to total assets to measure financial leverage and found to have negative effect on banks efficient, however, not statistically significant. Negative effect implied that banks with higher ratio tends to be inefficient because they are risk averse and prefer to safer and lower earning portfolios (Jackson and Fethi, 2000). The similar negative findings were found by (Catalbas & Atan 2005: Isik and Hassan 2003: Nizamülmülk and Yilmaz, 2016 Batir, 2017).

Table 4.4: Results for Tobit regression of domestic and Foreign Banks in GCC Countries

Tobit - Regression

Number of obs. = 250
LR chi^2(12) = 68.74
Prob > chi2 = 0.000
Pseudo R^2 = 0. 6145

DEAPTE	Coefficient.	Standard. Error	T	P > t	[95 % Confidence – Interval]	
log A	0.0201	0.0215	5.861	0.002	0.0624	0.0222
ROA	0.5865	0.0133	4.884	0.006	0.0305	0.0828
NPL	-0.0680	0.0140	-6.582	0.000	-0.0678	0.0517
LQD	0.0899	0.0849	4.685	0.003	0.0609	0.1236
NIE	-0.0145	0.0104	-4.483	0.001	-0.0349	0.0060
EQTA	0.8875	0.0237	4.287	0.006	0.0407	0.0848
LEV	-0.4174	0.1190	0.516	0.785	-0.6520	0.1828
_cons	0.8672	0.0733	12.862	0.000	0.7225	1.0119

Source: Author computation, 2020

5.0   Conclusions

This paper compared efficiency performance and its drivers of 25 domestic banks and 25 foreign owned banks in GCC countries during the period of 2015-2019 using DEA models. The intermediation approach was used to select inputs and outputs variables. In addition Tobit regression model was applied to investigate the effect of a set of banks specific exploratory variables namely bank size, profitability, credit risks, bank liquidity, management quality, capital strength and financial leverage on banks efficiency. The findings indicated that on average the efficiency scores of domestic banks sector was 0.827 which implied that the same level of output could be produced by domestic banks only with 82.7% of the amount of inputs used. Banks could have reduced their labour and total expenses (inputs) by 17.3% and still could produce the same amount of outputs. Meanwhile mean efficiency of foreign banks was 0.718 which indicated that the banks could have produced the same outputs level with only 71.8% of the amount of inputs of resources utilized. Foreign banks could have reduced their labour and total expenses (inputs) by 28.2% and still could produce the same level of output. Thus, the overall banks inefficiency could be explained somehow by underutilization of inputs resources. In the study specification banks employ deposits, labour and total expenses as inputs to produce loans and total income. Therefore, underutilization of inputs resources for a specific bank could be related to large amount of operating costs, overstaffing or unproductive deposits if compared to its peers. The PTE and SE scores indicated that domestic banks inefficiency could be attributed more by PTIE (9.6%) than SIE (8.5%).The PTE and SE scores indicated that foreign banks inefficiency were attributed more by PTIE (15.8%) than SIE (14.7%). Both banks groups in GCC countries were facing managerial inefficiency in exploiting their resources to the fullest; banks can make more value by removing inefficiencies and redundancies (Evanoff & Israelvich, 1991).

The findings indicated that domestic banks recorded higher level of TE, PTE and SE scores than foreign owned banks in GCC over the period from 2015 to 2019 at 5% level of significance. The findings favour *home field advantage hypothesis* since foreign banks was less efficient than their domestic counterparts and that *global advantage hypothesis* was not prevailing in GCC countries. Finally the results on Tobit regression model revealed that bank size, profitability, credit risks, management quality and capital strength were the main drivers of banks efficiency in GCC countries. The findings indicated that there was a positive and significant relationship between banks efficiency and bank size, profitability and liquidity. On the other hand, there was negative and significant relationship between banks efficiency and credit risks and management efficiency.

The findings of this study are crucial for the development of new financial rules and regulations for policy makers in order to improve the banking sector performance in GCC countries. For bank managers and investors, the findings provide crucial insight on the efficiency of banking sector   in   the   Region.

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The Influence of Market Orientation on Export Performance of Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SMEs) in Rwanda

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Abstract: *Grounded on the resource-based theory, this study examined the role of market orientation (MO) dimensions in the export performance of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Rwanda. The study adopted an explanatory survey design and a cross-sectional strategy. Data were collected from a final sample of 105 respondents selected from 58 exporting firms purposively chosen due to the absence of a formal sampling frame. The collected data were analyzed using the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique with the analysis of moment structure (AMOS) version 25.0. The findings revealed that market intelligence generation (MIG) and market intelligence responsiveness (MIR) have a positive and significant influence on export performance but the influence of market intelligence diffusion (MID) was weak and insignificant. The mixed findings of this study confirmed that the development of MO is important for a firm to go international and that not all dimensions of MO are equally important factors for export performance, so much so that only MI and MIG contributed significantly to export performance. The proposed model, which was based on RBT, was therefore partially validated. The study recommends that policymakers develop an export education strategy for exporting SMEs to improve their performance.*

Keywords: market orientation, export performance, SEM, SMEs, Rwanda

1.0 Introduction

Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are vital for the stability of national economies and also play a key role in the development of innovation, productivity, and employment (Wu, Yao, & Muhammad, 2017). Small and medium-sized enterprises are experiencing a big challenge of limited access to the market. The challenge is more complex when it comes to access to the international market which is far more sophisticated than the domestic one, especially for SME exporters in developing countries. Inadequate resources have been cited as one of the constraining factors to the effective implementation of marketing strategies by SMEs (Bamfo, &Kraa, 2019). Specifically, limited access to export-related information exposes SMEs to export barriers such as; new market trends, different customers, regulations, and fierce competition (Leonidou, Katsikeas, Palihawadana, &Spyropoulou, 2007). Therefore, there is a need for SMEs, and in particular, those in developing countries to welcome the concept of market orientation

(MO) and its applicability in their lines of operations if they want to be competitive in the international market (Bylon & Jerry Jay, 2019).

Rwandan SMEs are also facing similar challenges relating to access to the international market as all manufacturers are competing for a limited domestic market. A recent study by English, McSharry, &Ggombe (2016) showed that the export sector is characterized by the highest rate of product death and low performance. This low export performance is evidenced in its low level of exports-to-GDP of 14% in 2015 when compared with other landlocked countries and even far below the average for Sub-Saharan Africa (English *et al.,* 2016). Whereas exports are getting more diversified in Rwanda; the Rwanda export structure is made of five main categories: (i) Traditional commodities (tourism, minerals, and tea and coffee), (ii) Non-traditional exports (NTE), (iii) Informal cross-border trade, (iv) re-export, and (v) services (English *et al.,* 2016). This study focused on "Non-traditional exports (NTE) because, as recognized by the Ministry of Trade and Industry (MINICOM,2016), few countries have managed to develop rapidly based on exports of primary products alone.

Looking critically at explanations provided by Kohli & Jaworski (1990); Zhou, Li, Zhou, & Su (2008); Tho (2019); Savabieh, Nayebzadeh, Abghari, &Hatami-Nasab (2020) with respect to market orientation definition, one theme surrounding its meaning is that MO is a capability-based activity which pertains to the resource-based theory (RBT) of the firm. For instance, Zhou *et al.,* (2008) consider the market orientation as one of the important firm-level resources and capabilities. Tho (2019) and Papadas *et al.,*(2019) look at MO as a valuable, rare imperfectly imitable, and non-replaceable capability that can generate sustainable competitive advantage. Given the capability-oriented nature of the market orientation, this study is grounded on the RBT which assumes that firms compete based on their resources and capabilities needed to protect themselves against imitation and transfer from competitors (Wade, & Hulland, 2004; Barney *et al.,* 2011). This is because MO is an internal intangible resource that gathers and uses the information to satisfy customers' needs and wants, thereby improving export performance.

Empirically, some researchers have reported a positive and significant impact on the market orientation and firm performance. However, although the importance of MO has been largely acknowledged (Acosta, Crespo, & Agudo, 2018; and Alhakimi, & Mahmoud, 2020), the positive influence of MO on firm performance is empirically supported by studies conducted for large firms in developed countries (Ku-Ho, Kuo-Feng, & Yao-Ping, 2014; Sisay, Verhees, & Hans, 2017). Therefore, studies in developing countries are overlooked.

Another gap identified in the previous literature on the MO-performance nexus is the tendency to adopt an aggregated approach to MO in empirical tests of models. As commented by Yusif (2012), the relationship between MO and performance may be complex and the impact cannot be viewed simply. For instance, Fernandes, Ferreira, Lobo, & Roposo (2020) investigated the impact of the internationalization process and international performance in keeping with company market orientations (MOs). Data were collected from 320 Portuguese SME exporters. Findings displayed a positive MO effect both on the internationalization process and international performance.

Moreover, the use of a cultural approach to MO in the previous literature on the MO-performance nexus is obvious. For instance, Dawit, Verhees, & Van Trip 2017 examined the impact of MO components on the performance of seed producer cooperatives in Ethiopia. Using SEM analysis, the study revealed that customer orientation, inter-functional coordination, and supplier orientation but not competitor orientation, contribute to higher business performance. In the same vein, Bamfo, & Kraa (2019) examined the impact of MO on the performance of SMEs in Ghana. Data were collected from 391 SMEs and analyzed using SME. The findings revealed that customer orientation and competitor orientation positively and significantly predicted performance while inter-functional orientation did not show any significant impact on the performance of SMEs in Ghana. The mediating role of innovation was not proved for competitor orientation and performance relationship.

However, only a few studies have used the behavioral approach to MO that considers the three dimensions as advocated by Jaworski & Kohli (1993). For example, Wei-Shong, Jing-Wen, & Ming-Yih (2015) showed that MIG, MID, and MIR have a very strong influence on firm performance. Likewise, Lee, Kim, Seo, & Hught, (2015) showed that the three dimensions of MO have a positive effect on financial and non-financial performance. The current study, however, examined market orientation at the disaggregated level to develop a model that enables to understand how MO's outcomes can be achieved (Sørensen, 2009; Long, Ali, John, & Alma, 2017). In addition, mixed results concerning the relationship between MO and export performance were reported in previous studies, some revealing positive and significant effect of MO on export performance such as; Lee, Kim, Seo, & Hught, 2015; while others reported both significant and non-significant effects such as; Cadogan, Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2002 and Akyol, & Akehirst, 2003 necessitating further empirical studies.

Therefore, the objectives of the current study were twofold; (i) to examine the impact of dimensions of market orientation namely market intelligence generation (MIG), market intelligence dissemination (MID), and market intelligence responsiveness (MIR) of small and medium enterprises in Rwanda and (ii) to develop and test a model that enables to understand how MO's outcomes can be achieved. The central benefit in adopting the disaggregated approach to MO in this study was the identification of which component of MO was the most effective driver of export performance in the SME sector. In this context, the current study modelled market intelligence generation, dissemination, and responsiveness as drivers of export performance. These MO dimensions are operationalized as follows:
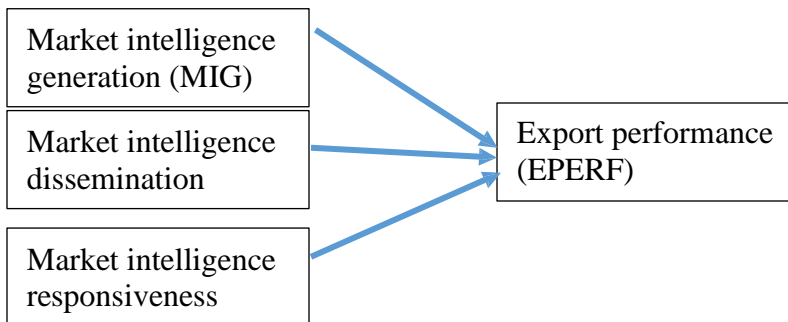
Market intelligence generation (MIG) refers to a firm's ability to gather information from different actor's such as; competitors, suppliers, intermediaries, and market forces such as; social, cultural, regulatory, and macroeconomic factors (Matsuno, & Mentzer, 2000). The process includes for instance assessing customer needs and preferences (Dong *et al.,* 2016) and analyzing government regulations, technology, competitors, and other environmental factors.

Market intelligence dissemination (MID) is the extent to which the collected information is distributed, shared, and discussed across the firm's departments formally or informally (Kara *et al.,* 2005). This is a process that involves communication between the owners and employees of a firm about the collected information. Disseminating the information internally includes discussing competitor's strategies and customers' needs and preferences.

Market intelligence responsiveness (MIR) refers to the firm's ability to respond to the collected and disseminated information from customers, competitors, and other sources (Wei *et al.,* 2013). This ability involves taking promptly action to satisfy the needs and preferences of customers about the product design, quality, and low cost that maintains and sustains a competitive edge (Jimenez-Zarco, Martinez-Ruiz, & Izquirdo-Yusha, 2011).

Export performance refers to increased export sales, export profit, market share (in terms of destinations), and customer satisfaction (Kasema, 2020a). In the resource-based theory, export performance is a variable that is essentially related to export activity or the first stage of the internationalization process.

Viewing under this research, MO is an internal resource that cannot be bought in any market. In this regard and by referring to the views of Jaworski & Kohli, (1993) explaining MO in the form of MIG, MID, and MIR, the following conceptual model was developed and tested through three hypotheses:

Figure No 1: Conceptual Model

H₁. Market intelligence generation (MIG) influences the export performance of SMEs

H₂. Market intelligence dissemination (MID) influences the export performance of SMEs

H₃. Market intelligence responsiveness (MIR) influences the export performance of SMEs

2.0 Methodology

2.1 Research Design, Sample Size, and Data Collection

This research study adopted an explanatory survey design and a cross-sectional strategy due to the time of data collection, and the nature of the study. The quantitative method was engaged in hypotheses testing of the causal relationship between predictors and criterion variables, which is usually known as causal research (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Small and medium-sized export firms were the unit of analysis for this study. However, with the absence of a formal sampling frame, the sample was purposively selected among the 1700 export firms' country-wide that

fulfilled the selection criteria such as being in the export sector for at least three years; making a target sample of 62 firms.

Data were collected from 124 respondents who were drawn from the 62 export firms purposively selected countrywide. With the minimum criteria of being directly involved with export marketing decisions and the level of background knowledge about the research topic two qualified informants (marketing managers and finance managers) were selected to avoid common method bias. Out of 124 distributed questionnaires, 105 were returned with a response rate of 83%; enough for generalization (Anseel, Lievens, Schollaert, & Choragwicka, 2010). This study used a personal interview-based survey method with a drop-off and collect approach for executing the survey.

2.2 Pre-test and Pilot Study

Before the final survey, the questionnaire was pre-tested with five export SMEs with two respondents from each company, making a total of 10 respondents. Burns & Bush (2005) suggest that a pre-test of 5-10 representative respondents is usually sufficient to identify problems with a questionnaire. They were also asked to comment for clarity, biasness, the ambiguity of the questions, and relevance of the questionnaire to the export business context, and corrections were made accordingly for some questions. Piloting the survey questionnaire was done to assess the wording and psychometric properties of the measurements (Memon, Ting, Ramayah, Chuah, Cheah, 2017). The Cronbach's alpha for all the four constructs ranged between 0.66, and 0.79 greater than 0.6 (Dunn, Baguley & Brunsden, 2014) confirming the questionnaire reliability.

2.3 Research Constructs and their Measurements

The dependent variable of this study was export performance (EXPERF). Since the objective measures of export performance were not accessible to the researchers, this study used the perception-based performance measurement to assess the export performance which is common in strategy research (Fonti, Maoret, & Whitbred, 2017) using a five-item with five-point Likert scale. So, as in previous export studies (e.g. Morgan, Vorhies, & Mason, 2009; Sousa, 2004), this study used subjective indicators to assess export performance. Respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly dissatisfied to strongly satisfied over the past three years to balance short-term export performance fluctuations (Katsikea *et al.,* 2000). The following six items were used: export sales, export sales growth, export profitability, export market share, the competitiveness of product in the foreign market, export market satisfaction with export sales volume, and the number of export destination countries. The value of these six items was then summed and averaged to create the study's export performance construct (Cronbach's α=0.72). For the market orientation variable, this study adopted a shortened nine-item but with five-point scale by Cadogan *et al.,* 2009) rooted in the mainstream MO literature (Kohli, Jaworski, & Kumar, 1993). This nine-item scale included three items for each dimension of MO namely MIG (α=0.76), MID (α=0.66), and MIR (α=0.79).

2.4 Data Analysis Technique: The Structural Equation Modelling

The collected data were analyzed using the Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modelling (CB-SEM) approach. This is a multivariate data analysis approach that enables a simultaneous

examination of multiple relationships among many variables, including latent variables. It minimizes unexplained variance while supporting superior theoretical model development. Moreover, SEM tests construct validity extensively and more deeply in comparison to the traditional correlation analysis (Bagozzi, & Yi, 2012). The application of the SEM approach is currently on top of research studies involving firm performance and more broadly competitive advantage. Some of the recently published papers using SEM in these areas are those of Kasema (2020); Yasin, & Ong (2020), and Sriyono (2020).

The check of statistical assumptions and indices before using SEM was completed. For instance, using Little's test, results showed that there were no missing data, nor were there any outliers because the Mahalanobis distance (D^2) was less than the Chi-square values of the applied items (Harns and DeSimone, 2015). Using Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk tests, results showed that data were normally distributed as the significance value was greater than 0.05 (Pallant, 2013). Testing for multi-collinearity was done by the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) which is used to test a higher correlation between independent constructs. The data passed the multi-collinearity test since all VIFs ranged between 2.305 and 2.908 which is far below the general threshold of 10.00; indicating that multi-collinearity is not a serious issue (Tabachnick, &Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2016). The reliability test result showed a Cronbach's Alpha for all the measured variables was 0.76 for MIG, 0.66 for MID, 0.79 n for MIR, and 0.72 for EXPERF greater than 0.6; the acceptable limit (Dunn *et al.,* 2014).To test the adequacy of the data set for factor analysis, both the Kaiser-Mayor-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (0.783> 0.5 and the Bartlett test of Sphericity (407.164, p=0.000) i.e. p<0.001 were used and found greater than the cut-off (Pallant, 2013).

3.0 Results and Discussions

3.1 Evaluation of the Measurement Model

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the measurement model of the study through Constructs' internal reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity (Ylinen&Gullkvist, 2014). The principal approach used to assess the convergent validity was the composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted measures (AVE) for each construct with a minimum threshold of 0.7 (CR) and 0.6 (AVE) (Hair, Hult, Ringle, &Sarstedt, 2017). The discriminant validity for each construct was gauged via square roots of AVE. Adequate discriminant validity should be larger than the squared correlations (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2014).

Table No 1: Reliability and Convergent Validity

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
MIG	0.763	0.82	0.76
MID	0.664	0.93	0.69
MIR	0.792	0.88	0.71
EXPERF	0.715	0.79	0.68

**Source:** Researcher's compilation based on AMOS results, 2020.

It can be observed from Table 2 that convergent validity was confirmed as CR, and AVE statistics for all four constructs were greater than the cut-off. In the same vein, the square root of each construct's AVE was greater than the correlations with the other constructs (0.69, 0.72, and 0.60 respectively for MIG-EXPERF, MID-EXPERF, and MIR-EXPERF confirming the discriminate validity.

Table No 2: Fit Indices for the Measurement Model

Fit index	This Research	Recommended Values	References
χ^2 (p-value)	0.046	≥0.05	Byrne (2016)
CMIN/df	2.02	≤3	Gefen *et al.,* (2000)
GFI	0.94	≥0.09	Hair *et al.,* (2017)
RMSEA	0.05	≤ 0.06	Hu &Bentler 1999
NFI	0.92	≥0.09	Byrne (2016)
CFI	0.96	≥0.09	Kumar (2015)
AGFI	0.95	≥0.09	Hair *et al.,* (2017)

Source: Researcher's compilation based on AMOS results, 2020

Furthermore, the model fit indices were applied to determine whether the model fitted the data well. The model fit indices generated the following results: CMIN/DF = 2.02, GFI = 0.94, AGFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.96, NFI = 0.92, and RMSEA = 0.05 which signify an adequate model fit.Fig. 2 displays the measurement model.
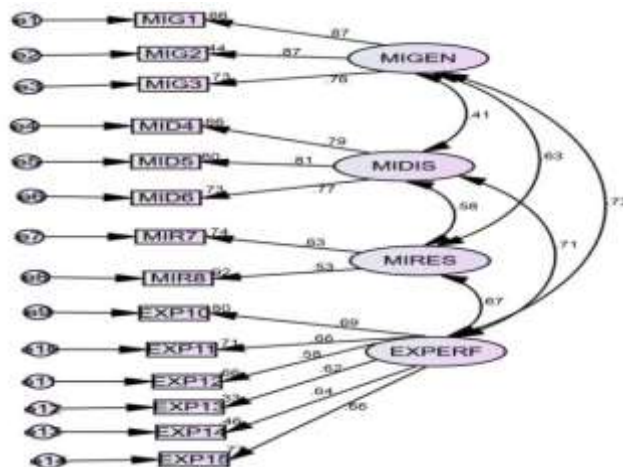
Figure No 2: The Measurement Model of this Study

Source: AMOS Output, 2020

3.2 Evaluation of the Structural Model and Hypothesis Testing

After ensured that the measurement model fitted the data well, researchers tested the three hypotheses of the current study. Nevertheless, before testing the structural model, researchers checked for its fitness using similar goodness of fit indices as per the measurement model. It was found out that the structural model attained the recommended cut-off of the goodness of fit indices.

In testing hypotheses, three criteria $p<0.05$; critical ratio *(t)* $=1.96$, standardized regression weight *(ß)*$= 0.5$ as recommended by Hox & Bechger, (2012) and Hair *et al.,* (2017) were applied to examine the relationship between the individual components of MO and export performance. Therefore, any relationship which resulted in a critical ratio greater than 1.96 was considered significant.

