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EDITOR’S INTRODUCTION

Welcome to the Vol.7, No.2 (December, 2017) issue of the *SIU Journal of Management*. The *SIU Journal of Management* is a double blind, peer-reviewed academic journal accepting papers in the fields of management, broadly defined. Please consider submitting papers, case studies, research notes, book reviews, conference reports and other communications to the editor (jcwalsh@soi.ac.th).

In this issue, I am pleased to be able to publish four papers, together with a conference report and book reviews. The four peer-reviewed research papers come from authors in Vietnam, Bangladesh, Nigeria and Thailand, which represents the stated intention of the *SIU Journal of Management* to promote geographical diversity and to provide additional support so as to encourage junior faculty members and first-time authors to publish, alongside colleagues with more established careers.

From Vietnam, Pham Hong Linh and Nguyen Thi Thu Trang consider the operating efficiency of Vietnamese microfinance institutions and consider the implications for them of moving from the non-formal to the formal sector. From Bangladesh, Shameena Ferdausy, Anupam Kumar Das and Suchana Akhter explore the role of emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behavior. From Nigeria, Afolabi Joseph Fasoranti writes about the role of entrepreneurship in nation-building within the specific local context. Finally, from Thailand, Rawee Phoemhawm presents a thought-provoking case study on the 1996 Mount Everest disaster seen through the perspectives of Sun Tzu and von Clausewitz. These papers are diverse in subject and method and this is another aspect of the *SIU Journal of Management* that is intentional in nature.

It is to be hoped that 2018 brings better news than 2017, which was a year characterized in large part by divisions, malicious and casual falsehoods, the return of the spectre of the far right and the diminution
of public space for informed civic and civil discourse. Hope contends with anxiety in this regard.

John Walsh, Editor, SIU Journal of Management.

Opinions expressed in this introduction belong to the editor alone and should not be ascribed to Shinawatra University as a whole or any individual member of it.
Assessing the Operating Efficiency of Vietnam’s Microfinance Institutions and Its Implications for National Transformation

Pham Hong Linh and Nguyen Thi Thu Trang

Abstract

This paper investigates the operating efficiency of Vietnam’s microfinance institutions (MFIs) in formal and informal sectors during the period from 2010 to 2015 through the operating self-sufficiency ratio, return on asset ratio and return on equity ratio. The results show that the ratios of formal MFIs were higher than those of informal MFIs. Then authors recommend that the informal MFIs in Vietnam should concentrate on operation management rather than transformation to formal MFIs by all means.

Keywords: microfinance, microfinance institutions, operating efficiency.

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I. Introduction

According to the commonly used definition of the ADB (2000), a microfinance institution (MFI) offers the provision of a broad range of financial services such as credit, saving, insurance and money transfer for the poor, low-income households and micro-corporations. Invented at the beginning of the C17th under the name of credit unions in the agricultural sector, MFIs have become more and more popular
throughout the world, especially in developing countries. MFIs are proved to represent an efficient approach for poverty reduction (Shirazi & Khan, 2009; Imai et al., 2010; Boateng, Boateng & Bampoe, 2015).

Evaluating MFI performance is more complicated than other financial institutions because MFIs have to face the challenges in providing financial services for the poor as well as ensuring cost recovery to avoid bankruptcy. According to Meyer (2002), evaluating an MFI’s performance should be in terms of a critical triangle including outreach to the poor, financial sustainability and impact on poverty. Meyer (2002) implies that the poor need financial support in the long term rather than just once in a lifetime. Moreover, an MFI’s target is improving the living conditions for the poor, thus reducing poverty is often used as an indicator to assess whether an MFI has accomplished its mission or not. Providing financial services for the poor normally involves high transaction costs and the MFIs often receive additional external funding to compensate for the shortfall between revenue derived from customers and the costs of providing financial services. Since receiving additional funding is limited, whether donors will sustain the grant in the future or not is uncertain. These factors lead to the low level of financial sustainability in MFIs.

Financial sustainability is the ability of MFIs to survive in the long term through their own income without any contributions from donors. It is measured by operational self-sustainability (OSS) and financial self-sustainability (FSS). OSS measures whether MFIs’ operating income is sufficient to cover operating costs such as salaries and wages, supplies, loan losses and other administration costs. FSS shows whether MFIs can cover the costs of funds and other subsidies received when they are valued at market rates. Moreover, the return on asset (ROA) and return on equity (ROE) measures are also applied to measure MFIs’ sustainability.
2. Literature Review

Some studies have proved that informal MFIs perform better than formal MFIs. Bakker, Schaveling and Nijhof (2014) showed the negative relationship between legal status and operational efficiency in MFIs because formal MFIs have to pay more to meet their legal requirements. Similarly, Ngo (2012) indicated that cost is an obstruction so that MFIs can only reach a certain point in efficiency and size before considering whether they should transform from informal to formal MFI status. Ngoc (2015), in her study of 434 MFIs in developing countries from 2010 to 2014, demonstrated that there is a difference in sustainability between formal and informal MFIs. That is, formal MFIs are less competitive than formal ones due to their lower levels of operation efficiency and sustainability.

In addition, there are other studies that have indicated that formal MFIs perform better than informal ones. Bassem (2009) examined countries in the Mediterranean region through a survey and concluded that formal MFIs are better because customers trust them more and so it is easier for them to reach the ideal level of money for residents and provide loan to customers. Meanwhile, Brune (2009) researched MFIs in both Africa and Asia and found that the scale of MFIs does not affect their operational efficiency. Thao (2015) investigated the outreach and the sustainability of MFIs in Vietnam but the study was only conducted among formal MFIs so there was no analysing and comparing with informal MFIs in Vietnam.

Thus, previous studies give different conclusions about the relationships between legal status and operational efficiency of formal and informal MFIs.
3. Research Methodology

3.1. Variable Selection

In this paper, the authors used three indicators: operational self-sustainability (OSS), return on assets (ROA) and return on equity (ROE) to measure financial sustainability, from which to measure and compare the performance between formal and informal MFIs. Based on the results, the authors would propose recommendations on the transformation from informal to formal MFIs.

OSS is considered the most simple and common index to assess the self-sustainability of MFIs (Marakkath, 2014). This indicator is often reported publicly by MFIs annually. It measures whether revenue of a MFI covers its total costs (including operational expenses, loan loss provision and financial costs). In this case, a ratio greater than 100 percent indicates that the MFI can cover all its costs through its own activities and not rely on donations or grants from external funds to survive (Churchill & Frankiewicz, 2006). However, according to international practices, the index should be greater than 120% to ensure self-sustainability for the long-term.

ROA is the ratio most commonly used to measure the profitability of banks and financial institutions (Pasiouras & Kosmidou, 2007; Goddard, Molyneux & Wilson, 2004; Sufian & Habibullah, 2010). It shows the effectiveness of asset investment and the capabilities of senior executives in the use of available financial resources to make a profit (Hasan, Mitra & Ulubasoglu, 2006). The higher ratios of ROA indicate the higher profitability on an asset unit of the MFI. However, too high an ROA is not necessarily good because it may be the result of investing in assets with high levels of risk. According to international practices, ROA of about 2% or more indicated an efficient MFI.
ROE represents the ability to make profit on an equity unit. It is considered to be one of the most comprehensive indicators in evaluating the profitability of a business, because the ultimate goal of a business is to maximize the value of the property of the shareholders. ROE is equal to ROA multiplied by the financial leverage (total assets on equity), which reflects the trade-off between risks and profitability of the organization.

3.2. Hypotheses and Models

To be able to give recommendations concerning the transformation of MFIs, the study assessed whether there were differences in the OSS and profitability between formal and informal MFIs. A t-test was conducted to answer these questions. Before implementing the t-test, a Lilliefors test was conducted to test the normality of the distribution of the data. The researchers also performed additional non-parametric testing (non-parametric Wilcoxon sign-rank) to test the differences in the OSS and profitability between formal and informal MFIs. The hypotheses of the study were as follows:

H₀: There is no difference in the OSS and profitability between formal and informal MFIs.

H₁: There are significant differences in the OSS and profitability between formal and informal MFIs.

In each test, the p-value value will be used as a basis to draw conclusions about the research questions.

3.3. Data Collection and Description

The research data was obtained from the annual data of 22 Vietnamese MFIs, which were published on the website mixmarket.org during the period 2010 to 2015. One problem was that some organizations did not publish full data for all these years,
making up a final dataset including of just 76 observations. Table 1 shows that the average of OSS and that of profitability of Vietnamese MFIs were higher than the points of reference. As analyzed above, the OSS should be over 120% to ensure the long-term performance of the MFIs, while ROA over 2% indicate that the MFIs are efficient. These figures for Vietnamese MFIs (average of 139.4% and 5.6%, respectively) were significantly larger than the benchmarks. However, the data also showed a high degree of volatility of variables (with large standard deviations). Specifically, OSS was the most volatile indicator, varying between about 1.96% (which indicated that income only just covered the costs of the organization) and 252% (the income was 2.5 times the total cost). ROA fluctuated from -2.9% to 14.8%, while ROE from -12.6% to 72.4%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Std.Dev</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OSS</td>
<td>139.4%</td>
<td>141.2%</td>
<td>252.8%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>40.3%</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROA</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>-2.9%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROE</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>72.4%</td>
<td>-12.6%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Summary Statistics; source: Authors' Own Computations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>p-value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal MFIs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSS</td>
<td>0.0878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROA</td>
<td>0.1182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROE</td>
<td>0.1338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal MFIs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OSS</td>
<td>0.1402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROA</td>
<td>0.1338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROE</td>
<td>0.0876</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Results of Lilliefors Test; source: Authors' Own Computations

Table 2 presents the results of the Lilliefors test for normality of distribution of OSS, ROA, ROE for both formal and informal MFIs. The results show that it was not possible to reject the hypothesis $H_0$ at
the significance level of 5% (only the test for data series of the OSS of informal MFIs rejected $H_0$ at the 10% level of significance), which means that the data sets were normally distributed. This result indicated that the research can use t-tests to assess the differences in the self-sustainability and profitability between formal and informal MFIs.

4. Research Results

Table 3 presents the average scores for the OSS, ROA and ROE of both formal and informal MFIs as well as the t-test results. It shows that compared to formal MFIs, informal ones had higher self-sufficiency and ROA. Specifically, the average OSS of informal MFIs was 160% whereas that of formal MFIs was only approximately 122% (40% less). As regard to ROA, the figure for informal MFIs was 7% while that of formal MFIs only 4%. For ROE, the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant; however, the figure for informal MFIs was still higher than that of formal MFIs (16% compared to 13%). A Wilcoxon test on the difference in the median values agreed with these results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Formal MFIs</th>
<th>Informal MFIs</th>
<th>Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OSS</td>
<td>1.2195</td>
<td>1.5779</td>
<td>0.3583***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROA</td>
<td>0.0400</td>
<td>0.0725</td>
<td>0.0326***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROE</td>
<td>0.1323</td>
<td>0.1614</td>
<td>0.0291</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Results of T-Test; source: Authors Own Computations

(Note: *, **, *** denote statistical significance of the t-tests at the 10%, 5%, and 1% level, respectively)

These results were consistent with the study by Bakker et al. (2014) on the self-sustainability of MFIs in the post-crisis period. Accordingly, the cost of regulatory compliance was the main reason that caused formal MFIs to be less competitive and, therefore, their self-sustainability as well as profitability is also worse than their
informal counterparts. Another explanation for these results came from the research by Peck and Rosenberg (2000): credit cooperatives (customers, both owners and borrowers) had lower agency cost (costs arising from the conflict between shareholders and managers) than private companies did. Costs caused by the problem of conflict between principal and agent led to cooperatives not being as effective as private companies.

In contrast, a study by Bassem (2009) found that formal MFIs would be more efficient because they are trusted by customers and, therefore, found it easier to access funds from residents. Peck and Rosenberg (2000) explained that the board members of NGOs paid less attention to monitoring management because they were not investors, so they were less interested in the survival and the sustainable development of the institutions. The private companies were, therefore, more profitable than NGOs. According to microfinance experts (e.g. Ledgerwood & White, 2006; White & Campion, 2002), the governance systems of non-profit organizations were less effective than those of formal MFIs. Thus, as a result of effective governance systems, private companies would be better controlled and, therefore, more efficient than cooperatives and NGOs. The survey results of 39 cases of transformation by Fernando (2004) also confirmed that most of the transformation cases improved the governance system and financial performance of MFIs, as typified by the case of BancoSol in 1992, FFP Caja Los Andes in 1996, Banco Ademi in 1998, Mibanco in 1998 and Compartamentos in 1999. However, some empirical studies did not find the relationship between the performance of MFIs and their legal status (Mersland & Strøm, 2008, 2009 and Gutierrez-Nieto, Serrano-Cinca & Mar-Molinero, 2009).

