JOURNAL OF SOCIAL AND DEVELOPMENT SCIENCES (JSDS)

Vol. 9 No. 4 ISSN 2221-1152

Published by

International Foundation for Research and Development
(IFRD)

Editorial

Journal of Social and Development Sciences (JSDS) is a scholarly journal deals with the disciplines of social and development sciences. JSDS publishes research work that meaningfully contributes towards theoretical bases of contemporary developments in society, business and related disciplines. The work submitted for publication consideration in JSDS should address empirical and theoretical contributions in the subjects related to scope of the journal in particular and allied theories and practices in general. Scope of JSDS includes: sociology, psychology, anthropology, economics, political science, international relations, linguistics, history, public relations, hospitality & tourism and project management. Author(s) should declare that work submitted to the journal is original, not under consideration for publication by another journal, and that all listed authors approve its submission to JSDS. It is JSDS policy to welcome submissions for consideration, which are original, and not under consideration for publication by another journal at the same time. Author (s) can submit: Research Paper, Conceptual Paper, Case Studies and Book Review. The current issue of JSDS consists of papers of scholars from Iran, Vietnam, South Africa, Zimbabwe, Indonesia, Pakistan and Malysia. Sociological study of mental disorders in HCMC, impacts of gender socialization on political system, determinants of the return migration of household heads, the dominant factors influencing the flow of foreign direct investment, factors affecting delegation authority and policy and non-policy factors: what determines foreign direct investments are some of the major practices and concepts examined in these studies. Journal received research submission related to all aspects of major themes and tracks. All the submitted papers were first assessed, by the editorial team for relevance and originality of the work and blindly peer-reviewed by the external reviewers depending on the subject matter of the paper. After the rigorous peer-review process, the submitted papers were selected based on originality, significance, and clarity of the purpose. Current issue will therefore be a unique offer, where scholars will be able to appreciate the latest results in their field of expertise, and to acquire additional knowledge in other relevant fields.

Prof. Nek Kamal Yeop Yunus, Ph. D.
Editor In Chief

Editorial Board

Editor In Chief

Nek Kamal Yeop Yunus, Ph. D, University Pendidikan Sultan Idris, Malaysia

Members

N. Panchanatham, Ph. D, Annamalai University, India
Somnath Sen, Ph. D, Birmingham University, UK
Anton Miglo, Ph. D, School of business, University of Bridgeport, USA
Mamta B Chowdhury, Ph. D, University of Western Sydney, Australia
R. K. Uppal, International University of Contemporary Studies, USA
Ketna Mehta, Ph. D, Welingkar Education, India
Khorshed Chowdhury, Ph. D, University of Wollongong, Australia
Inderjeet Singh, Ph. D, Punjabi University, Patiala, India
Ananda Wickramasinghe Ph. D, CQ University, Australia
Hai-Chin YU, Ph. D, Chung Yuan University ,Chungli, Taiwan
Mohan Bhai Patel, Ph. D, N S Arts College, India
Yapa M W Y Bandara, Ph. D, Charles Sturt University, Australia
Pacha Malyadri, Ph. D, Osmania University, Andhra Pradesh, India
Chux Gervase Iwu, Ph. D, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, South Africa
Pratibha Samson Gaikwad, Ph. D, Shivaji University of Pune, India
Mohammad Reza Noruzi, Ph. D, Tarbiat Modarres University, Tehran, Iran
M Azhar Khan, Ph. D, Hokkaido University, Japan
Apostu Iulian, Ph. D, University of Bucharest, Romania
Rajendra Parsad GUNPUTH, Ph. D., University of Mauritius, Mauritius

Table of Contents

Description	Pages
Title	I
Editorial	II
Editorial Board	III
Table of Contents	IV
Papers	V
Sociological Study of Mental Disorders in HCMC (Vietnam) Mohamad Tavakol, Le Thi Mai, Mina Mansouri	1
Exploring Gender Socialization on African Political System and Women's Participation Andrew Enaifoghe	14
Determinants of the Return Migration of Household Heads from South Eastern Zimbabwe to South Africa During Prolonged Crisis, 2000-16 Dick Ranga	26
The Dominant Factors Influencing the Flow of Foreign Direct Investment to Indonesia Makmun Syadullah, Akhmad Yasin	36
Factors Affecting Delegation Authority toward Employees Performance Adnan Alhosani, Rosman Md Yusoff, Fadillah Ismail, Fazal Ur Rehman	43
Policy and Non-Policy Factors: What Determines Foreign Direct Investments in Africa? Olawumi Dele Awolusi	49

PAPERS

Journal of Social and Development Sciences (JSDS)
Vol. 9, No. 4, December 2018 (ISSN 2221-1152)

Sociological Study of Mental Disorders in HCMC (Vietnam)

Mohamad Tavakol[1], Le Thi Mai[2], Mina Mansouri[3]
[1]Professor of Sociology, University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran
[2]Head of Sociology Department, TDT University, HCMC, Vietnam
[3]M.A. holder in Sociology, Tehran, Iran
mtavakol@ut.ac.ir, lethimai@tdtu.edu.vn, mina.mansouri@gmx.com

Abstract: The focus of this study is on the prevalence of mental disorders among the people aged between 18-64 years who are living in Saigon (HCMC), and an analysis of the sociological factors that affect the spread of these disorders. The theoretical framework of this research is a synthesis of the sociological theory of Anomie of Durkheim and the Strain theory of Merton. To determine the prevalence of mental disorders, the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28) is used, and to determine their effective sociological parameters we prepared a second Questionnaire, the sociological one, comprising questions derived from Durkheim and Merton's theories. The sample size was 384, using Cochran formula, and sampling was a multi-stage cluster sampling. The results from the analyses of the data showed that the overall prevalence of mental disorder in Saigon is 10.2%: in men 5.5% and in women 12.8%. Moreover, the components of immigration, job status, social status, structural and social pressures, family problems, and social capital, were shown to contribute to the risk of mental health and the occurrence of mental disorders. The sociological factors which were not confirmed were religion and ethnicity.

Keywords: *Mental health; Medical Sociology; Mental disorder; Saigon/HCMC; Sociological parameters*

1. Introduction

Health is defined as "a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2018). In general, the three dimensions of physical, mental, and social well-being, while seemingly unrelated, are in interaction continuously. "Mental health is as important as physical health to the overall well-being of individuals, societies and countries. Yet, only a small minority of the 450 million people suffering from a mental or behavioral disorder is receiving treatment. Advances in neuroscience and behavioral medicine have shown that, like many physical illnesses, mental and behavioral disorders are the result of a complex interaction between biological, psychological and social factors" (WHO, 2008). The high rates of mental disorders in developed and developing countries as well as the consequent economic and social costs are heavy. On the other hand, the negative effects on the afflicted individuals and their family include suicide, divorce, drug and alcohol abuse, unemployment, violence, and a damaged social life. Considering all these, a mental disorder can be counted a very serious social issue.

As a matter of fact, the amount of research on mental disorders worldwide is huge and until quite recently, mainly in the frameworks of psychology, behavioral therapy, biology, and criminology. But it is the attention towards the effective social factors in mental disorders that sets the orientation of this study. More and more researchers have come to understand the major share of social realities in shaping, spreading, and treating these disorders and the move towards an interdisciplinary approach in the field has been a meaningful turn towards sociology and its offshoots such as medical sociology. Aneshensel and Flen, for example, try to explain the way a society can contribute to the mental well-being of its members and moreover, the life of those regarded as individuals with mental disorders, focusing on "how society shapes the thoughts, feelings, and actions of its members in ways that are considered to be mental illness, and with the consequences of having, or being thought to have, a mental illness" (Aneshensel et al., 2012). Similarly, Cockerham points to the fact that "with increasing numbers of studies uncovering a significant relationship between social factors and many psychiatric conditions, the study of mentally disturbed behavior has become an important area of research in sociology" (Cockerham, 2017).

As a great development, nowadays talk about the "social determinants of mental health" is more widespread in academic and policy-making circles (Allen et al., 2014, Sederer, 2016, Carod-Artal, 2017). The importance of social factors, compared to the ever-present biological and psychological factors in mental disorder, is less

recognized in developing countries. As a matter of fact, in these countries, due to the heavier economic and social problems and their effects on mental disorders, though the statistics are rising officially and unofficially, the information is not comprehensive, coherent, and consistent. Also the studies conducted are normally in most cases narrow in their scope, and not multidisciplinary/interdisciplinary, and mainly focus on either biological or psychological factors. Clearly it is impossible to improve mental health situation without accurate data about the prevalence and etiology of a problem. Obviously wrong or deficient information about this issue can lead to a misunderstanding about the critical condition and this, naturally, results in sometimes unrelated decisions to face the problem (Shim and Compton, 2018). A similar unfavorable research situation regarding the mental health issue applies to Vietnam as well. The Socialist Republic of Vietnam, with a population exceeding 95 million in 331 square kilometres located in South Eastern Asia, is the 14th most populated country on the planet. In less than half a century, Vietnam has gone through three wars: the war with the Japanese, the French, and the Americans. The Vietnam War, the worst war after World War 2, resulted in the American defeat and their retreat in 1975. Vietnam, which was nothing but the rubble after the war, started a reconstruction program and since 2000, its economic growth is among the highest in the world (ADB, 2018). Its adamant pursuit of economic liberalization policy has led to Vietnam's rapid industrialization. This country is among the few nations which have had the lowest unemployment rates for several consecutive years. The following chart presents an overall view of the unemployment in Vietnam:

Figure 1: Overview of Unemployment

2. Literature Review

The reason for the attention to mental disorder, apart from its being a pandemic, is its high cost of control and, in some cases, of treatment, as well as its heavy social, economic, and cultural impacts. Therefore, prevention is the best and cheapest approach to this problem. As mentioned earlier, the growing rates of mental disorders, especially in less developed countries such as Vietnam, show the urgent need to pay more attention to this problem. Most of the studies conducted in developed countries are applied, for special purposes, and planned for certain time intervals. In contrast, in the developing countries, such epidemiological studies on mental disorders are not very old and they mostly, except for a limited number of large-scale studies on the prevalence of mental disorders, are rather in the form of descriptive reports and are not scientific research. In the following paragraphs, first we have an overview of some of the global and local papers addressing mental health and mental disorders. In an article entitled "Social determinants of mental health: a review of the evidence", Manuela Silva, Adriana Loureiro, and Graça Cardoso's aim is to present a non-systematic narrative review of the published evidence on the association between mental health and socio-demographic and economic factors at individual-and at area-level. The results were: out of 150 studies (carried out between 2004 and 2014), 78 assessed associations between individual-level factors and mental health. The main individual factors which had significant relation with worse mental health were low income, not living with a partner, lack of social support, female gender low level of education, low income, low socioeconomic status, unemployment, financial strain, and perceived discrimination.

The Chart Below Shows the Data for Unemployment, Income, Population Rates and Other Sociological and Economic Factors:

Vietnam Labour	Last	Previous	Highest	Lowest	Unit
Unemployment Rate	2.02	2.05	4.50	1.63	percent
Employed Persons	53.76	53.40	53.76	23.50	Million
Unemployed Persons	1.11	1.12	2.30	0.80	Million
Minimum Wages	3980.00	3750.00	3980.00	1000.00	VND Thousand/Month
Population	92.70	91.70	92.70	34.74	Million
Retirement Age Men	60.00	60.00	60.00	60.00	
Retirement Age Women	55.00	55.00	55.00	55.00	
Wages	5364.00	5202.00	5507.00	1399.00	VND Thousand/Month
Wages High Skilled	11409900.00	12286900.00	12286900.00	10241600.00	VND/Month
Wages In Manufacturing	5463.00	5122.00	5463.00	2871.00	VND Thousand/Month
Wages Low Skilled	4851300.00	5498500.00	7386200.00	4851300.00	VND/Month
Youth Unemployment Rate	7.80	7.67	7.86	5.17	percent
Labor Force Participation Rate	76.70	76.40	77.50	76.40	percent
Living Wage Family	7475300.00	7475300.00	7475300.00	7475300.00	VND/Month
Living Wage Individual	4131400.00	4131400.00	4131400.00	4131400.00	VND/Month

Though there are good statistics on some important aspects of Vietnamese life, the prevalence of mental disorder in Vietnam is totally vague. "In Vietnam, Mental disorders have not been adequately researched. A national representative epidemiological survey on 10 most common mental disorders combined had a prevalence of approximately 14.9% of the population. Estimating from this result about 12 million people are in need of MHS [Managed Health Services]. The most prevalent of these are alcohol abuse (5.3%), depression (2.8%) and anxiety (2.6%)" (Vuong et al., 2011: 66; Nguyen, 2018). According to a report in 2016, the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs estimated that 15 percent of Vietnam's population suffers from one of ten common disorders. The report also informs that 20 percent of 8-17 years old children suffer from such problems. It adds that only 20-30 percent of the patients receive treatment-usually medically rather than psychologically (VnExpress, 2016). The disregard for mental disorders and mental health, and the effective social factors in particular, is rather a global fact. Almost 2 decades ago, WHO issued a serious warning regarding this harmful neglect and pointed to the important effects of socio-psychological factors on health which is estimated to be about 85%. HCMC is the biggest industrial city in Vietnam with a big diversity of jobs and professions, immigrations, ethnicities and religions, socio-economic strata, and subcultures. In this research, we aimed to show the current state of mental disorder in our sample population in HCMC and

examine its effective sociological factors which contribute to the situation. 69 studies confirmed the relationship between area-level factors and mental health, namely neighborhood socioeconomic conditions, social capital, geographical distribution and built environment, neighborhood problems and ethnic composition (Silva et al., 2016). In a study carried out in Holland and titled "A Meta-Analysis of the Relation Between Mental Disorders and Crime Recurrence", Wibblenik conducted a three-level meta-analysis of 20 texts (17 independent studies, N=5737) focusing on internalization, externalization, and combined (a combination of an internal and an external disorders) disorders.