Table No 3: Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis	Relationships	S.E.	C.R	P-Values	β-Value	Decision
H_1	MIG→ EXPERF	.108	6.29	***	.60	Accepted
H_2	MID→ EXPERF	.194	1.95	.063	.38	Rejected
H_3	MIR→ EXPERF	.202	3.56	***	.78	Accepted

Source: Researcher's compilation based on AMOS output, 2020

The results from Table 5 indicate that a path from MIG to EXPERF attained a critical ratio of 6.29, a significant *p*-value of ***, and a *ß* value of 0.60 which met the recommended cut-off. Hence, H_1 which stated that market intelligence generation influences the export performance of SMEs was accepted. These findings also revealed that a path from MID to EXPERF attained a critical ratio of 1.95, a non-significant *p*-value of 0.623, and the *ß* values of 0.195 which deviates from the recommended cut-off. Hence, H_2 which stated that market intelligence dissemination influences the export performance of SMEs was rejected. Finally, the findings also revealed that a path from MIR to EXPERF generated a critical ratio of 3.56, a significant p-value of ***, and a *ß* value of 0.78 which met the recommended cut-off. Hence, H_3 which stated that market intelligence responsiveness influenced the export performance of SMEs was also accepted. These results are also indicated in Figure 3.
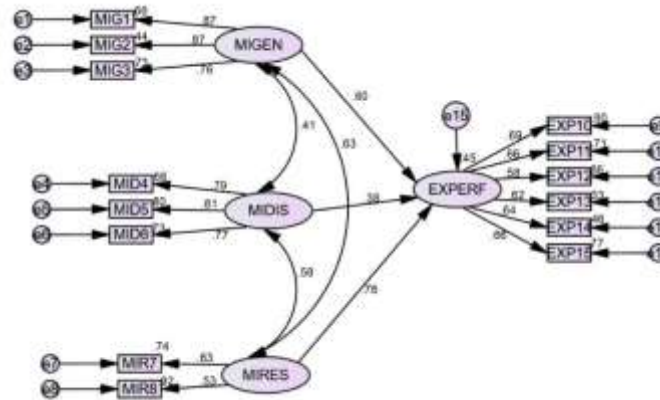
Figure 3: The Structural Export Performance Model

Source: AMOS output, 2020

4.0 Study Implications

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of MO dimensions namely MIG, MID, and MIR in the export performance of small and medium enterprises in Rwanda. The findings revealed that MIG and MIR had a positive and significant influence on export performance but the influence of the market intelligence dissemination (MID) was weak and not significant. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the market responsiveness (β =78%) was more influential followed by market intelligence generation (β =60%) than the market intelligence dissemination (β = 38%) as shown in the revised conceptual model.
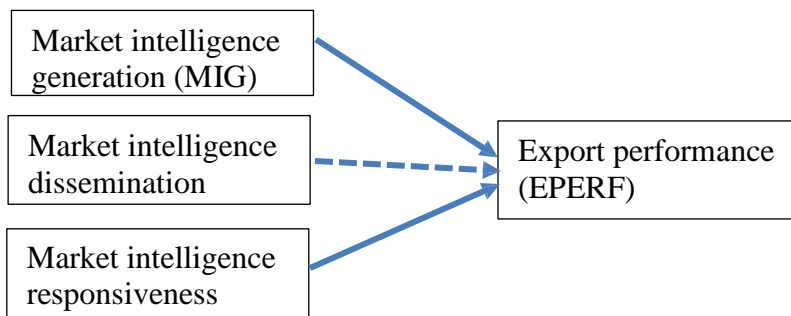
Figure No 4: The Revised Conceptual Model

Legend: ----► Insignificant relationship ——— significant relationship

These findings, which partially validated the resource-based theory that emphasizes the importance of market orientation in generating or creating competitive advantage, nevertheless qualified the results found in the previous literature such as; Jaworski, & Kohli (1993); Wei-Shong, Jing-Wen, & Ming-Yih (2015); Lee, Kim, Seo, &Hught, (2015); Long *et al.,*(2017) by not fully recognized the significant impact of these three dimensions of market orientation on the export performance of SMEs in Rwanda. However, unlike previous studies, these mixed results in the market orientation – export performance nexus constituted a novel contribution to the

market orientation literature because most previous studies had overlooked the effect of individual MO dimensions on the export performance, especially for SMEs.

This study also offered empirical validation for the scale, because it revealed the possible use of two items per factor for factor analysis, and thereby adding knowledge to the market orientation literature regarding the minimum items for each factor. This accords with Yong & Pearce, (2013) who argued that even two items per factor are sufficient for factor analysis, but contradicts Hair *et al.,* (2014) who support that each factor should have at least 3 items to be explained to ensure high reliability.

5.0 Conclusion and Recommendations

Grounded on the resource-based theory (RBT), this study examined the role of MO dimensions namely; MIG, MID, and MIR in the export performance of small and medium enterprises in Rwanda. The findings revealed that MIG and MIR had a positive and significant influence on export performance but the influence of the market intelligence dissemination (MID) was weak and not significant. The mixed results of this study confirmed that developing MO was important for a firm to go international and that all dimensions of MO were not equally important drivers of export performance as only MI and MIG contributed to export performance at 78% and 60% respectively. The proposed model which was grounded on the RBT was then partially validated. Therefore, this study contributed to the advancement of the knowledge in the market orientation literature because most previous studies had overlooked the effect of individual MO dimensions on export performance, especially for SMEs. Also, the use of SME exporters as the unit of analysis in a less developed country enriched the debate on the market orientation literature and its components factors.

This study suggested that to sustain export performance and product presence in the international market, managers should proactively develop effective MO behavior through thoughtful activities in gathering, disseminating, and responding to relevant information. Thereby, they can take advantage of business and market opportunities in international markets. The study recommended also that policymakers should develop an export educational strategy for SME exporters who were increasingly embarking on an expansion and correspondingly attempting to identify the best strategy for raising their performances.

This study is subject to several theoretical and methodological limitations, which may provide additional research opportunities. First, the study examined only Rwandan export firms. Therefore, the findings may not be generalizable to firms from other countries. Second, the study focused on a single time; essentially, export performance should be measured more dynamically, using longitudinal data. Future research may use longitudinal data to provide more insights and a deeper understanding of the investigated issue and compared it with these findings.

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Marketing Behavior of Micro Businesses: The Case of Street Vendors in Tanzania

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Abstract: *Street vendors who are famously known as Machinga, they are micro business people who have a significant contribution to the economy of country. The statistics shows that about 2,754,697 individuals in Tanzania owned and ran 3,162,886 small businesses. Moreover, these businesses have been able to develop the behaviour which has influenced the selling, shopping and social behaviour but still given little academic attention. Therefore, this article studies their marketing operations by using the exchange marketing theory and use qualitative approach to interview 25 street vendors. The results showed that when they facilitate exchange, they find places to chase after customers and sell their products. Thus, they make instant and reactive decisions, bargain with customers, and scramble for customers. This study showed that street vendors require the attention of academicians and policy because they required more skills and exposure to their business undertakings.*

Keywords: Marketing behaviour, Street vendors, Micro businesses, Tanzania

1.0 Introduction

Since the 1990s there has been the growth of a body of knowledge about marketing for small businesses (Carson, 1990, 2003; Graham, 2004; Hultman & Shaw, 2003; Siu & Kirby, 1998; Siu, 2000; Marek, 2014; Franco et al., 2014; Magembe, 2019). The marketing of small business is not only important because of its characteristics but also because of its contribution to the economy of country. The characteristics of small businesses includes the inseparability between business operators and owners (Reijonen, 2008), operators independent decisions (Calson, 1990, Gomes et al., 2010; Schollhammer & Kuriloff, 1979) and entrepreneurial decisions (Jones & Rowley, 2011; Siu & Kirby, 1996).

The categories of the businesses in Tanzania have been defined and distinguished ranging from large to micro. The number of employees and size of capital have been used to categorize businesses into large, medium, small, and micro (URT, 2012; OECD, 2016; UNIDO, 2012). Statistically, these categorizations vary across countries (OECD, 2016). By using the number of workers, the limit set for each category varies; usually the lower limit for small scale businesses is set at five to ten workers and the upper limit at fifty to hundred workers. The upper limit for medium scale businesses is set between a hundred and two hundred and fifty employees (Hallberg, 2000). The lower limit for micro businesses can be set at one and the upper limit at four (URT, 2012).

Micro businesses contribute significantly to the Small and Medium Business Enterprises (SMEs) sector, which constitutes 95 percent of all businesses in Tanzania and contributes 35% of GDP

(Magembe, 2019; Yahya & Mutarubukwa, 2015). Apart from its contribution to solving the unemployment problem and ensuring sustainable economic growth, the sector also creates an avenue for inclusiveness of the majority of the people in economic development (Magembe, 2019). According to the National Baseline Survey Report of 2012, about 2,754,697 individuals in Tanzania owned and ran 3,162,886 small businesses as at September 2010 (FSDT, 2012). Nearly half (47 percent) and over half (52 percent) of this population of small business owners is made up of the urban living, youth and women respectively (IMED, 2016; Tanzania-Invest, 2019). Some of these businesses are registered and formal while others are not but are actively conducted along the city's busy streets (ibid.). So, it is worthy understanding their behaviour which can be used to develop models and policies that fit to their operations.

Marketing behaviour includes the activities that marketers do in the process of identifying their customer needs and interacting with them and satisfying them (Kotler & Keller, 2012; Kotler & Armstrong, 2014; Harrell, 2017). However, despite of the developed knowledge about small businesses, little has been studied about the marketing behaviour of street vendors. The street vendors have developed the marketing behaviour which has influenced the selling, shopping and society behaviour yet not academically studied. This study draws from the marketing exchange theory in which the behaviour is captured by the activities done when the seller facilitates the exchange with the buyer (Hunt, 1983).

It explores the marketing operations of street vendors in order to understand their behaviours when they seek to sell their products directly to customers. The term vendors include those who display their products along the streets in the shades known in Kiswahili acronym as *vibanda* or small business kiosk in English as well as those who carry their products around looking for customers. These are the informal petty traders in the urban centres who are popularly known in Kiswahili acronym as *Machinga* or petty traders in English. In this study, they are also referred to as vendors or hawkers and they represent micro-businesses, which are the focus of this study.

The study is aimed at understanding the marketing behaviour of the *Machinga* in order to document the activities that they do to facilitate the exchange with their customers, and which make them different from other small businesses as well as large businesses. The study used the marketing theory, as developed by Hunt, 1983, which explains the function of marketing as the process that is used to consummate exchange. By using this theory, the research question was what and how they facilitated exchange when they found and meet their customers?

There has been an increased number of Vendors who are doing their trade along the streets in cities like Dar-Es-Salaam, Arusha, and Zanzibar (UNICEF Tanzania, 2018; IMED, 2016). Out of these cities, Zanzibar was selected because of the increased number of vendors who target tourists. According to statistics from NBS and BOT (2017), most tourists come to Zanzibar. Most of the *Machinga* or petty traders in English place their ventures along the beaches and hotels to target tourists who are busy with their leisure activities.

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Small and Micro Business

SMEs and micro businesses are heterogeneous and include a wide variety of firms covering different sectors. However, despite their tangible appearance, SMEs are distinguished from micro–businesses. SMEs are usually formal, employ workers, pay formal wage, and focus on aspects such as growth and innovations (IMED, 2016). Micro businesses are operated by a single person and some of them are informal while others are formal. Most of the micro enterprises are mainly based on a 'lifestyle entrepreneurship' model, operating in a very local context and are motivated by their need to generate income and finding a place to engage rather than staying idle (Maliva, 2021).

Being informal (IMED, 2016), the majority of the micro–enterprises are commonly categorised as petty traders, together with other middlemen and retailers who do small businesses in Tanzania. These traders represent themselves as *Machinga*, and they are generally regarded as being of low status because their businesses do not require any special skill to operate in, and their earning usually is very low (Ogawa, 2006).

Although small and large businesses differ by size, other characteristics are important because they are the ones that make them unique. Culkin and Smith (2000) emphasize that small businesses are not just smaller versions of large businesses; but they also differ in terms of their objectives, management style, and marketing (Carson, 1990). Moreover, independence in the operations of small businesses means the owner or a manager has ultimate authority and control over the business. He or she is not part of a complex enterprise system like it is in large enterprises. In management style, small businesses are managed in a personalized fashion where owners participate in all aspects of managing a business (Schollhammer & Kuriloff, 1979). That means there is no consultation in most small businesses' decisions making.

2.2 Small Business Owners/Managers

Based on their characteristics, small and micro businesses are explained from the point of view of the owners and managers. They are an essential part of the businesses and thus the functions of small ventures depend on their personal decisions (Reijonen, 2008). They are also called entrepreneurs because of their tendency to look and go for new opportunities and they take personal financial risks in their businesses (Moon, 2010). This makes their operations fluid despite the fact that they regard themselves as ventures; that is, their personal characteristics can be reflected in their ventures (Carson, 2003; O'Dwyer et al., 2009). Because the characteristics of micro–businesses are reflected on the owners and managers, the study captured marketing behaviours based on their views, actions, and decisions. Therefore, the study explored business owners/managers to discover the elements that can be used to identify the marketing behaviours of micro businesses in order to design the different ways of supporting them.

3.0 Marketing Theory

This article has adopted the definition of marketing that focuses more on its primary function of facilitating exchange relationships (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971; Hunt, 1983). It explains the exchange relationship between buyer and seller (Hunt, 1983). According to traditional

marketing, a buyer and a seller meet when the buyer has recognized the problem, searched for information, evaluated alternatives and intends to buy a product (Kotler, 2010; Kotler & Keller, 2012; Harrell, 2017). Hunt (1983) came out with four dimensions that can be used to explain the exchange relations, namely, the behaviours of the buyers and sellers directed at facilitating exchanges, the institutional framework directed at consummating and/or facilitating exchanges, the consequences of behaviours of buyers and sellers on society, and the marketing institutions directed at consummating and/or facilitating exchanges (Hunt, 1983:13). Because the focus the this study was on the *machingas*' activity when facilitate exchange, it extracted the sellers behaviour part of this theory.

In order to describe the sellers' behaviours, questions asked was; what and how and why they make decisions about the places, products, prices they offer and how they promote their products. These questions enabled to capture the activities they do to market their products and eventually determine their marketing behaviour. However, because the buyers have to respond to the seller's behaviour it means they are also influenced. Buyers also represent the shopping behaviour and society who are influenced by the sellers' behaviour.

4.0 Empirical Review on Marketing and Small Businesses
The flexibility of small businesses gives them a limited strategic framework and a weak processes (Carson, 1990). This leads to constraints in addressing some marketing functions in the way large organizations do (Chasten, 1997; Gilmore et al., 2001; Hill & Wright, 2001; Dwyer et al., 2009). This also makes marketing planning for small businesses spontaneous or non-existent (Carson, 1990). It has been found out that many small firms do not employ the marketing concept because they always concentrate on how they can sell their products (Ford & Rowley, 1979; Hultman & Shaw, 2003). The importance of the marketing concept is that it shows that marketing is more than the promotion and sale of existing products. Basically, marketing is an extensive function that begins long before a product exists (Harrell, 2017; Kotler & Keller, 2012).

In his study, Shephard (2005) found out that some small business managers use self-marketing. He defines self-marketing as "varied activities undertaken by individuals to make their products and brands known in the marketplace" (Shephard, 2005: 590). He also views self-marketing to be closely related to the concept of personal branding. The notable issue in self-marketing is that owners and/or managers represent their organizations. In other words, they are brands by themselves as their decisions focus on their firms' wellbeing, and thus they are motivated to set their individual goals (Reijonen, 2008).

5.0 Methodology
The research was informed by the interpretive approach whereby the researcher interpreted the findings from the in-depth interviews with the vendors. In connection with this paradigm and marketing theory, the study was able to obtain individual's self-knowledge of the world and the way they used their knowledge to interact with it, as well as how this knowledge contributes to shaping their ways of encountering it (Jennings, 2010).

This research used qualitative approach and the respondents were purposively selected and the basis of selection was their selling style, to capture those who were selling from their temporary

structures, called *vibanda* in Kiswahili, and those who were carrying around their products in their hands. Unstructured interviews were used in which respondents were asked to narrate how they view their markets/customers and the activities they perform in marketing their products. A total of 25 interviews were conducted with the *Machinga* (16 females and 10 males), lasting from 30 minutes to 1.15 hours. This number was reached because the researcher did not get any added information, and the researcher declared that it was a saturation point (Jennings, 2010). The age of interviewees ranged from 16 to 38 years, and their level of education ranged from primary school to secondary school. There was no respondent with the post secondary education.

The narrations were captured by voice recorders during the interview, which was in *Kiswahili* language; later the responses were translated into English. The recorded information was transcribed with the aid of the ATLAS.ti package, which also enabled the use of open codes. The coding was based on the Marketing Theory because the themes that determined to code the collected information were based on the sellers' behaviour directed at consummating exchange. The four themes, namely, product, pricing, promotion, and place were used. The hypothetical names were used in presenting the narrations in order to observe respondents' anonymity.

6.0 Research Findings
In answering the research question about the *machingas* marketing activities when they facilitate exchange, the study found out that they make decision concerning the places where they will meet customers and they chase after the customers.

6.1 Machingas' Market Place
The *Machinga* consider any place where there was a collection of people in a marketplace. They didn't wait for potential buyers to come to the marketplace and buy. As long as they had products to offer, they will walk around looking for potential customers. For them, anyone they met was a potential customer. Many prefer to sell their products along beach areas, shopping streets in Stone Town, and around the hotel areas. Generally, they visited places where tourists were busy with their own activities because those were the potential areas where they could sell. A young *Machinga* who was interviewed at the beach said, "If you really want to sell your products, you had to time them". The Machinga had different products and prices especially set for tourists compared to products and prices for local customers. Some of the *Machinga* exploit the available local materials by innovatively converting them into sellable products that attracted tourists.

Mwanana, a woman who owns a small hotel in Paje area said, "We have plenty of natural materials that we use to make different items that we think the tourists like. We use palm tree leaves to make handbags, spices to make cosmetics, and seashells to make ornaments". This has given rise to cultural tourism in Zanzibar because of handicrafts (See also Maliva, 2017). The increasing tourist inflow also motivates some immigrants and foreigners to enter into the *Machinga* business. These come from Tanzania Mainland and nearby countries such as Kenya and Uganda. One of the immigrant *Machinga* called Dhahabu gave the following testimony:

> "One of our friends told us that there are a lot of opportunities to sell curio products to tourists here in Zanzibar."

For the *Machinga*, the increasing number of sellers trading in similar products meantmore competition. They compete to get strategic locations to display their products, for example near entrances to buildings or places frequented by tourists. They displayed their merchandise along the tourists' paths, e.g. to and from the beach, hotels, restaurants, and other tourist recreation and entertainment places. Normally, the sellers carried out their business in simple make-shift structures, referred to earlier as "*vibanda*". Every seller, therefore, struggles to occupy those spaces.

For those who do not use *vibanda* at all, they did not need to compete for spaces because they just carried their products around; those vendors were sometimes called "*Juakali*", a Kiswahili word which means "scorching sun". Those who used *Juakali* were more mobile because they could easily follow the customers wherever they were. Sometimes they competed to grab customers before they arrived at the *vibanda* to buy products. When necessary, even those who had *vibanda* move out of their shops and join the *juakali* to chase for customers. Dhahabu had this to say: … with this business, if you don't get out of the shop and look for customers you may end up selling nothing the whole day. If you cannot chase customers during the day then other people like the Maasai will.

Generally, the *Machingas* view of customers included the place, the people and competition. So they thought that selecting where to walk or place their *vibandas* had to be strategically selected.

6.2 Machinga's Activities

Like other authors Ford and Rowley (1979), Hultman& Shaw, (2003) considered Machinga selling their products as the main activity in their businesses. So one of the basic activities was to find products first and then find the ways of selling them to consumers. For them exploring the customer need was not the first thing as it is written in the mainstream marketing books (Harrell, 2017; Kotler & Keller, 2012). This section describes the activities that the Machinga did in facilitating exchange after obtaining the products to sell. Mostly, vendors dealt with handicrafts such as mats, paintings, sculptures, handbags, wallets, earrings, necklaces as well as cosmetics,soaps and creams. The following were the activities found by this study:

  ⬜ *Chasing after customers*
Both vendors in the *vibanda* and *Juakali* scramble to get customers for their products, most of times without being sure if customers wanted to buy or not. They approached all people who they met by showing their products while promising them about the quality of the products and discounts if they buy their products. They expressed by words while displaying their products. Sometimes asked how much the customer is willing to pay for products. For those in the shades, they did not wait the customers to get in, but they followed them outside. Naweza explains:

> "I sometimes take a lot of effort to entice customers into my shade. If I note that a customer doesn't know where to start, I let him/her inside my shade and show them products."

One of the factor that enabled them to get customers before their rivals was the ability to speak different languages. They knew that customers were more comfortable to do business with the vendors who communicated in their own languages. So the vendors take deliberate attempts to

learn foreign languages, as Mjasilia testified: "It is important to be able to speak different languages here".

Apart from understanding customers' needs, chasing after customers also require energy and tactics. Napambana, a young lady who sells her items by hawking, at Kiwengwa beach, said:

> "In order to sell here, one must be very sharp; one must be able to read the faces of customers at the same time approach them by speaking their language."

Selling

The main activity that vendors did in selling was setting the prices. The prices for products sold by vendors were not fixed. In the course of scrambling for customers, vendors sold products for very staggering prices; the aim was to entice customers to buy more products. According to them, thiswas the most strategic part of selling, and it was one of the criteria that could be used to measure the ability of different vendors.

> "Sometimes a customer would come and buy an item at a low price …this is okay…you have to make calculations…you may sell at a low price to one customer…but after a while, you may get a customer who does not bargain and compensate the loss. We sometimes accept low prices because we do not want to leave a customer unserved; they must be made to buy because if they do not buy from you they will move to another shop and buy the same items".

Machingas also had to be able to calculate faster in order to determine the price for customer, because each customer was charged differently. So for *machinga* the pricing strategy was based on customers willing to pay and their expectations to get other potential customers.

There were various factors that vendors took into consideration when they were bargaining with their customers. If a customer seemed to be willing to pay the highest price, then they set a specific price for that customer. They also considered time and the location of the customer, as Sijali explains:

> "I can say that this business is tough because you have to consider the fact that there are some other people who buy items and sell them in the streets as vendors. The tourists may have spent most of their money in the streets and by the time they get here they are left with very little money to spend. If you come across such customers, you start bargaining until you both arrive at a price that is agreeable".

Talking of bargaining, Mjasilia says:

> "I normally do not give up with customers until the last minute; I make sure I make friends so that customers buy from me next time. I do all this because I know what I want. We meet customers of different behaviours, some insult us but we become do not answer back …We need money from them, so we sometimes give them the freedom to suggest how much they can afford to pay. After finding out how much one is willing to offer you can then give a relatively higher price that will allow both sides to bargain making sure that no one loses. Sometimes, when you meet with customers that are ready to enter into a bargain, you are likely to get a relatively higher profit if you use this strategy".

7.0 Discussions

This study explored the marketing behaviour of *Machinga* when they were engaged in trade exchange with their customers considering the Marketing Theory (Hunt, 1983). Their selling behaviour was seen from two major activities captured from the in-depth conversation chasing after customers and setting prices. From those activities, the marketing behaviour was established and the marketing mix strategies were found. They made decision about the product, they set price, and they promoted and distributed the products. Based on the results of this study, it was evident that the small businesses had their own ways of executing marketing functions differently compared to large organizations, which was similar to other studies (Carson, 1990; Culkin & Smith, 2000; Gilmore *et al*., 2001).

The decision about the product depends on what they had and their ability to innovatively make some items using the available materials. According to the conversation, most respondents showed that if they had strategic places, they were likely to convince their customers to see their products. In Zanzibar, the main products were paintings, handbags, sandals, and clothes. They designed the products according to their traditions, they packaged and label them based on what they thought customers, especially tourists, would like.

Promotion by the *Machinga* started when they chased after customers. They promoted their products by displaying them as well as by speaking to customers face-to-face. The vendors had the ability to customize their promotional language to different customers. The *Machinga* also did promotion during pricing and when offered significant discounts to various items. One of the interesting aspects of promotion was the need for the Machinga to communicate in the languages of the customers. In Zanzibar, some buyers could speak English well and others were found to be fluent in speaking Italian. This simplified promotion via effective communications to potential buyers and hence the potential to do business with them.

For the *Machinga,* pricing was one of the key ways of selling their products. It was during pricing that the sellers considered the characteristics of their customers. They looked at the personality of the buyers and any other people who might be accompanying such buyers. They also looked at the mood of the customers at the time of buying. The price was also determined by how they get customers.For example, if there were many buyers, a *Machinga* was likely to charge a lower price. When pricing, they could use penetration and skimming strategies to the same customer. The more the customer was attracted to buy more items, the more a *Machinga* was tempted to raise the prices. During pricing, the sellers were very smart to ensure that they did not make losses.