The unexpected results in the cases of Vietnamese MFIs in the research (informal institution had higher self-sustainability and profitability) could be explained by both the difference in the research context and that Vietnamese formal MFIs are still not organizing effective governance systems as predicted by the studies of
Ledgerwood and White (2006) and White and Campion (2002). In addition, the reliability of data and consensus on recognizing and reporting standards should be considered. From the definitions of variables, the values of OSS, ROA and ROE were always influenced by risk provisions, which were calculated by expectations of risks. Lack of controls as well as inconsistencies in estimating standards may affect the value and the reliability of OSS, ROA and ROE. High values of OSS, ROA and ROE in informal organizations can be the results of investing in lucrative but risky assets without setting up sufficient provisions for losses.

5. Conclusion and Policy Recommendation

Through the tests and results, it has been found that in Vietnam, the informal MFIs have higher levels of operational sustainability and return ratios. This is due to the fact that formal MFIs in Vietnam pay more on issues related to legal affairs, representatives, transforming costs and upgrading infrastructure, while there is uncertainty about the opportunity to raise capital and benefit from transformation. In more detail, in Vietnam, the corporate income tax for formal MFIs is 20% while informal MFIs are exempt from this tax. Moreover, formal MFIs are treated as a kind of financial institution so they have to comply with the safety ratios and other regulations issued by the State Bank of Vietnam.

Based on the empirical results about the negative relationship about legal status and operational efficiency in MFIs in Vietnam, the study has generated some policy recommendations:

Firstly, most MFIs in Vietnam work for social and nonprofit targets, so if they transform to become formal institutions their original targets would be lessened and there would be more tax and legal issue burdens. Consequently, the formal MFIs in Vietnam do not have to transform to the formal sector by any means.
Secondly, even though Vietnam has a basic legal framework for MFIs, which provides a foundation for moving from the informal to the formal sector, MFIs generally are vulnerable to fast changes in the business environment. In addition, there is a significant challenge in the competition in finance and banking sector, especially when Vietnam has opened the door to competition more and more broadly. The informal MFIs, therefore, need to be more proactive in operation and management as well as mitigating risk, achieving targets and, especially, being ready to comply with regulations.

References


Role of Emotional Intelligence in Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Shameena Ferdausy, Anupam Kumar Das and Suchana Akhter

Abstract

This paper aims to examine the role of emotional intelligence in the dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour (such as altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue) in the context of Bangladesh. Emotional intelligence was measured by using the Emotional Quotient Index (Rahim et al., 2002) while organizational citizenship behaviour was measured by a twenty-item questionnaire developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). Data were collected from 163 full-time working MBA students studying at the Chittagong University Center for Business Administration under the Faculty of Business Administration of the University of Chittagong, Bangladesh. In data collection, this study used a convenience sampling technique. To examine the role descriptive statistics, bivariate correlation and regression analyses were used. Results reported a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and the dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour. An important implication of the study is that an emotionally intelligent individual can exhibit more organizational citizenship behaviour. The most important limitation was in using convenience samples that might limit the generalizability of the results. Future research directions were also discussed.

Keywords: Bangladesh, emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behaviour
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1. Introduction

Emotional intelligence (EI) is described as the thoughtful use of emotion and feeling and it covers a series of individual properties and skills (Gholipur, 2007). It is typically considered to be a subjective skill or an inter-personal skill which is an important factor to support human intelligence quality. It can be said that workers can effectively help and improve their organizations if they perform their responsibilities beyond the defined duties of their jobs. In simple words, they can tolerate jobs that are not predictable and which it is necessary for them to undertake (Mehdad, 2008). As organizations mostly seek higher performance, EI can enhance the organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of employees to achieve the unstated purposes of the organizations. Hence, the aim of this study is to assess the relationship between EI and OCB of MBA students in Bangladesh who are working full-time.

It has become necessary for organizations to pay special attention to organizational innovation, flexibility, productivity and responsiveness to changing external conditions for their survival and success in this increasingly globalized industrial world. It is being progressively realized that employee behaviour that is beyond the traditional
measures of job performance, like OCB, hold promise for long-term organizational success. OCB was first described by Bateman and Organ (1983) and has recently been gaining increasing attention. It has been noted to have contributed favourably to organizational outcomes, such as service quality (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997; Bell & Menguc, 2002), organizational commitment (Podsakoff & McKenzie, 1997), job involvement (Dimitriades, 2007) and leader-member exchange (Bhal, 2006; Lo, Ramayah & Hui, 2006). A number of studies show that managers in future will be beaten by their rivals who are unable to communicate effectively. EI is one of the components that can play a considerable role in terms of the relationship between staff and managers with respect to OCB. Goleman (1995; 1998) stated that not only do top managers or presidents of the firm need EI but, also, everyone in the firm should use it for effective communication.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Definition of Emotional Intelligence

EI has become popular as a concept in both the literature and management practice in recent years. Although Goleman (1998; 2000) is most closely associated with the idea, Salovey and Mayer (1990:189) were the first to define the term EI as “… a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action.” This definition consists of three types of abilities: i) expression and evaluation of emotion; ii) regulation of emotion and iii) using emotions in the decision-making process. A similar definition was given by Bar-On (1997:14): “… an array of emotional, personal, and social abilities and skills that influence an individual’s ability to cope effectively with environmental demands and pressures.” Goleman (1998:317) defined EI as “… the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in
ourselves and in our relationships.” This suggests that EI is related to a number of non-cognitive skills, abilities or competencies that can influence an individual’s capacity. Consequently, EI is the ability to perceive and understand emotions, to regulate and organize emotions and to generate and manage emotions so as to enhance thinking and promote intellectual growth.

2.2. Components of EI

Despite criticisms, it has been suggested that the EI of an individual can be measured by using different dedicated instruments available in the literature, such as EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997), ECI (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 1999), EIQ (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000), SUEIT (Palmer & Stough, 2001), MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002), EQI (Rahim et al., 2002), WEIP (Jordan et al., 2002), TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2003), EIS (Wong, Law & Wong, 2004), and AES (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009). Among these various measures of EI, the current study intends to use the “Emotional Quotient Index” (EQI) developed by Rahim et al., (2002) to measure the five components of EI. The five components are i) self-awareness; ii) self-regulation; iii) motivation; iv) empathy and v) social skills. These components are the re-characterization of original elements of EI suggested by Goleman (1995). It is a 40-item instrument designed to measure subjects’ perceptions about their EI. The descriptions of these five components are presented next.

2.2.1. Self-awareness

According to Goleman (1995; 1998) and Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002), self-awareness is the foundation for the rest of the components. It is the ability to recognize which emotions, moods and impulses one is experiencing and why. It is associated with emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence. Goleman (1995; 1998) argues that it is not only related to an individual’s psychological insight and self-understanding but also plays a key role
in determining how an individual exhibits behaviours and interacts with others. Indeed, individuals who are highly confident, self-efficacious and aware of their emotions promote attributions of high performance (Gardner & Avolio, 1996). It is found from the prior research that the person with high level of self-awareness can master his/her destiny effectively (Bandura, 1986).

2.2.2. Self-regulation

It is the ability to handle feelings as they are being experienced and encompasses managing techniques such as knowing when to comfort oneself and when not to let every emotion overcome one’s being (Goleman, 1995; 1998). It is associated with self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, and innovation. Goleman et al. (2002) contends that individuals with emotional self-control find ways to manage their disturbing emotions and impulses and even to channel them in useful ways. Self-emotional control and self-monitoring have been proposed to be related to high performance (Gardner & Avolio, 1996; Shamir, 1991).

2.2.3 Motivation

It is the ability of an individual’s motives or needs, sense of hope and optimism, and self-efficacy (Goleman, 1995; 1998). According to Rahim et al. (2002) a self-motivated person remains focused on goals and objectives despite setbacks, operates from hope of success rather than fear of failure and accepts change to attain goals. Need for power, need for achievement and need for affiliation provide a strong impetus for self-motivated individuals (Mc Clelland, 1987). Charismatic individuals exhibit high levels of self-motivation based on strong convictions and beliefs as well as faith and hope in a better future (Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993).
2.2.4 Empathy

It provides emotional support to people when needed and understands the links between emotions and behaviours of other people (Rahim et al., 2006). Burns (1978) states that the striving for self-esteem and evolution of a sense of human empathy work in harmony to bring out the potential for high performance. Empathy is associated with understanding and developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity and political awareness (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2004).

Figure 1: Pattern of EI; source: Goleman (1995)

2.2.5. Social Skills

It is the ability to manage emotions in others to solve interpersonal conflicts for which there may be no logical solutions. It includes socio-economic skills necessary to analyse and understand human relationships, negotiate disputes, resolve conflicts, influence popular opinion and exhibit considerate and cooperative behavior (Goleman, 1995; 1998). Bass and Avolio (1990) and Yukl (2007) observe that social skills are important for exhibiting effective individual performance. In addition, some researchers suggest that the individual
performance depends on emotional traits of the concerned person (Bass, 1990; Shamir et al., 1993; Yukl, 2007).

2.3 OCB

It was Organ (1988) who first introduced the concept of OCB as a “… good soldier syndrome” which is necessary for the prosperity and good functioning of every organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1990). Organ (1988) defined the concept of OCB as individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that promotes the effective functioning of the organization. It is defined as “… discretionary behavior that is not a part of an employee’s formal job requirements, but that nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Robins & Judge, 2009:64).” It includes the sense of identification, involvement and loyalty expressed by an employee towards the company. Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks (1995:218) use the term OCB as “extra-role behavior” and describe it as “… behavior which benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations.” Diverse terms to describe extra-role behaviour have been suggested such as OCB (Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983), pro-social organizational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), civic organizational behaviour (Graham, 1991), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992) and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). However, OCB is most commonly used. In fact, it includes showing support and conscientiousness towards the organization (Smith et al., 1983; Bateman & Organ, 1983).

2.4. Dimensions of OCB

The construct of OCB is multidimensional. Several researchers (e.g. Morrison, 1994; Organ, 1988) have posited five dimensions, which
are altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue. These dimensions are described below.

2.4.1. Altruism

Altruism refers to useful and beneficial characteristics, such as friendship and empathy among coworkers that helps those coworkers who have problems. Altruism (e.g., helping new colleagues and freely giving time to others) is typically directed towards other individuals but contributes to group efficiency by enhancing individuals’ performance (Organ, 1988). It is concerned with going beyond job requirements to help others with whom the individual comes into contact (Redman & Snape, 2005). Behaviours such as helping a colleague who has been absent from work, helping others who have heavy workloads, being mindful of how one’s own behaviour affects others’ jobs and providing help and support to new employees represent clear indications of an employee’s interest in the work environment are categorized as altruism (Paré, Tremblay & Lalonde, 2000).

2.4.2. Courtesy

This dimension expresses the way of interaction with coworkers, supervisors and clients of an organization. Courtesy (e.g., advance notices, reminders and communicating appropriate information) helps prevent problems and facilitates the constructive use of time (Organ, 1998). Employees with courtesy consult their supervisors or other individuals who might be affected by their actions or decisions; inform their supervisor before taking any important actions; takes steps to prevent problems with other employees and do not abuse the rights of others. Such activities of courtesy create and stimulate better relationships and contribute to a positive work environment that ultimately leads to better job performance.
2.4.3. Sportsmanship

Organ (1988) defined sportsmanship as the behaviour of warmly tolerating the irritations that are an unavoidable part of nearly every organizational setting. Employees who engage in sportsmanship are described as “… people who not only do not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, but also maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way…” (Podsakoff et al., 2000:517). Examples of sportsmanship include not complaining or remarking on irritations or unfairness. It improves the amount of time spent on constructive endeavours in the organization (Organ, 1988). Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) observed that good sportsmanship would enhance the morale of the work group and subsequently reduce employee turnover.

![Figure 2: Pattern of OCB; source: Podsakoff et al. (1990)](image)

2.4.4. Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness refers to discretionary behaviours that go beyond the basic requirements of the job in terms of obeying work rules, attendance and job performance (Redman & Snape, 2005). In other words, the individuals who possess an advanced citizenry attitude might continue to work despite sickness. This attitude shows conscientiousness (Organ, 1998). In addition, conscientiousness (e.g., efficient use of time and doing beyond the minimum expectations)
enhances the efficiency of both an individual and the group. It is used to indicate whether a particular individual is organized, accountable and hardworking. Organ (1988) defined it as dedication to the job that exceeds formal requirements such as working long hours and volunteering to perform tasks besides contracted duties.