The findings indicate that "type of delinquency (e.g., overt and covert delinquency), and gender influenced the direction and magnitude of the associations between recidivism and internalizing and externalizing disorders." (Wibbelink et al., 2017: 78). Also, Kugelmass and Garcia, in a study titled "Mental Disorders among the Secular American Youth" reached at three major outcomes: "First, nonreligious adolescents on average have higher rates of mental disorder than adolescents who identify as religious. Second, there is variability in rates of mental disorder among the three types of nonreligious adolescents, with atheists/agnostics experiencing the highest rates, followed by those with no religion, and those with no religious preference. Indeed, after controlling for a host of socio-demographic characteristics, adolescents with no preference have levels of mental disorder that do not defer from the religiously affiliated. Third, the mental health disadvantage of no religiosity is strongest among nonreligious adolescents with two highly religious parents. Their rates of mental illness are almost twice that of religious adolescents raised in religious households. Moreover, neither nonreligious nor religious adolescents are negatively affected by being raised in nonreligious households" (Kugelmass and Garcia, 2015: 368). Das and colleagues in their paper Mental health patterns and consequences: Results from survey data in five developing countries" stress that though the social and economic consequences of poor mental health in the developing world are presumed to be significant, they remain under-researched. This study uses data from nationally representative surveys in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Indonesia, and Mexico as well as India and Tonga to confirm the similar relationships between mental health and socioeconomic feature.

The elderly, females, the widowed, and those who report poor physical health are more likely to report worse mental health. Individuals living with others with poor mental health are also significantly more likely to report worse mental health themselves, the paper says. In contrast, the paper claims that there is a little-observed relation between mental health and consumption poverty or education, two common measures of socioeconomic status. It is rather suggested instead that economic and multidimensional shocks, such as illness or crisis, can have a greater impact on mental health than poverty. This may have important implications for social protection policy. It is interesting that though the authors are the World Bank economists their research gives prominence to social factors affecting mental health (Das et al., 2009). Concerning Vietnam, Richardson and others published a paper titled "Estimating mental distress in Vietnam: The use of SRQ-20" in which they used SRQ-20 on a population of 5000 and reached the number 19.2% as the probable percentage of Vietnamese people with mental disorder. They mention that "our estimate of mental distress using the SRQ-20 is much greater than that of other studies, and in contrast to western prevalence studies, age was not a protective factor in this study." (Richardson et al., 2010: 133). Huy et al. have carried out fieldwork research in Hanoi which is reported in the paper "Factors Associated with Depression among Male Casual Laborers in Urban Vietnam". This study is concentrated on the level, the prevalence, and the factors affecting depression among male casual laborers in Hanoi. Sampling consisted of 450 men most were from the rural and mountainous provinces. The prevalence of self-reported depressive symptoms, 25 %, was high. Structural equation modelling had been used in the research. It was shown that marriage, family separation and living with peers or partners were three significant distal risk factors, while illicit drug use and low social connectedness were proximal predictors of depression. Of all factors, it is argued that social connectedness appeared to be the most important because it plays a mediating role, and drug use was an independent risk factor (Huy et al., 2015).

In another study mentioned earlier, Vuang describes different kinds of mental disorders in Vietnam and concludes that although there has been a growth and improvements in services provided for mental patients, they are by no means sufficient for their large numbers. There is an urgent need for a variety of specialized services, medical staff training, and epidemiological and interceptive studies. A more recent study, "Political Economy and Mental Health in Vietnam", by Kelly Lee and associates, begins with the narrating from a report

by WHO in 2003; 13% of illnesses worldwide are mental disorders and three-quarters of which happen in countries with low or medium income. Moreover, countries engaged in a political and economic transition period are in deeper trouble. Finally, focusing on the effects of the political economy in Vietnam on mental disorders, it concludes that the globalization and transition process can act both as a threat and an opportunity in relation to mental health services (Lee et al., 2015). In the paper "Early life shocks and mental health: The long-term effect of war in Vietnam", Sing Hal aims to show the causal relationship between early-life exposure to war and mental health in adulthood. Using an instrumental variable strategy, the evidence confirms that early-life exposure to bombing during the American war in Vietnam had long-term effects. The paper explains that a one percent increase in bombing intensity during 1965–75 increased the likelihood of severe mental distress in adulthood by 16 percentage points.

Theoretical Framework: As mentioned before, mental health is vulnerable from structural factors which go beyond the individual. One of the most important statements about the effect of social and structural factors on the mental health of individuals belongs to Emile Durkheim. He is among the top theorists who have discussed the problems of modern society from a structural point of view. As evidence in one of his seminal studies, Suicide, Durkheim has analyzed extensively the social structural factors that encourage a person, mentally, to take his own life. In this book, Durkheim explained that biological concepts (and also merely psychological ones) cannot entirely explain human behavior. Durkheim described that although suicide is apparently an individual and personal phenomenon, this anomic phenomenon cannot be considered as an entirely personal decision which is made under the influence of personal difficulties or mental problems. There are hidden forces which lead the individual to commit suicide. There are many studies which followed Durkheim's line of thought. Economic crisis such as downturn and inflation, bankruptcy, extended unemployment, have different consequences in the social life of individuals and consequently, the harmful effects of these crises on individuals' mental health are considerable. Durkheim in his Suicide claimed that economic fluctuations and suicide rates are related and during downturns, committing suicide is high. He explains that this phenomenon cannot be merely the consequence of poverty because the suicide rate among those who have always been poor is the lowest. In addition, the increase in suicide is not only in the periods of the downturn but also it does increase in the periods of economic boom. Therefore, the main factor is not the economic condition as such but the inconsistency that it brings to our social life.

During the crisis, the usual moral principles which affect the individual's social functions undergo pressure and lose control (Giddens, 1997). Durkheim's anomie theory has the explanatory potential to make mental illness understood. After analyzing the suicide rates in different industrial and non-industrial countries and then comparing them with each other, Durkheim concludes that the anomic division of labor in industrialized societies will lead to social collapse unless exists an integrative moral basis and a minimum of collective conscience (Durkheim, 2005). In a sense, his comprehensive study on this anomic situation analyzes the effects of macro scale and structural components on mental disorder and health. Among the sociologists who have been influenced by Durkheim and advanced his views, Robert Merton is one of the most prominent. In his works in medical sociology, Merton considers social etiology and ecology of diseases, including mental disorders, to be a very important part (Tavakol & Armstrong, 2013). Merton's strain theory, which is sometimes referred to as a means-ends theory, or Merton's anomie theory, is a more concrete interpretation, and a clarification of Durkheim's anomie which is more transparent and applicable within his middle range theoretical framework (Merton, 1938). Our approach to social aspects of mental disorder in this research has been Mertonian in this sense. According to Merton's Structural-Functional Sociology, society is like a system made up of a group of structural components such as cultural and social structures. Cultural and social structures interact with each other to make the continuity of the social system and its coordination with the people and environment: "If the social structure restrains some dispositions to act, it creates others. The functional approach therefore abandons the position, held by various individualistic theories, that different rates of deviant behaviour in diverse groups and social strata are the accidental results of varying proportions of pathological personalities found in these groups and strata.

It attempts instead to determine how the social and cultural structure generates pressure socially deviant behavior upon people variously located in that structure (Merton, 1968: 175-176). Following Durkheim's footsteps, Merton believes that the continuity of anomic conditions can have various consequences for the mind of the individual but unlike Durkheim, he does not see it as an outcome of a sudden change but he

believes it to be the result of the problems within the existing social structure. Such a situation, Merton maintains, is the result of the unreachable gap between the accepted social goals and the legitimate means of attaining them in the society. This means that society encourages individuals to achieve certain goals while the means for attaining such goals are out of reach. In a sense, some individuals are forced to either choose specific goals reachable to them or use illegitimate means to reach those goals which their culture has allowed them to consider (Merton, 1995). Under such conditions, the individual goes through frustration and other diverse pressures which may lead to an outbreak of mental disorder. Although it is true that Merton proposed the strain theory to explain deviations, it is and will be an effective framework for understanding mental disorders too. Merton's understanding of anomie is a state of confusion which results in the anarchy of social value system. The direct impact of such anarchy is certain anxieties from which many people suffer. Merton's explanation of anomie is related to mental disorder in two ways. First, negative conditions such as confusion and anarchy can lead people to mental disorders. Second, the lack of balance between the expectations and real achievements will affect the mental health.

The individual negatively (Aseltine, 2000, Bessa, 2012: 35), the effects of social inequalities, for example, on mental disorders have been confirmed also by more recent studies (Fryers, 2003). The social parameters which can act as strains against mental health are inserted in our sociological questionnaire, as a complement to more psychological questionnaire GHQ-28. The paper describes that negative effects of war are similar for both men and women (Singhal, 2018). Nguyen, Hoi Van , Ha ThiHai Do, Van ThiAnh Le & Ngoc-Anh Mai in their paper entitled "Reviewing the latest national policies and services for people with severe mental health disorders in government-funded institutions in Vietnam, and policy recommendations for service improvements" admit the deficiencies and shortcomings in mental health matters, and after reviewing the works and specifically the related policies in Vietnam come up with some recommendations to improve the situation (Hoi Van Nguyen et al., 2018).

Research Hypotheses: Within the aforementioned Mertonian theoretical framework, in order to see the effective social factors on major mental disorders such as depression, schizophrenia, emotional disorders, panic attacks, general anxiety disorder, and OCD, we formulated the research hypotheses as follows:

- Education is related to the prevalence of mental disorders
- Employment is related to the prevalence of mental disorders
- Socio-economic status is related to the prevalence of mental disorders.
- Gender is related to mental disorder rates.
- Ethnicity is related to the prevalence of mental disorders.
- Migration is related to the prevalence of mental disorders
- Urban life problems (social strain, social descent, lack of social support and sympathy and trust, fluctuation of social capital, etc.) increase mental disorders.
- Religiosity is related to the prevalence of mental disorders.

3. Methodology

In this study we aimed at getting an estimate of the mentally disordered people in HCMC and to analyses the social factors affecting mental health or disorder. Along with using national data, research reports on health and mental disorder, and other secondary sources, interviews with psychologists, and psychoanalysts, fresh data was gathered quantitatively, using 2 previously mentioned questionnaires. In this analytic-descriptive study, the prevalence of mental disorders was measured among HCMC citizens aged from 18 to 64. Using probabilistic and multi-stage cluster sampling, and based on the city maps, different social class districts were identified (D1 & D3 upper class, D5 almost upper class, Binh Tan middle class, D8 lower class, and Riverside very low class), and then blocks and neighborhoods were chosen to distribute and complete the questionnaires. Then, data was gathered using simple or systematic random sampling. The sample population was 384 according to Cochran formula. Morgan's chart showed the same number, 384, as well. General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-28) was used to measure the prevalence and the types of mental disorders. The questionnaire was first translated from English into Vietnamese and after the pretest they were answered in the aforementioned districts. As explained in the theoretical section, the questions concerning the effective

sociological parameters on mental disorders were put into a separate questionnaire consisting of 19 questions (Sociological Questionnaire) which were also answered by the sample population. The GHQ-28 questions were answered using Likert's four-point scale: "No", "a little", "a lot", "too much". Higher scores were given to those answers that showed the signs of mental disorder.