The *Machinga* looked for places where most people assembled for their marketplace; they did not sell in shopping centres. They distributed their products, whether in the *vibanda* or carrying those products around. Some of the *Machinga* acted like channels of distribution for large companies and they cooperated, conflict, and competed with other channel members who were also working for different companies or other competitors.

Generally, the ways Machingas acted and make decisions when they performed selling function made them to be institutions by themselves. This means, the same individual planned, made decisions and implements at the same time. This wasin line with other authors, such as; Schollhammer and Kuriloff (1979) who also observed that street vendors as owner managers participated in all aspects of managing a business (Reijonen, 2008). The *Machinga* also worked for themselves and they possessed the products like the middlemen as such they took risks (Moon, 2010).

The behaviour of *Machingas* and their customers had brought another type of exchange where buyers and sellers could meet and do marketing exchange. It might not be necessary for some customers to go through the whole decision process such as searching for information and evaluating the different alternatives. This has led to increased number of vendors in the streets, entertainment centres and workplaces. By this behaviour, the micro, small, and informal enterprises grew because this behaviour provided simple paths for everyone who was willing to enter into small and micro business sector. It gives an opportunity for entrepreneurs to come out with innovations as well as creating employment.

The practices and behaviours of the Machinga had an influence on others' behaviours. This was because by accepting to buy from *Machingas* they could also buy without taking time to think about the place and time to do shopping. Moreover, by choice and execution of the strategies they had been using to facilitate exchange, they had impacted the society. People now knew that they could shop anywhere, and they didn't have to go to the formal markets. This had also resulted in constructing another segment of shopping which continues to gain popularity in the country.

8.0 Conclusion

This study has found out that the marketing behaviour of micro businesses was different from other small businesses and large ones. It also found out that street vendors, stand-alone during the facilitation of exchange, they needed to make quick decision and be independent during selling moments.

8.1 Machingas Marketing Behaviour
From Machinga's activities, this study identified three types of behaviours that the small businesses had, namely, instant and reactive, bargaining, and scrambling behaviour.

  ⬜ *Instant and Reactive*
Chasing after customers had brought out an instant behaviour. This was an addition of behaviour explained by other authors such as; Schollhammer and Kuriloff (1979) as well as Reijonen (2008) about the single person's participation to all segments of business and they were a part of business.

  ⬜ *Bargaining*
The *Machinga* engaged in bargaining in many instances during their operations. This started when they were looking for places to display and sell their products. The most substantial bargaining function was carried out during the pricing of the product. They did quick and fast

calculations; they determined profits, loss, and consequences of the profits to customers and their firms.

☐ *Scrambling for customers*

The *Machinga* also scrambled to get customers. They believed that without chasing after customers, they would not cope with the stiff competition in the market.

9.0 Theoretical Implication

The use of the Marketing Theory as introduced by Hunt (1983), which defines the marketing as a process of facilitating exchange had contributed by adding value to small business literature. By this theory, it was possible to design models which explained micro businesses behaviour.

10.0 Policy Implications

The output of this study has the potential of being used by policymakers to know how best to address street vendors' needs such as identifying a conducive environment for their businesses. Moreover, the Machingas required more skills and exposure to their business undertakings.

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Challenges Affecting Street Vending Business in Tanzania: A Review and Analysis from the Existing Literature

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Abstract : *The street vending business is a crucial sector for the growth of the livelihood of most poor people in Tanzania. This study aimed at answering the question: "what have researchers done concerning factors affecting street vending business?" This study critically reviewed articles related to the street vending business in Tanzania. A total of 15 academic articles were generated from Google scholar and analyzed using content analysis. This study found out that the existing literature focused on five main themes, including challenges facing street vending business, skills & technology, social-cultural, law/regulation & policies, and urbanization. Although the existing literature has pointed out multiple challenges affecting street vendors, if street vendors were given business skills and support from the government, they would contribute significantly to economic growth. This study contributed to new knowledge by proposing various strategies on how to improve the street vending business. The proposed strategies include; establishing clear policy and guidelines for street business, a collaborative mechanism to manage the street vendors, and enhancing street vendors' training for their growth and sustainability.*

Keywords: Street Vending Business, Street Vendors, Tanzania

1.0 Introduction

Street vending is defined as income-generating activities whereby individuals sell their products along streets and pavements to passing pedestrians and motorists (Abagissa, 2020). This form of business is very complex and involves integrated service systems of small-scale enterprises. It is often seen as informal and sometimes illegal. Vending business occurs in every economy and has existed over a long period (Jhabavala, 2010). Street vending in its multiple forms reveals itself primarily in subsistence markets (Giraldo, Garcia-Tello & Rayburn, 2020). Street vending is entrepreneurship for the minor and marginalized group in the society; those involved in the business are often persecuted, oppressed, or victimized (Bhowmik, 2010).

Globally, it is estimated that in the 2000s, the informal sector accounted for 18% of the organization's economy for economic co-operation and development countries (OECD), 41% in developing countries, and 55% of Sub-Saharan African GDP. 80% of the total labour force in developing countries were engaged in informal businesses (Bank, 2014). The sector supported 50% to 75% of employment opportunities in the same year and 30%-60% of total GNP in Sub-

Saharan Africa countries (Sparks & Barnett, 2010). The most common type of informal trading prevalent in most developing countries is street vending (Mramba, 2015).

The rapid growth of street vending business in Sub- Saharan Africa can be traced back to the 1990s. Unemployment in the formal sector, stagnation in the agriculture sector, the decline in the foreign investment levels, and poor performance in the manufacturing industry are reported to be among the critical factors for the growth of street vending business in Sub-Saharan Africa (Bryceson, 2004). Other reasons, include migration, urbanization, macroeconomic developments, are cited as a result of structural adjustment and economic crises (Skinner, 2010). The highest level of unemployment and low level of productivity in the agriculture sector has forced many youths in developing countries to migrate to urban areas looking for alternative ways to sustain themselves, ending up engaging in informal businesses (Aryeetey, 2009). In developing countries, street vending business is crucial for the economy and the livelihood of the poor and the less educated people (Mramba *et al.,* 2015). Most developing countries depend on this sector as a primary employment generator to many people compared to the formal sector (Hellstrom, 2012).

Like any other developing country, Tanzania is one of the countries that depend on the informal sector for economic development. The evidence that the informal sector supports 48% of Tanzania's economy (Maliyamkono *et al.,* 2012), and about 1.2 million people in 2011 were working in the informal sector (Mugoya, 2012). Apart from generating employment for a significant population, this sector acts as a shock absorber in supporting the livelihoods of most people in Tanzania (Lyons & Msoka, 2007). It is estimated that over 15% -20% of the Dar es Salaam population depends on street vending business for themselves & their families (w, 2013). The informal sector (including street vending business) also contributes 35% of the country's GDP and produces up to 70% of the total products consumed by the poor people (Mramba, 2015). Dar es Salaam as one of the largest and most significant commercial cities in Tanzania, was reported to have 700,000 street vendors in 2008 (Lyons & Msoka, 2010). During that particular year, the city's total population was about 2,800,000 people (Lyons, Brown, & Msoka, 2014). The number grew to over 1 million in 2014 (Mramba, 2015). This figure might have gone high since, in the country, there were no current statistical data on street vendors. This form of business in Tanzania has been accelerated by limited employment opportunities in the formal sector, the rapid growth of cities, and the increase in micro enterprises (Tripp, 1997; Brown, 2006).

Despite the importance of street vendors, the sector has challenges in their day-to-day activities because the community sees them as less educated, less skilled, low-income earners, and people who failed to secure job offers in the formal sector (Mramba *et al.,* 2015). They have been facing evictions and harassment from the city authorities, have unstable security, and have limited access to capital (Wongtada, 2014). Most street vendors are constrained by the unclear judicial system, little financial stability, unclear operational environment, and policies that guide and protect them (Saha, 2011; Onyango, Olima, & Onyango, 2012; Lyons, Brown, & Msoka, 2014). The street vending business is seen as an illegal business with no judicial status, no formal processes to guide its operations. Street vendors undertake their activities outside the boundaries of existing laws and regulations (Steiler, 2018). Most street vendors are working long and in unhealthy and unsafe areas (Onyango, Olima, & Onyango, 2012). The majority of the street

vendors work with the fear of being jailed or fined by the local government authorities; hence sometimes, they are forced to use part of their daily sales to bribe the local authorities to make them continue doing their business (Bhowmik, 2005).

Although the street vending business contributes positively to the economic development of Tanzania, its potential has yet to be appreciated and acknowledged by the local government authorities. Generally, street vendors have been getting limited support from the government. The 1970s and early 1980s experienced a mushrooming of street vendors in Tanzania (Msoka & Ackson, 2017). Before the 1980s, the government announced petty trading business to be an illegal form of business (Lyons & Msoka, 2010). In 1983, at least the government tried to show its support towards street vendors by introducing the Human Resource Deployment Act No.??? that granted street vendors an opportunity to sell their products by displaying their merchandise on the ground and along the road (Nyirenda & Msoka, 2019). In the same years, the government also introduced the "*Nguvu kazi"* license to give street vendors some legitimacy to conduct their business without any interference from the government authorities and to combat unemployment. In 1993, the "*Nguvu kazi*" license was abolished since the number of youth rural-urban migration grew significantly, and the large cities such as Dar es Salaam could not accommodate all. That action of canceling the hawking license worsened the practice of street vending business in Tanzania. Street vendors continued to be stigmatized, facing constant evictions and confrontations from the local government authorities.

In 2004, Tanzania endorsed the Finance Act to allow business registration, but small businesses were not covered (ILD, 2005). In the same year, the Government introduced the Property and Business Formalization Program (PBFB), which in Kiswahili known as *("Mpango wa Kurasimisha Rasilimali na Biashara za wanyonge Tanzania*- MKURABITA*")*. The intention was to legalize the informal micro-enterprises. In 2007, MKURABITA's status failed to attain its objective because it still saw micro-entrepreneurs as not genuine entrepreneurs. Therefore, such traders were advised to participate in the manufacturing or work in a larger enterprises (Michal, 2013).

Although Tanzania has the SME policy of 2002 and that of 2017, the existing policies do not guide their operations as it is required. In the absence of a well-formulated policy to guide vending, what has been in place are the local government authorities' verbal statements to conduct their operations. Still, unfortunately, these guidelines vary during each election cycle (Msoka & Ackson, 2017). The guidelines to protect the rights of street vendors vary among districts; each district in Tanzania has different arrangements guiding street vendors. The ability of street vendors to sell or not to sell depends on the willingness of political authorities at municipal and national levels. Street vendors in Tanzania have a limited number of associations that protect their rights, making them more vulnerable to social injustices from the local authorities.

Frequent evictions from the local government authorities have affected the lives of a thousand vending traders. Most of them have lost their properties, products, lost operating capital through paying fines and stock confiscations, lost customers because of frequent relocations, and some were jailed. In Tanzania, street vendors are affected by a lack of legal status that can allow them to resist marginalization from the local government and municipal councils. The authorities have

poorly served them through the existing reforms. As a result, street vendors have continuously been exposed to confrontations with state machinery. The marginalization of street vendors in the political spheres has pushed them further in the minds of politicians and policymakers.

Apart from all the challenges, the government of Tanzania saw the need to come up with different initiatives to assist street vendors. In 2006/7, the government decided to relocate street vendors in particular built-up markets in peripheral locations to work correctly. Furthermore, the Government introduced a BOT system (Build Operate Transfer) to help Mwanza vendors build their stalls and use them for five years rent-free (Michal, 2013). In 2016, the Government of Tanzania constructed a marketplace called "mawasiliano" or "simu 2000" for small business owners, including street vendors, to settle and conduct their businesses there (Nyirenda & Msoka, 2019). Furthermore, through the Dar es Salaam City Council, the Government built a six storied building at Ilala Municipality named "Machinga complex" to allow street vendors to have a proper vending place to sell their products. Unfortunately, street vendors refused to work there, claiming that they were forced to pay higher tax and the area was not easily reachable by customers. As a result, most street vendors had to go back to the nearby streets looking for customers (Msoka & Ackson, 2017).

In 2018, the United Republic of Tanzania, Dr. John Pombe Magufuli, launched a comprehensive national mechanism to assist small-scale traders, including street vendors, by allowing them to trade formally through having special identity cards. The ID cards were used as their identification to recognize them as official traders. To be given those Ids, they were required to pay an annual fee of 20,000/= Tanzanian shillings. With this move, the government intended to formalize their businesses but asking them to spend at least a small amount of tax. Despite the government's efforts, the street vending business is still ignored and has received little support from the government (Mlinga & Wells, 2002). Supposedly, the Government, through local government authorities, is still neglecting it. In that case, there is a significant likelihood that the government is losing revenue that it would have realized by formalizing these informal businesses. It was estimated that a total of 86 billion Tanzanian Shillings would have been collected by the government annually if the government were able to formalize street vending businesses (Mugoya, 2012).

Several studies assessed challenges facing street vending businesses in the context of Tanzania. Studies including a work by Ogawa (2006), Lyons, Brown, and Msoka (2014), Mramba (2015), Godrich, Juma and Mfinanga (2018), Haule and Chille (2018), Nyirenda and Msoka (2019), and Munishi and Casimir (2019 Most of these studies have focused on addressing various challenges affecting street vendors in different regions. The overall findings from these studies indicated that street vendors had been given limited support from the municipal councils. The results noted that the trend was attributed to a lack of coordination among stakeholders, thus duplicating efforts to assist them (CBE& TCRS, 2017). Lack of a policy that would guide and protect street vending businesses, contradicting orders from the municipal mayors and the district commissioners are the challenges. Others noted were lack of business knowledge, attitudes from customers, shortage of funds, the informality of their business, limited support from financial institutions, and lack of training; are some of the critical challenges that have been affecting street vendors in Tanzania (Nyirenda & Msoka, 2019)(Godrich, Juma, & Mfinanga, 2018; Nyirenda & Msoka, 2019). This situation has brought constant conflicts between street vendors

and local authorities (Ilona, 2018). The remaining studies, including that by Mramba *et al.* (2014), Mramba (2015a; 2015b), Mramba *et al.,* (2015), Mramba *et al.,* (2016), and Msuya (2019), focused on addressing issues related to skills and technology and how the two can assist street vendors in their businesses. In their studies, they pointed out that street vendors need business skills training so that they can be able to perform their day-to-day activities. With proper skills, they will use appropriate marketing strategies and sell products that customers highly need. Despite these few studies, research addressing how to empower informal economic workers is limited (Wongtada, 2014). The overall findings from the literature indicate that most of the existing studies have highlighted the challenges affecting street vendors but ignored the fact that there is a positive side to this type of business. Theoretically, structuralism theory offers a basis for the foundation for this study. The theory assumes that street vending's the pervasiveness and potential growth for survival endeavor or the last option for poor people since street vendors cannot benefit from the formal business. The theory looks at street vending as a necessity-driven informal activity that is increasingly unstable and insecure (Ladan & Williams, 2019). Despite the fact that the theory was able to shed some light on the origin of the street vending business, it remained silent on showing its positive side. Therefore, this study focused on analyzing the extent to which researchers have identified the positive side of the street vending business in Tanzania based on the published academic works.

This study is important because the street vending business is the fastest growing business in low-income countries (Mramba *et al.,* 2015). Therefore, it is a wake-up call for Tanzania to start developing strategies to support street vendors. In Tanzania, youth are still migrating from the rural areas to urban areas looking for ways to sustain their lives, and street vending business is one of their priority. Hence, ignoring the role of street vending business will not do any good to the government because, since the 2019 unemployment rate in the country has reached 1.91%, the youth unemployment rate is 3.43% (Pletcher, 2020a: 2020b). Since most street vendors in Tanzania are youth between the age of 18 to 35 (Mramba *et al.,* 2014), this sector can be used as an alternative way to reduce the unemployment rate in the country.

Businesses are used as a source of income to poor people in Tanzania (Steiler, 2018). the collected revenue can be used to offset the economy during challenging economic situations (Steiler, 2018) and offer goods at a low price (Wongtada, 2014). The street vendors' business should not be ignored since the number of advantages in Tanzania is expected to grow because of limited employment opportunities in the formal sector (Lyons & Msoka, 2010). Furthermore, the findings of this study will add value to the existing literature since there are limited studies that have been done to analyze all street vending businesses in published works in Tanzania. Studies that assessed the positive side of the street vending business in Tanzania are also lacking.

Also, the findings of this study can be used to assist policymakers in making sure that they come up with a clear and comprehensive policy specifically for street vending business since this form of business is unique and differs from the formal sector. Finally, the findings of this work can be used by the local government authorities to make sure that they develop a uniform strategy to handle street vendors because having different strategies from district to district or from one region to the other makes things worse. Street vendors need to know that local government authorities are not their enemy but organs to watch their back. Since cities have been developing in every part of Tanzania, the street vending business will continue to be prevalent. A review and

analysis of the street vending business in Tanzania published in academic journals would benefit practitioners, scholars, and other interested readers by providing them with a clear understanding of the nature, characteristics, and challenges affecting street vendors in the country.

Previous studies have highlighted the challenges, prospects, and implications of street vendors. Literature believed that the findings of this study would give a comprehensive observation and discussion in the area of the street vending business, apart from providing answers to the research question of the researchers previously done concerning street vending business in Tanzania. This study will give a critical review of the previous studies on the street vending businesses in Tanzania and the assessment as to what extent have the existing published research works highlighted the positive side of the street vending business. This will be the contribution of this study to academia as well as the industry.

2.0 Literature Review
2.1 Street Vending Business
Street vending business is an informal type of business whereby street vendors sell their goods and services in public places without having a permanent official built-up area (Bhowmik, 2005; Monte & de Silva, 2013). The street vending business is also seen as a non-criminal commercial activity that depends on access to public space for trading (Lyons & Msoka, 2010).

2.1.1 Street Vendor
High and mid-income earners are using the terminology 'underemployed' to imply street vendors. Still, they don't refer to themselves as underemployed but rather see themselves as working long hours and unprivileged due to limited access to funds and who conduct their activities in unsecured environments (Vargas, 2013). Street vendors are sometimes called hawkers, peddlers, or street traders. In Tanzania, they are famously known as "*Machinga*." Street vendors usually sell different products ranging from fruits, drinking water, clothes, and office electronic appliances. Some street vendors are mobile (moving from one street to the other or from one location to the other), and others display their products adjacent to the roads or nearby shops. Some hang their products over the walls, fences, parked cars, and along the streets. Others carry their products in their hands, shoulders while others display their products in the tables, baskets, wheelbarrows, bicycles, and buckets.

2.2 Theoretical Literature
The structuralist theory is one of the theories explaining the foundation of the street vending business. This theory is also known as black-market theory, the world systems theory, the underground theory, or the Portes theory, as highlighted by Rakowski (1994). Moser, Castells, and Portes proposed the theory between the late 1970s to 1980s. It focused on addressing the modes of production in the capitalist system. The theory assumes that street vending is the only survival practice conducted out of economic necessity as a last option in the absence of alternative means of livelihood. In this theory, entrepreneurship is direct by the advent of a de-regulated open world economy. Street vendors are therefore seen as an unwilling and disadvantaged group in an exploitative global economic system. This vending business sector is highly insecure, unstable, takes longer working hours, has poor working conditions, lacks legal or social policies, has limited access to financial resources, and has minimal bargaining power.

Although this theory lays down the foundation of the street vending business, the theory remained silent because currently, the world is moving towards technology. Many street vending businessmen/women have their markets on digital platforms such as Instagram and Facebook. Therefore, the assumption that the street vending business is the last option to sustain itself may be out of time. The theory was selected because it initially shows that the street vending business seems to be the only option when individuals engage in entrepreneurial activities.

2.3 Empirical Literature Review
2.3.1 Challenges Affecting Street Vendors
Several studies include a work by Godrich, Juma, and Mfinanga (2018), Nyirenda and Msoka (2019), Munishi and Casmir (2019), have addressed challenges affecting street vendors in various regions. For example, Godrich, Juma, and Mfinanga (2018) examined how food vendors comply with the regulations given by the Municipal Council in Dodoma. This was a mixed study that employed both qualitative and quantitative elements. The study followed a cross-sectional research design and based on the findings from documentary reviews and interviews from 200 street vendors. It was found out that street vendors have failed to follow regulations because of a shortage of food storage facilities, limited knowledge on how to adapt to the rules, attitudes from customers, little capital, and informality of their businesses.

Nyirenda and Msoka (2019) examined how the reallocation of street vendors in the Ubungo Municipality has affected their welfare. A qualitative study whereby thematic analysis was used to analyze the generated data from the interviews and field observation. Sixteen respondents were included in the study. Findings from in-depth interviews, focus group discussion and participant observation revealed that street vendors had been affected by the eviction exercise. They have been receiving contradicting orders from the municipal mayor and the district council; This situation raised disturbances and chaos among them, but they were more affected by the lack of comprehensive policy to guide their business operations. Street vendors have been receiving verbal guidelines from the municipal councils hence making them vulnerable to municipal police.

Munishi and Casmir (2019) examined issues related to capital inadequacy among 100 vendors in Morogoro Municipality and how this affects street vending businesses. The study employed a qualitative approach whereby five respondents were selected for focused group discussions, and 100 vendors were involved in an interview. Results from content analysis founded out that the street vending business was affected by a lack of knowledge regarding financial institutions, limited capital, lack of business skills, and training. The study revealed that vendors also lacked support from national and international levels to assist them to conduct their businesses effectively. Therefore, vendors were not aware of what to do to secure credits from financial institutions.

Additionally, the study revealed that they fear bureaucratic procedures involved in receiving capital; hence they were forced to seek money from other exploitative sources. Due to all these challenges, street vendors have been forced to engage in other activities to raise capital. Some of them decide to avoid spending money unnecessarily so that they can invest it in their business.

2.4 Law, Regulations and Policies and Street Vending Business
Researchers such as; Michal (2013), Msoka (2014), and Steiler (2018) have linked policies and street vending business in Tanzania. Michal (2013) investigated the potential of the proposed legal system to empower micro-businesses in Tanzania. The researcher employed a qualitative approach by reviewing relevant literature between 2007 to 2011. Evidence from various policies and legislation has indicated that formalization per se does not guarantee the protection of micro-businesses. However, the legal laws and clear guidelines can guarantee security to micro-businesses. Although developing clear regulations and policies is complex, with political will and legal system can be created to protect the rights of micro-businessmen by making them work effectively and efficiently.

Msoka (2014) examines how the doing business reforms have impacted the micro-enterprises of the poor in Arusha, Mbeya, Morogoro, Mwanza, and Dar es Salaam. It was revealed that the policy has shown that there was a significant impact on street vending business in the mentioned regions. Yet, the policy did not provide a clear guideline on how street vendors should conduct their businesses in the country, forcing them to continue moving from one region to another and from one street to another.

Steiler (2018), on the other hand, assessed how political changes had changed the concept of the informal sector. Previous studies reported that the value of the informal sector had not given priorities, and MKURABITA reforms admitted that the informal sector was not part of the formal economy; hence it lacked the legal power to protect street vendors.

Additionally, the existing laws and by-laws do not work in favour of street vendors. This implies that the main source of street vendors' challenge is the absence of legal laws to guide them through. Formalization of their business seems to be a severe issue that hinders their day-to-day activities. If formalized, they will be in a position to work in a proper vending place. This will somehow help the local government authorities to start collecting tax from them more efficiently, and in the end, their contribution can be appreciated and recognized. The government needs to develop laws that will offer a clear guideline on how street vendors should be treated by the financial institutions and the local government authorities. The policy helps give a friendly environment for them to work without any interference from the municipal or local government authorities.