2.4.5 Civic Virtue

It refers to behaviour that demonstrates a responsible concern for the image and well-being of the organization (Redman & Snape, 2005). Borman et al. (2001) define civic virtue as responsibly involving oneself in and being concerned about the life of the organization. An employee with civic virtue keeps abreast of changes in the organization, keeps up with developments in the company and attends functions that are not required but that helps build the company’s image. Civic virtue helps make an attachment to the organization and brings more satisfaction. It includes subordinate participation in organization political life and supporting the administrative function of the organization (Deluga, 1998).

3. Development of Research Hypotheses

3.1. EI and Altruism

EI may enhance altruistic behaviour as it enables employees to comprehend their coworkers’ feelings and to respond better than employees with low EI because of their ability to shift easily from negative to positive moods (Abraham, 1999). It is suggested that emotionally intelligent employees tend to exhibit altruistic behaviour during working hours in their organizations (Staw, Sutton & Pelled, 1994). It is also reported that EI may predict the altruistic behaviours of the personnel (Salarzehi et al., 2011). Employees having good EI tend to help other workers who have problems and most of them are willing to perform above their energy. Consequently, the following hypothesis is generated:
H1: There is a positive relationship between EI and altruism perceived by working MBA students.

3.2. EI and Courtesy

An emotionally intelligent member encourages other workers when they are demoralized and feel discouraged about their professional development through demonstrating courtesy (Modassir & Singh, 2008). Early research efforts have found that employees who exhibit courtesy would reduce intergroup conflict and, thereby, diminish the time spent on conflict management activities (Podsakoff et al., 2000). This dimension expresses the way of interaction with coworkers, supervisors and clients of the organization. Individuals having EI tend to exhibit courtesy in their behaviour (Castro, Armario & Ruiz, 2004). It is proposed that emotionally intelligent employees should evaluate their abilities and be able to recognize their emotions at any given time (Salarzehi et al., 2011). They should understand the situation in times of stress and pressure and before committing any inappropriate acts. Consequently, the following hypothesis is developed:

H2: There is a positive relationship between EI and courtesy perceived by working MBA students

3.3. EI and Sportsmanship

An emotionally intelligent individual focuses on important matters and accentuates positive issues (Castro et al., 2004). It is revealed that good sportsmanship was found in emotionally intelligent managers who could enhance the morale of the work group and, subsequently, reduce employee turnover (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1990). A positive relationship has been reported between EI and sportsmanship among executives (Salarzehi et al., 2011). People with EI have the ability to consider the effects and results of their actions on others and control their stress and anxiety effectively (Rahim et al., 2002). Ideally, emotionally intelligent people are allowed to present their
emotions and feeling after analyzing a situation (Yaghoubi, Mashinchi & Hadi, 2011). Hence, the following hypothesis has been devised:

H3: There is a positive relationship between EI and sportsmanship perceived by working MBA students.

3.4. EI and Conscientiousness

The specific OCB of followers driven by the EI of leaders is conscientiousness (Yaghoubi et al., 2011). When understood and appreciated by their leaders, subordinates may feel motivated and satisfied with their jobs and may reciprocate by being conscientious. It is reported that the EI of managers had a positive correlation with the conscientiousness of the subordinates (Modassir & Singh, 2008). Typically, emotionally intelligent individuals who possess a higher citizen outlook can continue to work regardless of their drawbacks (Salarzehi et al., 2011). Workers who have a higher level of self-awareness can control and regulate their feelings and be able to communicate more effectively with others. In other words, individuals with higher EI and conscientiousness are more able to continue work even in the worst conditions. Consequently, the following hypothesis can be established from the above discussion:

H4: There is a positive relationship between EI and conscientiousness perceived by working MBA students.

3.5. EI and Civic Virtue

Emotionally intelligent employees keep up with the changes in the company, attend functions that are not required but that help the company image and participate actively in meetings (Rahim et al., 2006). They also participate in organizational political life and positively support the administrative functions of the organization (Deluga, 1994). An employee with civic virtue should have the responsibility to be good a citizen of the organization (Graham, 1991),
which is one of the facets of EI in a true sense. An emotionally intelligent manager demonstrates a responsible concern for the image and well-being of the organization (Redman & Snape, 2005). Additionally, a good number of researchers have warranted that there may be a positive relationship between EI and the civic virtue of the employees (Yaghoubi et al., 2011; Salarzehi et al., 2011). Consequently, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H5: There is a positive relationship between EI and civic virtue perceived by working MBA students.

4. Research Methods

4.1. Participants

Data for this study were collected from 163 full-time working MBA (evening) students studying at the Chittagong University Center for Business Administration (CUCBA) under the Faculty of Business Administration of the University of Chittagong, which is a public university in Bangladesh. The students were working at different organizations in sectors such as manufacturing, education, financial, services and others. The respondents were asked to rate their own EI and OCB according to various scales. Their positions were classified into three categories, namely: higher-level, mid-level and lower-level. Respondents were assured that any information they provided would be kept confidential and used only for academic purposes.

Respondents ranged in age from 28 to 49 years, with a mean of 33.4 (SD = 5.37) years and 107 (64.1%) were male while 56 (35.9%) were female. Average work experience was 5.7 (SD = 2.98) years. There were 11 (6.6%), 103 (61.7%), and 53 (31.8%) of respondents at the top, middle and lower levels of responsibility respectively. The respondents were well educated, since 74 (44.3%) had completed bachelor degrees while 93 (55.7%) had masters degrees. In terms of organizational units, 37 (22.2%) belonged to manufacturing, 32
(19.2%) to education, 39 (23.4%) to finance, 31 (18.6%) to services and 28 (16.8%) to other sectors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Characteristics</th>
<th>Mean (years)</th>
<th>SD (years)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%age</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age:</td>
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<td>5.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience:</td>
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<td>2.98</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender:</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>107</td>
<td>64.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>35.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Position:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>Middle</td>
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<td>103</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational qualifications:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
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<td>74</td>
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<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
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<td></td>
<td>93</td>
<td>55.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Industrial sector:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Respondents' demographic characteristics; source: original research, 2017

4.2. Survey Instruments

4.2.1. Emotional Quotient Index

EI was measured using the EQI developed by Rahim et al. (2002). The EQI uses 40 items to produce a scale to measure the five components of EI. The five EI components of the EQI were: i) self-awareness; ii) self-regulation; iii) motivation; iv) empathy and v)
social skills. The items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 7 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). A higher score indicates a greater level of EI within a respondent.

Sample items for the EQI instrument were ‘I am well aware of my moods’ (self-awareness), ‘I remain calm in potentially volatile situations’ (self-regulation), ‘I stay focused on goals despite setbacks’ (motivation), ‘I provide emotional support to people during stressful conditions’ (empathy) and ‘I handle emotional conflicts with tact and diplomacy’ (social skills). The five components consisted of eight items each.

4.2.2. OCB

OCB was measured using the OCB scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). It uses twenty items to produce a scale to measure the five dimensions of OCB, namely: i) altruism; ii) courtesy; iii) sportsmanship; iv) conscientiousness and v) civic virtue. The items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 7 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). A higher score indicates a greater level of OCB within a respondent.

Sample items for the OCB instrument were ‘I help orient new people even though it is not required’ (altruism), ‘I take steps to prevent problems with other employees’ (courtesy), ‘I always focus on what is wrong with his/her situation rather than the positive side of it’ (sportsmanship), ‘I never take long lunches or breaks’ (conscientiousness) and ‘I attend functions that are not required but that help the company’s image’ (civic virtue). The five dimensions consisted of four items each.

4.2.3. Data Collection Procedure

A convenience sampling technique was used in the current study for selecting the respondents. In order to collect data, printed
questionnaires were administered among 200 students at different semesters/classes at the CUCBA. The authors spent four separate days to collect data from the students. In collecting data, the authors briefed the students about the purpose of the study and then procedures to complete the printed survey instruments. The students took twenty five minutes on average to complete the questionnaires. Owing to some constraints, it was not possible to collect an equal number of responses from each semester/class. Overall, a total of 163 (81.5% response rate) usable responses were received. Then, the raw data were entered into an Excel file for summarization and then imported into the SPSS statistics 17.0 data editor for statistical analysis.

4.2.4. Reliability of Scales and Validity of Data

Reliability reflects the consistency of a set of item in measuring the study variables or concepts (Cooper & Schindler, 2001). It illustrates the individual differences concerning the amount of agreement or disagreement among the concepts or variables studied (Hair et al., 2006). Cronbach’s alpha is the most widely used method to measure the reliability of the scale (Malhotra, 2002). It may be mentioned that Cronbach’s alpha value ranges from 0 to 1 but to be satisfactory the value is required to be more than 0.60 for the scale to be considered reliable (Cronbach, 1951; Malhotra, 2002). However, Cronbach’s alpha for the EI and managerial effectiveness scales for the current study were 0.95 and 0.83 respectively. Consequently, these two instruments were adjudged to be highly reliable for data collection.

The validity refers to the extent to which differences in observed scales scores reflect true differences among objects on the characteristics being measured, rather than systematic or random error (Malhotra, 2002). In this study, the authors considered only the criterion validity which denotes that criterion variables (i.e. demographic characteristics, attitudinal and behavioral measures) were collected at the same time.
The mean and standard deviation calculated for the EQI and OCB are presented in Table 2. The mean and standard deviation of EQI and organizational citizenship behavior along with its five dimensions were consistent with the previous studies (Rahman et al., 2012; 2013; 2014). Correlations between the EQI and five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior are also presented in Table 2.

Examination of Table 2 shows that there were significant correlations between the EQI and the five dimensions of OCB. EQI was found to relate significantly with altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue (r = 0.66, p < 0.01; r = 0.78, p < 0.01; r = 0.72, p < 0.01; r = 0.82, p < 0.01; r = 0.75, p < 0.01) respectively. Thus, it indicates that all five hypotheses were supported by the results.

**Table 2: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities and correlations among variables; source: Authors’ own research, 2017**

(Note: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); n = 163; EQI = emotional quotient index; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; ALT = altruism; COU = courtesy; SPO = sportsmanship; CON = conscientiousness; and CIV = civic virtue)
Review of the Table 3 demonstrates that only 5% and 6% of the variances in EQI and OCB were explained by the socio-demographic characteristics (such as tenure, gender, age, position, education and sector). This implies that a larger portion of variance in EQI and OCB were unexplained. The presence of unexplained variance suggests that there were other potential variables that account for variations in EQI and OCB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Covariates</th>
<th>Co-efficients (β)</th>
<th>S.E. (β)</th>
<th>Value of t-statistic</th>
<th>Value of R²</th>
<th>Value of F-statistic (ANOVA)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>3.03** 3.18** 0.05 0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>1.81 1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>1.41 -1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>-0.38 1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.31 -0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.91 2.02**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Summary of regression analysis of potential covariates with EQI and OCB; source: Authors’ own research, 2017**

(Note: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); n = 163; EQI = emotional quotient index; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of OCB (Explained Variables)</th>
<th>EQI (Predictor)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Co-efficients (β)</td>
<td>S.E. (β)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALT</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COU</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPO</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CON</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIV</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4: Summary of regression analysis regarding EQI and Dimensions of OCB; source: Authors’ own research, 2017**
Examination of Table 4 indicates that about 46%, 61%, 51%, 68% and 56% of the variances in altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue were explained by EQI. Although a large proportion of variances in the five dimensions were unexplained, it has been suggested that EQI might be a significant predictor in explaining OCB.

6. Discussion

The present study intends to examine the relationships between EI and the dimensions of OCB perceived by the respondents. The present study found that emotional intelligence was correlated positively with the conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and altruism of personnel. This finding of this study is generally consistent with the previous research reported on in the literature review.

The first purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between EI and altruism. Hypothesis 1 stated that there would be a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and altruism measured by the respondents’ perception. The result of the current study supported this contention. This positive relationship is consistent with the proposition preceding studies (Staw et al., 1994; Abraham, 1999). Employees with good emotional intelligence tend to help other workers who have problems and most of them are willingly performing above their requirements.

The second purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between EI and courtesy. Hypothesis 2 stated that emotionally intelligent personnel would infer more courtesy measured by the subjects’ perception. The result of the current study supported this
assertion. This positive relationship is consistent with the supposition of prior readings (Castro et al., 2004; Modassir & Singh, 2008).

The third purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between EI and sportsmanship. Consistent with hypothesis 3, the relationship between EI and sportsmanship was found to be positive as perceived by the respondents. Consequently, individuals who are highly emotionally intelligent are more likely to be higher in sportsmanship. The result of the current study also delivers support for the assumption that the EI of individuals may be an important element in enhancing individuals’ sportsmanship.

The fourth purpose of the study was to discover the relationship between EI and conscientiousness. Consistent with hypothesis 4, the relationship between EI and conscientiousness was found to be positively perceived by the respondents. The result of the current study supported this postulation. The findings of the current study support the argument that EI may be a critical factor in improving higher conscientiousness of employees in organizations (Modassir & Singh, 2008; Salarzehi et al., 2011).