This scale was also pre-tested in clusters of 30 individuals and then underwent analyses to measure the internal compatibility of each question with the total scale score. To determine the possibility of subscales, the scale was post-tested using factor analysis. Regarding the Sociological Questionnaire, parameters such as anomie, social pressure, social capital fluctuations, employment status, class and socio-economic status, educational level, migration, religiosity, etc. were measured using a dual spectrum of yes or no. This meant that the preference for an option meant having the attribute and not choosing it was taken for its lacking. Finally, data analysis was completed by entering the data into SPSS, and a descriptive and inferential analysis was provided for explaining the relations between the variables. For analyzing each hypothesis, based on the gathered data, the appropriate statistical method was employed. For example, the concept of religiosity was measured in 5 items. For analyzing this variable, the code 1 (meaning yes) was assigned to those respondents who had given a positive answer and the code 0 for those doing the opposite.

Linear regression was used since the dependent variable here (mental disorder) was measured by the interval scale, and it was assumed that here there was a causal relationship between the dependent and independent variables. In some cases, in order to evaluate the direct effect of independent variables on dependent variables the aforementioned distance scale was replaced by the nominal scale (individuals suffering from mental disorders and individuals without mental disorders). Factor analysis also was used in order to evaluate the subtest validity. GHQ-28 consists of 4 sub-tests each of which has 7 equivalent questions that evaluate one aspect of mental health. Therefore, each aspect of the mental health questionnaire should be correlated with only one common factor. In the following table, we observe the validity and reliability of GHQ-28.

Table 1: Results

Aspects	Factor	Total Variance			KMO	Bartlett's Test for Sphericity
		Special Amount	Variance Percentage	Cumulative Percentage		
Physical Signs	1	201.4	60	60	0.902	000/0
	2	0.696	94.9	70		
Anxiety	1	26.3	46.6	44.6	0.795	000/0
	2	0.971	13.8	60.5		
Disrupted Social Function	1	3.81	55.54	54.5	0.865	000/0
	2	0.98	14	68.6		
Depression Symptoms	1	4.11	55.8	55.8	0.883	000/0
	2	0.903	12.9	71.7		

The findings of the table also suggest that all of the 4 aspects of mental health have only 1 factor or equivalent special amount larger than 1. As a result, the number of final factors for each aspect of mental health is only one factor which shows that the mental health subtest questions are equivalent. KMO indicator, which shows the correlation of variables, was used to find the proper variables for factor analysis. This indicator ranges between 0 and 1. The larger amounts mean that the variables are better for the factor analysis. Findings of the table show that all amounts of KMO indicator are between 0.8 and 0.9 which means that the variables correlation is fit for the factor analysis. On the other hand, regarding the Bartlett Test results, the factor analysis results are generalizable to the total population. The GHQ-28 reliability was evaluated by Cronbach's Alpha which was 0.934 for the entire questionnaire, 0.882 for physical signs factor, 0.803 for anxiety factor, 0.847 for a disrupted social function, and 0.879 for depression symptoms. This means that the questions are highly compatible. The results of the KMO indicator and Bartlett's Test, regarding other questions and sub-factors of the study, show the results to be generalizable and the questions to be highly compatible with one another.

4. Findings

Using the standard GHQ-28, the prevalence of mental disorder in the research population in Saigon was 10.2%. The gender-based amount is 5.5% for males and 12.8% for females. The following tables show some of the extracted data:

Table 2

Descriptive statistics of the respondents' age	Mean	Variance	minimum	maximum
	36.50	16.089	15	91

As the table above shows the average age of respondents is 36.05. The variance is around 17 years with the youngest respondents ageing 15 and the oldest 91 years. Regarding the hypothesis of the effect of socioeconomic status on mental disorder, the independent test result was 180.128 which clearly suggest a strong relation between socioeconomic statuses on the one hand and the prevalence of mental disorder on the other. This means that people with a mental disorder were mainly from the lower classes of society and those without disorders mainly from the privileged class. Based on the linear regression model, the rise in social and economic class will decrease the prevalence of mental disorder by about 3.57 standard units. Regarding the effect of employment (employed/unemployed) on mental disorder the Chi-square independence test clearly showed that employment and mental disorder are related and the results are generalizable. In order to better understand the intensity of this relation, Cramer's V measure and the level of significance were 0.37 and 0.000 respectively which show a moderate relationship which is generalizable.

Table 3

The place of the individual in the family	Prevalence	Frequency
Head of the family	101	26.30
Husband or wife	50	13.02
Girl or boy	150	39.06
Grandson or granddaughter	20	5.21
Parents	8	2.08
Brother or sister	6	1.56
Other relations	20	5.20
Not related	25	6.51
Total	384	100

This table includes the prevalence and frequency of place of the individual in the family. For example, 101 respondents (26.30%) are heads of the family. 150 respondents (39.06%) were boys or girls in the family as well.

Table 4

Head of the family's income	Prevalence	Frequency
Less than 4 million dongs	18	4.68
4 to 10 million Dongs	34	8.85
10 to 15 million Dongs	196	51.04
15 to 20 Dongs	134	34.89
20 to 25 million Dongs	3	0.78
Total	384	100

According to the respondents, in 4.68% of the cases (18 respondents) heads of the family earn less than 4 million Dongs (each US dollar is approximately 22000 dongs). 34 respondents (8.85%) reported an income of 4 to 10 million Dongs and 196 of them stated their income to be 10 to 15 million Dongs. Therefore, the number of respondents with a total income of 10 to 15 million Dongs per month is more than other income groups. The second spot is for those with a monthly income of 15 to 20 million Dongs.

Table 5

Family status	Prevalence	Frequency
Married	304	79.16
Divorced	1	0.26
Single	79	20.57
Total	384	100

Regarding the family status of the respondents, the data gathered shows that 304 of them (79.16%) are married. This group has the highest numbers then come the single group with 79 members (20.57%). Finally, only one of the respondents reported being divorced—which makes up 0.26% of the respondents.

Table 6

Domicile	Prevalence	Frequency
City	130	33.85
Slum dog	14	3.64
Suburbs	240	62.5
Total	384	100

Of the total number of 384 respondents, 62.5% or 240 people reported their domicile to be in the suburbs. The highest number was for this group. Next, the city dwellers make up 33.85% or 130 respondents. 14 people reported that they live in slums.

Table 7

Descriptive statistics of respondents' family size	Mean	Variance	minimum	maximum
	4.36	2.210	1	20

The respondents' family size was 4.63. The variance of this answer was 2.012 individuals. The smallest family was 1 individual and the largest was 20. The Cramer's V measure with the significance level below 0.005 was 0.342. This suggests a strong positive relation between the two variables; namely having a second job increases the probability of mental disorders to 0.342. Regarding the effect of ethnicity on mental disorder, the Chi-square independent test showed that ethnicity and the prevalence of mental disorder are not strictly related.

Table 8

Housing status	Prevalence	Frequency
House owner	320	83.33
Tenant	61	15.88
Governmental	1	0.26
Undeclared	2	0.52
Total	384	100

320 respondents or nearly 83% reported being house owners. The highest number was for this group. 61 respondents or 15.88% were living in rented domiciles. Only 1 individual was living in governmental houses and 2 respondents did not report their housing status.

Table 9

Ethnicity	Prevalence	Frequency
Kinh	337	87.8
Khme	17	4.4
Chinese overseas	22	5.7
Missing	8	2.1
Total	384	100

The majority of respondents, 337, nearly 88%, reported their ethnicity to be Kinh. 22 respondents were Chinese overseas and 17 were Khmer.

Table 10

Religion	Prevalence	Frequency
Buddhist	180	46.87
Christian	35	9.11
Atheist	160	41.66
Other religions	4	1.04
Undeclared	5	1.3
Total	384	100

180 respondents identified themselves as Buddhists (46.87%), 35 respondents reported themselves as Christians (9.11%) and 160 respondents were atheists (41.66%). The results show that the majority of the respondents were Buddhists. The checking of research hypotheses implies a meaningful effect of the sociological factors on mental health. Regarding the effect of migration on the prevalence of mental disorder the Chi-square shows 26.381 which means this factor is related to mental disorder. The Pearson's correlation coefficient was -0.26 which proves the longer an individual life in his/her neighborhood, the less he/she may suffer from mental disorders. Regarding the effect of education on mental disorder the Chi-square test result was 12.388 which suggest a significant relationship between these dependent and independent variables. Regarding the effect of the second job on mental disorder, the Chi-square independent test clearly showed that the second job and mental disorders are highly connected. In order to better understand the intensity of this relation the Cramer's V measure was used. This being said, the relation is generalizable. The effect of gender on the prevalence of mental disorder was studied by regression and the results showed that being female increases the probability of mental disorder by 1.1 times.

Linear regression also showed that being female increases the chance of mental disorder by 0.39%. Chi-square independence test statistics was 47.262 which suggest that there is a significant relationship between social strain and the prevalence of mental disorder. The results of the logistic regression and the odds ratio (6.25) and the 95% confidence interval show that the prevalence of mental disorder as a dependent quantity and the social strain as an independent quantity is directly and positively related. This means that social strain increases the prevalence of mental disorder by 6.26 regression units. Using the linear regression model showed that social strain increases the prevalence of mental disorder by about 13.5 standard units the effect of a decrease in sympathy and social trust on mental disorder was evaluated by different statistical tests and the results showed that this variable and mental disorder are directly connected. The results of the correlation test (r) suggested that sympathy and social trust and mental disorder have a strong and diverse connection which is completely significant. Increase in support, sympathy, and social trust will result in a decrease in mental disorders. The effect of statistical tests regarding social capital proved its strong effect on the mental disorder. The results of the correlation test (r) suggested that sympathy and social trust and mental disorder have a strong and negative connection which is completely significant.
The increase in social capital will result in a decrease in mental disorder. The relationship between these two variables is seen to be strong. Regarding the effect of religiosity on mental disorder using linear regression it was demonstrated that this sociological parameter has no significant correlation with a mental disorder in this population.

$$y_{General\ Health\ Status} = \frac{33}{615} - \frac{4}{191x_{Religional\ Activities}}$$

As a result, there is no strict relation between religiosity and high prevalence of mental disorder. The resulting regression model showed that a positive answer to religiosity would decrease the prevalence of mental disorder by about 4 units (negative correlation regression). Therefore, it can be said that there was no significant statistical relation between suffering from mental disorders and religiosity among the respondents of this research.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study shows that social factors which affect the prevalence of mental disorders include migration, family status, socioeconomic status, employment, social strains, and social capital. It may be asked how these factors can be accommodated within the Durkheim Ian and Mertonian approaches. As we indicated before, according to Durkheim, in modern societies where social division of labor developed, the traditional moral discipline which justifies the social inequalities is weakened, and a kind of anomie is dominant, the migration of individuals from different places with different cultures and limitless desires unfulfilled will lead them to permanent feelings of deprivation, discrimination and frustration which will result in social and mental collapse. Our data showed the effect of migration on the mental disorder is significant in HCMC, though regarding the high level of employment there and its extended division of labor, its share in the prevalence of mental disorders is expected to be much less than other areas with the higher unemployment rate and simpler division of labor. Durkheim believed that corporations and employment groups can create social cohesion in modern times. Regarding the social strains and the effect of macro and me so economic structural factors on mental health the Mertonian analysis was enlightening here.

When the system blocks the ways to fulfil the desires as a result the individual will face stress, mental pressure, loss of self-esteem, etc. The continuity of such situation results in mental collapse. This situation holds true, although on a smaller scale, for HCMC. Social strain increased the chances of mental disorder. Another social parameter that its malfunction can be traced in the Mertonian anomic situation is the social capital. Our study in HCMC showed that the majority of individuals who suffered from mental disorders had low social capital. Under the multilayer question of social capital our respondents had confirmed these items; social trust, interracial trust, civic collaborations, associational involvements, giving and volunteering, and faith-based engagements. In order to shed more light on this matter, in addition to the previously pictured conditions about anomie and economic and social fluctuations, we should consider integrity too. One of the characteristics of the mental disorder, especially in the time of depression, is the individual's desire for unsociability and isolation. The results of our research confirmed this and showed that individuals with a mental disorder were more isolated and had the lower rate of social capital compared to mentally healthy individuals. The last sociological factor that was expected to be effective on mental disorder was religiosity. As it was indicated before, a mental disorder in HCMC was not related to this independent variable.