2.5 Social Cultural Issues and Street Vending Business
Some of the existing literature has linked social-cultural issues to street vending business. Ogawa (2006) is one among researchers who tried to link the role of social networking via a system called "*mali kauli*" translated loosely in English as " selling goods on credit" and linked it with the street vending business in Mwanza. It was found out that *mali kauli* is a creative credit transaction that street vendors use. Through *mali kauli* street, vendors were able to conduct their business on credit. This was a brilliant idea because street vendors are usually affected by limited capital. In the same line of research, Katrijn (2016) examined the role of friendships in assisting street traders in Tanzania. The findings reported that street traders had their friends back when they needed help in their businesses. They have received moral support from their friends, which acted as a catalyst for them to continue their daily activities. This implies that street vendors can

perform their daily activities via assistance from friends as long as there is trust between friends. Therefore, the government needs to make sure that it develops proper mechanisms to support them. Trust and support from the local and municipal authorities are needed to show appreciation because the sector offers employment to a significant population among youth in Tanzania.

2.6 Urbanization and Street Vending Business

Haule and Chille (2018) established a link between the changing nature and character of street vending business with spatial variation within the urban and peri-urban areas. Researchers' interviewed 100 street vendors found at the following places in Dar Es Salaam Tanzania;Kimara Temboni, MbeziMwisho, Kibamba, Kiluvya, Kibaha, Kwa Mathias, Korogwe, Visiga, and Mlandizi. The study employed a mixed research design whereby ten people were interviewed, and 100 were given a survey. Evidence from descriptive and grounded theory revealed that some products dominated more in urban areas than in peri-urban areas. It was further reported that there is a negative relationship between urbanization and the types of goods sold by street vendors. Since it is known that most of the street vendors come from rural areas, one would expect to see them selling agricultural products. Still, findings proved otherwise. The study revealed that most of the products sold by street vendors were not agricultural products. And those they come from other regions apart from the study areas.

Additionally, the study concluded a close link between urbanization and the products sold by street vendors. Another survey by Haule (2019) examined the relationship between human population mobility and urbanization among street vendors in 10 centers located along Morogoro road. Results from descriptive statistics indicated that the mobility of street vendors is influenced by business opportunities available in the largest cities such as Dar es Salaam, Kilimanjaro, Morogoro, Mbeya, and Coast. Most youths are motivated to travel to the largest cities because they are hubs for commercial activities.

The overall findings from these studies show a positive relationship between urbanization and street vending business because many youths are migrating every day from rural to urban areas searching for business opportunities leaving older people in rural areas participating in agricultural activities. The literature revealed that most of the youths between the ages of 18-the 30s migrate to towns. Since 80% of the Tanzanian economy depends on agriculture; therefore, the government needs to develop mechanisms to ensure concrete economic opportunities in rural areas. The retention of youth in rural areas helps utilize opportunities available in their regions without migrating to towns.

2.7 Skills, Technology and Street Vending Business

Some of the studies, including that by Mramba *et al.,* (2014), Mramba (2015a; 2015b), Mramba *et al.,* (2015), Mramba *et al.,* (2016), and Msuya (2019), have addressed issues related to skills and technology and how the two can assist street vendors in their businesses. Remarkably, studies by Mramba (2014), Mramba *et al.,* (2015), Mramba (2015a) have examined the role of technology in assisting street vending business operations. The study recommended that mobile phone technology should be used to help street vendors in their daily activities. However, mobile phone usage among street vendors is minimal. They use their mobile phones mainly for payments effected through mobile phone transactions such as M-Pesa, Tigo Pesa, Airtel Money, and other business communications (Mramba *et al.,*2015a; 2015b). This limited usage of

mobile phones in business has resulted from limited business skills, lack of capital, lack of education, and weak support systems from the local government authorities (Mramba *et al.,*2015a; Mramba *et al.,*2016). Hence, they are required to use mobile phone technology such as customer-client matchmaking and record keeping. The use of technology can assist street vendors in developing proper marketing strategies to market their products quickly. The existing marketing strategies used by street vendors are weak, and almost all of them use similar techniques to attract customers (Mramba *et al.,* 2015b).

The decision to use inadequate strategies has resulted from limited marketing skills and limited ability to sell the desired products by customers. Street vendors are also affected by limited development skills, ignorance, lack of resources, and limited development programs (Msuya, 2019). Mramba (2015a) saw a need to develop a model to help street vendors to perform their work comfortably. It was advised that street vendors perform the Government of Tanzania's essential to create supportive policies, laws, and regulations protecting the rights of street vendors. The issue of informality and illegality of their businesses needs to be handled because the income generated from the street vending business helps to reduce the poverty level in the country.

3.0 Methodology

This was a desk review study whereby 15 published academic articles in the area of street vending business in Tanzania were identified and gathered from Google Scholar. Google Scholar was selected because it is one of the largest and most popular online databases and search engines (Buhalis & Law, 2008). To achieve the objective of giving a comprehensive analysis of the existing street vending studies in Tanzania, the keywords of the street vending business, hawker, peddler, and Tanzania were used to search for the most relevant articles since these keywords were the study subject and contexts. Furthermore, references cited in the published reports were traced to evaluate their relevance in the study. Each of the identified journals was carefully read through by two researchers to assess their inclusion. The decision to include an article in the analysis was based on the joint agreement between two researchers, taking into account the relevance of the articles to the themes of the study. This study focused on analyzing full-length published articles in academic journals, mainly in the area of the street vending business. Conferences proceeding articles, book reviews, abstracts, editor prefaces, internet columns, and conference reports were not included in the study because of their limited, if any, contributions to existing knowledge (Jang & Park, 2011).

The initial search contributed to 75 articles, but after reading all the articles twice, the last search ended up with 15 relevant articles used in the analysis. Published articles in the area of street vending businesses in Tanzania, irrespective of their year of publication, were included in the study. After getting the final list of articles, analyses were done using content analysis. The content analysis tool was selected because it is a flexible method for analyzing text data (Cavanagh, 1997). The method was used for replicable and valid inferences from the collected data to provide knowledge, new insights, and representation of facts, and a practical guide to action (Krippendorff, 1980). This method has been used extensively in different fields of study, and its use has been extensively increased (Neundorf, 2002).

Before the analysis, published articles were divided into five main streams: challenges facing street vendors, skills and technology, social-cultural issues, law, regulations & policies, and urbanization. The five streams developed research themes for the study. To ensure the accuracy and objectivity of the study, two researchers independently reviewed all 15 articles and assigned them to the five research themes. Seven articles addressed challenges affecting street vendors, 5 addressed issues related to laws, regulations & policies concerning street vendors. Two studies concentrated on social-cultural matters concerning street vending business. Three of them addressed issues related to skills & technology related to the street vending business.

In contrast, 2 of the articles linked issues of urbanization with street vending business. Studies discussed street vending business might highlight more than one theme, then that study was assigned into two themes. The findings of the classification from two researchers were then cross-compared to ensure consistency. Cross-comparison was done to avoid personal judgment and biasness. Finally, 15 articles were analyzed manually since they were few. Appendix 1 highlights the details of all the published articles in all of the five themes. In the subsequent section, the literature review is presented.

4.0 Discussion of Findings and Implications of the Study
4.1 Challenges facing street vendors
Street vendors in Tanzania are hard workers, but their daily activities are more compared to those working in the formal sector. Their business is affected by a lack of start-up capital, collaterals, training, education, informality, and a lack of solid street vending associations. Furthermore, they are also affected by a lack of support from the government. Lack of support from the government is also another core issue of concern to street vendors in Tanzania. So far, the government has shown limited support in helping street vendors. This support from the government may be caused by the fact that it is difficult to predict the exact income-generating activity from this business (Mramba, 2015b). Thus, the street vendors are neglected. The government sees street vendors as traders who don't pay taxes, but if the proper mechanism is put in place, the government will get revenue from this business. The government can establish a minimum fee (tax) for vendors to be granted a business license. The collected revenue can be used to build markets, hire security, and hire cleaning services. This strategy was used in Cambodia to ensure that their street vendors were well-taken care of (Kusakabe, 2006). Additionally, since street vendors face challenges in accessing loans, the government can advise financial institutions to develop loan packages with reasonable interest to assist them. This will help street vendors to plan how to expand their businesses.

Informality is another key issue affecting street vending business in Tanzania. Thus, street vendors have been facing constant eviction from the municipal council to the point of losing their properties. If their businesses were formalized, street vendors would have been able to work comfortably in a friendly environment. However, Michal (2013) thought that formalization per se would not address all the challenges affecting them in other things, such as having a precise legal mechanism that will handle most of the issues. Having a legal mechanism implies that the formalization of street vending businesses will help them to be recognized by the authorities; once they are identified, they will be willing to air out their issues to the authorities if mistreated.

The limited number of street vendor associations fighting for the rights and protecting the traders' interests wasis another most significant challenge to vendors. Lack of official associations hindered street vendors from having a supporting system that meets their needs and desires. As a result, municipal councils have grabbed that opportunity and used the situation to their advantage. Constant evictions and harassment from the municipal police were a clear example of the extent to which they were abused. Other countries such as India and South Africa have strong street vending associations that help traders to look for markets for their products. Train them on storing their products, developing marketing strategies, offering business licenses, and ensuring security in their businesses (Chen, 2001; Ray, 2014).

4.2 Urbanization
As was pointed out in the literature; urbanization is a root cause of all the problems affecting street vendors in Tanzania. Researchers reported that street vending business is an urban activity (Haule & Chille, 2018). Thiswas why most youths migrate from rural areas to peri-urban. The decision to move to these cities depends on the existing business opportunities and the increase in the number of customers (Haule, 2019). Although urbanization has influenced business growth, it has negatively affected the agriculture sector (Haule & Chille, 2018). Youths were migrating to urban areas looking for a faster solution to improve their wellbeing. This finding implied that the government needed to make sure that there were equal development opportunities in all the regions, reducing youth, rural-urban migration (Haule, 2019). Still, it would also act as a motivating factor for youth to remain in their regions and participate in agriculture activities.

4.3 Law, Regulations, and policies
Unclear law, regulation, and policy were other critical areas affecting the street vending business in Tanzania. Uncoordinated laws and policies affected street vendors' welfare significantly (Nyirenda & Msoka, 2019). Having clear laws and policies helped the government to formalize procedures on how the business should be conducted. This will help government authorities to have unified by-law in each of the municipal council and the jurisdiction of each district had to be known so that street vendors could receive fair treatment. Furthermore, it was advised that street vendors should be involved in the preparations of laws governing entrepreneurs (Nyirenda & Msoka, 2019). Street vendors' involvement would help to adjust the existing policy to accommodate the changes thatwere compatible with the informal sector. A modified policy would acknowledge the contribution of this sector. Hence the government can establish proper ways of handling street vending business.

4.4 Skills and technology
Limited business skills was also another challenge to street vendors Mramba *et al.* (2015a; 2015b), Mramba *et al.* (2016), Munir and Casmir (2019), and Msuya (2019). Limited skills had forced them to use poor marketing strategies hence failing to attract more customers. Furthermore, street vendors were also failing to follow regulations and use modern technology because of a lack of skills. Therefore, the government needs to instruct the Ministry of Education Science and Technology vocational to introduce entrepreneurship courses at the primary level so as to get explicit knowledge regarding micro-businesses at a very young age. Also, kids at schools should be trained in ICT as one of the core courses because, with ICT, people would be able to design proper marketing strategies and sell products demanded by customers.

4.5 Socio-cultural issues
The literature has pointed out that the street vendors had used different strategies to boost their businesses and be "*mali kauli*." This creative strategy was helpful to them since it was difficult for them to access credits in the financial institutions. Therefore, through this system, street vendors were able to conduct business efficiently (Ogawa, 2006). Since there were many financial institutions and special development funds given to poor people to sustain their small businesses, street vendors could now enjoy this opportunity and continue doing their activities in a relaxed manner. The only thing they needed was to organize themselves in a small groups and submit their business plan in the appropriate channel for financial support. In the same line of research, Katrijn (2016) reported that street traders usually had their friends' back when they needed help in their businesses. Whenever they needed moral support, they always go back to their friends, which helped them go on with their daily activities. Therefore, the government needed to make sure that it developed proper mechanisms to support them. Trust and support from the local and municipal authorities were needed to show appreciation because the sector offers employment to a significant population among youth in Tanzania. The decision to provide entrepreneurship special ID cards was a step further towards supporting and appreciating the role played by the street vendors in Tanzania. The government needs to make sure that they included them in their development plans because they would keep doing their job legally by paying the appropriate tax as needed.

5.0 Conclusion and Limitations of the Study
The focus of the current study was based on reviewing and analyzing the academic articles on the street vending business in Tanzania. The study analysed 15 scholarly journals in the area of the street vending business. The study contributed to the existing literature distinctly. The contribution answered the research question "what had researchers done concerning street vending business in Tanzania?" and to what extent had the published articles focused on addressing the positive side of the street vending business? Practically, this study concluded that, to a minor extent, the published works had addressed the positive side of the street vending business. The study findings were shown in the results by Ogawa (2006), Mramba (2014), Mramba (2015a; 2015b), Mramba, *et al.,* (2016), and Katrijn (2016). Most of the existing empirical works had focused on addressing challenges affecting street vendors.

Overall, the study founded out that the local government authorities had negatively perceived street vendors. This was why street vendors were neglected and mistreated. Lack of a clear policy to guide them has become an issue that affects this form of business. The government needs to collaborate with street vendors through their associations to come up with a clear guideline to support this business. Since most of the youths in the country were engaging in this business, the government also needed to develop mechanisms to empower street vendors. One technique would be to train them in introductory entrepreneurship courses as this would help them conduct their business wisely.

Several limitations were encountered by researchers in the course of conducting this study. First, this was a desk review whereby academic journals published in the area of street vending business in Tanzania were collected and analyzed and ignored those conducted outside Tanzania.

Also, the analysis of the existing literature was done based on published academic journals and excluded information from conferences proceeding articles, book reviews, abstracts, editor prefaces, internet columns, and conference reports. Future studies should have included them in the analysis for more insights into the subject. Street vendors all over the world were almost suffering from similar issues. Therefore, it would have been better for future researchers to do a comparative study to see the extent of the similarity.

Additionally, the analysis in this studywas based on articles from Google scholar. Other studies should focus on different search engines such as EBSCOHOST, Emerald Insight, and science direct. Also, content analysis was used to analyze the generated articles; therefore, future studies can opt for quantitative methods to explore the generated articles.

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Appendix 1 Summary of the Reviewed Empirical Literatures on Street Vending Business Studies in Tanzania

Theme	Aim/objective	The focus of the study	Main findings	Author(s)
Challenges affecting street vending business	Factors hindering effective enforcement of food vending regulations in Dodoma Municipality	Food vending business in Dodoma Municipality	Lack of compliance with food vendor regulations. Factors hindering the enforcement of food vendors regulations including; shortage of food storage facilities, lack of knowledge on food vending regulations, attitudes of customers, and shortage of funds and informality of food vendors.	Godrich, Juma, & Mfinanga (2018)
	Street vendors skills and strategies to improve their operations	Street vendors in Dar es salaam	Street vendors operate in a challenging environment. They lack business skills	Mramba *et al*. (2015b)
	How did reallocation has affected the welfare of street vendors	Street vendors at Ubungo Municipality	Contradicting orders from the municipal mayor and the district commissioner regarding reallocation. The situation led to chaos and a lot of disturbance to the vendors. Lack of comprehensive written national policy to manage the activities of informal traders in Tanzania is seen to be a significant problem calling for coordinated policies at the municipal level.	Nyirenda and Msoka (2019)
	The problem of capital inadequacy among street vendors	Street vendors in Morogoro Municipality	Street vendors are affected by their lack of knowledge about financial institutions, financing procedures, business skills and training, limited access to credit institutions, and knowledge in using them.	Munishi and Casmir (2019)

Theme	Aim/objective	The focus of the study	Main findings	Author(s)
			Vendors also lacked support from the national and international levels necessary for coping with inadequate capital. They are unaware of or unwilling to consult financial institutions due to fear of bureaucratic procedures involved in acquiring capital.	
	Limitations and types of work undertaken by street traders	Street traders in Dar es salaam	Street vendors are restrained by unreliable business information, weak business strategies, limited access to capital, lack of education, and inadequate support from the authorities.	Mramba *et al*. (2016)
	To investigate strategies of skills development to micro-businesses.	Street vendors in Tanzania	Ignorance, perceived cost, lack of resources, and lack of business skills, and lack of training, are the main issues affecting the development of micro-businesses.	Msuya (2019)
Law, Regulations & Policies	How normatively and politically charged concept of the informal economy continues to steer policies towards urban street trade.	Street vendors in Tanzania	MKURABITA reform agenda presents informal street trade as a business that is not compatible with a modern economy and legal system Laws and by-laws fail to recognize the contribution of street trading as an income-generating activity.	Steiler (2018)
	How the	Street vendors in	The 'the doing business	Lyons,

Theme	Aim/objective	The focus of the study	Main findings	Author(s)
	'Doing Business' reforms have impacted the micro-enterprises of the poor.	Arusha, Mbeya, Morogoro, Mwanza and Dar es salaam	reforms" indicate an impact on the performance of micro-enterprises, specifically on street vendors in Tanzania.	Brown, & Msoka (2014)
	The study proposed regulations to guide street vending business operations.	Street vendors in Tanzania	Tanzanian government should develop supportive policies, laws, regulations that address the street vending business.	Mramba (2015a)
	How did the reallocation has affected the welfare of street vendors	Street vendors at Ubungo Municipality	Uncoordinated policies at the municipal level adversely affect welfare. Clear directives and policy guidelines are required to avoid confusion among street vendors in different municipalities.	Nyirenda and Msoka (2019)
	Investigates the potential of proposed legal empowerment reforms to overcome barriers to micro-business formalization.	Street vendors in Tanzania	Formalization is not the only thing that is needed to solve street vending challenges. The governments should increase the security of the poor by making sure that regulations are fit for purpose and accessible to small-scale operators.	Michal (2013)
Social-Cultural issues	The role of social networks on the street vending business via credit transaction called mali kauli.	Second-hand clothes street vendors in Mwanza city	Mali kauli makes it possible for street vendors to acquire goods on credit from the middleman.	Ogawa (2006)
	Examines the roles of friendship in the lives of young street traders	Street vendors in Tanzania	Friends do offer practical and moral support also offer a sense of business direction.	Katrijn (2016)
	Assessment of street vendor's business	Street vendors in Dar es salaam	Low levels of business skills limit them from opting for mobile phone technology.	Mramba *et al.* (2015b)

Theme	Aim/objective	The focus of the study	Main findings	Author(s)
Skills & Technology	activities, skills, and strategies to improve street vendor's business prospects			
	Mobile phone usage patterns among street vendors	Street vendors in Dar es salaam	98% of street vendors use mobile phones to communicate with their family & friends, and very few are using them for business.	Mramba (2014)
	Explore the marketing communication strategies used by street vendors	Street vendors in Dar es salaam	Marketing strategies used by street vendors are weak and relatively similar. The selection of marketing strategies depends on costs and business skills.	Mramba (2015b)
	What technology innovation possibilities are needed to improve the street vending business	Street traders in Dar es salaam	Technology innovations such as customer-client matchmaking and record-keeping are needed to eliminate the challenges affecting street vendors. Mobile phones can be used to assist street vendors in their daily activities.	Mramba et al. (2016)
	To investigate skills relevant to informal micro-businesses	Street vendors in Tanzania	Micro-businesses should be given e-learning, public-funded, or low-cost skills development schemes, usage of psychological contracts, contextualizing the skills development programs.	Msuya (2019)
	Identify the existing patterns of population mobility and, based on the characteristics of the migrants who are street vendors to uncover the	Street vendors in Dar es salaam and the coastal regions	The mobility of street vendors was positively influenced by the presence of business opportunities enhanced by urban growth. Most of the street vendors are migrating to urban areas and work in Dar es salaam.	Haule (2019)

Theme	Aim/objective	The focus of the study	Main findings	Author(s)
Urbanization	existing relationships between human population mobility and the pace of urbanization.			
	Changing nature and character of street vending with spatial variation within the urban and peri-urban settings.	Street vendors at Kimara bus stop, kimara Temboni, MbeziMwisho, Kibamba, Kiluvya, Dar es salaam, Kibaha, Kwa Mathias, Korogwe, Visiga and Mlandizi.	There is a negative relationship between urbanization and the types of goods sold by street vendors. Street vending is principally an urban activity that limits young men and women from farming.	Haule and Chille (2018)

Source: Literature Review, (2020)

Consumer Attitudes towards On-line Banking in Ghana

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Abstract: *Technological advancement has been revolutionizing the way companies conduct business in various industries around the world, particularly banking. The use of mobile phones and the internet has increased the trend towards online banking in both developed and developing countries. The adoption of online banking by consumers in developing countries, though, has been slower than in developed countries. Beginning with a review of the literature on the development and implementation of online banking in general and in developing countries in specific, this paper analyzed Ghana's efforts to speed up the adoption and usage of online banking services in its banks and by its citizens. The findings revealed that security concerns and the challenges of carrying out individual transactions were problematic to the average customer. Customers reported that slow transaction times, internet accessibility, and even online banking operation difficulties were frustrating. The research findings were of significance to developers on online banking services with respect to planning and implementing online banking portals. The results also were beneficial for both practitioners and academics to give them a sense of the depth, direction, and acceptance of online banking in this developing country.*

Key Words: Online banking technology, Ghana, Consumer attitudes, Online banking adoption

1.0 Introduction

Since the mid-1990, there has been a trend in the banking industry to use self-service channels such as online banking and mobile banking (Patel & Patel, 2018; Pikkarainen et al., 2004). Electronic banking channels are playing an increasingly important role in the banking sector. Online banking is a secured website system that creates an opportunity for customers to access their bank accounts, conduct financial transactions, leverage other financial services and other general banking services and products (Oertzen & Odekerken, 2019). Online banking can be accessed via a personal computer or any other electronic communication mechanism (Biney, 2011). According to Essinger (1999), online banking provides clients access to their bank

accounts through a website and allows them to make assessments of their financial reports while observing strict security measures. The banking Industry all over the world is progressively using online banking as an established approach for combining traditional banking and internet technology.

Many developed nations like Australia United States, , Estonia and other countries in Western Europe are successfully offering online banking to their customers(Sathye, 1999), (Kolodinsky et al., (2004); Eriksson et al., (2005); Pikkarainen et al., (2004); and Gurau, (2002). Having seen the major success and convenience among customers in developed countries, there are major signs of an increasing movement towards online banking acceptance by developing countries. E-banking or the more popular name online banking services make it convenient for customers to access their accounts twenty four hours a day and seven days a weeek, print statements, pay bills, or even transfer funds. Because it reduces costs and affords the financial institution access to prompt and accurate customer data it allows bank management to invest valuable resources such as; time and money in developing online banking features (Gerrard & Cunningham,2003). Expanded competition in the banking sector and customers continued requests for online services has motivated banks to furnish their amenities online (Southard & Siau,2004). The pace of technological development has demanded that banks modify their banking services delivery systems significantly. Consequently, by the end of 2003, over 50% of the commercial banks in the U.S. and Europe offered online banking services to their customers (Hernández-Murillo, et al., 2010).