The final purpose of this study was to ascertain the relationship between EI and civic virtue. Hypothesis 5 stated that there would be a positive relationship between EI and civic virtue measured by the respondents’ perception. The findings of the current study supported this hypothesis. This positive relationship is consistent with the proposition of previous studies (Yaghoubi et al., 2011; Salarzehi et al., 2011). It may be the case that individuals who are emotionally intelligent are likely to be higher in civic virtue.

6.1. Implications for Management

This study shows that emotionally intelligent individuals demonstrate higher levels of OCB. An employee who has high EI tends to help other workers who have problems and most of them are willing to
perform in excess of their requirements. We propose that employees should diagnose their strong and weak points as well as recognize their feelings and emotions. Workers with higher level of EI are able to assess their competencies perfectly and control their spirits. They should also manage and regulate their feelings to work beyond their given tasks. Employees who can identify and manage their own emotions create more sincere and helpful settings in their organizations. It also demonstrates that emotionally intelligent workers can influence the OCB at their work place. In other words, individuals with high EI and advanced citizenship behavior are more capable of continuing work even in the worst environments. Consequently, it is the responsibility of managers to improve the EI of the employees to facilitate OCB in their organizations.

6.2. Limitations

There are limitations associated with the present study that should be considered when explaining its findings. The first significant limitation was in using a convenience sample that might restrict the generalizability of the outcomes. A random sampling procedure could be a better alternative to assure generalizability of the results. The sample size (N = 163) posed another constraint of this study. A larger and more representative sample is needed to investigate further the relationship between EI and dimensions of OCB. The presence of common method variance in the measures may have caused inflated relationships between the constructs. One way to overcome this problem is to split the measures of variables by time. Finally, the current study used self-rated instruments to measure the EI and OCB of the respondents. A 360° assessment can be used to get reliable results where senior bosses, supervisors, colleagues and peers rate participants on the relevant items.
6.3. Future Directions

Future research would benefit from a larger sample size, using a variety of samples. The structural equation model generates more reliable conclusions in terms of the construct validity of the measurement used. Researchers may also conduct a longitudinal study to provide stronger evidence of the relationship between EI and OCB of the same group of respondents. Furthermore, research examining the relationships between EI and the components of OCB in a particular industry would be an area for future research in the context of Bangladesh. The present study has been provided many potential paths for future researchers. Exploration of how EI affects other areas in organization and life may be fruitful.

7. References


Entrepreneurship and Nation-Building in a Changing Environment: Health Education Perspective

Afolabi Joseph Fasoranti

Abstract

Health education offers invaluable assets to all nations because of the variety of career opportunities it offers which help to alleviate numerous societal problems such as poverty, lack of proper health care and, also, misconceptions about various health conditions. The purpose of the paper is to examine the role of health education as an avenue to learning entrepreneurship skills for nation-building and fighting economic recession. The paper discusses the role and importance of health education in nation-building, the concept of entrepreneurship, career and entrepreneurship opportunities in the field of health education and strategies for developing entrepreneurship skills in health education. The paper concludes that health education can help to lift the nation out of recession if properly put into practice. It is, therefore, recommended that governments and other stakeholders in the health industry should create awareness about the role of health education in nation-building.

Keywords: changing environment, entrepreneurship, health education, nation-building, poverty alleviation

Author:

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1. Introduction

Recession, triggered by the collapse of the subprime mortgage market and fall in oil prices, deeply affected businesses, the economy in general, politics and the personal lives of many millions of people. The struggling economies around the world, including Nigeria, are still recovering from the wounds inflicted upon them at that time. The high magnitude of the effect caused by the recent recession is probably down to its depth; it was the worst downturn in the last decade. A recession is a period between a peak and a trough (of a business cycle) during which a significant decline in economic activity spreads across the economy. Recessions are characterized by negative real GDP growth and increases in unemployment.

The word entrepreneur comes from the French verb *entreprendre*, which means, “to undertake.” Entrepreneurship has been defined in the past, and continues to be in the present, in various ways by different authors. Over the decades, an entrepreneur has been described as a coordinator, risk bearer or innovator (Adegbaye, 2014). Adegbaye (2014) defines the process of innovation as spontaneous undeliberate learning while, for Frank (2007), it is the ability to spot where market the fails and it is possible to develop new products, goods or processes for which there is market demand. While many agree that innovation is an important part of the entrepreneurship process, it is not sufficient in itself. For example, Eddy (2006) described creative imitation as another aspect of entrepreneurship, which probably describes a lot of entrepreneurs coming from places like China or other developing and emerging countries. Creative imitation is the process of taking an innovative product and tailoring it to a particular niche or local market to serve needs better. These different definitions of entrepreneurship exist because it has been looked at from various perspectives. It has been observed that entrepreneurship has been described in term of dynamic change, new combinations, exploiting opportunities, innovation, price arbitrage, risk, uncertainty, ownership, new-venture formation, non-control of
resources, asymmetries of information, superior decision-making, monopoly formation and others. He then concludes that while these points of view had previously been thought of as contradictory, they actually are complementary definitions describing different sub-domains of entrepreneurship, such as business, social, academic, family business entrepreneurship and so forth. Filion (2011), meanwhile, proposes that any comprehensive definition of entrepreneurship should encompass six main components: 1) innovation; 2) opportunity recognition; 3) risk management; 4) action; 5) use of resources and 6) added value.

Entrepreneurship is becoming increasingly important within the health care sector since, for example, societal changes open spaces for new entrepreneurs in the field (Ajala, 2006). However, quite a little research has been done on entrepreneurship in the health care sector and particularly on enterprise education in Health Education. Previous studies have identified a number of obstacles that may hinder Health Educators from becoming entrepreneurs, such as a lack of business competence and skills, financial obstacles, lack of support from their colleagues and society and fear of the unknown (Fasoranti & Adeyeye, 2015). In addition, entrepreneurship in the health care sector is also dependent on the politics related to public health care services such as the forces relegating Health Education to the background. Some studies indicate that a lack of competence in entrepreneurship is a major barrier for Health Educators who want to become entrepreneurs (Ilesanmi, 2014). Health Educator entrepreneurs claim that when their education is based on the traditional forms of teaching, it does not provide them with enough knowledge about entrepreneurship or establishing and running a company. Consequently, a critical discussion about the role of education in enhancing entrepreneurship among Health Education is needed. The health education and the health promotion fields are fertile grounds for the entrepreneurially skilled professional to initiate new ideas, tools and techniques as solutions in meeting the challenges of practice in the field.
Changes in social, political and regulatory factors and advances in instructional technology have led many health educators to think about becoming entrepreneurs. As primary prevention of chronic diseases becomes a more central component of the health and/or medical care continuum, entrepreneurial opportunities for health educators will continue to expand. The process used to design, implement and evaluate health promotion and disease prevention has clear connections with entrepreneurship, marketing management and other business processes (Eddy, 2006). Business and health education applications use formative evaluation, needs assessments and other data gathering techniques to develop two-way circular communication channels which determine the values, needs and preferences of customers (in business applications) and students, clients or participants (in Health education applications). Consequently, this paper examines the role of the health educator as an entrepreneur in possible nation-building.

2. Health Education and Health Promotion

While health education has a long history as a both professional and academic field, health promotion did not really emerge until the 1980s. Whereas the popular thinking is in the direction of viewing health education and health promotion as synonymous terms, both of them are different processes. However, health promotion embraces more the effect that health education is subsumed within its scope. Johnson (2010) considers health education to be planned learning designed to improve knowledge, and develop life skills which are conducive to individual and community health. In essence, Health Education plays a crucial role in the development of a healthy, inclusive and equitable social, psychological and physical environment. It reflects current best practice, using an empowering, multi-dimensional, multi professional approach which relates to all settings and organizations, including the community, schools, health services and the workplace. Health Education helps provide health knowledge, enhance wellness behaviours, promote health situations,
facilitate healthful relationship and enable community members make responsible decisions. The Joint Committee on Health Education and Promotion Terminology (2001) defined Health Education as any combination of planned learning experiences based on sound theories that provide individuals, groups and communities the opportunity to acquire information and the skills needed to make quality health decisions.

Health is a dynamic state of being, whose components are acting and interacting and it is individually and socially valued. Health may be viewed both as a global quality and as a set of specific attributes or qualities (physical, psychological and social well-being and functioning). Optimal health is full realization of the individual’s health potential. O’Donnell (2009) points out that optimal health has physical, intellectual, social, emotional and spiritual dimensions. Edwards (2012) observes that the extensive scope of health promotion programmes includes: alcohol and drug assistance (drug detoxification and rehabilitation); cancer prevention; cardiovascular screening; cholesterol screening and reduction; counseling assistance; exercise prescription; eye care; fitness testing and maintenance; headache/migraine prevention techniques; health risk appraisals and needs assessments; hypertension screening and reduction control; lifestyle consultations; nutrition education; tobacco use cessation; stress management and reduction and weight control and maintenance.

Health problems that are prevalent in countries such as Nigeria include poverty, unemployment, diabetes, poliomyelitis, cancer, cerebrospinal meningitis, malaria, tobacco use, alcohol use, herb use, hypertension, malnutrition, osteoarthritis, child abuse, vesico-vaginal fistula, female genital mutilation, HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, intestinal worm infection, skin bleaching cream/soap use and low-levels of physical activity; lack of rest and recreation; environmental pollution and lack of potable water. These problems are opportunities for the entrepreneur to come up with solutions that are applicable within and/or outside the corporate setting.
3. Need for Health Education in Nation-Building

The World Health Organization (WHO, 2008) identified five major needs for health education and these are as follows:

- **Improved Health:** Health education helps people improve their health in all stages of life. A health educator does this by visiting communities to give health talks as well as voluntary counseling on how to improve health and live a disease-free life.
- **Improve Decision-Making:** This helps people make better health decisions. To do so, the health educator often tailors the message to the group being educated. It explains the risks of unhealthy habits like smoking, excessive alcohol consumption and unprotected sex.
- **Fight Diseases:** The goal of health education at the primary health care system is to minimize the occurrence of life-threatening illnesses. For example, the risk of diabetes and heart diseases can be lessened with proper diet and exercise.
- **Fight Misconception:** Health education helps to correct some misconceptions that affect people’s health. For example, in the Northern part of Nigeria, where people believed that immunization is a means of putting an end to child bearing (family planning), this misconception can be corrected through health education.
- **Provide Resources:** Health Educators provide educational resources in the form of fliers carrying health messages, posters and pamphlet. It also creates awareness on health services that are available for free or at minimal cost.

4. Health Education and Entrepreneurship

There are health education and health promotion approaches in entrepreneurship and there is entrepreneurship in health education and
health promotion. In essence, the concepts are interconnected in theory and they are mutually reinforcing in practice. Frank (2007) attests to the fact that an entrepreneurial orientation is critical for national state and local development of the economy, observing that entrepreneurship has brought about changes, reforms and economic progress all over the world. The traditional or classical perspective on the meaning of entrepreneurship refers to the practice of taking risks in the process of managing to transform an innovative idea into a profitmaking business. The classical notion of the meaning of the term entrepreneur is predicated on the person’s hope for financial profit. However, profit transcends monetary forms of value. This has led to the extension of the scope of entrepreneurship to include social entrepreneurship: the art and science of adding value to life and the environment through creativity and innovation.

4.1. The Nature of Entrepreneurship

Inventors differ from entrepreneurs (Adegbaye, 2014). An inventor creates something new, whereas an entrepreneur assembles and then integrates all the resources needed (i.e., money, people, business plan, etc.) to operationalize an inventive idea, product or service into a viable business. The essence of entrepreneurial behaviour emanates from identifying opportunities and putting useful ideas and services into practice (Barringer & Ireland, 2006). This integration of ideas into practice inherently requires creativity and lateral thinking (i.e., thinking outside the box), which typically involves a willingness to be innovative. Successful entrepreneurs possess an internal sense of control and are able to create environments that support their business ideas.

4.2. Five Cardinal Rules of Entrepreneurship in Health Education

Entrepreneurial activities in Health Education are relative and contextual. Relative, in that much of what is obtained in Health
Education influences and is influenced by variable of human conditions, social, environmental and political factors (Eddy, Donohue & Chaney, 2001). Intra-individual changes across time resulting from a wide range of personal, social and environmental factors (such as maturation, marital status, conditions of employment and changes in the built environment) require a relative approach to Health education applications. Entrepreneurial activities are also contextual in that these activities occur within different organizational, community and social structures, which are influenced by disparate written and unwritten policies, procedures, and norms. Consequently, the Five Cardinal Rules of Entrepreneurship as applied to health education are discussed below.