But how this can be explained sociologically? As it was discussed before, in modern societies other social formations may replace the religious uniting and justificatory functions. In HCMC, the meagre unemployment rate, secularism, relative general satisfaction, strong family bondage, tolerant mentality and culture, and ideological passivity have worked to substitute the supporting role of religiosity. They have replaced the positive role that religion plays to facilitate mental health in many religious communities. To sum up, in Vietnam, HCMC in particular, the following positive conditions which were relatively acceptable, helped to decrease the prevalence of mental disorders: high employment, provision of basic economic needs, high literacy rate, low rate of socio-ethnic tensions, invisibility of security approaches in the city, a more popularity administration, a more public services and mass facilities, an extensive welfare services even if at times are minimal in quality, a relatively high social trust, very strong family ties, a good social support atmosphere, calm morality and behaviour which is sometimes passive, low rates of tension and violence, religious and ideological tolerance, the culture of contentment and acceptance of the current situation, general hope for a better future, the widespread spirit for work.

Development along with low expectations cooperation and mutual respect, a strong sense of nationalism and national pride etc. the sociological data extracted from our research, as well as the local participative observations we had, support the presence of the features and characteristics we assessed above. However, these are interesting and instructive realities because the above-mentioned characters, attitudes, mentalities, and conducts are present in a city and in a country which survived a devastating war with the USA only a few decades ago and which was left only with the destruction of their economic, productive, environmental and natural foundations, along with horrible human disasters. Without those Vietnamese features, mental disorder there now should be more than the global normal situation, and not less as it is in fact. To end up, we have some suggestions for the policy-makers in Vietnam; to lower down the mental disorders it would be effective to keep unemployment low especially in smaller towns and rural areas, to facilitate social capital

enhancement measures, to promote social services quantitatively and qualitatively, especially in more deprived areas. And the last; more comprehensive and specific research are needed to be carried out in different regions and localities to help a better review and reform of mental health policy and action.

Acknowledgment: We are grateful to TDT university students of sociology who did the works of questionnaires distribution and collection: Hoang Trong Ngoc, Nguyen Phi Hien, Nang Thi My Duyen, Nguyen Minh Hieu, Nguyen Thi Phuong Thao, Hua Kim Huong, Ho Minh Thong, Ly Phuong Quynh, and their coordinator; TrieuThuy Mi.

References

ADB (Asian Development Bank). (2018). Asian Development Outlook. Manila: ADB.

Allen, J., Balfour, R., Bell, R., Marmot, M. (2014). Social Determinants of Mental Health, *International Review of Psychiatry*, 26(4), 392-407.

Aneshensel, C. S., Phelan, J. C., Bierman, A. (2012). Handbook of the Sociology of Mental Health. Netherlands: Springer Publication.

Aseltine, J. R. R. H., Gore, S., Gordon, J. (2000). Life Stress, Anger and Anxiety, and Delinquency: An Empirical Test of General Strain Theory, *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 41(3), 256-275.

Bessa, Yawo. (2012)**.** Modernity Theories and Mental Illness: A Comparative Study of Selected Sociological Theories. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2, 31-38.

Carod-Artal, F. J. (2017). Social Determinants of Mental Health", Global Mental Health,

Cockerham, W. C. (2017). Sociology of Mental Disorders 10th Ed. London and New York: Rutledge Publication.

Das, J., Friedman, J., McKenzie, D., Do, Q. T. (2009). Mental Health Patterns and Consequences: Results from survey data in five developing countries, *Journal of Development Economics*, 23(1), 31-55.

Durkheim, E. (1951 [1897]). Suicide: A Study in Sociology. Translated by Spaulding John A.; Simpson, G. 1st ed. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe.

Fryers, T. (2003). Social inequalities and the common mental disorders. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology***,** *38(5)***,** 229**–**237.

Giddens, A. (1997). Durkheim. GB: Fontana Press.

Huy, N. V., Dunne, M. P., Debattista, J. (2015). Factors Associated with Depression Among Male Casual Laborers in Urban Vietnam, *Community Mental Health Journal*, 51(5), 575–584.

Kugelmass, H., Garcia, A. (2015). Mental Disorder among Nonreligious Adolescents, *Mental Health Religion Cult*, 18, 368-379.

Lee, K., Zapelli, R., Goldner, E. M., Cong V. N., Corbett, K. K., Murphy, J. (2015). The Political Economy of Mental Health in Vietnam: Key Lessons for Countries in Transition. *Asia and the Pacific Policy Studies,* 2(2), 266–279.

Merton, R. K. (1968). Social Theory and Social Structure. New York: The Free Press.

Merton, R. K. (1938). Social Structure and Anomie, *American Sociological Review*, 3, 672-82.

Merton, R. K. (1995). Opportunity Structure, in the Legacy of Anomie Theory, NJ, Transaction Publishers.

Nguyen, H. V., Ha Thi, H. D., Van Thi, A. L., Ngoc-Anh, M. (2018). Reviewing the Latest National Policies and Services for People with Severe Mental Health Disorders in Government-funded Institutions in Vietnam, and Policy Recommendations for Service Improvements, *Asia Pacific Journal of Social Work and Development*, 28(1), 56-68.

Nguyen, H. (2015). Linking Social Work with Buddhist Temples: Developing a Model of Mental Health Service Delivery and Treatment in Vietnam. *British Journal of Social Work*, 45(4), 1242–1258.

Richardson, L. K., Amstadter, A. B., Kilpatrick, D. G., Gaboury, M. T., Trinh Luong, T., Lam Tu, T., Nguyen Thanh, T., Tran, T., La Thi, B., Tran Thu, H. (2010). Estimating Mental Distress in Vietnam: The Use of the SRQ-20. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 56, 133-142.

Sederer, L. I. (2016). The Social Determinants of Mental Health, *Psychiatric Services*, 67, 234–235.

Shim, R. & Compton, M. (2018). Social Determinants of Mental Health, Addressing the Social Determinants of Mental Health.

Silva, M., Loureiro, A., Cardoso, G. (2016). Social Determinants of Mental Health: A review of the evidence, *European Journal of Psychiatry*, 30(4), 259-292.

Singhal, S. (2018). Early Life Shocks and Mental Health: The long-term effect of war in Vietnam, Journal of Development Economics.

Tavakol, M., Armstrong, D. (2013). Medical Sociology. 3rd Ed. Tehran: Shahid Beheshti University Publication, [Persian].

VnExpress. (2016). People with Mental Illness Left Behind in Vietnam.

Vuong, D. A., Van Ginneken, E., Morris, J., Ha, S. T., Busse, R. (2011). Mental Health in Vietnam: Burden of Disease and Availability of Services, *Asian Journal of Psychiatry,* 4(1), 65-70.

Wibbelink, C. J. M., Machteld, H., Stams, G. J. M., Oort, F. J. A. (2017). Meta-analysis of the Association between Mental Disorders and Juvenile Recidivism. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 33, 78-90.

World Health Report. (2001). World Health Organization Website.

WHO. (2018). Constitution.

Journal of Social and Development Sciences (JSDS)
Vol. 9, No. 4, December 2018 (ISSN 2221-1152)

Exploring Gender Socialization on African Political System and Women's Participation

Andrew Enaifoghe
University of Zululand, KwaDlangezwa, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
andyransey@gmail.com

Abstract: This study explored the role of gender plays and the participation impacts of women on African politics, the religion and socio-cultural factors responsible for the underrepresentation of women through socialization in Africa. Obviously, past research has demonstrated that fundamentalist religious beliefs and affiliations are related to preservationist gender demeanours or attitude. This idea not only impacts gender gaps in political participation in cross-national examinations by belligerence that women's portrayal ought to be measured in an unexpected way or differently. Utilizing Fundamentalism and Modernization Theories, this paper shows that long haul impacts of women's representation are more indispensable than short-term measures in understanding gender gap in a mixture of political exercises. The timeframe since women have accessed the political framework discloses the gender gap to a more noteworthy degree than the presence of women in the governing body and cabinet at one point in time. Findings demonstrate that the suppositions of earlier work on women representation and political conduct or attitude may stretch out beyond Africa it also finds that gender grouping has in many ways impacted the low participation of women in African political system through socialization. At last, this study shows that the kind of political exercises matter and the implementation of policies that encourage give women level play ground to participate in politics while breaking down the impact of gender socialization as of the factors for women's representation in legislative issues crosswise over Africa. A qualitative approach was used in this study alongside with empirical investigation.

Keywords: *Participation, representation, gender gaps, politics, socialization, media, fundamentalism*

1. Introduction

The process whereby individuals are informed on or about their behaviours, norms and customs which is associated, with their assigned sex or gender, which is usually during their early life of childhood development is regarded as gender socialization. Individuals within a given society are taught how to behave socially in line with their assigned gender that is given to them from birth, based on sex phenotype is viewed as gender socialization (Boundless, 2017). It is believed today that most gender manifestation differences are as a result or attributed to the differences in socialization, rather than biological factors or genetics. Many people tend to typically view and group socialization into masculine-feminine binary, while there are others whose gender identity differ or does not align with their assigned sex or gender as given to them from birth, this means that the gender binary does not completely apply in this case. The key terms of the gender socialization process include educating and instructing males and females as for what norms, behaviours, values and beliefs of the society or culture where they belong. Gender socialization is differentiating between the roles of men and the roles of women which is acceptable within a society (Boundless, 2017). The preparation for gender socialization start even before a child is born into life and the society this is where people often ask the expectant mother about the sex or gender of their yet unborn child, this is regarded as the beginning of social gender categorization process which may continue throughout the existence of life.

Gender socialization simply assigns roles to an individual based on their sexual orientation with the society. However, in response to the roles typically assigned to the female gender, it tends to discriminate women from taking up the certain role of leadership as it is seen to be male's roles (in a man's world), this has adversely affected women's partaking in public function and with regards to political leadership. Women political cooperation and participation has become the open and comparable inclusion of women in political issues of government and the administration of the community where they are. This could be done by means of elective, chosen or merited positions. It implies the recognition or acknowledgement and the admiration or value attached to the obligation of all integrating women in the governing disposition of any group, state or nation. Basic leadership with the decision-making process becomes beneficial to a nation when it echoes or reflects the synergistic contributions from all individuals from the communities without discrimination or separation of a particular gender (New Tactics, 2015). It is essential to have both amount and quality in the

women gender partaking in administration with men folks. Studies have uncovered that increased women's involvement and true participation.

In political issues of states has brought about greater economic advantage, increased collaboration crosswise over party divisions and further maintainable compromise (New Tactics, 2015). It is essential to bring women's commitment up in governmental issues by cultivating and educating their consciousness of chances accessible, building certainty and aptitudes. Focusing on women at the grass root level has achieved impactful outcomes as it witnessed in Saudi Arabia, where women are now being considered for the first time to run as candidates in the local elections. However, NGOs have been an exceptionally solid main impetus behind the expansion in the number of women in the political field by connecting nearby movements campaigns to worldwide activities and patterns. Through diverse conventions of the United Nations, governments have embraced and have set the base for all-inclusive strategies, for example, the Beijing Policy forum for Action, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, Convention on the Elimination of all types of Discrimination against Women, and more so, with the territorial mechanisms for gender equality. At the local and group level, the right to the highest level of government, women are regularly inadequately underrepresented in management positions. They are left without a voice in basic leadership with regards to the decision-making process and disregarded as an electorate. Women hold just 22 percent of national parliamentary positions universally (New Tactics, 2015).

This implies ladies are underrepresented in all facets of the political procedure frequently this is because of some social-cultural obstructions, the absence of training or framing and economic resources for women's political arranging, ways of life and problematic financial difficulties. The 1998 National Action Plan for the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights (NAP) compacts with the political privileges of women. Vyas-Doorgapersad, (2014) highlighted that the development of NAP is as a result of the Vienna Declaration and Program of Action 1993. In South Africa, the year 1995 marked the endorsement of CEDAW –" Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women, it was however adopted in 1979 by the United Nations general assembly, it is described as an international bill of rights for women, that was instituted on the 3rd of September 1981, and was ratified by 189 states." Following this South Africa took after it by the foundation of the Commission on Gender Equality that is a basic piece of the National Machinery for Gender Equality - to create and direct instructive projects, assess charges identified with the status of women, and consider proposals and suggestions concerning the advancement of gender fairness; and the Office on the Status of Women - to propel the national strategy on sex uniformity, to lead examine on gender issues, and in charge of viable execution of strategies on gender and projects at the national, common and nearby circles of government.