Research agendas for the African region regarding online banking has been scarce (Cite to support this assertion!). Studies on the adoption and implementation of internet banking (IB) in many African countries are infrequent and thus a major gap in understanding the online banking phenomena is deficient. Many African countries have no research articles on IB and Africa continues to be the highly under-researched continent in the area of information and communication technology and information systems (Mbarika & Okoli, 2005). Therefore, there is a need to close the gap in this research area. The study investigated the inclination of customers to accept online banking as an alternative means of banking in a developing country. The essential reason for this research was to explore the proliferation and implementation of

online banking in the sub-Saharan region of Ghana. The findings of this investigation would provide insight into the dissemination and adoption of online research on the African continent. The main purpose of this study was to understand what drives customers adoption of the online channel within the banking context. As such, the research questions presented in this study asked: a. what were the demographic and socio-economic differences between online banking adaptors and non-users? b. what were the bank services preferred for online banking versus traditional baking? c. what were the differences between online banking adaptors and non-users in terms of bank selection criteria? d. what were the reasons behind the slow pace of implementation in Ghana?

To accomplish this goal, the authors conducted a comprehensive review of the literature along with a quantitative analysis of data collected in Ghana. This paper extended different literature streams and adds a different perspective relating to developing countries to the literature that already exists. The findings will be useful for both practitioners and academics to give them a sense of the depth, direction, and acceptance of online banking in the developing country. This study would also furnish a theoretical and conceptual framework for future research studies in this growing field of study (Humphrey, 2014).

2.0 Literature Review

Research concerning online banking has been carried out in many developed and developing countries. Among the most prominent are: Australia (Herington & Weaven , 2007; Taiwan (Chen, 1999), the UK (Boyes & Stone, 2003; Jayawardhena & Foley, 2000), South Africa (Tsitsi, et al., 2016) Malaysia (Mohan et al., 2013), Poland (Szopinski, 2016), India (Banu et al., 2019), Turkey (Polatoglu & Ekin, 2001), Italy (Hasan, Maccario, & Zazzara, 2009), Finland (Karjaluoto, Mattila, & Pento, 2002), Singapore (Liao & Cheung, 2002), Pakistan (Raza &Nida, 2013), Thailand (Prompattanapakdee, 2009), Palestine (Salem, et al., 2019), Malacca (Ling, Lim, Tan, & Huat, 2016), China (Mao et al., 2020) and Korea (Suh & Han, 2002). These research studies have provided extensive insight connected with the physical structure and the consumer psychology associated with consumers acceptance of online banking.

In the present-day business environment, the service industry is joining the modern global economy by automating their transactions through the use of cutting-edge technological applications (Abualsauod & Othman, 2019). The spread of technology has created a faster, more complex business environment that almost all enterprises must navigate. The financial sector's infrastructure is no different. It is very suitable for a variety of technological adaptations. One of the most popular modifications the banking industry has made is that of instituting online banking to their service delivery system (Flavian, et.al., 2006). Internet banking or e-banking is one of the technological applications that has caused a major transformation in the banking industry (Abualsauod & Othman, 2019). This electronic approach to transaction processing and service delivery for its customers has had a substantial influence on how financial institutions connect with customers (Flavian, et.al., 2006). The level of independence approved for customers and how they join the e-banking process are the essential inputs to perceived service quality (Akkucuk & Teuman, 2016). The resultant transformation in e-service provides both banks and customers some major benefits. These benefits include personalized services, transaction security, speed of processing transactions and overall better service quality (Abualsauod & Othman, 2019). Since banks are major players in developing a country's economy, expanded use of electronic banking services has a positive influence on the economy. It leads to lower prices of services that are not available with traditional distribution channels (Szopinski, 2016). Banks can reach larger geographic locations which will significantly lower their operating costs. These costs including handling fees, transaction costs, manpower and overhead expenses will be automated and more efficiently administered with online electronic banking (Salem, et al, 2019).

2.1 Competition

Another major reason for banks adopting electronic banking is competition. In the financial sector, competition has driven most opponents to acknowledge the importance of being capable of going head-to-head with similar electronic products. In this environment of increased competition and intensifying, volatile customer demands, online banking will continue to be important to customers primarily because it offers twenty four hours a day and seven days a week access, easy transactions and avoidance of lines at the physical bank (Oertzen & Odekerken, 2019). The financial sector markets are changing rapidly.

Essentially, banks have no choice but to offer online banking (Ong, et. al. 2017). In order to enter new markets and hold on to customers who are using information and communications technology, banks have to provide services through Internet that are over and above what is accessible through brick-and-mortar channel of service distribution (Huang, 2017). The international economy and the competitive markets have driven banks to make great changes in their operations (Danyali, 2018). Traditional banking services and transactions in the online banking environment are substantially similar but operationally very different (Flavian, et.al, 2006). Getting consumers to use the transition can be a major learning and educational process. While online banking can furnish consumers with a multitude of information-related benefits such as easy access, control over bank accounts at any time or any place, it also can be scary for those who are not familiar with online banking. Jansen and Leukfeldt (2016) explored factors that may explain online banking fraud victimization. Several respondents reported having insufficient knowledge and skills regarding the safety and security of online banking and finding it difficult to assess to what extent protective measures help them to safeguard against fraudulent attacks. Jansen and van Schaik (2018) concluded that online bank customers should have confidence in the efficacy of precautionary measures and in their own ability to actually perform a measure. These are the two most important factors leading to precautionary online behavioral intention. Moreover, both cognitive processes from Protection motivation theory (PMT) - threat and coping appraisal - are significant predictors of the intention to take precautionary measures. In sum, our study suggests that customer's precautionary online behavior, ensuring a safer online-banking experience, can be enhanced by acknowledging these dimensions in security education, training and awareness campaigns.

Customer satisfaction is a primary metric in the situation of online banking. Banks use different approaches to personalize products and services to meet customer needs (Skidar, et.al, 2015). Because the information can be personalized, it can help customers make better investment and finance decisions (Loureiro, et al, 2014). The impact of e-banking on a customer's behavior is of importance but little is known about online banking user's satisfaction services especially in developing countries (Flavian, 2006). More than ever, in the banking industry, the consumers' loyalty is vital while measuring customers' online satisfaction proved that it is extra challenging

to keep consumers motivated and satisfied while doing transactions online. Hence, customer satisfaction in online banking turn out to be more complicated and essential to retain loyal online customers. (Ahmed, et al, 2020). One of the major issues relating to the inclusion of online banking into a bank's service delivery system is the customers willingness to adopt this different approach to their banking activities. Cultural differences in technology acceptance can also have an impact on whether customer's adopt online banking or not.

Researchers have discovered that the Hofstede concepts of individualism and collectivism are cultural variables that can determine intentions and usage for online banking (Khan, et al, 2017). Some cultures have immersed its populations into living by very traditional ways of life that are difficult to change. Other cultures are much more open and want to follow the cutting-edge ideas and participate in a modern world of technology. People who believe in individualistic attributes will be more independent in their decision making and probably more amenable to participating in contemporary online banking. Others who live by collectivist ideas, may continue to adhere to the traditional banking approaches because their culture has promoted the notion of tradition as the best way to do business in the contemporary world of the 21st century. Tradition provides safety and comfort, no risk involved. As such people in this category would want to retain traditional banking methods rather than online banking (Khan, et al., 2017).

2.1 Conceptual Framework: Online Banking Adoption, Acceptance and Hypothesis

Continual technological change has created threats to established business models yet simultaneously offering opportunities for innovative service offerings, With the advanced and dynamic growth of technologies the speed at which consumers are accepting these technologies depends on a number of factors such as availability of technology, convenience, consumers' need, security etc. (Lai, 2017). To motivate people to accept online banking and participate in the services it offers, it may be necessary to simultaneously add entertainment or extra conveniences such as digital wallet, real time interaction like video banking, ATMs integrated with smart phones and website customization for very easy use. Also, biometric services, and digital currency can contribute to an increasing adoption of line banking (Dauda & Lee, 2015). One of the most popular conceptual framework for understanding the relationships involved with customers adopting online banking is the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). This model is

purposefully fashioned for modelling user's acceptance of information system or technologies. Waite and Harrison (2015) reviewed the theoretical development of knowledge in the area of online banking research and specifically to critically assess the contribution of TAM as a key model utilized in online banking research. The TAM model focuses on two major beliefs that are universal to the online consumer world namely the perceived usefulness of the information system (PU) and the perceived ease of use or (PEU). These two factors relate to how the customer's use of a banking information system will add value to their banking transactions. Likewise, the term perceived ease of use denotes how uncomplicated the system will be to operate or use (Lai, 2017). The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) proposes that the consumer's behavioral intention (i.e., adoption) will be influenced by his/her inclination to adopt or not adopt online banking. The usefulness and perceived ease of use are critical factors affecting the adoption of any online banking system. (Estrella & Perez, 2015). The model went through several iterations before it became an accepted model for explaining technology acceptance. Lai, 2017 created the TAM model with the security and design extensions which expanded the utility of the model. Figure 1 below depicts the content of the TAM model. The addition of two features, design and security, represent parts of the systems capabilities while the perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are the consumer behaviors that denote the motivation for accepting and using the online technology (Lai, 2017). The fundamental element for increasing consumer use is to initially increase consumer acceptance of the IT system. Identifying the factors that influence one's intentions will allow organizations to adjust IT use to satisfy customer's needs. Two major factors that contributed to whether consumers used the IT system relate to the PU or perceived usefulness and the (PEOU) or perceived ease of use. TAM is a theory that has evolved over time (Holden & Karsh, 2010).

Source: Stimulus Theoretical Framework –Lai, 2016
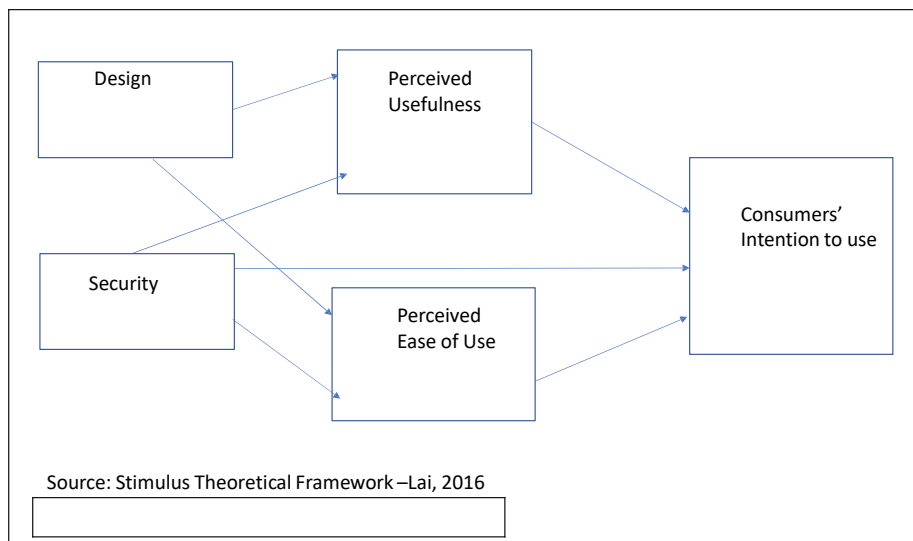
Figure 1: Theoretical Framework for Technological Acceptance Model

Figure 1 depicts the relationship among the critical elements of the TAM model of consumer online banking adoption. The two major factors that affect a consumer's acceptance of an online banking service delivery system relates to its usefulness with regards to their individual banking needs and the ease of using the online banking service delivery system. As previously mentioned, two major components design, and security are also critical to the consumer's accepting the online system. Consumers want a system that is easy to understand, easy to use. The design part of the TAM model focuses on this consumer desire. The security element is also an absolute necessity for any consumer of online banking. For home banking, Kiljan et.al (2016) examined 80 banks worldwide on how they authenticate their customers and how they implemented communications security as well as the implemented authentication methods for mobile banking at 66 banks. Seventy-five (75%) of the banks offer an authentication method that relies on multiple factors for home banking. The possible use of multiple factors was found in 59% of mobile applications and 25% of mobile sites. While this TAM model is simple in its architecture, the messaging and how it is marketed to consumers is critical to their acceptance and their adoption (Kiljan et.al,2016). To make it all work properly, trust is a critical component.

Trust

One of the important variables that is critical to successful online banking is trust. Some customers do not trust online banking services. Face to face has been their total experience and to do business online raises skepticism (Flavian, 2006). Yasin et al. (2020), investigated the role of online brand community engagement (OBCE) and the perceived trust of brand community page (BCP) as mediating variables between customer online brand experience (COBE) and the intention to forward online company generated content (CGC). The results support the positive influence of COBE on intention to forward CGC, mediated by brand community engagement BCE. This finding led to the conclusion that managers should focus continuously on customers' experiences with online banking brands aiming at creating unique online brand experiences.

Trust is an essential consideration associated with the establishment of long-term relationship between providers and their customers. Some have insinuated that customers who trust in tradition brick and mortar retailers will have a similar level of confidence in contemplating the purchase of products from the online channel (Estrella & Perez, 2015). When customers feel safe and secure in a company due to a long-term relationship, the supposed impediments to adoption of the online channel can be significantly diminished (Estrella & Perez, 2015). The notion of trust in Online banking can be understood using the idea of social exchange theory. This concept views interactions like that of an economic exchange. There are costs paid and rewards received. People partake in the exchange only if the results are useful to them. Since rewards cannot be certain in a social exchange, trust is essential. Trust becomes the determining factor for consumers in their relationship with the bank. Trust increases the perceived certainty concerning the other party's expected behavior and reduces the fear of being exploited. Trust in online banking is essential for diminishing uncertainty of financial transactions. Consumers will reference the trust they had with a physical bank and make judgements about the online banking based on their past physical bank trust. As such, trust in physical bank is clearly associated to their intentions to use online banking (Monteazemi & Hamed, 2015).

Increases in customer satisfaction are an important part of gaining customer trust (Abualsauod & Othman, 2019). A key ingredient into achieving customer trust in online banking is the establishment of solid information technology security system that the customer knows about and the bank has demonstrated repeatedly the security system's effectiveness (Makarevic, 2016).

For trust to be achieved in the online banking environment, the customer must be convinced that the transaction method is secure, and that information given to the websites are not being intercepted to a third party (Skidar & Munish, 2015). Trust is necessary where risk and uncertainty and interdependence exist. A customer-oriented quality strategy is imperative. Highly perceived quality leads to repeat business. Customer loyalty is an absolute necessity.

Service Quality

Service quality pertains to the entire support and services provided by the online service provider. Some of the major satisfiers are integrity, reliability, responsiveness, availability and functionality (Salem et al, 2019). It also refers to the differences that may occur between the bank's website and the customer's need for human interaction and responsiveness (Abualsauod & Othman, 2019). A customer-oriented quality strategy is critical to service firms as it drives customers' behavioral intentions. High perceived quality leading to repeat business and customer loyalty. Substandard service quality leads to negative word of mouth which may result in a loss of sales and profits for the service firm with customers migrating to competitors. These factors stress the importance of delivering high levels of service quality especially within an electronic environment (Loonam & Deidera, 2008).

Hypotheses

As with many activities in our society, gender plays a role in determining which gender participates in what event, which gender purchases which products and which gender is predominate in overall consumer decision making. Culturally, men are more prone than women in being persuaded to use technology. Gender is considered an important factor in consumer behavior. Men and women differ in their opinions and evaluation of online systems. Identifying such factors is important both for better ability to tailor technological products and marketing communications to gender and understanding the different motives underlying new technology adoptions. E-banking services are a major determinant regarding retention in men but not for women. Since the number of men who may use e-banking services is greater than the number of women, men want convenience in e-banking service (Mahmoud, 2019). Based on these ideas we can posit that:

H₁: There is a relationship between gender and online banking users/non-users.

Historically, there seems to be a major distinction between old and young regarding the use of technology. It seems to be common that younger people appear to adapt and affiliate with technology more rapidly and more adeptly than do older people. Younger individuals are more inclined to accept an innovation in information technology. Younger people are earlier adopters while older people are later adopters (Ameme, 2015). Users aged 65 and older are 43% slower at using websites than users 21-25 (Gatsou et al, 2017). The mid age people are more likely to use e-banking than younger or older consumers. Age does have a bearing on the perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use and intention to use wireless financial services acceptance (Shanab, 2015). Age 65 are late adaptors (Ameme,2015). As such we can hypothesize that:

H₂: There is a relationship between age and online banking users/non-users

When people have knowledge about modern technology and how it can benefit their daily lives, then they become more interested in its operation and applicability. Generally, people with more education have more insight into nuances of society and hence are more curious about how they can expand their knowledge more and more. Education plays an important role in adoption and use of e-banking (Shanab, 2015). The level of education increases the likelihood of using internet Banking. Customer professions correlates positively with mature customer use of Internet banking (Ameme, 2015). People with higher education are more comfortable and knowledgeable of computers – have good information and process skills which facilitate Internet uses (Shanab, 2015). People with higher education are earlier adopters while people with lower education are later adopters (Ameme, 2015). Sulaiman et al. (2007) found out that 2.9% of the people they surveyed who adopted mobile banking had a secondary education or below while 75% who had a master's degree adopted online banking. With this in mind we can hypothesis state that:

H3: There is a relationship between education level and online banking users/non-users

Historically, the poor sector of most economies shied away from participating in new technology arrangements especially when it related to banking. The issue of trust and tradition generally

occupied the concerns of poor people or those people with less monetary resources. According to Sulaiman et al.(2007) income level does have a major impact on adoption of online banking. The higher one's income the more inclination they have to participate in online banking. The lower the income level the inclination is to not participate. Hence, the richer participate the poorer do not participate in online banking. A person's income can have an impact on whether to adopt online banking or not. Hence, we can assert that:

H₄: There is a relationship between income level and online banking users/non-users

3.0 Online Banking in Developing Countries

One way of understanding online banking in developing countries is to examine the respective articles written about the subject among developing countries. Online Banking in developing countries has been carried out in Asia (90 articles, 47.9%). This is closely followed by the Middle East (42 articles, 22.3%), Africa (37 articles, 19.7%), Eastern Europe (17 articles, 9.0%), Caribbean (1 article, 0.5%) and South America (1 article, 0.5%) (Sabi, 2014). One exciting research topic is customer adoption and the use of online banking. Sathye (1999) is a pioneer in the study of online banking adoptions. His exploratory studies revealed that security concerns, an absence of mindfulness about internet banking, and absurd costs are the most significant purposes behind non-reception among Australian clients. The result of Sabi's review of internet banking literature indicates an advancement on internet banking (IB) adoption in developing countries, especially African countries contrasted to the results of the previous trend study conducted by Shao (2007) on IB in the world. The diffusion of IB in developing countries from the year 2000 to 2013 was consistent with the diffusion of technology curve. It shows a steady growth in the diffusion research peaking in 2012 (Sabi, 2014). Howcroft et al. (2002) found out that product features such as lower fees, family/friends' advice, round the clock access to services, acceptable service quality, and honest reporting in the popular media were factors to encourage the adoption of online banking. Liao and Cheung (2002) found out that other elements, for instance accuracy, user-friendliness, transaction speed, user experience, user involvement, and convenience, have a significant influence on the adoption of online banking. Hernández-Murillo et al. (2010) discovered that although bank-specific characteristics are important determinants of banks' adoption decisions, the competition also plays an important

role. Martins et al. (2014) introduced a conceptual model that merges a unified theory of acceptance of online banking and the application of technology. Their research explains that the transaction behavior of online banking customers demonstrates a significant desire to do their banking online. The response of the customer is an important variable to monitor in online banking.

Research in International banking statistics, for example, The Bank of International Settlements or European Central Bank) establishes that various payment routines are present in different countries. For instance, Japan is a cash-centric culture. While the Americans and French use of checks abundantly (Böhle et al., 2001). The popularity and acceptance of online banking are also significantly different from country to country. Online banking in the United States is more straightforward to conceptualize and implement because of a highly educated population. This characteristic alone can increase the chances of customer acceptance (Sullivan, 2000). Campbell and Frei (2020) found that customer adoption and use of online banking is associated with the following:

i. substitution primarily from incrementally more costly self-service delivery channels (ATM and Voice Response Unit (VRU);
ii. augmentation of service consumption in more costly assisted-service delivery channels (branch and call center);
iii. a substantial increase in total transaction volume;
iv. an increase in estimated average cost to serve resulting from the combination of points (l)-(3); and a reduction in short-term customer profitability.

Many research articles are focused towards studying online banking adoption in European countries. Sayar and Wolfe (2007) investigated online banking from a customer perspective and compare online banking adoption in the UK and Turkey. They examined the two countries concerning online banking services and find out that the most critical factors relateded to online banking adoption in these two countries were reliability and usability. Polasik and Wisniewsk's (2009) empirical study indicated that the link between the decision to open an online account and the perceived level of security of online transactions were foremost in the customers' minds.

They also found out that certain demographic variables are robust predictors of the adoption status. In recent years, online banking has also become popular in developing countries. In China, researchers have demonstrated that there was a significant relationship between trust and perceived risk. These two variables were crucial in explaining customer's internet banking usage intentions (Zhao et al., 2010). Raza and Nida (2013) discovered in Pakistan that the alleged usefulness, the information about online banking's perceived risk, security, and privacy have more influence on increasing consumer's intentions to adopt online banking services. Tsitsi Chikandiwa's et al. (2013) research indicated that perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and trust were essential variables for attitude towards online banking in South Africa.

The classification of online banking research by Sabi (2014) showed that internet and computer literacy (18.6%) were some of the crucial aspects that influenced user approval and acceptance of internet banking. Internet bank awareness (7.4%), infrastructure (9.6%) and accessibility to computers and internet (10.6%) were also seen to be imperative to adoption of internet banking since many customers in these developing countries nonexistence to a computer and the internet access (Sukkar & Hasan, 2005; George & Gireeshkumar, 2012; Ezeoha, 2005; Agwu, 2012). The classification also showed that many researchers used demographic factors (20.7%) such as; age, gender, education and income as well as social norms as study variables. The percentage and number of articles for different countries in Africa shown in Figure 2, focus on the research into internet banking adoption and implementation that has been carried out in Nigeria (12 articles) followed by Ghana, Mauritius and Tunisia (4 articles). According to the 2010 population and housing census (PHC), Ghana is a country of a little over twenty-four (24) million population. Ghana is segmented into ten Political regions with diverse cultures and traditions. Ghana is noted for its political stability and peace. Since its independence in 1957, Ghana's economy has not only been entirely sustained by agriculture, but the service industry plays a pivotal role in terms of economic stability and growth. The banking industry, as part of the service industry, also contributes significantly to the economy. For decades, the industry has rendered a variety of useful services not only to individuals but companies and firms as well. Globalization and technology advancement have initiated massive revolution in the banking sector all over the world, and Ghana is no exception. According to Ofori (2013), several financial institutions have

invested in technological infrastructure in order not to be left out in the new wave of change in the banking industry. The new phenomenon is the online banking technology, which has been embraced almost by every financial institution because more people in Ghana have access to the use of the internet.
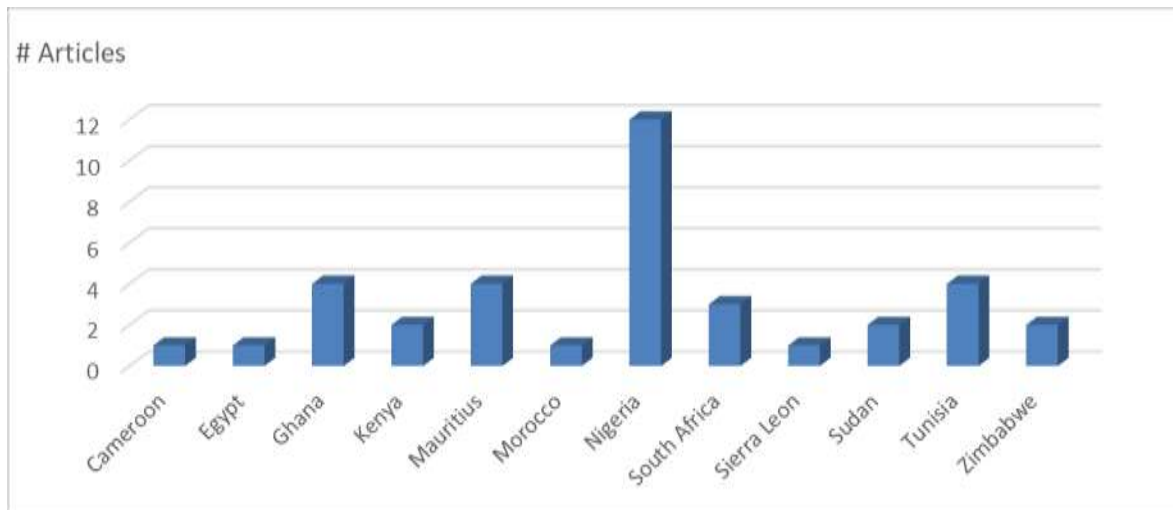
Figure 2: Article Classification for African Countries
  Source: Sabi, (2014).