4.2.1. Assess Capabilities and Limitations

Entrepreneurs cannot be all things to all people. In entrepreneurial endeavours, it is vital that entrepreneurs know what they can and what they cannot do with a high level of proficiency (Barringer & Ireland, 2006). Improve on these skills through further training in health education.

4.2.2. Position The Company According to Personal Capabilities

With knowledge of personal capabilities and limitations, it is possible to begin to position the business product and/or service in the marketplace. The position is the image or niche that the product or service has in the marketplace (Eddy, 2006). For example, during the outbreak of Ebola Virus, a variety of hand sanitizers were in the market. If an entrepreneur wanted to introduce new sanitizers into the marketplace, two important steps to position this product would be to (a) determine capability to produce competitive sanitizers and then (b) determine how it is unique (what this new sanitizer brings to a competitive market). This becomes the basis for the market position.
4.2.3. Use Contemporary Business and Marketing Applications

Developing a successful business plan includes opportunity recognition, feasibility analysis, industry analysis, business model development and strategic management (Barringer & Ireland, 2006). Articulating a business plan is an important step in entrepreneurial behaviour and it is important to realize that there are risks in not writing everything down and sharing business ideas with others.

**Opportunity recognition.** Before getting excited about a business idea, it is critical to determine whether that idea fills a need and meets the criteria for an opportunity. An opportunity is a gap between what is currently on the market and what the possibilities are for new or significantly improved products or services (*ibid.*). It is created by a favorable set of circumstances, which generates a need for a new product, service, or business. An opportunity has four central qualities: it is (a) attractive, (b) durable, (c) timely and (d) anchored in a product or service that creates or adds value for its buyer or user (*ibid.*).

**Business model development.** After conducting a feasibility analysis, a business model must be developed. A business model is the plan for how to use resources, structure relationships and interface with stakeholders so that the programme can sustain itself based on the profits it turns (*ibid.*). There is no standard business model in Health Education. In fact, it is dangerous to assume that success can be achieved by simply copying the business model of another programme, even if that other program is the industry leader. This is true because it is difficult to determine specifically how another programme’s business model was used without understanding (a) the process that was used in the development of the programme and (b) what resources were at the program planner’s disposal to develop the programme. Health educators who create programmes without
conceptualizing well-crafted business models may think that they can succeed anywhere by merely using the same pre-planned programme for any situation. However, neglecting the need to focus on the best process approach to planning business and Health education applications often yields inadequate business plans, which fail to embody this best process orientation, thus yielding inadequate products and services.

**Marketing application.** Many times, there is a misconception about what it means to market health promotion programmes. Marketing is not simply stating all the good aspects of a programme and promoting the benefits people can get from it (Andreasen, 1995). DeTienne (2010) defined marketing as, “satisfying needs and wants through exchange processes,” The essence of marketing is developing satisfying exchanges from which customers and marketers benefit. Adopting a marketing orientation entails determining what customers want before even developing a product or service. This requires the initial generation of market intelligence and responding to this information before implementing programs or services.

4.2.4. Get a Good Support Team

One reason for becoming an entrepreneur is to be one’s own boss. A person who does this can attract and assemble a personal support team based on personal relationships and networks. The business team should share the same vision for the Health Education product and display many traits such as self-motivation, good network, resilience, strategic thinking and innovation. If the company is a small business, it is appropriate to hire key health professionals (e.g. health educators, dieticians and data management providers) on a contract labour basis and business support personnel (e.g. accountants and lawyers) on a fee-for-service basis.
4.2.5. Strategically Manage Entrepreneurial Activity

Strategic management is important when formulating operational plans for Health Education programmes. The management of time, money, staff, energy, product, and work processes is not the exciting part of the business; however, it is as vital as marketing the programme and its providers. Strategic management closely coordinates many of the processes used to implement and evaluate programmes. Strategic management involves continually and systematically examining the internal and external environments of the programme (including strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to sustainability). This includes formulating short-range and long-range programme strategies, objectives and policies and implementing programmes, budgets and procedures. A programme’s performance should continually be evaluated through continuous feedback channels.

4.3. Areas that Health Educator Entrepreneurs Can Explore

The following areas can be explored by a health educator:

- In schools, health educators can teach health as a subject and promote and implement Coordinated School Health Programmes, including health services, student, staff and parent health education, while promoting healthy school environments and school-community partnerships. At the school level, they develop education methods and materials and coordinate, promote and evaluate programmes. As an entrepreneur, a health educator can establish a crèche, where pupils are accommodated.

- Working on a college or university campus, health educators are part of a team working to create an environment in which students feel empowered to make healthy choices and create a caring community. They identify needs, advocate and do
community organizing, teach whole courses or individual classes, develop mass media campaigns and train peer educators, counsellors and advocates. They address issues related to disease prevention; consumer, environmental, emotional and sexual health, first aid, safety and disaster preparedness, substance abuse prevention, human growth and development and nutrition and eating issues. They may manage grants and conduct research.

• In companies, health educators perform or coordinate employee counseling as well as education services, employee health risk appraisals and health screenings. They design, promote, lead and evaluate programmes about weight control, hypertension, nutrition, substance abuse prevention, physical fitness, stress management and smoking cessation. They also develop educational materials and write grants for money to support these projects. They help companies meet occupational health and safety regulations, work with the media and identify community health resources for employees.

• In health care settings, health educators educate patients about medical procedures, operations, services and therapeutic regimens, create activities and incentives to encourage use of services by high risk patients, conduct staff training and consult with other health care providers about behavioural, cultural or social barriers to health, promote self-care, develop activities to improve patient participation on clinical processes, educate individuals to protect, promote or maintain their health and reduce risky behaviours, make appropriate community-based referrals and write grants.

• In community organizations and government agencies, health educators help a community identify its needs, draw upon its problem-solving abilities and mobilize its resources.
to develop, promote, implement and evaluate strategies to improve its own health status. Health educators do community organizing and outreach, coalition building, advocacy and develop, produce and evaluate mass media health campaigns.

5. Conclusion

Health education is a multi-disciplinary profession that cuts across varieties of professions to provide opportunities for an entrepreneur. Owing to the changes in working life, entrepreneurial skills are necessary in the health care field, irrespective of the sector. For this reason, education programmes in health care should pay more attention to entrepreneurship in the curriculum. Only a minority of teachers in the field of health education teaches entrepreneurship at the moment, even though many teachers cooperate with entrepreneurs and companies. Teachers in the health care field would become more acquainted with entrepreneurship education if they received more training in how to teach it. In particular, the teaching methods need to be emphasized in entrepreneurship education. By so doing, the unemployment rate will be reduced through the establishment of companies in the area of health education.

6. References


Team Learning in the Midst of Strategy: A Sun Tzu and von Clausewitz Perspective from the 1996 Mount Everest Disaster

Rawee Phoewhawm

Abstract

When does a team truly sort out its performance with the time, energy, resources and effort that have been implemented into the strategy for reaching its goal? This study applies the theory of strategy from Sun Tzu and Clausewitz's perspective on the 1996 Mount Everest disaster case event to answer the question of whether the basis with regards to Sun Tzu’s ‘Laying the Plans’ and Clausewitz’s ‘Trinity’ for teams learning in the midst of strategy while dealing about the results, process and approach can be valid. A case study method on the 1996 Mount Everest Disaster was applied as a field study for analyzing team learning in the middle of strategy from the perspective of Sun Tzu and Clausewitz. From the analysis, Sun Tzu advises examining the internal and external sides as well as configuring how these factors can be outlined for the team to reach its goal while winning the battles one at a time. For Clausewitz, it is a belief that strategy can only come about if the parts, such as the people, military and government, become fully aligned to support the operation fully.

Keywords: case study, Clausewitz, Mount Everest, strategy, Sun Tzu

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1. Introduction

When does a team truly sort out its performance with the time, energy, resources and effort that have been implemented into the strategy for reaching its goal? Is it when the results that are being produced have not quite met up to expectations? Upon their quest and repeated setbacks on building the perfect model for flight, the Wright Brothers finally began to take the right path towards solving the problem of flight by abandoning the thesis and principles from the works of Lilienthal, Langley and Chanute, yet made the resolve to learn from their own commitment to testing and experiment in flying (McCullough, 2015). Or is it suddenly having to make some adjustments during the process due to the pressure of tending to the schedule? The cultural structure and system can always make a better contribution to the process by asking individual team members to see how their own tasks can be integrated effectively and efficiently when addressing the fundamental problems that are inhibiting the overall working procedures to be completed on time (McChrystal, 2015). Or, is it because the reality of the social/market/technological economy is telling them that the philosophical approach is antiquated? For example, the digital age forced Kodak and Fuji Film to rethink their business strategy; while Kodak never fully recovered from the changes Fuji Film moved further from the idea of being a photography business and tapped into its chemical expertise for greater usage, such as drugs and liquid-crystal display panels by developing the skills and know-how to adapt to environmental changes (Gershon, 2013). A strategy that reinforces the main ideas and values through the uncertainty and confusion of human affairs that can often be entangled with trivial issues will enable people to see the long term and the essential and to address the causes rather than the symptoms (Freedman, 2013). Sun Tzu believes that a well-defined strategy is derived from the importance to state affairs which could either lead a path towards safety or to ruins (McNeill, 2014). For Clausewitz, his doctrine provides an understanding of strategy to be viewed as an abstract structure through which people can be induced to undertake
deliberations on a specific course of action (Kornberger, 2013). However, not all strategy is taken as the crux for performance and learning which creates a downfall of planning and a failure of execution. The tragedy of the 1996 Mount Everest climbing expedition provides a perfect lesson for a team to stay grounded on the situation and analyze its total performance to seek for the opportunities while preventing unwanted chaos that could derail the mission.

1.1. Team Learning Elements in the 1996 Mount Everest Disaster Event

Kayes’ focus is on the problem of ‘goalodicy,’ in which the contingencies, unintended consequences and other obstacles are prevented from entering into one’s psyche that is purely determined in achieving the goal, even if means putting other people in a precarious position along the way and using the team resources as a leverage for individual pursuit and interest (Kayes, 2006). High expectations to succeed and being obligated to a fixed schedule can reinforce the motive to believe that the actions taken are legitimate to ensure that the procedures are thoroughly and rapidly carried out to obtain the results, despite being aware of the fact that mistakes and errors have occurred are self-justified for the sake of the goal (Alvarez, Pustina and Hälgren, 2010). Expeditions such as mountain climbing have time constraints, must deal with costs, rely on extensive planning and control and take calculated risks. Consequently, the anxiety level accumulates to a point at which team members refrain from being critical of the task and do not want to question authority for the sake of letting the process take its course (ibid.). Even as strategy is carefully laid out, there are certain factors that are beyond team members’ control which make people prone to making some mistakes and errors. However, they also offer useful information to raise questions and assist in decision making so that the chances of the mission being achieved will exceed the chances of failure (van Dyck, 2009). Teams pursuing their mission in a risky environment have to
improvise and be well equipped to ensure a consistency of communication being relayed for everyone to initiate necessary actions, otherwise the consequences for not keeping members and resources aligned could have a negative impact on commitment to the strategy (Sullivan, 2007). Along the journey to reach the goal, there were many objectives that needed to be obtained. Patterns for procedure that require a great deal of group effort require team members to develop a platform for learning to obtain the right solution and this platform should be supported on the pillars of value, understanding and morale for learning to take its form (Kayes, 2004).

2. Sun Tzu and von Clausewitz’s Framework of Strategy and Team Learning

2.1. Sun Tzu and the Art of War

The basic idea of carrying out the strategy is embedded within the alignment of the soldiers or people who need to be firmly intact as each sequence of the plan begins to unfold. Sun Tzu’s philosophy involves the belief that, when the army is engaged in combat, it should fight as a unified whole, performing as one, having one objective in mind and staying intact for the next mission that will be conducted (Cantrell, 2003). In order to be an indomitable unit the plans, should be laid out in a way that brings in the constant factors involved to act as signposts providing the vital data, information and intelligence to ensure that success is inevitable. According to the Art of War essay by Clavell (2005), the factors involved in laying out the plans contain the moral law, heaven, earth, the commander and method and discipline.