The Office of the Status of Women built up a National Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality, embraced in 2000 keeping in mind the end goal to fortify the voices of women in political leadership at the three circles of government (Legislature, Executive and Judiciary). It additionally focuses on the need to build up a local government apparatus to propel strengthening of ladies and gender uniformity. The South African Local Government Association (SALGA) in the organization with the Department of Provincial Affairs and Local Government (DPLG) received, which basically focused on the need to define and execute systems to improve women portrayal support, and participation in local government as far as enactment by the Women's Caucus. The Local Government White Paper (1998), with reference to gender orientation, expresses that "local government is interestingly set to examine and comprehend control elements within a group, and guarantee that the individuals who have a tendency to be barred and minimized can wind up dynamic and equivalent members in group and the change of the settlements where they live". Under the idea of "Formative Local Government", the White Paper acknowledges that "there are numerous snags to the equivalent and powerful support of women, for example, social qualities and standards, and also functional issues, for example, the absence of transport, family unit obligations, individual security and safety, and so on." It accordingly, looks for the methodologies to improve the support involvement of women at the local government level.

2. Literature Review

Consideration of the Fundamentalist and Modernization Theories: The utmost rudimentary utilization of the word called the "fundamentalism"**.** The fundamentalists are basically the "American Protestants" who through an aggressor need to protect their "religion against the strikes of modern", standard culture; the foremost weapon is the emphasis and accentuation on the inerrancy or request of the holy written work of the past, known as the book of scriptures (the holy bible or holy book, or the bible). Hawley (1994) portrays fundamentalism to be an anti-modernist in nature. While fundamentalists don't expel the inventive advances of modem life, they do portray themselves as opposed to particular parts of modem culture. These consolidate intelligent naturalism higher criticism of the Bible saw changes in moral regards or qualities. Fundamentalists don't just pull back themselves from particular examples in modem culture they submit themselves to battle against those examples. Hawley says for fundamentalists, singular experience and Biblical inerrancy exhibit reality of the Christian tradition notwithstanding modem question. Fundamentalism makes straight with social and fiscal issues that exist in contemporary culture. Fundamentalism is a pull of thoughtfulness for an earlier way of life. Hawley further acknowledged that the way of life in the early period was not the life of Jesus and that of the early Christianity, as it is consistently depicted, but the appreciated variation of home and gathering life in the private groups of communities, in America in the nineteenth century. Lechner (1993), states that the fundamentalists consider development to be a ruinous or catastrophic power. However, the modem society puts little enormity on religious traditions, and influences a landing to sureness to compel. This view on fundamentalism according to Lechner is a kind of anti-mode mist whose objective means to reinstate vital demand in view of a blessed custom.

Furthermore, the fundamentalist uses the writing of the Bible as a book to their advantage in the fundamentalist conflict to support their argument against advancement and modernization. Moreover, Chalfant, Beckley, and Palmer (1994) deliberated on the fundamentalist/mode mist discourse as the impact of science and the judiciousness use of uncertainty which began to plague insightful life, fundamentalists wound up isolated from other powerful Protestants. Researchers pushed fundamentalists to register their claim against urbanization and the influence science has on the Biblical elements. Ammerman (1987) explains Protestant fundamentalists as one related with dynamic protection from progressivism, secularism, and communism. Therefore, as one of the rule fragments of the fundamentalist conviction structure is inerrancy. The steadfast confidence' in an inerrant of the book of Bible empowers fundamentalists to rely on the Bible and it can be trusted to give a correct explanation of significant quality and religion, and furthermore science and history. This religion believes in the Bible which warrants them to oppose the development. Critics in the era of advancement believed that the last stage may come where reason and rationale will have the capacity to supplant religion. The creating sense among fundamentalists was that in the event that they didn't go to willow for the norms, they would not simply misplay the position of religion in their lives. This will in the general public might be lost for time everlasting (Ammerman, 1987). In case they didn't confront researchers suspicious of the Bible and an organization who took after this insightful illustration, they won't have another period of devotees. Fundamentalists believed they should end up unique in saving their conviction system and in reality saving the nation.

3. Materials and Methods

This study adopted a qualitative method which basically allows researchers to study and consult, then make sense of written materials which may be available either in public or private domain (Mogalakwe, 2006). The above definitions recommend that researchers determine the relevance of the documents that they consult on the basis of their significance to the study. Furthermore, Dey (2005, p.105) argues that in documented analysis, the criteria for selecting documents, or for focusing on particular extracts, should reflect the issues on which the researcher is seeking evidence. Furthermore, to add credence to this study, the researcher further utilized empirical experimentation through observation with the view to understand the feeling of women participating in politics and their access to opportunities. This is thereby resulting to the low percentage of women in a position of governance in selected countries Africa, this method made it possible for the researchers to explore the various factors that impacts on the inadequate representation of women in African politics as a result of gender discrimination, power play and socialization. Africa is culturally diverse

and numerous event including socializations could be said to impact the low inclusion of women in political matters in Africa.

4. The Gender Role in Socialization

In order to understand gender's role in socialization, we need to first have an insight into the part religion plays in gender part to socialization and support to participate in political issues. It is first imperative to look at a bit of the vital suppositions about gender socialization. Brown (1994) trusts gender orientation positions are the most basic building squares of social affiliation. The part gender orientation put among the social, the capabilities for children to learn at first, and remain the basis for the length of one's life. In making cut-off points and concentrating on the complexities among people, kids, and furthermore adults, feel secure and prepared to manage their roles for the duration of regular daily existence. He further says holding women under the control of men impacts the world to have all the earmarks of being all the more composed and understandable. It isn't gorgeous then that such a broad sum of the fundamentalist arrangement fixates on portraying the place of men and women in the general public. McGuire (1981) discusses some major sexual orientation roles feelings in our overall population the implications of masculinity and sophistication are socially established. In view of these definitions, a get-together makes and stimulates certain differentiations among people. McGuire (p. 112) constructs, in socialization, male and females are told that their socially delegated sexual orientation roles to the social gathering's wants of practices, demeanours, and motivations "legitimate" to male and females. By and large, religion has been a champion among the most critical wellsprings of these social implications of the roles women plays; and then religion has become an effective legitimation of those capabilities. Religions have been viewed as having a critical effect in taking in one's gender overview role of conduct. McMurry (1978) spearheaded a study considering an association among religion and sexual orientation role presentations. In perspective of a 1964 NORC test, the revelations prescribe a significant religious effect on gender parts perspectives.

Traditionalism in this examination is described as a perspective perfect to the likelihood that women's lives should be essentially home-and family-engaged. Religion propels a conviction framework which sees the standard family structure as a noteworthy part of the customary and great demand, then possibly powerfully designated. What was legitimate for sexual orientation position in the initiative in 1964 may conceivably applicable in the 1990s. According to another scholar, Smith (1974), who conducted research and analysed 106 schools understudies the measures of acclimation to standard gender views, the identity with sexual orientation, and their religious presentation. Smith uses McMurry's (1978) investigation as a foundation for his examination. General disclosures reinforce the factors of socialization that ultimately affect sexual orientation character and disposition towards political authority. Religious socialization increments have strengthened distinctive wellsprings of the sexual orientation of socialization. Christian religious and African religious practices with its guideline reinforce the upkeep of traditional parts and convey this as fundamental conducts for men and women alike.

Furthermore, Smith submitted that for the women gender, there are traditionalism intensifications with development in religious commitment. The people who are likely more religious may reliably be required to play their suggested parts further genuinely. A constructive alliance partner religiosity to traditionalism for the two sexes was found. Smith's examination offers assistance for McMurry's previous disclosures of religious effect on sexual orientation position acquaintance enduring or continues to apply up to date. The socialization of gender into religion and the role of socialization, to one's sexual orientation encompass regular effects. The connexion may be considered regardless, as this believes it is basic to consider the impacts religious has on gender parts not simply in light of the way that the composition shows reinforce for a religious sway on customary feelings. However, as a technique for surveying the factors influencing sexual orientation awkwardness in African political authority which put the females gender on the low for representation. Religious choice isn't just an open method; it expects a section in socialization and impacts the unequal position of people.

Fundamentalist Theory and the Gender Attitudes: At the individual level with the fundamentalist groups, it began to a great extent out of the nineteenth century with what is called "Holiness and Pentecostal" developments (Ammerman 1987; Woodberry and Smith 1998). The fundamentalists have a tendency to contradict the development of common impact in the public arena (Hawley and Proud foot 1994). They additionally have a tendency to have confidence "in the inerrancy of the holy book (the Bible)", individual deliverance or salvation, which is the pre-millennial and coming back of Jesus Christ, and the outreaching necessity to change over others (Ammerman 1987; Woodberry and Smith 1998). The Fundamentalist Protestants support customary roles of sexual orientation states of mind, in faithfulness and in fulfilment of the scriptural entries that depict men as pioneers and leaders, however women as mere adherents or believers (Ammerman 1987; Bendroth 1993). The conventional chain of command instructed by fundamentalist temples is from God to man and from man to woman, with women's parts characterized as that of assistant and mother (Kosmin and Lachman 1993). Appropriately, fundamentalists have a tendency to contradict current, adjusted gender roles wherein ladies have entered the paid workforce, looked for more libertarian divisions of family unit work and championed themselves all the more straightforwardly in conjugal basic leadership with regards to decision-making (Brown 1994; Kosmin and Lachman 1993). Indeed, even the most punctual studies of sexual orientation states of mind or attitudes noticed the relationship of religious categories and convictions with moderate gender demeanours (Mason and Bumpass 1975).

Utilizing 1972-84 GSS information, Hertel and Hughes (1987) discovered white Protestant fundamentalists hold the utmost traditionalist states of mind or attitudes on ladies' home, exertion, and governmental roles. Baptists, Catholics, Methodists, Lutherans, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Jews, and those announcing no religious association indicated continuously more liberal sexual orientation attitudes. The traditionalist fundamentalist impact stayed solid subsequent to controlling for age, wage, training, and locale. Hoffmann and Miller (1997) report from their longitudinal examination of 1972-94 GSS information that while moderate Protestant (Southern Baptists, Evangelicals, Fundamentalist, Nazarenes, Pentecostals, Church of Christ) bolster for libertarian gender parts has expanded, this gathering is still among the most traditionalist or conservative. Utilizing 1982-91 GSS information, Gay, Ellison, and Powers (1993) locate that white Southern Baptists and other fundamentalist and outreaching individuals report the most moderate states of mind on genius family issues, for example, gender roles, fetus removal or abortion, and sexuality. Once more, these impacts stay in the wake of controlling for a few individual-level factors. In any case, Gay, Ellison, and Powers (1993) documented some interior heterogeneity on sexual orientation role attitudes in the traditionalist Protestant divisions, driving specialists to reconsider suppositions of a solid fundamentalist/outreaching gathering. They propose that issues of female business and family unit, basic leadership with decision-making are "more nuanced and consulted than beforehand perceived". The solid connection amongst fundamentalism and moderate gender attitude has likewise been archived by deliberates utilizing more particular, unrepresentative examples (Brinkerhoff and Mackie 1984: Martin et al., 1980; Thornton, Alwin and Camburn 1983; Thornton and Freedman 1979) and by studies in estimating fundamentalism as individual convictions (Brinkerhoff and MacKie 1984).

Consequently, inhabitants in zones with greater extents of fundamentalists may have a more prominent presentation to media projects and notices, school educational program, instructor understudy associations, and legitimate/legal frameworks that underline fundamentalist motivated traditionalist gender dispositions. The social standards legitimized by these establishments would affect fundamentalists and non-fundamentalists alike. Also, people wishing to challenge existing moderate belief systems may wind up battling against a fundamentalist voting public that could assemble rapidly and forcefully through their congregation assemblages or bigger Christian Right gatherings, for example, the Moral Majority or the Southern Baptist Convention (Regnerus, Sikkink and Smith 1999). In this way, the extent of fundamentalists in a state could influence institutional help for moderate belief systems, as well as their progressing protection. Finally, people might be affected by their immediate perceptions of the social structures encompassing them. Given the prohibitive parts for women recommended by fundamentalist principle, one would expect that in more fundamentalist zones women would involve less noticeable, open, legitimate positions. Managers would be more hesitant to advance women, and maybe women would be more hesitant to look for open places of a specialist. Therefore, the general state population - both fundamentalist and non-fundamentalist - would be more averse to watch women as political pioneers or leaders, CEOs, news

enthusiasts, columnists, principals, ministers, and so forth. People who are not educated directly by fundamentalist belief system about suitable gender roles could at present decipher this nonappearance of ladies in intense positions as a characteristic event and along these lines reproduce comparable moderate sexual orientation dispositions.