Over the years, the banking industry, the world over, has evolved from rendering traditional and conventional services through electronic banking to internet (online) banking services to ensure productivity increase, competitiveness, improving managerial effectiveness and efficiency as well as customer service delivery. The benefits derived from the use of the internet in banking services cannot be overemphasized. In Ghana, growth in the use of online banking has been relatively slow and hence the need to investigate consumers' attitudes and acceptance toward this new technology.

4.0 Overview of Ghana Online Banking

According to Biney (2011), the Bank of Ghana's updated list of recognized and fully operational banks in Ghana had increased to twenty-eight (28) in number as of 2011. For several years, these financial institutions have rendered a variety of services to clients using the traditional means of long queues at the banking premises (Akufo-Twum, 2011). Catching up with the spirit of globalization, technology advancement, and the necessity to improve customer service delivery

to an internationally acceptable standard has called for a drastic change in the banking operations in Ghana. The move for upgrading to an electronic technology has been very fast in Ghana, with the focus on introducing an efficient modern delivery framework of improving customer services to a 24/7 access to banking (Akufo-Twum, 2011).

According to Biney (2011), 21 recognized banks out of 28 in Ghana as of 2011 were rendering internet banking services to their clients. The clientele services currently range from electronic bill presentation and payment, fund transfers between customer's accounts and another, checking of savings accounts, bank statement, loan application and transactions, real online balance and domestic wire transfer, SMS texting of purchase on accounts. The use of ATMs in effecting service delivery with the significant banks is widespread in Ghana. Ofori et al. (2013) indicate that the most significant transformation in the banking industry in Ghana was engineered by the introduction of the government of Ghana's policy development agenda captioned 'ICT for Accelerated Development (ICT4AD) policy in 2003. The aim was to establish an ICT-led socio-economic development in the country. Ghana was known to lead in ICT development and internet adoption in the West African sub-region as at 2003 (Zachary 2003; Adams & Lamptey 2009). To regulate money supply in the industry biometrically, the Government of Ghana introduced a project known as; E-zwich, the first of its kind, to purposely make Ghana a cashless society (Breckenridge, 2010). From the Bank of Ghana E-zwich report (2008), online banking was enhanced by an automated clearing house system that was brought during the introduction of Ghana's interbank payment systems, E-zwich cards.

As opined by (Woldie et al., 2008; Ofori & Dankwah, 2013; Domeher et al., 2014), the current position of banking development indicates that most banks in Ghana have switched on to the use of internet banking technology since it is flexible and convenient in terms of service delivery and management operations. However, the growth of this technology is relatively still at the infantile stage since the banks concerned only provide exclusive services to their corporate customers despite several awareness made (Quansah, et al., 2015). Most of the banks in Ghana link up with the telecommunication industries to offer banking services through the internet and mobile phones to ensure sustainable competitive advantage (Asante et al., 2011). At the moment, major telecommunication networks in Ghana such as MTN, TIGO, VODAFONE, and AIRTEL have

introduced mobile banking across the country as the fastest delivery service to augment and compete with the banks. This innovation has been welcomed with massive participation by the public. However, technology is only limited to cash transfer and withdrawals via the same mobile network. Transfer and withdrawal of cash across all other mobile networks are yet to be introduced. According to Ofori and Dankwah, (2013), the result of their research on the adoption of internet banking in Ghana showed that much as there are benefits to the acceptance of online banking technology, challenges and barriers are enormous and numerous as well. This was further supported by (Agboyi & Ackah, 2014) in their survey on the adoption of electronic banking in the Ghana banking system. It must be noted that the use of online banking in Ghana is not widely spread to many banks across the country hence its relatively slow growth. This process could be likely due to clientele attitude and acceptance toward online banking. The motivation of this study was to investigate consumers' attitudes toward online banking in Ghana and to ascertain reasons for the relatively slow growth of online banking marketing in Ghana.

Currently, major telecommunication networks in Ghana, such as MTN, TIGO, VODAFONE, and AIRTEL have launched mobile banking across the country as the fastest delivery service to ensure assistance and competitiveness among banks. This new technology has been accepted and massively accepted by Ghanaians. However, technology is only limited to cash transfer and withdrawals via the same mobile network. Transfer and withdrawal of cash across all other mobile networks are yet to be witnessed. Despite the efforts made to improve the state of online banking, the growth has still been at the infantile stage (Atsede, 2008), considering the awareness created (Quansah et all., 2015). Therefore, this study investigates the level of clientele attitude and acceptance toward online banking and its challenges in Ghana.

5.0 Methodology

The research aimed at accessing the Ghanaians practices to the use of online banking in their daily life. The quantitative approach employed to measure such human behavior. This research used primary data, collected from the staff (teaching and non-teaching) of three (3) second cycle institutions, workers from twenty small and medium scale businesses, and students in a tertiary institution all in the Kumasi metropolis. The questionnaire items borrowed from Kaynak and Harcar (2005). The questionnaire consisted of five groups of questions: screening questions used

to categorize the respondents into five categories: on-line banking users/nonusers, frequency of bank visits, time period with the bank account, number of different bank account and overall internet usage. Questions were asked that related to the criteria of choosing a bank among online bank users and nonusers. The items developed for the examination of the research propositions measured the subjects' given importance of different factors when choosing a commercial bank online adaptor versus non-users such as "location being near home or work, fast and efficient service, external appearance, interior comfort, counter partition, online service, bank reputation and its image, friendliness of bank personnel, availability of credit with favorable terms, lower service charges on checking account, lower interest charges on loans, higher interest payments on saving accounts, confidentiality of bank, confidence in bank manager, financial counseling and advisory services, overdraft privileges on checking accounts, hours of operation, knowledgeable staff, courtesy of personnel, promptness in correcting errors, accurate billing, convenience and availability of ATM machines, convenience of bank branches, bank fees and charges, night depository" A six-point Likert scale ranging from "very important" to "not at all important" was used to measure bank customers' given importance for different factors. Bank customers' practice related to on-line banking was measured using a dichotomous scale: "Do you use on-line banking for your banking transaction?" Other items focused on a preference between on-line and traditional banking of the various banking services for those who use on-line banking. The respondents are required to allocate 10 points between on-line and conventional methods on different bank services. Additionally, there were questions related to reasons for not adopting online banking only for those who do not use online banking. Finally, issues relating to the demographic characteristics of online banking users and non-users were presented in the survey.

5.1 Sampling Procedure and Sample Composition

The sample concerns with the observation of a small proportion of a population in order to make generalization, representing the facts and views of the entire population. In this research, the focus was set on the staff (teaching and non-teaching) of three (3) second cycle institutions, twenty Small and medium scale businesses, and students in a tertiary institution all in the Kumasi metropolis.

The random sampling method was used to administer the questionnaire. The researcher found this more convenient because of the proximity to the location of the selected institutions and businesses. It also saved much time and reduced the cost of transportation that could arise from questionnaire administration. A total of 350 questionnaire items were administered to the selected institutions and businesses. The researchers agreed that with such a number of the sample size, they could conveniently obtain the needed information. It must be emphasized that out of the total sample of 350 from the selected institutions and businesses in the Kumasi metropolis 306 (87.4%) respondents participated in the research, while 44 (12.57) did not. With the 306 workable samples, 198 (64.7%) were professionals (teaching and non-teaching) of the selected second cycle institutions and others. The remaining 108 respondents consisted of 73 (23.85%) respondents from the small businesses and 35 (11.43%) students from selected tertiary institutions.

The data set consisted of 107 online bank service users (35.1%) and 198 non-users (64.9 %). The demographic and socio-economic profile of the respondents is presented in Table 1.

5.2 Data Collection Procedure

After administering the questionnaire, the researchers waited for a maximum of two weeks for the respondents to complete the survey. After the two weeks, the researchers collected the completed questionnaire. The completed questionnaires were collected personally by the researcher for analysis.

6.0 Results and Discussions of Findings

To assess the statistical significance of the differences in demographics and on-line bank usage, cross tabulation, and a Chi-square test of association was performed. A close examination of the profile depicted that there were statistically significant differences in demographic characteristics of on-line bank users and non-users in Ghana. Online bank users were mostly male; high income earners consisted of a younger age group, held more professional and administrative, technical related type of jobs, and homemakers.

The sample consisted of about 49.5 male and 50.5 female bank customers. Female online bank service users were only 26.5 % of the total female sample, while 43.5 % of male respondents were on-line banking users. The ratios for non-users related to gender were 56.1% female versus 43.9 % of males. About 50.9 % of 36-45 years age group were on-line banking users, on-line bank users account 40.7 % of the 46-55 year group, under 25 years old group had the lowest ration (30.2%) for on-line banking practices while over 55 years old group had no usage of online banking. Online bank users comprised of 34.6% university graduates, while the ratios were 21.5% for vocational schools, 36.4% for high schools, 10.7 for secondary school, and %17.8 for primary schools. Concerning occupation, 59.4 % of the student population were using on-line banking. All other occupations distributed between on-line bank users and non-users can be found in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Sample

	Online Bank Nonuser (n=198, 64.9%)	Online Bank User (n=107, 35.1%)	Percentage	Chi-Square
Gender				9.69***
Male	56.5 %	43.5 %	49.5 %	
Female	73.5 %	26.5 %	50.5 %	
Age				12.01***
Under 25	69.8 %	30.2 %	28.2 %	
26-35	67.4 %	32.6 %	42.3 %	
36-45	49.1 %	50.9 %	18.0 %	
46-55	59.3 %	40.7 %	8.9 %	
Over 55	100.0 %	0.0 %	2.6 %	
Education				91.23***
Primary School	82.2 %	17.8 %	14.8 %	
Secondary School	89.3 %	10.7 %	33.8 %	
High School	63.6 %	36.4 %	25.2 %	
Vocational School	34.3 %	65.7 %	11.5 %	
University	17.8 %	82.9 %	14.8 %	
Occupation				22.07***
Professional	60.0 %	40.0 %	22.3 %	
Administrative	58.5 %	41.5 %	17.4 %	
Trade Man - Sales Man	68.4 %	31.6 %	12.5 %	
Housewife	71.4 %	28.6 %	6.9 %	
Technical	76.9 %	23.1 %	12.8 %	
Craftsman	92.3 %	7.7 %	10.2 %	
Student	40.6 %	59.4 %	10.5 %	
Unemployed	72.7 %	27.3 %	3.6 %	
Income				39.12***
Low	79.8 %	20.2 %	35.7 %	
Medium	66.0 %	44.0 %	48.2 %	
High	28.6 %	71.4 %	16.1 %	

*** Significant relationship for 0.01 significance level

One of the major aims of this study was to explore Ghanaian consumers' adoption of online banking practices. And further, the study focused on the main demographic factors that impact online banking adoption decision among Ghanaian consumers. To complete this objective, the

authors completed a comprehensive review of the literature, established hypotheses to guide the analyses and performed various statistical data dissections in order to examine the decision behavior of the consumers. The results of the hypotheses analyses is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Hypotheses Analyses

H_1 There is a relationship between gender and online banking users/non-users	Supported
H_2: There is a relationship between age and online banking users/non-users	Supported
H_3: There is a relationship between education level and online banking users/non-users	Supported
H_4: There is a relationship between income level and online banking users/non-users	Supported

The results shown in Table 2 was for the hypotheses that was related to demographic characteristics of customers' who supported for age, gender, education and income, but rejected for marital status and occupation. This means that all of these demographic variables such as; age, gender, income and education do have an impact on the Ghanaian consumers' decision to adopt online banking services. The Chi-Square technique allowed testing of the significant differences between the socio-demographic characteristics and interest level of the event. Comparison of the different level of interest showed that generally, sample characteristics was fairly uniform in terms of marital status and occupation as confirmed by the values obtained in the Chi-Square analysis (X^2=13.163, p=.106) for marital status and   (X^2=33.396, p=.096) for occupation. A significant relationship was between respondents' gender and interest level. Not very surprisingly male respondents were found with higher interest to the event than females. As well as demographic and socio-economic characteristics of respondents, information related to the frequency of visit to the bank branch, the period of maintaining the account, and time spent on the internet were also investigated. There were statistically significant differences between on-line bank users and non-users on the frequency of visits to the bank, period of bank account, the   number   of   banks   used,   and   internet   usage   (see   Table   3).

Table 3: Banking Characteristics and Internet Usage of the Sample of Respondents

	Online Bank Non-Users (n=198, 64.9%)	Online Bank Users (n=107, 35.1%)	Percentage	Chi-Square
Frequency of Visits to Bank Branch				13.55[*]
Daily	54.2 %	45.8 %	7.9 %	
2/3 Times a week	63.6 %	36.4 %	7.2 %	
Once a week	67.8 %	32.2 %	47.9 %	
Once every two weeks	51.8 %	48.2 %	18.4 %	
Once a month	21.1 %	78.9 %	18.7 %	
Period of Bank Account				11.48[*]
Less Than two years	66.7 %	33.3 %	18.7 %	
Two up to 5 Years	73.7 %	26.3 %	44.9 %	
Five and more years	53.2 %	46.8 %	36.4 %	
Number of Banks Used				44.4[*]
1	77.6%	22.4%	63.0 %	
2	48.5%	51.5%	31.8 %	
Three and more	12.5%	87.5%	5.2 %	
Internet Usage				30.1[*]
Light Users less than 5 hours a week	77.9%	21.1%	40.0 %	
Medium Users 6-15 hours a week	65.9%	34.1%	40.3 %	
Heavy Users more than 15 hours a week	36.7%	63.3%	19.7 %	

* Significant relationship for 0.01 significance level

6.1 Commercial Bank Selection Criteria for On-line Banking Users versus Non-users

The t-test was used to test for the statistical significance of differences between on-line bank users and non-users. A mean score for the importance of each selection criteria for each group was calculated. The results of this analysis is as seen in Table 4. Online bank customers for all the requirements except counter partition, night depository, and on-line bank service attached less importance for selecting a commercial bank. External appearance, confidence in bank manager, overdraft privileges on checking accounts, and knowledgeable staff have almost the same significance for both groups. There were statistically significant differences in the selection criteria of an on-line bank customer and traditional bank customers. Non-users attached more importance to fast service, bank reputation and image, promptness in correcting errors, and accurate billing in selecting a commercial bank. All of the other factors were not significant for both groups.
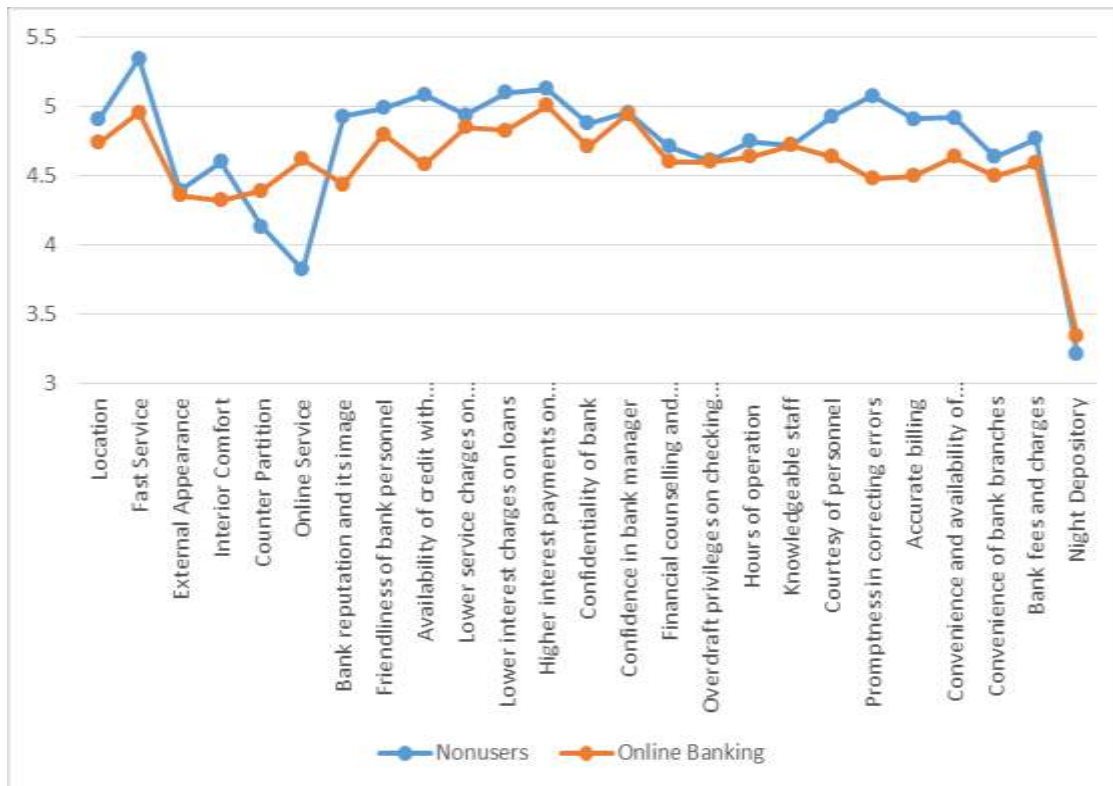
Figure 3: A comparative Profile of the Importance Given Selecting a Commercial Bank for Online Bank Customers and Traditional Bank Customers.

Table 4: Commercial Bank Selection Criteria Online Banking Users versus Non-Users

	Nonusers Mean	Online Banking Users Mean	t-test	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Fast Service	5.35	4.96	2.498	0.013	0.41	0.16
Higher interest payments on savings accounts	5.13	5.01	0.803	0.423	0.12	0.15
Lower interest charges on loans	5.10	4.83	1.665	0.097	0.26	0.16
Availability of credit with favourable terms	5.09	4.58	3.109	0.001	0.51	0.16
Promptness in correcting errors	5.08	4.48	3.64	0	0.6	0.16
Friendliness of bank personnel	4.99	4.8	1.178	0.24	0.19	0.15
Confidence in the bank manager	4.96	4.95	0.082	0.935	0.11	0.14
Lower service charges on checking account	4.94	4.85	0.519	0.604	0.89	0.16
Courtesy of personnel	4.93	4.64	1.771	0.078	0.29	0.16
Bank reputation and its image	4.93	4.44	2.596	0.01	0.49	0.18
Convenience and availability of ATMs	4.92	4.64	1.714	0.088	0.28	0.16
Location	4.91	4.74	1.079	0.316	0.17	0.17
Accurate billing	4.91	4.5	2.17	0.031	0.41	0.19
Confidentiality of bank	4.88	4.71	1.681	0.094	0.22	0.13
Bank fees and charges	4.77	4.59	1.143	0.254	0.18	0.16
Hours of operation	4.75	4.64	0.745	0.457	0.11	0.15
Knowledgeable staff	4.72	4.72	-0.017	0.987	0	0.14
Financial counselling and advisory services	4.71	4.6	0.702	0.483	0.14	0.16
The convenience of bank branches	4.64	4.5	0.72	0.472	0.14	0.19
Overdraft privileges on checking accounts	4.61	4.6	0.05	0.96	0.01	0.17
Interior Comfort	4.6	4.32	1.529	0.128	0.28	0.18
External Appearance	4.39	4.36	0.207	0.836	0.03	0.15
Counter Partition	4.13	4.39	-1.706	0.089	-0.03	0.15
Online Service	3.82	4.62	-3.85	0	-0.79	0.2
Night Depository	3.21	3.34	-0.707	0.48	-0.13	0.18

6.2 Type of Bank Service and Banking Methods (Traditional Banking vs. Online Banking)

Table 4 and Figure 4 present the preference of bank customers for different bank services by traditional and online banking methods. These results were based on only on-line banking users; non-users were excluded from the analysis since it is assumed that they prefer traditional banking for each service. The allocations can be followed in Figure 2. The results showed that many on-line banking users still prefer traditional banking methods for several banking services. According to the results in Table 4, applying for a personal loan, handling CDs, investing in stocks, purchasing insurance, saving plans, opening a new account, changing address and phone numbers, look up for financial news, and applying for mortgage were services significantly preferred by traditional methods even for those using online bank services. Handling bill payments, monitoring transaction history, review monthly statements, transfer between accounts, view previous payments, inquire about account balances, inquire about account summary and request for copies of reportswere services significantly preferred with on-line banking, Other services such as handling saving accounts, information about fund price, buy and sell foreign currency, check order, and buy and sell securities were services which were not significant in terms of traditional or on-line banking preferences.