The moral law acts as the catalyst for getting the various behaviours to be in complete accordance with the ruler, so that they will follow him regardless of their lives and remaining undismayed by any danger. The members within the unit perform their deeds because there is an aura of moral influence (Michaelson, 2007). Heaven signifies night and day, cold and heat, times and season. Heaven is the condition that
touches and interacts with the mood and feelings of people; it can also alter their beliefs on their traditional culture, display the pattern of behaviour when a situation is fixed or bring out emotions that can either promote unity or disarray amongst team members (Sadler, 2009). Earth comprises distances, great and small, danger and security, open ground and narrow passes, with chances for both life and death. The terrain presents itself as data which needs to be questioned for accurate information or developing the intelligence that can make the analytical process gain a better understanding of the next decisive action to take. Observe the way people interact through their struggles and pain but also in their innovative and creative approach for survival and that will provide understanding of the environment with which the team has to contend (McCreadie, 2008). The commander stands for the virtues of wisdom, sincerity, benevolence, courage and strictness. The commander is looked upon as the foundation for setting the guidance to make sure that the mission is carried out in the soundest manner. The commander’s virtues, authority and judgment set the morale and standard expectation in performance of the troops while the devising of a proper scheme for the troops to be highly confident of completing a critical mission assignment is also required (Cleary, 1996). Method and discipline exemplify the organization of the unit in its proper subdivisions, ranking of officers and maintenance of roads by which supplies could be accessed, while also overseeing all expenditure. The method and discipline of belief is aimed at striving for balance in the mind for preventing any personal matters or emotional antagonisms to interfere with making more effective decisions and strategies (Wee, 2005). When all sides are engaged with the battle, all members within the unit have to be in line with the procession and the orders being carried out, while also receiving the proper equipment to fulfill their duties; that is, the meaning of having method and discipline (Minford, 2003).

These five selected factors act as a strategic compass for estimating where the advantages reside from a calculated plan promulgated beforehand, in the midst of the campaign and after the action so that
adjustments can be made to assure that victory is certain (Sawyer, 1994). The use of knowledge is in configuring where success is most eminent by connecting the flow of nature, the timing of the right momentum and the capabilities of the military unit to overwhelm the odds (Cleary, 2005). For victory to be most highly visible, the initial assessment foresees where to attack and where not, what conditions make it possible and not, who has the stronger command and not, when do the opportunities present themselves and not and why it is important to further the mission or abandon it. Consequently, the knowledge at hand provides a practical basis for determining the correct action for the unit to take (Mair, 2007).

2.2. Von Clausewitz’s On War

In contrast to Sun Tzu, who believed in a well thought out plan, Clausewitz viewed strategy as the necessary response of decision-makers in being fully aware of the inescapable reality of limited resources. Consequently, the choices made must be done in the most efficient way to achieve a competitive advantage (Pietersen, 2016). The dimension of the elements that are factored into the strategy must all be truly aligned to function in challenging times, especially when the unexpected consequences are abrupt and call for a quick but careful resolution (Gray, 1999). Clausewitz also felt that strategy can uphold ideas only if there is a recognition of chances opening up and permitting the military unit to adapt to those circumstances (Sprague, 2011). Since strategy is man-made and a phenomenon in itself, Clausewitz’s framework for strategy involves a paradoxical trinity for shaping the policies and procedures for action by the people, the military and the government. The people represent the primordial violence, passion, hate and enmity. The military represents the realm of probability and chance, courage and talent. The government represents the rational calculus, serving as the nexus between the ends and means. Victory can be fully possible when these three factors that make up the trinity are in equilibrium (Howe, 2015). A person’s idea of strategy comes from a personal principle for direction, searching
for the best practices to apply, pondering on the ideal model to support the process and acting on the heuristics of the experts. However, although theories are important for educating the mind, Clausewitz feels that the individual basis of thinking has to perceive the realities and relationships of their environment and to apply them successfully in developing strategy (Yarger, 2006), otherwise the opportunity to make things reach fruition will be lost. With a majority in comprehension, the people will be able to enhance the personal capacity and ability of either intuitive or analytical judgment with respect to the most adverse, dangerous and surprising conditions (Ilharco, 2003) so as to see how such a campaign is critical as it also acts according to their values and in their best interest. The military cannot just serve as a one dimensional mechanism that procures the tactical issues to achieve the overall aim. Instead, the tasks and duties from the previous lessons learned based on history should reframe the approach in making a huge contribution to the social, political and economic goals (Corn, 2006) for the sake of rendering a violent retaliation. Consequently, it is the role of the military leaders and commanders to utilize the policy in the operation as knowledge that guides unification, relearning the principles, focusing on the intentions and boosting morale for supporting the cause (Pin, 2015). The government is the foundation that holds the people and the military organization together. Keeping this movement in accord with the people and military begins with setting a clear idea of the means for accomplishment and how it intends to proceed toward that goal, while accepting the fact that the affair will not produce a fixed outcome and conducting the sequence of events to vary in accordance with their political purposes and context (Bassford, 2015). To get a better grasp on strategy, government has to view the practice of coordinating, testing and experimenting with the chosen theories to allow the stakeholders involved to observe, reflect and revise for the new set of ideas to enhance or rearrange the original thinking for better expected results (Carter, Clegg and Kornberger, 2008).
3. Research Objective

The aim of this study is to present a conceptual model for teams learning and performing under a mode of strategy where the issue of the results, processes and approach become the critical factors that are intertwined in goal achievement. The classic philosophy on strategy from Sun Tzu’s Art of War doctrine in ‘laying the plans’ and Clausewitz’s On War precepts in ‘trinity’ are utilized as the guidance for providing a theoretical approach for teams to learn in a dynamic situation that calls for extra performance. The work attempts to address the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the basis of Sun Tzu’s laying the plans for teams learning in the midst of strategy while dealing about the results, process and approach?

RQ2: What is the basis of Clausewitz’s trinity for the teams learning in the midst of strategy while dealing about results, process and approach?

4. Research Methodology

The study uses a case method approach for the 1996 Mount Everest Disaster as a field study for analyzing team learning in the middle of strategy from the perspective of Sun Tzu and Clausewitz. In order to obtain a unique proposition, the study begins with gathering scholarly work from previous authors that provided lessons to learn from when strategy becomes disarrayed; 21 articles were examined for details on how certain psychological and physical factors can disrupt the flow of team learning in strategy mode. The views that have been presented in the documents were applied to documentary videos, such as National Geographic’s “Seconds to Disaster” and “Dark Side of Everest,” PBS: Frontline’s “Storm Over Everest,” Nova’s “Everest the Most Dangerous Peak in the World,” discussing the incident that occurred in the expedition and the 1997 television show “Into Thin Air: Death
on Everest” and the 2015 movie “Everest,” which demonstrated how the misfortunes occurred. With a wealthy amount of information that was combined from previous research works, documentaries and films, the final stage was in applying Sun Tzu’s Art of War on laying the plans and Clausewitz’s On War concept of the trinity to answer the research questions and consider team learning in the midst of strategy. With this case method, the intention is also for practitioners of human resource management or team leaders to seek for better ways in developing the learning and performance of teams while meeting the goals of the strategy selected.

5. Analytical Basis of Sun Tzu and Von Clausewitz for Team Learning in the Midst of Strategy

5.1. The Basis for Sun Tzu’s Laying the Plan

Victory must be ascertained before the time, resources, manpower, and knowledge attributes can be absolutely devoted to the plan for execution, otherwise the morale of the team will be in disarray due to a lack of faith in each other and their chance to be victorious. Climbing up the mountain safely and coming down again in a safe manner is a metaphor for making teams to be mindful that being victorious is not about making fellow team members expendable to the cause. Knowing what is highly desired without ensuring the mental fortitude of the whole team can hinder the effort for examining the hidden details that identify the areas for results to be highly achievable. While making people aware of the necessity to stay focussed on the overall aims and objectives, the schematic layout should also be welcoming to allow for other practical viewpoints to reframe the direction in making victory become truly possible to achieve. This is to improvise in the moment to coordinate the current reserves at hand for establishing progress. Teams will have members that are passionate and express their zeal to accomplish their purposes, so that emotions can often become difficult to contain and finger pointing can become out of control. However, the conflict can be
harnessed to extract the facts for group reflection to see where the shortcomings are so that the team will assess the factors that are still providing the opportunities or disrupting the chances. If the results are getting quite difficult to attain then team members can make an investigative inquiry with the stated plan to make some adjustments that fit with the circumstances.

- The Moral Law or Way must set the cultural values and beliefs for team members to be in complete accord with each other to thrive in the most difficult and challenging situations.

In setting the mission course, team members have to identify what is acceptable, desired and promoted, while at the same time anticipating their opposites, there needs to be an exchange of dialogue so that everyone is clear and aligned as a unit going forward. Providing a dialogue can help mitigate discomfort and confusion that is in the mind, thus building and restoring the will of team members to support the goal of the strategy (Al-Faouri, 2012). Individual members will know the right initiative to take when handling an abstract situation because the moral law or way has provided the values for doing so. Expectations are to be met but not as a burden if it causes the mission to be compromised, such as the rules and principles of the 2 p.m. turnaround in the Everest case that need to be complied with seriously. The leadership within the team can draw out the reality, risks and dangers of the circumstances and ask members for their ideas on what is best for the team for reaching the goal, as long as it does not bring represent a risk of disaster as a result. Just because there are people who have formed as a team does not truly guarantee that everyone will be able to work as a team successfully. There must be an awareness that members will have their own hidden agendas and interests that are mixed into the protocol and process of the mission objectives. Working as a team takes time to acclimatise by developing the proper chemistry and trust for effective performance and learning (Vilhelmsdottir, Kristjansdottir & Ingason, 2016). The values and beliefs within the moral law or way must be communicated and
reinforced to make members become responsible for themselves and accountable to others to make the team concept function. Permitting celebrations can raise morale but it should not be prolonged if the mission has not yet been completed. Other factors, such as targeted objectives not being accomplished, should serve as a moral compass reminding individuals to get back to focusing on the mission. Any acts of foolishness and the brashness of others must be firmly addressed early before this starts to become an acceptable norm which might lead to ignorance in learning to take sound measures of other factors involved in the strategy and accomplishing the goal (Bligh, Pearce & Kohles, 2006).

- Heaven reveals the ebbs and flows of changes that gradually come back to then starting origin and then begins the cycle of changes. This compositied factor provides a team with an advantage in looking for favorable conditions.

As much as it might be desirable to believe that members with a lot of years in working experience and a high educational background are the pillars for developing teamwork, the Everest calamity causes the recognition that people have limited strengths when exposed to certain extreme conditions. Consequently, people should compliment each other’s skills and abilities otherwise the link that bonds them will break the trust and development of teamwork (Martín-Pérez, Martín-Cruz & Pérez-Santana, 2013). Conditions that are not favourable have to be observed carefully from cases of errors and failures in order to discern strategic practices to overcome the obstacles. Upon observation, the conducting of tests and experimentation are to serve as feedback for learning in order to ensure that the team members’ tactics of carrying out the mission need to be changed or relearned or unlearned (Koskinen, 2013). Philosophical models and concepts should be flexible enough to seek better solutions or support for making sense of changes in the pattern, while at the same time not destroying the values that foster the learning in the team. When the foundation breaks down, organizational members will start to look
after their own interests and ideas. In dire and desperate situations, individuals can display detrimental behaviours that do not support psychological safety nor security (Cauweiler, Ribiere & Bennet, 2016) for setting the basis for learning and performing as a team. Conditions and concepts will change when other aspects have not been brought into the framework. For some members, it may be hard to accept as fact and reality but the moral law or way should remain firm and resilient in order to attain the mission objectives by measuring other sources for opportunities on which to capitalize. Any signs of failures or serious errors need to be quickly addressed and not left to wishful thinking or the hope that things will take care of themselves (Stephens et al., 2013). Backup plans need to be carefully assessed in order to be ready to implement the setting at hand; they should aim for the win otherwise it will derail the morale for learning and performance. In addition, the shortcomings or setbacks have to be integrated into a revised plan to meet the mission objectives.

- The earth is the data to configure the extent for the correct moments and positions in moving forward. Team members may have to be more innovative in setting the arrangements that favour other factors to make a contribution to attaining the mission objectives.

In this factor, that makes up part of the strategy equation, teams learn how to see the objectives or goals being obtained through resourcefulness and improvisation. Sometimes a solution can be raised when the team investigates the surrounding area and asks as a collective group “what could be there that is not actually presented there (Albinsson and Arnesson, 2013)?” Raising innovative questions to keep ahead of the situation at hand stimulates a call to explore the possibilities: “If there is danger in this location then where can we establish safety and security to give us the opportunity to make progress towards our aim?” Unwanted events (e.g. crowding of the bridge, the narrowed path, slippery grounds and so forth) that become obstacles can serve as additional information to reform the conceptual
This provokes the question: “Although the structural path is quite constricted and hinders efficient mobility, how can this situation be used as a motivating tool for expanding minds in getting the team to be in concert with the mission?” Encountering a route that makes people uneasy about taking risks could be converted into a platform for inquiries into how to improve the working system and enhance morale: “What other techniques can be applied to restore confidence in making an effort and resolving the matter?” Thinking and choices that put the team members at risk must not be implemented for the sake of upholding moral ethics in the mission objectives (Pourdehnad & Smith, 2012). Timing (e.g., 2 p.m. turnaround) has to be taken into consideration as part of the decision and learning process for the configured data so that the team will know when it is the right time to act or to be patient for when the right opportunity presents itself (Babnik, Širca & Dermol, 2014).