The hypothetical and observational ramifications of completely reporting relevant impacts on sexual orientation attitudes are broad for the sociologies or the social sciences. To add to the literature reviewed, it is imperative to point out the role media plays in gender socialization, there is declining political participation of the youth in western society today. This has caused prevalent concerns of the true wellbeing of democracy in the future. The role media used in the formation of political attitudes among people and political socialization. The influence of exposure to media and entertainment content has impacted on political trust. Furthermore, the impact of the political and educational system on political attitude formation and civic engagement of people particularly the female gender has influence women's low participation and representation in African politics. Previous studies found that political socialization shaped political culture and influenced political participation. However, this study shows that mass media are turning into a critical agent of political socialization, as it plays host to a lot of political bodies and requires the dynamic commitment of users. In both entertainment media and news media it gives delineations that impact political socialization, for example, models of government including political leaders and national's activity. Apparently, media connections through individual are progressively essential to the procedure of political socialization. The explosion in correspondence innovations and technologies has brought about individuals less communication through vis-à-vis interaction with family and friends and loved ones, they rather engage with one another through.

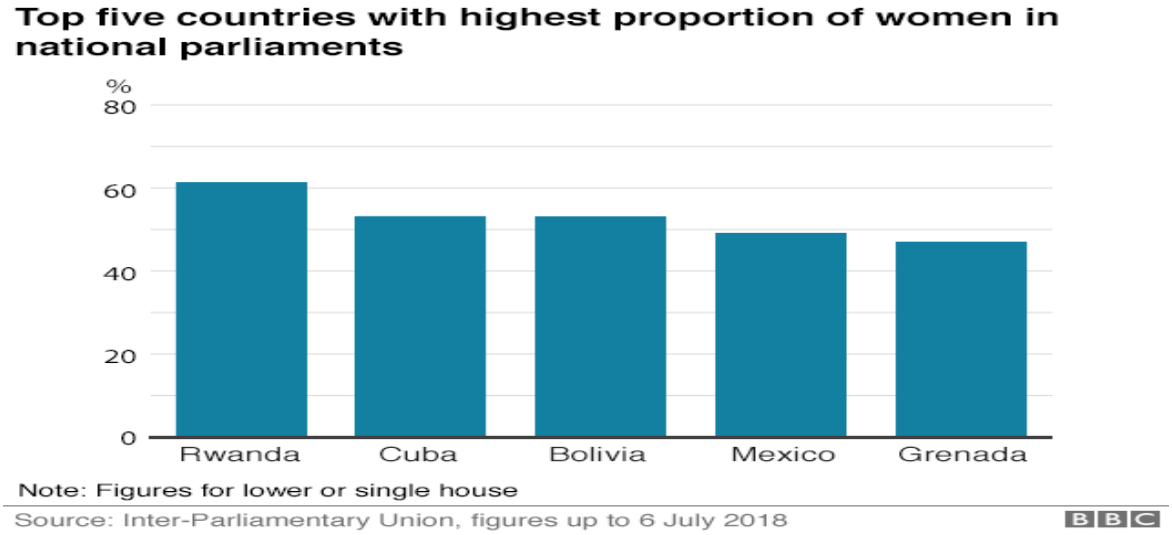
Mechanical delegates or intermediaries of technologies, which incorporate web, mobile or cell phone, and other personal advanced gadgets like tablet and computer using a webcam, and more video calling on social media apps (Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter, Instagram, and so on). The internet is viewed to be a powerful agent of political socialization because of the vast amount of political information accessible on the web and the way that individuals purposeful and in deliberate activity online stage. Individuals don't just get information about government from news locales and online journals or blogs, they likewise have the privileges of reacting to stories and discussion with others through exchanges groups. They additionally can utilize online media to effectively participate in political procedures, which incorporate election campaign. Consequently, few parents and instructors had express genuine worries and concern that socialization of youngsters through media add to a citizenry that is distanced from legislative issues and doubt government. This is on the grounds that the majority of the messages portrayed on the media about government and legislative issues are undesirable and extremely negative. Haven't said that, media has turned into convincing organizations of political learning, as youngsters invest a gigantic measure of energy being presented to TVs set, the web, computer games, and other media as opposed to cooperating with life. Media regularly depict adverse messages about political pioneers and government which may prompt the distance of the young ones especially female gender. Therefore, the argument sustained in this study that the increasing political participation of African women in political issues of government in Africa is not due to the increased education, but the implication of political socialization.

Women's Leadership and Political Participation: From the local to the global level, women's leadership and political participation are restricted. As voters, women are often underrepresented, and in addition in driving positions, regardless of whether in chose office, the common administration, the private part or the scholarly world. At the local level down to the global arena, women's administration and political interest are confined or restricted. This happens regardless of their demonstrated capacities as pioneers and drivers of change, and their entitlement to take an interest similarly in a democratic administration. Women are often faced with few snags or challenges as to taking an interest in political life. There are structural hindrances through oppressive laws foundations which still point to the confinement of women's alternatives to keep running for office (UN women, 2017). The capacity limit has created gaps which makes women improbable than men to have the training, contacts and assets expected to end up as viable leaders. As the 2011 UN General Assembly determination on women political support notes, "Women in all aspects of the world keep on being to a great extent minimized from the political circle, frequently because of prejudicial laws, practices, mentalities and sex generalizations, low levels of education, absence of access to medical services

and the unbalanced impact of poverty on women. Individual women have defeated these hindrances with incredible recognition, and frequently to the advantage of society on the loose. In any case, for women in general, the playing field should be level, opening open doors for all (UN women, 2017). According to Williams (1994), Gender centres around everything women and man do except for their sexuality, can change and changes after some time and as indicated by changing and erased social and communal components.

This situation is applicable to this study as women parts have changed from childbearing and overseeing family units to performing multitasks that incorporate being in professions and financial positions that society already relegated to men. Williams and Joseph (2002) additionally concur that the role of people in the public eye is likewise relegated to people based on sexual orientation as well as race, class, ethnicity and age. On the planet all over and in numerous societies men are given more power and prevalence over women (Joseph, 2002) and this situation appears to be pertinent to South Africa as the general public is as yet reeling and changing from the politically-sanctioned racial segregation time. The historical backdrop of South African women places women in all the more difficult position in light of the historical backdrop of politically-sanctioned racial segregation. Well beyond social factors that regularly segregate women, during the apartheid period, women were denied the rights to political, social and financial investment. Accordingly, change needs to happen at all segments of society so that there is a typical South African culture that is comprehensive of women. All through the apartheid battles however, females were given a stage by political gatherings, work development associations, understudies and youth arrangements and also urban associations to assume a vital part in testing politically-sanctioned racial segregation of apartheid. In the meantime, women were engaged to realise their rights to take an interest in the economy and political circle (Huffman and Pearlman, 2010). As indicated by HSRC examine (2007), the municipal government has moved toward becoming a piece of the standard approach formula for good administration. It is likewise required to offer impact to national strategies, rules, and additionally connecting with different circles of government with regards to agreeable administration. In perspective of a 1964 NORC test, the revelations prescribe a significant religious effect on gender.

Figure 1



The chart above shows the percentage of women in parliament in the top five states however, Rwanda has the highest level of women which is currently at 68% by the last quarter of 2018. Notwithstanding detectable changes in enactment and support, ladies still face a number of difficulties. In South Africa for example, the local government is a dynamic and testing organization. Driving this basis may be somewhat demanding regardless of sexual orientation, race or ideology. The measurements on the number of women in local government preceding 1994 majority rule regulation appear to have been low because of segregation in view of race and gender in most cases. Consequently, it was relied upon for different fundamentals to help women in different structures including formulating. As much as women pioneers and leaders are assuming to work in a situation that is stable given the historical backdrop of imbalance, they were likewise constrained to

convey productive support of classified complex local government partners same as their comrades in local government. The local government as a foundation exudes from decentralization of the national government characterized as 'the exchange of political, monetary and additionally authoritative forces to sub-national units, for the most part of government' African Institute for Community-Driven Development. This supposition is likewise shared by other scholar, for example, regions are key players in multi-sectorial coordination of the real administration transference by all advancement actors on the ground. The administration model can be exceptionally unpredictable especially in South Africa.

Ramoshaba (2005) built up a lattice, Status of Decentralization in Different Sectors, demonstrating the local administration challenges. The system outlines the characterized and indistinct parts for local government. The board to some degree diagrams the monstrous obligations of local districts wherein, elements of Provincial Departments are actualized by local governments without spending plans or being engaged with arranging to make a few inconsistencies in the way metropolitan capacity is characterized by different offices. The administration of local government like some other business setting includes settling on choice and practices that specifically influence or impact the general population who work for the organization. Ramoshaba (2005) structures a portion of the advance and difficulties confronting local government administration. He keeps up that: in spite of the considerable number of difficulties and authoritative requests sited by the administrative system, there is striking advancement made in the previous administration, a long time since benefit conveyance has been reached out to minimized community through the initiative of local regions and South Africa has been lauded globally for this extraordinary work within a brief period. The difficulties however, are more extreme in this setting contrasted with numerous foundations. Lovenduski, (2005), oppose that local government obligations incorporate huge, comprehensive regions, new official frameworks and the political arrangement of senior authorities. Sometimes districts work from an extremely frail duty base bringing about poor administration conveyance. The other assessment is the span of the population.

Barriers to Equal Participation: The commonness of customary and socio-cultural practices in most African nations have regularly been referred to as an extensive boundary or limitation for women in governmental issues. When running for political positions, numerous women confront terrorizing, provocation and once in while savagery or violence. Numerous conventional thoughts don't view governmental issues as 'women's work' and elected women have been portrayed as 'wanton' or their spouses as 'weaken' particularly in Africa, as they consider men to be the head of the family and his wife must submit to him as the husband. Tragically, this stems from the desire that women will bear children in marriage, have a substantial family and deal with their children and spouses. For women that do go into governmental issues or politics, they need to juggle satisfying both their roles at home as marital obligations and at work. Moreover, numerous families likewise confront the unforgiving reality of HIV/AIDS/AIDS and the pulverization it can bring. Harriet Harmon recounts a parliament part in Tanzania, Monica Mbega, who nurtures 16 children. Three are her own while the other 13 were the offspring of her sibling and her sister who passed away from the dreaded disease.

Such additional weights make it troublesome for women to enter into any demanding position in governmental issues or politics and afterwards to adjust their family and work lives. With the desire to wed young likewise poses as a hindrance of lower levels participation for women in Africa politics. Numerous young women quit going to class for a long time before their male partners who later makes it troublesome for them to go up against male applicants in decisions. Without access to a similar level of training, women will keep on having to battle much harder for similar openings and opportunities for a leadership position. While different nations have tried emblematic endeavours to urge women to go into legislative issues as they participate in politics, others have taken a more straightforward and controlled approach. Since the 1990s, nations over the world have begun executing quantity frameworks to guarantee the portrayal of women in legislative issues. Nonetheless, the United Nations 2004 article, "Women Break into African Politics," takes note of that around the world just about 30 nations have ordered women amounts in governmental issues and politics. The article likewise diagrams what they consider to be the three most common standard frameworks utilized as a part of Africa. Constitutional quotas- Few nations, including Burkina Faso and Uganda, have established arrangements holding seats in national parliament for ladies. Election law quotas-Arrangements are built into national enactment, as in Sudan. Political gathering Standards-Gatherings embrace inward standards to incorporate a specific level of women as a contender for office.

This is the situation with the representing parties in Gender Equality in South Women and African Economic Development and Mozambique." Endeavours by universal associations and foreign nations outside Africa, for example, British chamber and United States of America ID and Gender Equality have additionally been useful in putting weight on African governments to make strides towards enhancing access for women to political support. While this has been valuable for getting government leaders to openly promise to attempt and advance women's representation, without solid strides to move down these announcements, ladies are still left to battle individually to be heard. Women's Lack of Support: While presenting quotas system, it gives a method for tending to gender unevenness imbalance in basic leadership especially with decision-making, this practice and training regularly needs supports from essential political actors or meets resistance in social orders that have solid male-centric conventions. Much like the verbal confrontation around governmental policy regarding minorities in society, those contradicted to quantity frameworks say they victimize men. The Zambia National Women's Lobby Group blames its administration for lacking political will. While the Zambian government has endorsed various worldwide instruments to advance ladies in legislative issues with regards to politics, the gathering reports, none "have been tamed." Cultural and customary works on subjecting women to male predominance have likewise upset women's advance in accomplishing sexual orientation and gender equity in legislative issues.