Table: 5 Preferences for Type of Bank Services for Traditional and Online Banking

	Paired Difference Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T-test	Significance Level
1. Applying for a Personal Loan	1.570	4.247	0.411	3.824	0.000
2. Handling CDs	1.776	3.720	0.360	4.938	0.000
3. Handling Bill Payments	-1.271	3.908	0.378	-3.364	0.001
4. Investing in Stocks	0.897	3.829	0.370	2.424	0.017
5. Purchasing Insurance	0.972	3.679	0.356	2.733	0.007
6. Handling Saving Account	0.131	4.003	0.387	0.338	0.736

	Paired Difference Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T-test	Significance Level
7. Saving Plans	0.953	3.522	0.340	2.800	0.006
8. Monitor Transactions History	-1.607	4.179	0.404	-3.979	0.000
9. View Images of Cancelled Checks	0.748	3.598	0.348	2.150	0.034
10. Review Monthly Statements	-2.019	3.359	0.325	-6.217	0.000
11. Transfer Between Accounts	-1.103	4.302	0.416	-2.652	0.009
12. Information about Fund Prices	0.299	3.903	0.377	0.793	0.430
13. Open a new Account	1.701	3.834	0.371	4.589	0.000
14. View previous Payments	-1.159	4.010	0.388	2.990	0.003
15. Buy and Sell Foreign Currency	0.467	3.977	0.384	1.215	0.227
16. Changing Address, Phone number	1.103	4.114	0.398	2.773	0.007
17. Check Order	0.561	3.642	0.352	1.592	0.114
18. Inquire about account balances	-1.514	3.591	0.347	-4.361	0.000
19. Inquire about account summary	-1.626	3.758	0.363	-4.476	0.000
20. Lookup for Financial News	1.458	3.393	0.328	4.444	0.000
21. Request for copies of statements	-0.766	3.427	0.331	2.313	0.023
22. Buy/Sell Securities	0.579	3.827	0.370	1.566	0.120
23. Applying for Mortgage	1.159	3.454	0.334	3.471	0.001
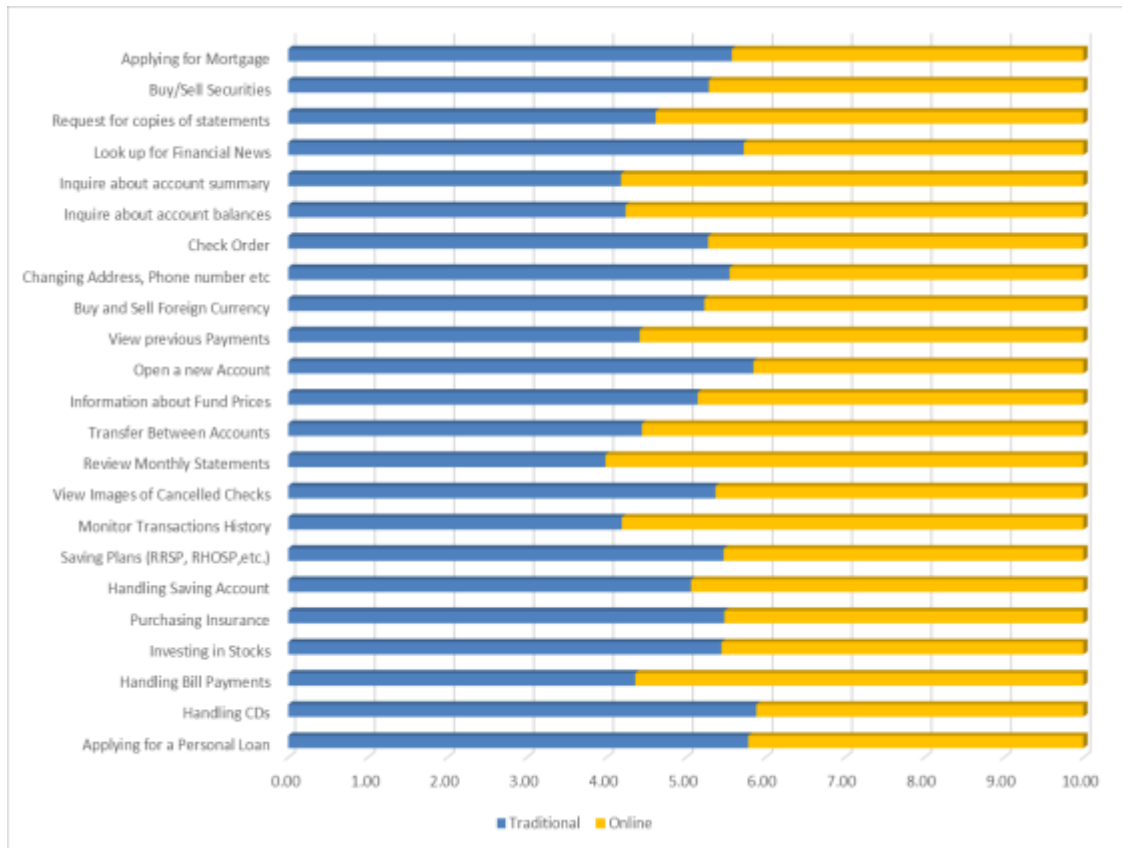
Figure 4: Allocation of Preference for Different Banking Service by Traditional and On-line Banking Methods

Table 5 summarizes the major services, according to importance, Ghanaian consumer preferences for various online banking services. Knowing this information gives bank managers insight into which preferred services they needed to devote more attention.

6.3 Reasons for not Using Online Banking

Respondents who did not use on-line methods indicated several reasons for not adopting to online banking. A five-point scale was used where 1= not at all important reason and 5= very important reason. The results showed that most important reason for not using online banking is security concerns and difficulty in completing a specific transaction. Second to the security concerns were the following issues: i.) slow download times, ii.) difficulty finding information, iii.) availability of

internet access, iv.) satisfaction with branch banking services, e.) navigation difficulties, v) inability to talk face-to-face with a bank representative, and g.) the complexity of connecting to the web.

Table 6: Reasons for Not Using Online Banking

Reasons	Mean	Std. Deviation
Satisfaction with Branch Banking Services	3.44	1.215
Security Concerns	3.71	1.274
Fee Charged for Services	3.14	1.270
The convenience of Bank Branches	3.28	1.316
Inability to Talk Face to Face	3.33	1.026
Don't have enough time to learn	3.11	1.223
No Paper Receipts	3.30	1.382
The difficulty of completing a specific transaction online	3.71	1.090
Slow download times	3.51	1.306
Haven't Got Around to It	3.22	1.305
Difficulty finding information	3.43	1.340
Service is New and Want to Wait	3.27	1.271
Don't have Internet Access	3.43	1.267
Don't understand How It Works	3.34	1.303
The difficulty of connecting to the web	3.32	1.336
Difficulties in Navigation	3.36	1.216

Table 6   provides a perspective on some of the reasons as to why Ghanaian consumers did not want to use Online banking services. Security and difficulty in completing the bank transactions seem to be the most important reasons for not adopting online banking services.

7.0 Conclusions

The findings will be useful for both practitioners and academics to give them a sense of the depth, direction, and acceptance of online banking in this developing country. The study furnish a theoretical and conceptual framework for future research studies in this growing field of study. The

initiation of internet technology has substantially transformed the way of banking industry service deliveries around the world today. Internet technology has transformed the marketing strategies of banking industry in the way they serve and deliver their services to the end consumer using the online banking. Some of the banking activities that have been facilitated through the use of online banking include handling bill payments, investing in stocks, monitor transactions history, review monthly statements, online transaction processing. The study expands the understanding of online banking usage and adaptation by studying users outside the U.S. In this regard, Ghana, a West African country with a low, middle-income status, becomes our focus.   Ghana was a new environment, which can provide an understanding of whether marketers could use Online Banking as a valid commercial mechanism to achieve business objectives and goals. Banking in international settings (Ghana), as well as domestic environments (U.S), had a significant managerial implications. The research brought to light the differences between online and traditional bank customers when they decide on the commercial bank selection in a developing country.

7.1 Managerial Implications

The implications for using Online Banking in business transactions are substantial, and hence the study provides a broader understanding of its capacity as a financial tool for conducting business. It must be noted that online banking in Ghana is not widespread among banks across the country, and this is likely due to challenging barriers against both management and consumers. Managers need to emphasize to customers and stakeholders that there are:

- That a customer can manage his/her account 24/7 from any location that has an internet; and
- Can pay all bills without having to leave home or visit a bank.

Additionally, managers also have to recognize that there are some major factors that must be addressed in order for the implementation of online banking can be successfully implemented. Some of the factors that managers need to know are:

- Risk factor – participants need to be assured that their bank has a highly secure system with firewalls, encryption system and other essential security measures;
- Recognize that the customer's offline transaction behavior will influence the process of adoption;

- Consumer trust is a critical issue as to whether a customer will use online baking; and

- Four area that are crucial to success in online banking delivery – communication, privacy security and the reputation of the bank delivering the services.

Managers who conscientiously focus on these areas of concern, the implementation and performance of their online banking system will operate more smoothly and successfully

7.2 Future Research

Forthcoming research could encompass further antecedents of online banking approval allowing projection of overall customer satisfaction to a higher level, and bank type wise evaluation of such analytical relations. Several proposed issues for future studies can be recognized cost, recognized value and attitude toward use. Fields persists for studying the mediating effect of overall customer satisfaction of online banking customers on loyalty. Many developing countries are still under-researched in the area of IB, it should an extension of the growth of research studies particularly as many of them attempt to overtake with the developed countries on the internet banking trend.

Online banking literature indicates that along with the incentives for customers to use online banking is the development of Internet technology, trust, convenience, time efficiency and higher satisfaction of customers than the tradition. Furthermore, online banking encourages green banking via paperless transactions and less use of vehicles that reduces air pollution; but the online banking literature has not taken into consideration the sustainability concerns for online banking usage (Burhanudin, et al., 2019). Therefore, future studies should address if online banking commitment to environmental sustainability and happiness is a motivation to use online banking in developing beside just for the convenience reasons.

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Abbreviations in the body of the paper should be used after having been initially explained. If statistical analysis is applicable, it is important that the procedure is carried out following appropriate methods

Tables

Tables should be as close as possible to the text explaining the concept. Tables should be numbered in the order in which they are mentioned in the text. A Table caption must be presented in the upper case at the top. Explain all non-standard standard abbreviations used in each table.

Figures

Figures must be clearly drawn, placed as close as possible to the related text. All Figures must be numbered according to the order in which they appear in the text. A Figure caption should be typed in bold immediately below the Figure.

Pagination

The page numbers should appear at the centre of the bottom edge of the page.

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References

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The Pan-African Journal of Business and Management (PAJBM) is an international Journal that publishes original research papers of academic interest. It contains peer reviewed solicited and unsolicited academic articles presenting research done in the business field in countries in Africa. The Journal accepts both conceptual, theoretical and research based articles. It also accepts cases, book reviews and summaries of dissertations.

The Editorial Board of PAJBM welcomes submission of manuscripts to be considered for publication. The manuscripts must be submitted with a cover letter stating that all authors agree with the content and the submission to PAJBM. Complete contact information of the author to whom all correspondence regarding the manuscript should be addressed must be included.

All submissions will be peer reviewed by at least two anonymous reviewers who will be looking for the scientific quality of the submitted papers. The Editorial Board reserves the right to accept or reject any manuscript and also the right to edit the manuscripts as it sees fit. A decision on every manuscript should be made in a timely manner and communicated to the authors. The Editor will make small layout, and other possible changes in the accepted manuscripts where needed.

Submission guidelines

To facilitate the double-blind peer-review process, **each submission should be broken into two separate files**: (1) Title Page and (2) Main Document. Identifying information should not appear anywhere within the main document file.

FILE 1: Title Page

    1) Title

    2) Author(s) name, title, institution, address, telephone number, and e-mail address.

      State to whom (if more than one author) correspondence should take place

    3) Abstract (max 200 words)

    4) Keywords (max four)

FILE 2: Main Document

    1) Title

2) Abstract (max 200 words)

3) Keywords (max four)

4) Main text (max 15 pages)*

5) References (APA style)

6) Appendixes

The set-up of the manuscript should be on A4 or 8.5" x 11" paper, single-spaced. 1-inch margin: left, right, top and bottom. Font: 12 Times New Roman, written in Word program. Please remove all formatting before submission. The authors are encouraged to do a language check with for example "Grammarly.com" before submission.

Abbreviations in the body of the paper should be used after having been initially explained. If statistical analysis is applicable, it is important that the procedure is carried out following appropriate methods

Tables

Tables should be as close as possible to the text explaining the concept. Tables should be numbered in the order in which they are mentioned in the text. A Table caption must be presented in the upper case at the top. Explain all non-standard standard abbreviations used in each table.

Figures

Figures must be clearly drawn, placed as close as possible to the related text. All Figures must be numbered according to the order in which they appear in the text. A Figure caption should be typed in bold immediately below the Figure.

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APA REFERENCING STYLE (6TH EDITION)

INTRODUCTION TO THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION (APA) REFERENCING STYLE

The American Psychological Association referencing style (or APA as it is more commonly known) is used across a variety of disciplines. The sixth and latest edition was published in 2010.

IN-TEXT REFERENCES

- APA uses the 'author-date' style of referencing. That is, in-text references (generally) appear in the following format:
  (Author's Last Name, Year of Publication).
  Example: (Austen, 1813).

- You are also permitted to include the Author's name in a sentence, omitting it from the brackets.
  Example: Austen (1813)

- When directly quoting from a source, you must include page number(s) and enclose the quote in double quotation marks.
  Example: "A woman must have money and a room of her own if she is to write fiction" (Woolf, 1929, p. 6).

  Note: For multiple pages, use the abbreviation 'pp.' Include the full page range, i.e. '64-67'.
  Example: Woolf (1929, pp. 64-67) observes that…

- When paraphrasing or referring to an idea contained in another work, the *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* advises: "you are encouraged to provide a page or paragraph number, especially when it would help an interested reader locate the relevant passage in a long or complex text" (American Psychological Association [APA], 2010, p. 171). It is recommended you verify this advice with your unit of study coordinator, lecturer or tutor for each subject.

- If you are referring to an entire work, include only the Author's Last Name and Year of Publication in brackets. If you are referring to part of a work, you must include Page Numbers or their equivalent (see specific examples for more information).

- When citing a source you have not read yourself, but which is referred to in a source you have read (also known as 'secondary referencing'), use the following method:
  Moore (as cited in Maxwell, 1999, p. 25) stated that…
  Important: You would cite Maxwell, not Moore, in the Reference List.
  Note: It is always preferable to cite the original source. "Use secondary sources sparingly when the original work is out of print, unavailable through usual sources, or not available in English" (American Psychological Association [APA], 2010, p. 178).

REFERENCE LIST

- The Reference List should appear at the end of your work on a separate page.

- Only include references you have cited in your work.

- All references should have a hanging indent. That is, all lines of a reference subsequent to the first line should be indented (see examples in the tables below).

- In general, references should be listed alphabetically by the last name of the first author of each work.

- Special Reference List cases:
  - In the case of works by different authors with the same family name, list references alphabetically by the authors' initials.
  - In the case of multiple works by the same author in different years, list references chronologically (earliest to latest).
  - In the case of multiple works by the same author in the same year, list references alphabetically by title in the Reference List.

- When referring to Books, Book Chapters, Article Titles or Webpages, capitalise only the first letter of the first word of a title and subtitle, and proper nouns.
  Example: *Exploring gifted education : Australian and New Zealand perspectives*

- When referring to Journal Titles, capitalise all major words (do not capitalise words such as 'of', 'and', & 'the' unless they are the first word in the title).
  Example: *Journal of Exercise Science and Fitness*

USEFUL LINKS

REFERENCING AND CITATION STYLES SUBJECT GUIDE: http://libguides.library.usyd.edu.au/citation

ENDNOTE SUBJECT GUIDE: http://libguides.library.usyd.edu.au/endnote

HOW TO REFERENCE TUTORIAL: https://library.sydney.edu.au/help/online-training/referencing/

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IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST

BOOKS & BOOK CHAPTERS

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
One author – in-text reference placement **Note:** There are two main ways to use in-text references. Firstly, to focus on the information from your source – 'information prominent'. Secondly, to focus on the author – 'author prominent'.	*'Information prominent' (**the author's name is within parentheses**):* The conclusion reached in a recent study (Cochrane, 2007) was that… *OR* *'Author prominent' (**the author's name is outside the parentheses**):* Cochrane (2007) concluded that…	Cochrane, A. (2007). *Understanding urban policy: A critical approach.* Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
One author – when fewer than 40 words are quoted Include the material in the paragraph and include specific page number/s. Use **quotation marks** to show the exact words.	An interesting view was expressed that "the connection of high profile developments to their surrounding environment has increasingly been questioned" (Cochrane, 2007, p. 117). *OR* An interesting view was expressed by Cochrane (2007) that "the connection of high profile developments to their surrounding environment has increasingly been questioned" (p. 117).	Cochrane, A. (2007). *Understanding urban policy: A critical approach.* Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
One author – when 40 or more words are quoted Begin quoting the material on a new line, indent it 5 spaces (use the indent tool to keep all lines of the quote evenly indented), and include specific page number/s. **Omit** the quotation marks. Use **double spacing** for both your text and the indented quote. Make sure the quote is **exactly** as it was published.	Much has been written about acute care. Finkelman (2006), for example, points out that: There are many changes in acute care services occurring almost daily, and due to the increasing use of outpatient surgery, surgical services have experienced major changes. Hospitals are increasing the size of their outpatient or ambulatory surgery departments and adjusting to the need of moving patients into and out of the surgical service in 1 day or even a few hours. (p. 184). Recently, this trend has been seen in some Australian hospitals and research here…	Finkelman, A. W. (2006). *Leadership and management in nursing.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Two authors	When considering the Howard Government's Indigenous health expenditure, Palmer and Short (2010) maintain that…	Palmer, G. R., & Short, S. D. (2010). *Health care and public policy: An Australian analysis* (4th ed.). Melbourne, Australia: Palgrave Macmillan.
Three to five authors For the first in-text reference, list all the authors' family names, then use the first author's family name followed by 'et al.' for subsequent entries.	A recent study (Seeley, VanPutte, Regan, & Russo, 2011) concluded that… ***Subsequent in-text reference/s:*** (Seeley et al., 2011).	Seeley, R., VanPutte, C., Regan, J., & Russo, A. (2011). *Seeley's anatomy & physiology*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
Six to seven authors For all in-text references, list only the first author's family name followed by 'et al.' All authors are included in the Reference List. ***For books with eight or more authors, please follow the guidelines for journal articles with eight or more authors on page 7.***	The Russian Revolution may never have succeeded if there hadn't already been widespread discontent among the Russian populace (Bulliet et al., 2005).	Bulliet, R. W., Crossley, P. K., Headrick, D. R., Hirsch, S. W., Johnson, L. L., & Northrup, D. (2011). *The earth and its peoples: A global history* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Wadsworth.
Works by different authors with the same family name For in-text references, include the initials of the authors in question to enable readers to differentiate between them. List references alphabetically by the authors' initials in the Reference List.	These techniques have been shown to improve test scores among primary school aged children (R. Smith, 2010). If funding were enhanced, it is arguable these problems could be ameliorated (C. J. Smith & Laslett, 1993).	Smith, C., & Laslett, R. (1993). *Effective classroom management: A teacher's guide* (2nd ed.). London,United Kingdom : Routledge. Smith, R. (2010). *Rethinking teacher education: Teacher education in the knowledge age*. Sydney, Australia: AACLM Press.

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Several works by the same author in different years When citing references separately, no special rule needs to be observed. When citing references collectively, separate years with a comma and insert years earliest to latest. List references chronologically (earliest to latest) in the Reference List.	These techniques have changed markedly in the last decade (Greenspan, 2000, 2011).	Greenspan, A. (2000). *Orthopedic radiology: A practical approach* (3rd ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins. Greenspan, A. (2011). *Orthopedic imaging: A practical approach* (5th ed.). Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
Several works by the same author in the same year Arrange alphabetically by title in the Reference List. Place lowercase letters ("a", "b", "c", etc.) immediately after the year.	Leadership and change in schools have been major topics of discussion for several years (Fullan, 1996a, 1996b) and this conference… "Educational change" has taken on a new meaning in recent years (Fullan, 1996b) …	Fullan, M. (1996a). Leadership for change. In *International handbook for educational leadership and administration.* New York, NY: Kluwer Academic . Fullan, M. (1996b). *The new meaning of educational change.* London,United Kingdom: Cassell.
Several authors, different years, referred to collectively in your work List sources alphabetically by family name in the in-text reference in the order in which they appear in the Reference List. Separate each reference with a semicolon.	The cyclical process (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Dick, 2000; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; MacIsaac, 1995) suggests…	Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (1986). *Becoming critical: Education knowledge and action research.* London,United Kingdom: Falmer Press. Dick, B. (2000). *A beginner's guide to action research.* Retrieved from http://www.scu.edu.au/schools/gcm/ar/arp/guide.html Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (Eds.). (1988). *The action research planner* (3rd ed.). Melbourne, Australia: Deakin University Press.

eBook – online book - If the URL leads to information about how to obtain the book, use "Available from" instead of "Retrieved from". - *If the eBook has a DOI, add this in.*	We found helpful information about deaf children (Niemann, Greenstein, & David, 2004) that meant we could… *OR* Schiraldi (2001) offers solutions to PTSD.	Niemann, S., Greenstein, D., & David, D. (2004). *Helping children who are deaf: Family and community support for children who do not hear well.* Retrieved from http://www.hesperian.org/ publications_download_deaf.php Schiraldi, G. R. (2001). *The post-traumatic stress disorder sourcebook: A guide to healing, recovery, and growth* [Adobe Digital Editions version]. doi:10.1036/0071393722
An article/ chapter in eBook *If the article/ chapter has a DOI, add this in.*	Screening is helpful to identify major depression in adults (Williams & Nieuwsma, 2016) …	Williams, J., & Nieuwsma, J. (2016). Screening for depression in adults. In J. A. Melin (Ed.), *UpTpDate.* Retrieved from https://www.uptodate.com/contents/screening-for-depression-in-adults
Chapter in edited book	A discussion about Australia's place in today's world (Richards, 1997) included reference to… *OR* Richards (1997) proposed that…	Richards, K. C. (1997). Views on globalization. In H. L. Vivaldi (Ed.), *Australia in a global world* (pp. 29-43). Sydney, Australia: Century.
Brochure – author is also publisher	The security of personal information is addressed in the TransACT brochure (TransACT, n.d.)	TransACT . (n.d.). *Guide to equipment and service* [Brochure]. Canberra, Australia: Author.
Editor	In discussing best practice, Zairi (1999) identified… *OR* Best practice indicators in management have been identified (Zairi, 1999) and…	Zairi, M. (Ed.). (1999). *Best practice: Process innovation management.* Oxford,United Kingdom: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Compiler, *or* Reviser, *or* Translator Use the following abbreviations after the person's name in the Reference List: Comp. Rev. Trans.	This novel by Gaarder (1991/1994) provides an appealing approach to… ***OR*** Socrates has been described as "enigmatic" (Gaarder, 1991/1994, p. 50) which provides us with…	Gaarder, J. (1994). *Sophie's world: A novel about the history of philosophy* (P. Møller, Trans.). London,United Kingdom: Phoenix House. (Original work published 1991).
Corporate author – when the author is also the publisher Spell out the full name of the body each time it is cited in-text, unless it is long and has a familiar/easily understood abbreviation. In the latter case, give the full name with the abbreviation for the first in-text reference. Use the abbreviation only for subsequent references.	A recent study (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare [AIHW], 2009) highlighted … ***Subsequent in-text reference/s:*** The AIHW (2009) found that…	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. (2009). *Indigenous housing needs 2009: A multi-measure needs model* (AIHW cat. no. HOU 214). Canberra, Australia: Author.
Corporate author – commissioned reports	The report prepared by the South Australian Centre for Economic Studies (2009) was discussed.	South Australian Centre for Economic Studies. (2009). *Local government's current and potential role in water management and conservation: Final report.* Commissioned by the Local Government Association of South Australia. Adelaide, Australia: Author.
No date of publication	Some aspects of forensic science are more challenging than others (Browne, n.d.) and for this reason…	Browne, J. D. (n.d.). *Forensic science as a career.* London, England: Tower.
Second or later edition	Peters (2001, p. 6) argued that "..."	Peters, T. (2001). *The elements of counselling* (2nd ed.). Brisbane, Australia: Macmillan.
Multi-volume work	Inge, Duke and Bryer (1978, p. 27) claim that there is much to learn about these writers which results in… ***OR*** There is so much to learn about our country (Clark, 1978, p. 42) that we kept returning to…	Inge, M. T., Duke, M., & Bryer, J. R. (Eds.). (1978). *Black American writers: Bibliographical essays* (Vols. 1-2). New York, NY: St. Martins. Clark, C. M. H. (1978). *A history of Australia: Vol. 4. The earth abideth for ever, 1851-1888.* Australia: Melbourne University Press.