- The Commander/Generalship has to demonstrate credibility to the team so that trust is with this person when sharing knowledge and wisdom in crafting the plan for action. Then members will reflect upon the benevolence, bravery and sternness displayed as part of a genuine character.

It is good to have team members be aware and acquiring the know-how as a team to learn about filling the gaps necessary to meet the mission objectives. Self-interest and other hidden motives should not be used to exploit the labour of others. Signs of anti-social behaviour negatively affecting teamwork should be immediately addressed in order to sustain the morale and working philosophy. Values should be focused and not diluted to negative attitudes or behaviours otherwise the pillars that support the ideal working process will not be effective in maintaining focus on the results (Genevičiūtė-Janonienė & Endriulaitienė, 2014). Working as a team includes a foundation for learning how to share knowledge, explore and make discoveries so that it provides support in crafting a plan for gaining leverage towards reaching the mission objectives. The commander has to be the
foundation that enables team members understand what are the appealing behaviours for inspiring the team to learn (Sánchez et al., 2013). Disagreements and other sort of disputes will occur but the commander must also have sufficient bravery and humility to ask for collaboration from others who are indirectly involved in the process. A commander works with fellow team members in creating a space for reflecting on the tactical principles and procedures that have been put in place. The commander also provides the opportunity for members to express their viewpoints as to how to enhance performance to obtain better results. The styles and leadership of working in a cross-functional task should involve mutually agreed upon shared values. Those who are unable to have the capacity and competency to carry out the tasks must step aside for others who can do so as not to put the team in a precarious position. The power of authority must act in that moment to set the rules and demonstrate accountability towards those who are responsible for other people’s performance (Malbašić, Marimon & Mas-Machuca, 2016). If the commander sets the rule then it should not be compromised when the reputations of others are at stake. Time is limited and has to be managed efficiently to set the pace for progress and to become highly effective in obtaining the results required for the mission objectives. Having meetings does not automatically set the conditions for higher performance, since information has to be communicated so as to relate to supporting performance (Radu-Ioan, 2014).

- Method is the coordination of units, official channels and orchestrating how the resources and path taken will provide the greatest edge for the military to be closer to victory; hence, it is part of the design for an effective team discipline and an efficient platform for goal performance.

People with experience should be utilized for providing the knowledge and know-how for less experienced team members. It is not enough to say that we are a team just because we have a meeting and discussion about it. Instead, members need to know where there
roles are in the process to obtain the desired results (Bouhali et al., 2015). Platforms and infrastructures that are laid out should be designed for an intellectual approach in gathering feedback and critical information on what needs to be done next and how to develop a plan. Events are good for a warm gathering and getting better acquainted but they are not the absolute remedy for gaining trust and credibility for learning and performance (Abyat, Iranmanesh & Rastegar, 2015). Recent practices have proved effective in obtaining results or else as shortcomings that can be utilized for improvement, as well as understanding why it was successful or not. Members should go through a cross-training exercise to identify the needs to provide assistance to a chosen concept that is based on virtues that benefit the team as a whole (Zhou, Hu & Zey, 2015). Information that is coming in will require thorough examination to ensure that the level of accuracy is updated with a view to designing the ideal action plan or decision making and indicating best possible practices for implementation (Oertel & Antoni, 2014). The structural points (such as the four camps on the mountain) are not to be entrenched in the mind as a guarantee that success will come about. After all, teams still have to be alert to the events that can lead to mistakes, errors and failures, while simultaneously inquiring what is the best possibility or opportunity to ensure that the mission objectives are attainable and will be met.

5.2. Von Clausewitz’s Trinity

Clausewitz framed his analysis of war on the paradoxical trinity of people (representing primordial violence, passion, hate and enmity), the military (representing the realm of probability and chance, courage and talent) and the government (representing the rational calculus, the nexus between ends and means). Victory is only possible when the trinity of these factors is in equilibrium.

- People represent primordial violence, passion, hate and enmity. This is culture.
Individual workers will have their own personal interests mixed into the mission or operation. There will be hidden agendas that must be brought to the forefront to be applied to serve the needs and expectations of the collective group so that there is no demoralizing behaviour that could put the mission in danger. When there are high demands that are intertwined with personal goals, this might not only put the team’s mission at risk of failure but, also, erode the feeling of safety and security of others (Stone & Rose-Nazzel, 2016). People will bring their own personal issues (finance, personal objectives, time, energy and resources) into the flow which could disrupt the concept of working as a team. However, the opportunity for members to work and learn together can still occur by carrying out the visible acts that opens a forum for questioning and curious inquiries so that the group can be aware of the desired performing norms to reach the objectives (Pohlmann & Thomas, 2015). In missions where there are high risks or unpredictability is involved, even people with previous working experience cannot take for granted that the operation is in a routine mode; vice versa, those lacking experience cannot just rely on a positive attitude or good faith or unexamined assumptions to accomplish the mission. Changes are to be expected, welcomed and viewed as an opportunity for learning further. Mistakes, errors and failures that occur along the road of changes send a temporary message to ask ways for improvement in planning and execution or, else, to raise an issue for discussion on what can go even worse if the faults are to be repeated (Tjosvdold, Yu & Hui, 2004).

- Military represents the realm of probability and chance, courage and talent and is a supporting system.

Undergoing a mission operation requires a firm cohesiveness to act as the eyes, ears and conscience for preventing the probability of calamities or generating chances for critical feedback that can assist in supporting the chosen strategy and tactics. An attitude among peers that initiates courage for others to speak up and utilise the talent of fellow members to be fully committed to the process provides a
platform for assessing the situation to keep the mission objectives intact (Hackman, 2011). Becoming acclimatised through psychological and strategic preparation prolongs the strength to endure the situation but there are also limits to the condition. The strategic points for attaining the objectives within the mission needs to be highly measured for knowledge sharing so that team members can be better equipped in dealing with the unknown, unpredictable, undesired and unpleasant things that can abruptly interrupt progress at any moment in time (Levin, 2011). The military, as part of an organization and made up of individuals, has to move as a whole and not let one part serve everything by itself. Simply put, everyone should be multi-skilled to help push events forward and not be heavily dependent on others. Having trust that members are searching and learning from the assessment is a key factor for a team to execute the task performance with confidence, as well as finding better methods for accomplishing those aims. Whereas the team is exposed to a high risk of danger, individuals who are aware of their limits should not be ashamed to admit that they cannot perform those functions; doing so would not put the whole entire team in danger of not completing the mission nor be a burden on others when the problem arises (Pentland, 2012). Whether it is an expedition or a project, the competition for talent, skills, resources, time, location and position, values and survival should be maintained for procuring a supporting system that gauges cross-functional events to let affiliates know what they have to be accountable for and for which they are responsible. Teamwork takes time and patience and there should be willingness to learn in order to be fully developed. Otherwise, there is no consistency within the collective tasks when everything is done in a makeshift manner.

- Government represents the rational calculus and nexus between ends and means and it is a structure.

Providing leadership is most essential during challenging and difficult times. The power of authority must be fully demonstrated and should not waver just to yield for someone’s personal interest or to appease
others. If discipline is lacking, then some relearning needs to take place on the part of the administrative team by looking at the broader aspects of the situation for the sake of upholding order that should be consistently firm (Jowitt, 2012). When the rules and policies (such as the 2 p.m. turnaround) must be strictly adhered to, the team chooses the most efficient and effective instrument in making others be truly aware that maintaining safety and security for all is a top priority and that any compromising behaviour will be taken as a serious threat. Any form of hazards or potential destruction can be evaluated for upgrading the strategic plan, as well as being utilized as cautionary tools to assist the team in learning and performing at a strong level (Almedom, 2013). A narrow infrastructure along the path towards the aim is akin to the bureaucracy or politics causing a delay in the operation and creating disturbance for a team making an effective or efficient decision to uphold the mission objectives. Any available regulations or rules should be integrated into the whole so as to support and assist in exploring better ways to achieve the desired goal. The application process can be questioned and allowance may be made for testing and experimentation, as well as providing a dialogue that might help in minimizing chaos, conflict and disagreement (Bernstein & Barrett, 2011). A workplace that is designed only to have one member of a team held responsible for (or multitasking in) leading, forecasting, solving problems or serving, in an unpredictable and out of control working environment, can place heavy pressure on that person who would then be exposed to certain predicaments. There should be a working atmosphere where the culture calls for team members not to panic when a task is not fulfilled but just work through and believe in the system by pivoting it to tackle the task at hand more advantageously (Steiber and Alänge, 2013).

6. Discussion and Conclusion

In the midst of a situation in which teams are operating in an event where there are a lot of unknown factors and unstable conditions, learning becomes highly imperative in order to be assured that the
goal and objectives are attainable without putting the safety and security of other members at risk. The practice of strategy comes from two schools of thought: Sun Tzu’s ‘Laying of the Plan’ in the Art of War and Clausewitz’s ‘Trinity.’ The laying of the plan notion emphasizes a strategy that seeks favourable outcomes which predetermine the decision to go forth with the action plan. However, Sun Tzu advises on examining the internal and external sides as well as configuring how these factors can be outlined for the team to reach its goal while winning the battles one at a time. For Clausewitz, it is a belief that strategy can only come about if the parts, such as the people, military and government, become fully aligned as being each other’s extra arms and legs to support the operation fully. Clausewitz admits that not everything will go as according to plan but the initial effort of those involved would help to bolster the cause. In a working field where team members are often exposed to danger that can injure and take away their life, these two classical theories for strategy can be employed as a unique learning process for teams who are highly depended on the morale and spirit of fellow members to acquire the mental fortitude and extraordinary capabilities to ensure that the team thinks, acts, learns, unlearns and relearns for staying focused on the goal and be able to perform optimally in relation to achieving the mission objectives.

In conclusion, this study sought a model approach for teams who need to learn and perform under strategy where the issue of the results, process and approach become the critical factors that are intertwined in goal achievement. This paper has attempted to raise the question of the validity of Sun Tzu’s laying the plans and Clausewitz’s trinity for teams learning in the midst of strategy while dealing with the results, process and approach. The limits to the study include basing it on a historical case event that relied on secondary data thereby challenging the author to be more disciplined considering the generalizability of the results.
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CONFERENCE REPORTS
The Second International Conference on Recent Trends in Management was recently held successfully at the Graduate Campus of Shinawatra University on December 16\textsuperscript{th}, 2017. The conference was again held in partnership with Professor Rao of CRC Ltd (crcltd.org) based in Ras Al-Khaimah in the UAE.

Photos from top left: Conference attendees; Dr. William Wall, keynote speaker; School of Management PhD candidate Karl Meneghella presents a paper; School of Management (Mandalay campus) PhD candidate Soe Myint Than presents his paper. Photos courtesy of Sittichai Tumrongrat, Shinawatra University
The keynote address was delivered by Dr. William Wall of Stamford International University, Bangkok. Dr. Wall, who received his doctorate from Shinawatra University, gave an inspiring call to the audience to combine intellectual adventurousness with integrity and a commitment to public service. Subsequently, delegates made presentations of their research papers in a range of different aspects of management in both the private and public sectors. This included such diverse areas as the role of cooperatives in Nepal, education management in Somalia and issues surrounding motor cycle safety in Thailand. Full-text papers were made available through the official conference proceedings in the form of a CD. Papers will also be available for publication in CRC’s two peer-reviewed academic journals available on the website.

An international audience included attendees from Australia, China, Germany, Malta, Myanmar, Nepal, Somalia, UK, USA as well as Thailand. We look forward to future iterations of the conference, with the next scheduled for July, 2018. At that time, it is hoped that we will be more able to involve our new doctoral candidates from Huaxia College in China.

John Walsh, Shinawatra University
BOOK REVIEWS
The Fire and the Tale
Giorgio Agamben
ISBN: 9780804798716
144 pp.
Translated by Lorenzo Chiesa

“The genuinely philosophical element contained by a work – be it an artistic, scientific, or theoretical work – is its capacity to be developed; something that has remained – or has willingly been left – unspoken and that needs to be found and seized. Why does this search for the element liable to be developed fascinate me (p.34)?”

This quote indicates the heart of this book, which is largely based on a series of papers and lectures delivered around 2010-3. Agamben involves himself with the struggle to free the meaning or life spark of a work from its environment in a way similar to the sculptor who sees the innate image hidden within the block of marble. In doing so, he calls upon a wide range of sources, ranging from the Gospels, the
Upanishads and Vedas to Simone Weil and Henry James and the setting ranges from the mundane to the death camps that still haunt the modern mind. The method is philosophical in nature and the argument is developed both by analogy and by dialectic – he attended seminars on Hegel with Heidegger, after all. The sacred and the profane are interwoven as a result: as God created the universe out of nothing but according to the divine mental model, so too does the architect, according to Aquinas, create the city, except that the architect’s mental model is drawn not from nothing but from the creation of God. This form of creativity is, as he notes of Deleuze, a form of resistance – “Resistance to death, first of all, but also resistance to the paradigm of information media, through which power [potere] is exercised in what he calls ‘control societies’ – to distinguish them from the disciplinary societies analyzed by Foucault. Each act of creation resists something – for example, Deleuze says Bach’s music is an act of resistance against the separation of the sacred from the profane (p.33).”