Women are faced with obstructions, for example, "struggle, terrorizing, negative states of mind, generalizations by society and absence of help from the electorate," takes note of the group. The UN Under-Secretary-General Ibrahim Gambari Voter in Mpumalanga, South Africa: Main obligation regarding change lies with women themselves. The Stockholm-based Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) reports that women government officials over the globe stand up to a "manly model" of legislative issues. Much of the time they need political gathering support and have no entrance to quality education or training to enter legislative issues. "Political life is sorted out for male standards and values and as a rule notwithstanding for male ways of life," notes Ms. Margaret Dongo, a Zimbabwean lawmaker. "Be that as it may, this must and will change." Zimbabwe is one of four nations in sub-Saharan Africa where the extent of female parliamentarians declined amid decisions in 2000-02. Administered shares are 'pitifully wrong," Chief Whip Douglas Gibson of the opposition Democratic Alliance in South Africa told the women's support group Gender Links. "Would you at that point say that 10% of the cricket group ought to be white and the rest dark since that is the make-up of the country? You would not, on account of not everyone would need to play cricket,' so it's a matter of choice and interests.

Unlike the decision ANC, the Democratic Alliance does not save seats for women (Wayne, 2018). Apparently, the increasing women's share of seats in parliament alone isn't an answer, as noted by the UNIFEM report. It does not ensure that they will settle on choices that advantage the greater part of women. "It can only level the odds on which women fight for equity," as reported by the UN office. Numerous variables upset selected women from advancing laws that guide women. These may incorporate breaking points on arrangement decisions parliamentarians can make, because of the advance conditions set by global financial organizations. They may likewise be controlled by "national constitutions that hamper parliamentary power in connection to the official forces of government and by political gatherings that apply solid teach over their individuals," as noted by UNIFEM. Some gender activists also contend that portions may constitute an "unattainable rank" past which women cannot go unless they participate in the extra battle. Others battle that, women who come into control under such a framework might be underestimated or seen as not politically meriting. Standards "must be a temporary arrangement not a cure for the makings of a genuine majority rule government of democracy," says Mrs. Mata Sy Diallo, previous VP of the Senegalese National Assembly.

The IDEA organization in Stockholm contends women government officials around the globe are off guard as far as budgetary assets, since women are at a larger end of the world poorest and in numerous male-centric social orders cannot possess the property and do not have economic power of their own. Regardless of such preventions, a current IDEA study considered few suggestions that women around the globe should take interest to learn the guidelines of legislative issues of politics, make conditions that enable more women to take an interest and afterwards in the long run change the standards to suit the requirements of the majority share of women. As indicated by Ms. Birgitta Dahl, a Swedish parliamentarian, 'Political gatherings, the instructive framework, non-legislative associations, exchange associations, houses of worship - all must assume liability in their own association to efficiently advance women investment, from the base up.' South Africa's Speaker of Parliament Frene Ginwala demands that the fundamental duty falls on women themselves. "In any general public and circumstance it is those most influenced who must realize and bring about change'. 'The individuals who are advantaged benefits from a framework that underestimates others. It is dependent upon the women", Wayne (2018).

Women's Grassroots Participation through Political System. The empowerment women in African politics with political participation and leadership, this study reveal the devices, strategies and assets utilized by people and organisations to enable women to defeat the snags keeping them from political value and fairness. The hindrances to the political participation of women distinguished in this study are the absence of open/social help or support and political gathering support, dug in conventional perspectives, absence of certainty, absence of money related means, absence of capacity building openings, absence of access to innovation, gender segregation, and division as indicated by ethnic lines, brutality, and terrorizing. Political gatherings are fundamental vehicles that could empower women's support in the political framework. The significant impediments to Women's Political Participation are conventional and social boundaries that are settled in and social standards and states of mind against women as pioneers and decision makers. It is imperative for women to have the important social and family support to beat these limiting factors. It is essential to feature the advantages of having women in basic leadership and to have local good examples to help construct local limit. To cause political gatherings, it is valuable to have compulsory standards, for example, 30% least women in initiative structures and including women wings in political gatherings.

One other great risk for women is brutality and terrorizing. This can be counteracted by having constituent sets of principles and help from non-administrative associations, for example, International Republican Institute (IRI) on good practices received to local conditions. Another obstruction identified confronting women are financial boundaries. This can be alleviated by enrolling the help of women in business and getting in kind properties like venture. Struggle financing confinements and measures to control defilement ought to be forced. Another impediment looked by women is the absence of access to information and communication advancement (ICT) which additionally been utilized to fight the female gender (women). Decidedly, ICT can be utilized to bring issues to the light of women's political activism and to sort out battles for backing, for example, Harass Map in Egypt. Political Parties and Electoral Systems: Women in parties host to be particular with party leaders with regards to behaviours and practices that avoid them from basic leadership in the decision-making process. In the US, change in the inward principles for the Democratic Party convention and structures more than 30 years back have made ready for more women's interest in participation. It is vital to have raising money, for example, Emily's List (www.emilyslist.org) particularly for women contender to empower them to centre around battling. UNDP and NDI had created a production entitled "Enabling Women for Stronger Political Parties: A manual to advance women's political investment".

Obviously, women need to help each other by having solid gatherings to facilitate their interests. Obligatory standards for women have been fruitful in expanding women's interest in elections, for example, in Spain where analysts found that Spain's compulsory quotas (expecting gatherings to guarantee 40% of their possibility for nearby decisions ladies) hosted quantifiable constructive outcomes for gatherings. Lastly, the training and empowerment of women are the key to ensure that women participate in political issues in Africa. The International and local women's organizations assume a considerable part in expanding ladies' interest in legislative issues, for example, IRI's Women's Democracy Network (WDN's) Women's Political Education Forums (WPEF) has been utilized to build ladies' political commitment. Directing preparing, for example, creating media aptitudes, outlining efforts and building information of key national and nearby arrangement issues alongside long haul tutoring has helped with building ladies' certainty to go up against positions of authority starting at grassroots levels.

5. Conclusion

Regardless of whether the debate or discourses that more noteworthy women's political representation will bring more effective democratic governments is valid or not, most would not differ that it is imperative for women to be an essential piece of the political framework in any nation particularly in Africa. Shockingly, several women in sub-Saharan Africa confront overwhelming hindrances in entering governmental issues regards to politics and for being effective once elected. The argument in this study is that the increasing political participation of African women in political issues of government in Africa is not due to the increased education, but the implication from political socialization. Keeping in mind the end goal to guarantee expanded representation of women in legislative issues of African politics, it is as yet not clear what the perfect arrangement is. While established standards and deliberate gathering portions have been fruitful in Rwanda and South Africa for getting women elected into political leadership positions, a more fundamental move may be imperative too. Rwanda women hold up to 68% seats in the parliament currently. For whatever length of time that customary ideas that ladies must adhere to, 'women's work' are always presented as mothers and spouses, it will keep on being difficult for women to persuade election and to be regarded by other elected authorities. Critical advance has just been made in a wide range of African nations however balance is still exceptionally far away. UN Women's projects on administration and cooperation are guided by a background marked by worldwide duties regarding women's representation and participation in political issues. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women maintains women's entitlement to take an interest out in the open or public life, while the Beijing Platform for Action calls for expelling boundaries to square with cooperation.

The Millennium Development Goals measure advance towards sexual orientation uniformity to some degree by the extent of women in parliamentary seats. Towards these ends, it will be vital to give training to women political possibility to help assemble their abilities, and offer voter and community education and sharpening efforts on gender fairness. It will be very highly important to back gender balance advocates in approaching political gatherings, governments and others to do their part in engaging women. Different activities support young fellows and ladies to take part in supporting around making gender balance measures fundamental to open policy-making. As the UN Women advocates for authoritative and established changes to guarantee women's reasonable access to political circles—as voters, applicants, elected authorities and civil administration individuals. This paper recommends that everyone should also team up with UN nation groups and work with common society on programs so elections maintain and respect women's rights, including to vote and battle free from constituent savagery and violence. Finally, it was noted that the media has turned into convincing organizations of political learning, as youngsters invest a gigantic measure of energy being presented to TVs set, the web, computer games, and other media as opposed to cooperating with live. Media regularly depict adverse messages about political pioneers and government which may prompt the distance of the young ones especially female gender.

References

Ammerman, N. T. (1987). Bible Believers: Fundamentalists in the Modern World. Rutgers University Press.

Bendroth, Margarot Lamberts. (1993). Fundamentalism and Gender, 1875 to the Present. Yale University Press.

Boundless. (2017). Gender Socialization, sociology – Cochise college boundless, 2016.

Brinkerhoff Merlin, B. & Marlene, M. M. (1984). Religious Denominations' Impact upon Gender Attitudes: Some Methodological Implications: *Review of Religious Research*, 25, 365-78.

Brown, Karen. (1994). Fundamentalism and the Control of Women Pp. 175-201 in Fundamentalism and Gender, edited by John Stratton Hawley. Oxford University Press.

Chalfant, H. P., Beckley, R. E. & Palmer, C. E. (1994). Religion in Contemporary Society.

Dey, I. (2005). Qualitative data analysis. London: Routledge, Taylor and Francis Group.

Ellison Christopher, G. & Marc Musick, A. (1993). Southern Intolerance: A Fundamentalist Effect? *Social Forces*, 72, 379-98.

Hawley, J. S. (1994). Fundamentalism and Gender. New York Oxford. Oxford University Press.

Hertel, B. R. & Michael, H. (1987). Religious Affiliation, Attendance, and Support for 'Pro-Family' Issues in the U.S. *Social Forces,* 65, 858-82.

Hoffman, J. P. & Alan, S. M. (1997). Social and Political Attitudes among Religious Groups: Convergence and Divergence over Time: *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion,* 36, 52-70.

Huffman Cohen, P. N. & Pearlman, J. (2010). Engendering Change: Organizational Dynamics and Workplace Gender Desegration, 1975 – 2005. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 55(2), 255-277.

Joseph, C. (2002). Gender and Local Government: Occasional Paper (13) S.A: Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.

Kosmin, B. A. & Lachman, S. (1993). One Nation under God: Religion in Contemporary American Society. Harmony Books.

Lechner, F. J. (1993). Global fundamentalism, in Swatos WH Jr. (ed) A Future for Religion? New Paradigms for Social Analysis. Newbury Park, 19-36.

Lovenduski, J. (2005). Feminizing Politics. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Martin, P. Y., Marie Withers, O., Hesselbart, S. & Wood, M. (1980). The Significance of Gender as a Social and Demographic Correlate of Sex Role Attitudes: *Sociological Focus,* 13, 383-96.

Mason, K. O. & Yu-Hsia, Lu. (1975). Attitudes toward Women's Familial Roles: Changes in the United States, 1977-1985, *Gender and Society,* 2, 39-57.

McGuire, M. B. (1981). Religion: The Social Context. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

McMurry, M. (1978). Religion and Women's Sex Role Traditionalism. *Sociological Focus,* 11(2), 81–95.

Mogalakwe, M. (2006). Research Report. The Use of Documentary Research Methods in Social Research. *African Sociological Review*, 10(1), 221-230.

New Tactics. (2015). Empowering Women in Political Participation and Leadership.

Ramoshaba, W. (2005). Publisher's Note. Portfolio - Municipalities in South Africa in Association with South African Local Government.

Regnerus, M. D., David, S. & Christian S. (1999). Voting with the Christian Right: Contextual and Individual Patterns of Electoral Influence. *Social Forces*, 77, 1375.

Smith, K. W. (1974). On Estimating the Reliability of Composite Indexes Through Factor Analysis. *Sociological Methods and Research,* 2(4), 484–51.

The White Paper. (1998). Local Government document.

Thornton, A. & Deborah, F. (1979). Changes in Sex-Role Attitudes of Women 1962-1977: Evidence from a Panel Study. *American Sociological Review,* 44, 831-42.

Thornton, A., Duane, F. A. & Donald, C. (1983). Causes and Consequences of Sex-Role Attitudes and Attitude Change!' *American Sociological Review,* 48, 211-27.

UN, women. (2017). Leadership and Political Participation. UN Women USNC Metro NY Chapter.

Vyas-Doorgapersad, S. (2014). Assessing the Role of Gender in Local Governance [Political Context]: The Case of South African Municipalities. OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development, 07-09.

Wayne, S. (2018). DA and ANC retain competitive seats. Daily Maverick, 12 April 2018.

Williams, S., Seed, J. & Mwawu, A. (1994). Oxfam Gender Training Manual. Oxford. An Oxfam publication.

Woodberry, R. D. & Christian, S. S. (1998). Fundamentalism et Al.: Conservative Protestants in America. *Annual Review of Sociology,* 24, 25-56.