DICTIONARY / ENCYCLOPAEDIA

Dictionary / Encyclopaedia – print Include information about editions, volume numbers and page numbers in parenthesis following the title in the Reference List.	According to one definition of "bivalence" (VandenBos, 2007, p. 123)…	VandenBos, G. R. (Ed.). (2007). *APA dictionary of psychology*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
Dictionary / Encyclopaedia – online Include information about editions, specific volume numbers or page numbers in parenthesis following the title in the Reference List.	A psychological overview of ADHD (Arcus, 2001)…	Arcus, D. (2001). Attention deficit / hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). In B. Strickland (Ed.), *The Gale encyclopedia of psychology*. Retrieved from http://www.gale.cengage.com/ **Note:** If retrieved from a database, do a Web search for the home page of the publisher of the encyclopaedia and use the URL in the reference.

JOURNAL, NEWSPAPER & NEWSLETTER ARTICLES

Journal article with one author – separated paging (paginated by issue) If each issue of a journal begins on page 1, include the issue number in parenthesis immediately after the volume number in the Reference List. *If the journal article has a DOI, add this in.*	In an earlier article, it was proposed (Jackson, 2007)…	Jackson, A. (2007). New approaches to drug therapy. *Psychology Today and Tomorrow, 27*(1), 54-59. Dempsey, I. (2012). The use of individual education programs for children in Australian Schools. *Australasian Journal of Special Education, 36*(1), 21-31. doi:10.1017/jse.2012.5
Journal article with two authors – continuous paging throughout a volume. If the journal volume page numbers run continuously throughout the year, regardless of issue number, do **not** include the issue number in your Reference List entry. *If the journal article has a DOI, add this in.*	Kramer and Bloggs (2002) stipulated in their latest article… *OR* This article on art (Kramer & Bloggs, 2002) stipulated that…	Kramer, E., & Bloggs, T. (2002). On quality in art and art therapy. *American Journal of Art Therapy, 40,* 218-231.

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Journal article with three to five authors For the first in-text reference, list all the authors' family names, then use the first author's family name followed by 'et al.' for subsequent entries. *If the journal article has a DOI, add this in.*	A recent study to investigate the effects of an organisational stress management program on employees (Elo, Ervasti, Kuosma, & Mattila, 2008) concluded that… ***Subsequent in-text reference/s:*** (Elo et al., 2008)	Elo, A., Ervasti, J., Kuosma, E., & Mattila, P. (2008). Evaluation of an organizational stress management program in a municipal public works organization. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 13*(1), 10-23. doi: 10.1037/1076-8998.13.1.10
Journal article with six to seven authors For all in-text references, list only the first author's family name followed by 'et al.' All authors are included in the Reference List. *If the journal article has a DOI, add this in.*	A simple ALMA is described in a recent study (Restouin et al., 2009).	Restouin, A., Aresta, S., Prébet, T., Borg, J., Badache, A., & Collette, Y. (2009). A simplified, 96-well–adapted, ATP luminescence–based motility assay. *BioTechniques, 47*, 871–875. doi: 10.2144/000113250
Journal article with eight or more authors For all in-text references, list only the first author's family name followed by 'et al.' In the Reference List, include the first six authors' names, then insert three ellipsis points (...), and add the last author's name. *If the journal article has a DOI, add this in.*	Traumatic injury is the leading cause of death and disability worldwide (Steel et al., 2010).	Steel, J., Youssef, M., Pfeifer, R., Ramirez, J. M., Probst, C., Sellei, R., ... Pape, H. C. (2010). Health-related quality of life in patients with multiple injuries and traumatic brain injury 10+ years postinjury. *Journal of Trauma: Injury, Infection, and Critical Care, 69*(3), 523-531. doi: 10.1097/TA.0b013e3181e90c24
Journal or magazine article with no volume or issue number *If the journal article has a DOI, add this in.*	Wychick and Thompson (2005) foreshadow that scam will still be enticing… ***OR*** An interesting approach to scam (Wychick & Thompson, 2005) suggested that…	Wychick, J., & Thompson, L. (2005, November 24). Fallen for a scam lately? *AustraliaToday,* 54-60.

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Journal article retrieved from a database – with a DOI (Digital Object Identifier) A DOI is a unique, permanent identifier assigned to articles in many databases. **Always** include the DOI if one is provided (usually in the article's full-text, abstract or database record). If there is a DOI, no other retrieval information is necessary.	A study examining priming (Johns & Mewhort, 2009) discovered …	Johns, E., & Mewhort, D. (2009). Test sequence priming in recognition memory. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition, 35*, 1162-1174. doi: 10.1037/a0016372
Journal article – in press	Influence of music in running performance (Lee & Kimmerly, in press) …	Lee, S., & Kimmerly, D. (in press). Influence of music on maximal self-paced running performance and passive post-exercise recovery rate. *The Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness*.
Journal article – Cochrane Review with DOI	Overweight and obesity are increasing throughout the industrialised world (Shaw, O'Rourke, Del Mar, & Kenardy, 2005) …	Shaw, K., O'Rourke, P., Del Mar, C., & Kenardy, J. (2005). Psychological interventions for overweight or obesity. *The Cochrane database of systematic reviews* (2). doi:10.1002/14651858.CD003818.pub2
Journal article retrieved from a database – without a DOI - If there is no DOI, do a Web search to locate the URL of the journal's home page & include it in the Reference List. The journal URL can sometimes be found in the database record or in the full text view of the article. - If the online article is ONLY available from a database (e.g. for discontinued journals where the journal home page doesn't exist), include the entry page URL of the database where it was found. Give the database name if not in the URL.	The effects of climate change on agriculture are studied by Ramalho, Da Silva and Dias (2009)… Primary care is one area marked for improvement (Purtilo, 1995).	***Example using URL of journal home page:*** Ramalho, M., Da Silva, G., & Dias, L. (2009). Genetic plant improvement and climate changes. *Crop Breeding and Applied Biotechnology, 9*(2), 189-195. Retrieved from http://www.sbmp.org.br/cbab ***Example using URL of database (where there is no journal home page):*** Purtilo, R. (1995). Managed care: Ethical issues for the rehabilitation professions. *Trends in Health Care, Law and Ethics, 10*, 105-118. Retrieved from http://www.proquest.com

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Book review in a journal	In his review of Thomas Samaras' latest book, Marson (2009) identifies…	Marson, S. M. (2009). How big should we be? A Herculean task accomplished [Review of the book *Human body size and the laws of scaling: Physiological, performance, growth, longevity and ecological ramification,* by T. Samaras]. *Public Health Nutrition, 12,* 1299–1300. doi:10.1017/S1368980009990656
Newspaper article – with an author	The notion of a Bill of Rights may be inappropriate in the Australian context (Waterford, 2007).	Waterford, J. (2007, May 30). Bill of Rights gets it wrong. *The Canberra Times,* p. 11.
Newspaper article – without an author	The redesign of the Internet ("Internet pioneer", 2007) is said to…	Internet pioneer to oversee network redesign. (2007, May 28). *The Canberra Times,* p. 15.
Newspaper article retrieved from a database Do a Web search to locate the URL of the newspaper's home page & include it in the Reference List.	In an attempt to save the tiger, Darby (2002) provided…	Darby, A. (2002, August 20). Rarest tiger skin a rugged survivor. *Sydney Morning Herald.* Retrieved from http://www.smh.com.au
Article in an online newsletter	Australia's casualty rate was almost 65 per cent - the highest in the British Empire ("Australians and the Western Front", 2009)	Australians and the Western Front. (2009, November). *Ozculture newsletter.* Retrieved from http://www.cultureandrecreation. gov.au/ newsletter/

CONFERENCE / SEMINAR PAPERS

Conference or seminar papers in published proceedings – print If the paper is from a book, use the Book chapter citation format. If it is from regularly published proceedings (e.g. annual), use the Journal article citation format.	In a paper about conservation of photographs (Edge, 1996), the proposition that…	Edge, M. (1996). Lifetime prediction: Fact or fancy? In M. S. Koch, T. Padfield, J. S. Johnsen, & U. B. Kejser (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Conference on Research Techniques in Photographic Conservation* (pp. 97-100). Copenhagen, Denmark: Royal Danish Academy of Fine Arts.

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Conference or seminar papers in published proceedings – online	Tester (2008) points to the value of using geothermal sources for power and energy.	Tester, J. W. (2008). The future of geothermal energy as a major global energy supplier. In H. Gurgenci & A. R. Budd (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Sir Mark Oliphant International Frontiers of Science and Technology Australian Geothermal Energy Conference,* Canberra, Australia: Geoscience Australia. Retrieved from http://www.ga.gov.au/image_cache/ GA11825.pdf

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Government department as author Spell out the full name of the body each time it is cited in-text, unless it is long and has a familiar/easily understood abbreviation. In the latter case, give the full name with the abbreviation for the first in-text reference. Use the abbreviation for subsequent references.	The need for guidelines to manage and use multiple channels to deliver e-government services (Department of Finance and Administration [DOFA], 2006) presents Australian Government agencies with… ***Subsequent in-text reference/s:*** DOFA (2006) identified …	Department of Finance and Administration. (2006). *Delivering Australian Government services: Managing multiple channels.* Canberra, Australia: Author.
Government publication – with identifying number Includes report numbers, catalogue numbers, etc.	Recently released statistics from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2007) reveal interesting changes in Australian society. ***Subsequent in-text reference/s:*** The ABS (2007) reported that …	Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2007). *Australian social trends* (Cat. no. 4102.0). Canberra, Australia: ABS.
Government report – online	***First in-text reference:*** A recent government report (Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet [PM&C], 2008) examines a selection of key topics … ***Subsequent in-text reference/s:*** Families in Australia were highlighted (PM&C, 2008)…	Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet. (2008). *Families in Australia: 2008.* Retrieved from http://www.dpmc.gov.au/ publications/families/index.cfm#contact
Government approved standards	…and "including data in computer systems, created or received and maintained by an organisation" (Standards Australia, 1996, p. 7) as well as…	Standards Australia. (1996). *Australian Standard AS 4390: Records Management.* Sydney, Australia: Author.

IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST

LEGISLATION

Note: For more comprehensive information please consult the following publication: *The bluebook: A uniform system of citation* (19th ed.). (2010). Cambridge, MA: Harvard Law Review Association.

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Act – print	According to s. 8.1 of the *Anti-Discrimination Act 1977* (NSW), it is unlawful for an employer to discriminate against a person on the ground of race.	*Anti-Discrimination Act 1977* (NSW) s. 8.1 (Austl.). ***Follow this convention:*** *Short Title of the Act* (in italics) Y*ear* (in italics) (Jurisdiction abbreviation) Section number Subdivision, if relevant (Country abbreviation).
Bill – print	The Mental Health Bill 2013 (WA) prohibits…	Mental Health Bill 2013 (WA) (Austl.). ***Follow this convention:*** Bill Name (no italics) Year (Jurisdiction abbreviation) (Country abbreviation).
Act & Bill – online	According to s. 8.1 of the *Anti-Discrimination Act 1977* (NSW), it is unlawful for an employer to discriminate against a person on the ground of race.	*Anti-Discrimination Act 1977* (NSW) s. 8.1 (Austl.). Retrieved from http://www.legislation.nsw.gov.au/maintop/scanact/inforce/NONE/0
Case	According to Ellis v. Wallsend District Hospital (1989)… …in a land right case (*Mabo v. Queensland*, 1988)…	*Ellis v. Wallsend District Hospital* 1989 17 NSWLR 553 (Austl.). *Mabo v. Queensland* 1988 166 CLR 186 (Austl.). ***Follow this convention:*** *Case Name* (in italics) Year Volume number Reporter abbreviation First page number (Country abbreviation).

IMAGES, MUSIC & AUDIOVISUAL MEDIA

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
CD recording	Lyrics from Paul Kelly's song "From Little Things Big Things Grow" (Kelly, 1997, track 10) were used in recent television advertisements.	Kelly, P. (1997). From little things big things grow. On *Songs from the south: Paul Kelly's greatest hits* [CD]. Melbourne, Australia: Mushroom Records.
DVD / Videorecording	Jane Austen's world came alive in *Sense and sensibility* (Lee, 1995)	Lee, A. (Director). (1995). *Sense and sensibility* [DVD]. Australia: Columbia TriStar Home Video.

IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Figure, Table, Graph, Map or Chart Cite each of these as you would for a book. Include, in square brackets, the type of entry immediately after the title: [Figure]. [Table]. [Map]. [Graph]. [Chart].	**Graph** The internal processes were well described (Kaplan & Norton, 2004) which led to… **Map** To locate a property just outside the Australian Capital Territory, use the 1:100 000 map produced by Geoscience Australia (2004) which covers…	**Graph** Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2004). Internal processes deliver value over different time horizons [Graph]. In *Strategy maps: Converting intangible assets into tangible outcomes* (p. 48). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School. **Map** Geoscience Australia [NATMAP] (Cartographer). (2004). *ACT region, New South Wales and Australian Capital Territory* [Map]. Canberra, Australia: Author.
Image – online	The effective use of light in Monet's 'Haystacks' (Monet, 1890)…	Monet, C. (1890). *Haystacks, midday* [Painting]. National Gallery of Australia, Canberra. Retrieved from http://artsearch.nga. gov.au/ Detail-LRG.cfm?IRN=29073&View=LRG
Liner notes	The American jazz trombonist, bandleader and composer Jack Teagarden (Weiner, 1995)…	Weiner, D. J. (1995). [Liner notes]. J. Teagarden (Composer), *Big 'T' jump* [CD]. USA: Jass Records.
Score	Craig Scott is one of Australia's leading bassists (Scott, 2013)	Scott, C. (2013). *C minor waltz: For jazz quintet* [Score]. Sydney, Australia: Craig Scott
Streamed music	An analysis of the jazz piano style of "What's Your Story Morning Glory" (Williams, 1978, track 8) reveals…	Williams, M. L. (1978). What's your story morning glory. On *Mary Lou Williams: Solo recital, Montreux Jazz Festival* [CD]. Fantasy. Retrieved from Naxos Music Library Jazz.
Interview – on radio	In a recent interview with the Prime Minister (Mitchell, 2009)…	Mitchell, N. (Presenter). (2009, October 16). Interview with the Prime Minister, Kevin Rudd. In *Mornings with Neil Mitchell* [Radio broadcast]. Melbourne, Australia: Radio 3AW.
Interview – on television	He demonstrated his professionalism and sensitivity in an interview with Raelene Boyle (Denton, 2006) and…	Denton A. (Producer and Interviewer). (2006, September 25). Interview with Raelene Boyle. In *Enough Rope with Andrew Denton.* [Television broadcast]. Sydney, Australia: Australian Broadcasting Corporation.
Motion picture (movie)	Jackson and Pyke (2003) provide evidence that belief in a world…	Jackson, P. (Director), & Pyke, S. (Producer). (2003). *The lord of the rings: The return of the king* [Motion picture]. New Zealand: Imagine Films. ***Note:*** Give the country where the movie was made – not the city.

IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Podcast (audio)	Listening to the news on my MP3 player (Nolan, 2007) was a new experience and I decided…	Nolan, T. (Presenter). (2007, April 28). *AM: News & current affairs* [Audio podcast]. Retrieved from http://abc.net.au/news/subscribe/amrss.sml
Radio program – broadcast	When discussing how people write about music, Koval (2009)…	Koval, R. (Presenter). (2009, November 19). *The Book Show* [Radio broadcast]. Melbourne, Australia: ABC Radio National.
Radio program – transcript	The views of the internationally renowned author and public speaker, De Bono, prompted me to follow up one of the interviews (Mascall, 2005) which…	Mascall, S. (Reporter). (2005, February 14). Are we hardwired for creativity? In *Innovations* [Radio program] [Transcript]. Melbourne, Australia: ABC Radio Australia. Retrieved from http://www.abc.net.au/ra/innovations/stories/s1302318.htm
Speech – online	In her ANZAC Day speech (Clark, 2007), the Prime Minister of New Zealand referred to…	Clark, H. (2007, April 25). *Prime Minister's 2007 ANZAC Day message* [Transcript]. Retrieved from http://www.anzac.govt.nz
Television advertisement	The problems of teenage anxiety were graphically captured (Beyondblue, 2009)…	Beyondblue (Producer). (2009, November 29). *Beyondblue: Anxiety* [Television advertisement]. Canberra, Australia: WIN TV.
Television program – broadcast	Examining future plans for Canberra's city area (Kimball, 2009)…	Kimball, C. (Presenter). (2009, September 4). *Stateline* [Television broadcast]. Canberra, Australia: ABC TV. ***Note:*** Always check the television station's website and use the transcript, if one is available, for direct quotes.
Television program – transcript	Cyclones often affect Australia, especially in the north (McLaughlin, 2004) and it is worthwhile…	McLaughlin, M. (Presenter). (2004, November 7). Cyclone Tracy. In *Rewind* [Television program] [Transcript]. Sydney, Australia: ABC TV. Retrieved from http://www.abc.net.au/tv/rewind/txt/s1233697.htm

IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST

THESIS OR DISSERTATION

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Thesis or Dissertation – print	Nurses working in an acute care environment tend to experience a high degree of workplace conflict (Duddle, 2009).	Duddle, M. (2009). *Intraprofessional relations in nursing: A case study* (Unpublished doctoral thesis), University of Sydney, Australia.
Thesis or Dissertation – retrieved from a database	The field of engineering has largely developed around the positivist philosophical position (Hector, 2008).	Hector, D. C. A. (2008). *Towards a new philosophy of engineering: Structuring the complex problems from the sustainability discourse* (Doctoral thesis). Available from Australasian Digital Theses database. (Record No. 185877) ***Note:*** End the reference with the unique number or identifier assigned to the thesis/dissertation.
Thesis or Dissertation – retrieved from the web	Lacey (2011) differentiates between instrumental violence and violence inflicting injury for its own sake.	Lacey, D. (2011). *The role of humiliation in collective political violence* (Masters thesis, University of Sydney, Australia). Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/2123/7128

UNIVERSITY PROVIDED STUDY MATERIALS

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Lecture / tutorial notes, etc. – online	Septicaemia is one of many infections commonly acquired in hospitals (Maw, 2010) …	Maw, M. (2010). *NURS5082 Developing nursing practice, lecture 2, week 1: Healthcare-associated infections and their prevention* [Lecture PowerPoint slides]. Retrieved from http://learn-on-line.ce.usyd.edu.au/

SOCIAL MEDIA

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Facebook update List the author's name as it is written (including nicknames).	$52 million will be provided to deploy Australian civilian troops (Rudd, 2009)	Rudd, K. (2009, October 24). Australian civilian corps to help in crises [Facebook update]. Retrieved from http://www.facebook.com/note.php?note_id=200124043571&ref=mf
Blog post - List the author's name as it is used in the posting (including nicknames). - For a blog comment, use 'Blog comment' instead of 'Blog post' and include the exact title (including 'Re:' if used)	The plight of the flapper skate was recently highlighted (Keim, 2009)…	Keim, B. (2009, November 18). ID error leaves fish at edge of extinction [Blog post]. Retrieved from http://www.wired.com/wiredscience/2009/11/extinction-error/

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Video blog post (eg YouTube)	The Prime Minister, speaking about Australia's role in the G20 forum (Rudd, 2009)…	Rudd, K. (2009, September 29). Update on new G20 arrangements [Video file]. Retrieved from http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i8IdJ-0S5rs
Twitter tweet If the author uses their name as their Twitter 'handle', do not alter its format to follow the convention of 'Family name, Initial(s).'	President Obama announced the launch of the American Graduation Initiative (BarackObama, 2009).	BarackObama. (2009, July 15). Launched American Graduation Initiative to help additional 5 mill. Americans graduate college by 2020: http://bit.ly/gcTX7 [Twitter post]. Retrieved from http://twitter.com/BarackObama/status/2651151366 ***Note:*** This reference would be filed under 'B', not 'O'
Discussion group, list, etc. – online	There are strongly held views about knowledge management (Weidner, 2007) and from personal experience…	Weidner, D. (2007, June 11). KM reducing in popularity [Discussion list message]. Retrieved from http://actkm.org/mailman/listinfo/actkm_actkm.org
Wiki Include the date retrieved, as the information is likely to change in these sources.	The role of media corporations in the media literacy movement is discussed ("Great debates in media literacy", n.d.)	Great debates in media literacy: Theory and practice of media literacy. (n.d.). In *Wikiversity.* Retrieved October 27, 2009, from http://en.wikiversity.org/wiki/Great_Debates_in_Media_Literacy

PERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND EMAIL

Personal communication Includes private letters, memos, email, telephone conversations, personal interviews, etc. These are cited in-text only, not in the Reference List.	J. Francis (personal communication, August 6, 2007) was able to confirm that the floods had not reached their area.	**Not included in Reference List. Cite in-text only.**
Email – NEVER cite addresses without permission of the owner of the address	Ms Coleman (personal communication, July 11, 2007) provided details in an email and we acted on that information.	**Not included in Reference List. Treat as personal communication and cite in-text only.**

IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST

WEB RESOURCES

Web document – author or sponsor given, dated

Note: A web document is a file (e.g. a Word or PDF file) found on the Web. Often there are links to Web documents from Web pages. A Web document is not the same as a web page.

An RBA paper (Simon, Smith, & West, 2009) found that participation in a loyalty program and access to an interest-free period…

Simon, J., Smith, K., & West, T. (2009). *Price incentives and consumer payment behaviour.* Retrieved from the Reserve Bank of Australia website: http://www.rba.gov.au/ PublicationsAndResearch/RDP/RDP2009-04.html

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Web document – author or sponsor given but not dated

The Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO) is designing several energy-efficient electric machines to reduce greenhouse gas emissions (CSIRO, n.d.).

Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation. (n.d.). *Reducing Australia's greenhouse emissions factsheet.* Retrieved from http://www.csiro.au/ resources/ps282.html

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Web page with no page numbers

Include in in-text references:

- If directly quoting, a paragraph number with the abbreviation 'para' (count paragraphs if numbers are not visible) ***OR***

- A section heading and paragraph number (e.g. Introduction, para. 3). A long section heading may be shortened and enclosed in double quotation marks.
Note: Because Web pages can be updated, you must include the date on which you accessed the source.

Usually the author or creator of a work is the copyright owner (University of Sydney, 2010).

When directly quoting a section of a webpage, you will need to include more information: (University of Sydney, 2010, "Who owns copyright?", para. 1).

Note: The heading of the section was "Who owns copyright?"

University of Sydney. (2010). *Guide to copyright.* Retrieved March 21, 2011, from http://sydney.edu.au/copyright/students/ coursework.shtml#who

	IN-TEXT REFERENCE	REFERENCE LIST
Web source – no author or sponsor given When there is no author for a source you find on the Web (whether it be a Web document or a Web page), the title moves to the first position of the reference entry. If the title is long, use an abbreviated version of it for in-text citations. Insert double quotation marks around the title ***Note:*** If you were citing the title of a book, periodical, brochure or report, you would use italics rather than double quotation marks.	This vaccine is 6 times more efficient than vaccines previously used to immunise against the condition ("New child vaccine", 2001).	New child vaccine gets funding boost. (2001). Retrieved April 16, 2012, from http://news.ninemsn.com.au/health/story_13178.asp
Website – entire website	The new website of the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (http://www.deewr.gov.au) includes useful information on current government education policy.	**Not included in Reference list.**