In this way, the religious, the artistic, the societal and the political became intricately inter-related with each other. The basic act of resistance is the worker’s attempt to capture the value of the labour for herself in a control society (i.e. capitalism) designed to do the opposite and from which, of course, there is no alternative. Resistance can take many forms and has no single definition. It involves all those acts that the individual can seek to achieve as opposed to other outcomes. It does not, therefore, have an innate moral value. In the same way, it might be argued, the demon king Ravana can achieve enlightenment through the lightning strike because his mind was ready to accept it (i.e. he has resisted the act of creation that would distract him from the goal of escaping from the universe at all costs. This must be through silence because, Agamben argues (pp.65-7), that we humans are no longer able to ‘talk in the name of God.’ Consequently, those who do speak, the ‘cunning and the stupid,’ do so in the name of ‘the market, the crisis, pseudo-sciences, acronyms, institutions, parties, ministries’ and usually when they have nothing to say. In such circumstances, speech (which is akin to the creative endeavor in this case) must only
be the demand for the name which is now missing. “And, vice versa, the missing name demands us to speak in its name.”

This is a fascinating book and a useful introduction to the work and thought of one of the most prominent living philosophers. It will not suit everybody, of course, since the range of sources and inspirations is large and the requirements made of the reader often quite substantial, despite the slender nature of the volume. It is translated sensitively by Lorenzo Chiesa.

*John Walsh, Shinawatra University*

*Adults in the Room: My Battle with Europe’s Deep Establishment*

Yanis Varoufakis

London: The Bodley Head, 2017


550 pp.
One of the problems of referenda is that they have a tendency to reduce complex issues into supposedly simple ones that may be easily resolved with a yes-no answer. This tendency, of course, makes the referendum a popular tool for autocrats, who can oversee its divisiveness and keep track of leading voices on the opposing side. In Britain, membership of the European Union (EU) and, more specifically, whether to withdraw from it has been hanging around as an idea for the last few decades. For most of that time, the issue was one that interested a small number of mostly swivel-eyes isolationists or neo-imperialists who occupied the belfry of the Conservative Party and other parties of the far right beyond what is considered acceptable in polite society. Fake news kept the issue just about alive – the relentless stream of abusive lies from Boris Johnson, for example and the hate-filled ranting of the Daily Mail. Successive Conservative leaders could not or would not remove its taint from the mainstream of politics and, under the squalid reign of David Cameron, a referendum to this effect was proposed. Racist lies flooded public discourse (at least some of which seems to have been supported by Russian interests (Booth & Hern, 2017)).

Fraudulent campaigning (and a lackluster response) urging people to vote leave were sponsored by very rich, very right wing individuals who realized that the British people needed the EU to protect them from the Tories and who planned a bonfire of regulations (which is likely to take place soon after the disastrous departure takes place, if it does take place). Bizarrell, some people decided that a vote to leave would be a suitable means of striking against the establishment and the political elites it is now customary to describe as being out of touch with the everyday lives of British people – a more useful response would have been to stop voting for Conservative governments. The result is reminiscent of the complaint uttered by Michael Caine in The Italian Job: “You were only supposed to blow the bloody doors off!”

The point of this preamble is that there is some ambivalence about the membership of a flawed and complex institution and all the related
forms of interaction and cooperation that flow from the central act of joint membership. The benefits that flow from this membership are greater for the larger countries, who of course are instrumental in designing the system that permits this to take place. Smaller countries – Greece, for example – are more marginal to the system and find their resources extracted rather than augmented by membership. At a very superficial level, it appears that the larger countries subsidise the smaller ones by paying in to central funds which are then disbursed according to a formula of want. However, membership has its privileges and these give considerable advantages to those larger nations through increased access to open markets, enhanced competition, access to multinational institutions, regional development funds and joint membership of organizations ranging from management of radioactive materials used in chemotherapy for cancer victims to international police cooperation to regulations of all industries while protecting workers and the environment. Yet peripheral countries, such as Greece, can be squeezed by the larger countries or, more accurately, by their representatives that form part of the EU deep state.

This term, deep state, has been much in the news lately. It has become common in some strands of contemporary populist thought that the deep state exists to prevent radical change desired by voters. To some extent this is true. In Britain in the 1970s, for example, elements within the military forces were apparently willing to launch some form of military coup to prevent the Labour party from introducing any form of genuine socialism. In the case of the EU, the deep state exists to prevent individual governments or movements from making changes which would affect other members without a mandate. Just as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank arrogated new powers to themselves as a result (and cause) of neoliberalism, so have institutions within the EU acted to insist upon inflicting austerity measures on countries requiring additional funds at a time of global financial crisis. As became well-known from the work of Keynes, austerity is always a failure and the correct way for states to counteract economic recessions is for judicious state investment to
stimulate demand when the private sector is unwilling to do so. This principle is so well-established that there was very little debate when President Obama used Keynesian principles (albeit in perhaps the least optimal way) to shore up the American economy, while in the UK then PM Gordon Brown led the international effort to stabilize the global economy by similar means. Unfortunately, not everybody got the message. Voters in the UK chose a Conservative government that launched austerity programmes for political purposes and under the callous rule now of Theresa May the use of food banks has exploded, more and more people are forced to live on the streets and the National Health Service is overwhelmed by wholly predictable winter demand because of chronic, sustained under-investment. However, the real puzzle is why the EU adopted such a demonstrably wrong choice. There was no political imperative to do so – Germany-led Europe belongs to a pragmatic centre-right stance under Angela Merkel, while France is now seemingly experimenting with non-political politicians. Why, then, did the troika of the IMF, the EU’s Commission and the European Central Bank insist on punishing Greece with austerity programmes which have not only involved significant levels of human suffering but, also, directly reduce the ability of the country and its government to repay its debts. This is a question that is at the heart of this engrossing and exactingly comprehensive book. Ultimately, the question cannot be answered without taking into account some sociocultural issues: does the troika want to punish Greece because Greece is making their policies look bad or encourage the others or is it because they did not really want the country ever to have been a member at all? It is certainly possible to construct a discourse of racism based on the relationship between Germany and Greece which, at a time of widespread movement of refugees, could quickly become explosive.

Varoufakis has achieved celebrity status on account of his entry into Greek politics, his charisma, the leather jacket and motor cycle lifestyle and so forth. This is reflected in the way that he writes, which is with both conviction and confidence. It must, to be frank, be exhausting living with him given how relentlessly correct and
principled about absolutely everything he is. However, that aside, this is a really compelling account of how the international political economy works at the highest level in human terms. It is often chilling.

Reference


John Walsh, Shinawatra University

* Rebel Cities: From the Right to the City to the Urban Revolution

David Harvey

London and New York, NY: Verso
“Urbanization, I have long argued, has been a key means for the absorption of capital and labour surpluses throughout capitalism’s history (p.42).”

The world’s population is increasingly an urban one, as cities draw in people from countryside and create ever larger markets and market demand. Those who cannot live in the city legally are likely to live on its periphery, either in geographical terms on the outskirts (also known as the peri-urban area) or else in undocumented housing which is liable to be dismantled by the authorities at any moment. Their presence is tolerated, most of the time, because they represent the vanguard of the industrial reserve army that places downward pressure on wages, thereby keeping profits buoyant. By contrast, city centre living has become popular for high income earners. Whereas in the past city centres were the places of squalid, unsanitary living conditions for the working classes (as established by Engels, Dickens and Zola, *inter alia*), now they have been remade as attractive urban – indeed urbane – locations which offer all desirable civic and entertainment facilities that might be desired within a stone’s throw. Urban living is enhanced by upgrading fresh markets and fast food shops to boutique, pop-up restaurants. The desire to move to the suburbs has been reversed for the very aspirational – instead, it is to be at the centre. Those poorer people now inconveniently occupying desirable real estate are encouraged to move out and live on the periphery, from where they will have to travel often for hours to reach the jobs that have become remote from them. Is this all an inevitable process of progress or modernization which cannot be prevented and so there is little point in trying to do so? Clearly, David Harvey counters this approach by highlighting the nature of capitalism and how it leads to these forms of urbanization. It is his contention, one which is part of the body of thought which he has developed over a number of books and teaching and consideration, that the ceaseless
need for accumulation that characterizes capitalism leads inexorably to the concentration of capital that urbanization represents. This has the additional political aspect of the physical expropriation of the homes, communities and social networks that those working class people whose labour had built the city in the first place and the loss this represents in several aspects:

“… ideals of urban identity, citizenship and belonging, of a coherent urban politics, already threatened by the spreading malaise of the individualistic neoliberal ethic, become much harder to sustain. Even the idea that the city might function as a collective body politic, a site within and from which progressive social movements might emanate, appears, at least on the surface, increasingly implausible (pp.15-6).”

This passage acts in some ways as a link between the analytical part of the book and the more plainly political. The book was written or at least published at a time when it was possible to be optimistic about the Occupy movement and its ability to reclaim supposedly public space (that has been effectively sequestered by capital) in the name of the people in the spirit of solidarity. That movement quickly evaporated and while there have been outpourings of mass outrage (e.g. the marches against Trump that dwarfed his shabby inauguration rally) but these are challenged by militarized police and obscene charges of rioting and similar against peaceful individuals exercising their hard-fought democratic rights to protest. The impunity with which police and military forces in many countries continue to gun down or unjustly imprison citizens they are supposed to be protecting remains a shocking series of outrages. Harvey, while being well aware of this, is able to outline a larger vision, one which is infused with comparisons through history. He concludes that the political world has now melted, thawed and resolved itself into a contrast between the people and the Party of Wall Street – that is, mainstream political thought has come to operate purely from what Tariq Ali called the extreme centre (although mildly leftist social democrats such as Bernie Sanders or Jeremy Corby might differ from this position). Such
being the case, it is required of people to take a stand: “The system is not only broken and exposed, but incapable of any response other than repression. So we, the people, have no option but to struggle for the collective right to decide how that system shall be reconstructed, and in whose image (p.164).”

As 2017 draws to a close (finally), it can be difficult to imagine that this call to action will find many willing listeners. However, as ever, it is instructive to observe the Gramscian prescription to be pessimistic of the intellect but optimistic of the will.

John Walsh, Shinawatra University
CALL FOR PAPERS

The SIU Journal of Management (ISSN 2229-09944) is now accepting submissions for biannual publication, with issues scheduled to be published in June and December of each year. Volume 6, No.1 will be published in June, 2016.

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The second page should include the title of the paper and an abstract of no more than 300 words that clearly explains the purpose, method and main findings of the research. The abstract should be followed by 4 or 5 keywords arranged in alphabetical order and separated by commas.

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ABOUT SHINAWATRA UNIVERSITY

Historical Background

The idea of establishing a private university to support private sector development in Thailand and the region was initiated in 1996 by Dr. Thaksin Shinawatra and Professor Dr. Purachai Piumsombun. This was followed by the design development of an environmentally friendly campus by Dr. Soontorn Boonyatikarn in 1997. A year later, the innovative plans were presented to Her Royal Highness Princess Mahachakri Sirindhorn, and then to the Ministry of Universities which granted the license for operation towards the end of 1999. The first Shinawatra University Council Meeting was held on May 19th, 2000, marking the initial milestone of the long road to becoming an accomplished private university. In September 2002, the first batch of students was admitted, and the venture of creating and nurturing a prospective university had begun.
Coat of Arms

The University’s coat of arms represents the sun, which symbolizes the source of knowledge. It radiates an abundance of ingenuity and innovation through research. It contributes to the foundations of learning including ethical, moral, physical, and religious aspects.

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- 100% graduate employment with very high average salaries.
- Top 10% of all higher education institutes accredited by The Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (Public Organization) ONESQA.
- Ranked 2nd by ONESQA among private higher education institutions in Thailand.
- Education Standards of SIU and all its schools in 2006 were unconditionally approved by ONESQA
- Faculty members with leading research performance as assessed by Thailand Research Fund (TRF).
- Over 70% of faculty members with doctoral degrees and 60% hold academic rank position.
- Prestigious TRF Royal Golden Jubilee PhD Scholarships awarded to 20% of faculty members.
- More than 30% of faculty members and 20% of students are International
- More than 50% are graduate students.
- NRCT research grants awarded to faculty members.
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