Journal of Social and Development Sciences (JSDS)
Vol. 9, No. 4, December 2018 (ISSN 2221-1152)

Determinants of the Return Migration of Household Heads from South Eastern Zimbabwe to South Africa During Prolonged Crisis, 2000-16

Dick Ranga
Department of Development Studies, Faculty of Applied Social Sciences, Zimbabwe Open University – Manical-and Regional Campus, Mutare, Zimbabwe
rangadic@yahoo.com

Abstract: The study assessed return migration by heads of households that migrated during the prolonged crisis, 2000-16. It collected data among 166 households from four districts in South Eastern Zimbabwe. Most of the male household heads had previously migrated, half of them to South Africa. Non-migrant heads were mainly females who remained behind when their husbands migrated to South Africa or urban areas. Both heads who returned from migrating to South Africa and locally to urban areas came back during 2011-15 with the desire to reunite with families. This period was associated with severe retrenchments by Zimbabwean companies that attempted to survive the shrinking economy. Yet it was also an attractive period to return home for international migrants because of the stability brought by the adoption of multiple currencies. Xenophobic attacks in South Africa in 2015 also 'pushed' some of the heads into returning home. International return migrants were significantly younger and had lower levels of education than internal and non-migrants. Three-tenths of them returned into households having traditional huts as their main houses which suggested that migration was unsuccessful for them. There is a need for restoration of stability soon after a crisis since this helps attract back human capital.

Keywords: *Migration; Return migrants; Zimbabwean crisis; Southeastern Zimbabwe; migration to South Africa*

1. Introduction

There is a long history of migration from Zimbabwe especially from the southern districts to South Africa. Crush (2002) probably referred to southern Zimbabwe when he argued that "almost a quarter of adult Zimbabweans have parents and grandparents who have worked in South Africa at some point in their lives". Muzondidya (2008) classified Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa into 'earlier' and 'recent' migrants. Among other groups, earlier migrants included unskilled and semi-skilled Zimbabweans who together with Zambians, Malawians and Mozambicans migrated or were forced into migration to work in South African mines or commercial farms during colonialism. This author also included among the earlier migrants those young single men from southern Zimbabwe who migrated to South Africa in the late 1980s and 1990s after seeing signs of trouble in the Zimbabwean economy (Muzondidya, 2008). Concurring, Manamere (2014:92) argued that "many young rural men in Southern Mozambique and Zimbabwe came to see their movement across the border as a necessary 'rite of passage', and step to marriage and social adulthood". On the other hand, recent migrants included several hundred thousands of Zimbabweans who escaped the political and economic crisis in Zimbabwe after 2000. This crisis 'pushed' into migration Zimbabweans of all walks of life including both the young and old, married and single, southerners and northerners, skilled and unskilled (Muzondidya, 2008). Pasura (2008) estimated the number of Zimbabweans who left the country at about 3 to 4 million, which warranted use of the term 'mass exodus.

According to the UNDP (2010), about 83% of them migrated to destination countries in Africa especially neighboring countries like South Africa, Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, Zambia, and Mozambique. Two-thirds of them were living in South Africa (UNDP, 2010). This was due to Zimbabwe's proximity to South Africa and Botswana where there are economic stability and better wages and employment standards (Crush and Tevera, 2010; Lefko-Everett, 2004). Both skilled and unskilled Zimbabweans were also in demand in these countries. The political crisis involved inability by government to curb corruption involving some of its members, prioritizing some political and autocratic decisions at the expense of the economy, the violent 'fast-track' land reform program, resorting to violence in order to suppress the opposition, and disputes related to election results and the rule of law (Murisa, 2010). On the other hand, the economic crisis started when the government adopted the market-based development program dubbed the Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP) in 1991-95. Instead of improving investments and relocating labor efficiently according to

neo-liberal economics, ESAP resulted in "de-industrialization, growing unemployment and the severe erosion of living standards of the majority" (Mlambo and Raftopoulos, 2010:2).

The situation worsened after the 2000s with more companies downsizing or closing down operations in response to the political crisis. To exacerbate the situation, inflation rose to unprecedented levels such that by July 2008 it reached a record 231 million percent (Chagonda, 2010). The study assessed the determinants of returning home by heads of households that migrated to South Africa during the prolonged crisis. In other words, it explained what made some heads of households from south-eastern Zimbabwe return home while others remained in diaspora especially in South Africa. There is a belief that many of the men who migrate from this region to South Africa neglect their families left back home while they start new families in South Africa. This study hopes to allay this belief explaining how factors like personal, household and district level characteristics increased the tendency by some migrant heads of households to return home. It also placed their return in context citing how events such as the restoration of economic stability by the GNU in Zimbabwe and xenophobic attacks in South Africa 'pulled' or 'pushed' some of the heads of households into returning home. By studying return migration of household heads in their places of origin, the study was different from others which focused on the host country like South Africa studying those with intentions to return home (but may never have returned). It also had the chance of capturing return migration from other destinations both in Zimbabwe (internal migration) and other countries besides South Africa. It answered the often unanswered questions: have some of the Zimbabweans who escaped to South Africa during the crisis returned home? If yes, what factors determined their returning home? This is important for policymakers as they can manipulate those factors which increase the return migration of previously lost human resources.

The Objectives of this Study Included to:

- Analyze the level of return migration by household heads in southeastern Zimbabwe.
- Explore the reasons for returning home by household heads in southeastern Zimbabwe.
- Assess for associations between the personal characteristics of the household heads and their migration status.
- Determine the role played by household and district level variables in the return migration of household heads in southeastern Zimbabwe.

2. Literature Review

One of the few studies on return migration of Zimbabweans from South Africa was conducted by Makina (2012) and based on the migrants' future intentions. He found that 47% of the migrants who left for purely economic reasons or 34% for political reasons "were more likely to return than those who left for other reasons or for a combination of political and economic reasons" (Makina, 2012:369). Studies conducted by Crush and others found that 67% of Zimbabweans based in the United Kingdom and 65% of those in South Africa were likely to return at some time in the future (Mandiyanike, 2014). The decision to return home by most of the Zimbabweans in South Africa depended on the restoration of stability in the country (Makina, 2012). There is evidence that economic stability somehow returned and social service delivery improved after the Government of National Unity (GNU) officially adopted multiple currencies dominated by the United States (US) dollar in February 2009. For instance, one year later, the International Crisis Group "observed that the unity government was clearly making discernible, albeit sometimes painfully slow, progress in a number of areas" (Mandiyanike, 2014:5). Such areas included the reopening of schools and hospitals; the payment of civil service workers in foreign currency even though they were started with allowances of US$100 across the board; increased availability of goods in the supermarkets; and control of the cholera epidemic.

The adoption of multiple currencies automatically reduced inflation and contributed to the first positive growth of the economy in a decade of 4.7 per cent in 2009 (Mandiyanike, 2014). Although the political situation remained uncertain, these positive changes in the economy and social service delivery were likely to influence some Zimbabwean migrants into returning home. This is consistent with the structuralist theory of migration which states that the decision to return home is often affected by situational and structural factors. According to this theory, the migrant is likely to return home after taking into consideration the reality of the socio-economic situation in the home country vis-à-vis his/her expectations for successful return migration

(Makina, 2012). This theory is relevant given that we are in the age of information technology such that immigrants can easily become aware of the social, economic and political changes taking place in the home country. Based on this argument, Makina (2012) argued that those Zimbabwean migrants who left after the 2000 political and economic crisis were more likely to return than those who left before the crisis.

Studies conducted by Crush and others suggested that a counter-flow of migrants was likely to occur in crisis driven situations such as that of Zimbabwe once the crisis conditions were resolved (Mandiyanike, 2014). This is analogous to other political crises like war whereby the refugees would return home when a preferred political system is in place (Makina, 2012). Returning home was likely to be determined by several factors including personal characteristics of the return migrant such as age, marital status and education and household factors such as a number of dependents (or household size), ownership of cattle, and others. Roman and Goschin (2014) cited several factors related to the host country, which may act as 'push' factors for professional migrants particularly health workers to return home. These include being ill-treated or discriminated against as outsiders. This was relevant in the case of Zimbabweans' return from South Africa since the nationals of other African countries were subjected to xenophobic attacks in South Africa in 2008 and 2015. They were accused of taking jobs that belong to South Africans and lowering wages since in their desperation to survive they would accept low wages. Some immigrants including Zimbabweans have been seriously injured or lost their lives in these attacks (New Zimbabwe, 15 April 2015). This was likely to be one of the reasons for returning home by household heads in southeastern Zimbabwe. Other migrants might return due to social reasons particularly those related to migration and the family setup.

Those migrants who relocate alone leaving the spouse and children behind are likely to return home even when the wage differentials are not in favor of returning in order to reunite with their families. This has led some scholars to include spousal separation as a determinant of return migration (Makina, 2012). According to neoclassical economic theory migration is caused by economic factors particularly the wage difference between the sending country and the receiving country. For return migration to occur, the wages in the home country should be higher than those paid in the host country. Migrants might return home even when there are non-monetary gains for returning including the chance to use one's skills and knowledge gained while abroad. For instance, Makina (2012) argued that the probability to return was higher for skilled migrants as their chances of finding employment at home were stronger. This probability, however, got lower as the income level of the immigrant got higher. The new household economics theory of migration highlighted that migration decisions are not only made by calculating individuals but also by "larger units of related people" such as the family or household in order to maximize expected income or minimize risk against uncertainties in life (Massey et al., 1993:436). Such uncertainties include crop failures related to droughts which are more frequent nowadays due to climate change, imperfect markets, and unemployment. This theory is related to the argument that some migrants move in order to raise income for starting a business at home. In this case, return migration is likely to occur when the migrant has started a business at home through which he/she can reduce other risks including crop failure, imperfect crop markets or unemployment.

3. Methodology

The study mainly adopted a design in migration studies whereby the migrants' wives and other family members left behind provided information on behalf of the absent migrants. Although the remaining family may not be exactly aware of why the migrant left, there are advantages associated with this design such as the chance to interview those migrants who have returned home. Four districts in southeastern Zimbabwe including Zaka, Bikita, Chipinge and Chimanimani were purposively selected. These districts were targeted since they have a long history of sending labor migrants to South Africa. This made identifying households with heads that have migrated to South Africa but have since returned home easier. In each of the four districts, two Wards in close proximity to each other were selected purposively in order to reduce the travelling expenses that would be incurred if the two Wards were far apart. The Wards included one with an urban Centre such as a growth point (pole) and another purely rural. This was meant to represent both rural and urban areas since Zimbabweans of all walks of life (rural and urban) migrated to South Africa during the crisis. Snowball (or referral) sampling was used to select households with labor migrants in South Africa. Although a non-probability sampling technique, snowball sampling allows the researcher to reach populations that are difficult to sample when using other sampling methods (Creswell, 2011). Moreso, the

process is cheap, simple and cost-efficient. One hundred and sixty-six (166) households out of 200 households targeted, which indicated a response rate of 83%, responded to the questionnaire. The lowest proportions came from Chipinge (39) and Chimanimani (30) districts where some households were afraid of disclosing the whereabouts of their members who had crossed the border clandestinely or mistook the research assistants for donors who might deny them aid given that they had members in the diaspora. Household heads were asked whether they migrated before, to where and when they returned.

This led to their classification into those who had migrated to another country (international return migrants), to a place in Zimbabwe (internal return migrants) and those who never migrated before (non-migrants). Data analysis involved testing for associations between the head's migration status and their personal, household and district characteristics using the Pearson Chi-square. This helped reveal characteristics of the household heads which were significantly associated with international or internal return migration or non-migration. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used both for data entry and analysis. Data were presented in frequency tables and figures.

4. Results and Discussion

The Level of Return Migration into Households of Origin in South Eastern Zimbabwe: Table 1 shows that together about three-fifths (63.2%) of the heads of households studied in southeastern Zimbabwe were returned migrants as they had previously migrated. While 52.4% of them had returned from migrating locally to other places in Zimbabwe (internal return migrants), 47.6% returned from migrating to another country (international return migrants). The majority (45 out 54 or 83.3%) of the internal return migrants had returned from migration to urban areas in Zimbabwe. This was most probably due to challenges related to the prolonged crisis such as premature de-industrialization and retrenchments. An overwhelming majority (45 out 49 or 91.8%) of the international return migrants returned from migrating to South Africa. This suggested that most of the household heads in these districts migrate to South Africa which confirmed other studies that argued that most Zimbabweans displaced by the crisis at home migrated to South Africa or Botswana (Crush and Tevera, 2010). This also confirmed the existence of a counter-stream of Zimbabweans from South Africa should stability return to Zimbabwe (Mandiyanike, 2014). The rest were non-migrants as they had never migrated before (Table 1). Most of them were likely to be females whose husbands had migrated to South Africa.

Table 1: Where Household Head Migrated to, When and Why Returned Home

Variable	No.	%
Where migrated before?		
Non-migrant	60	36.8
International	49	30.1
Internal	54	33.1
Activity while in the host country/area		
Working / looking for work	76	75.2
Studying	13	12.9
Married	9	8.9
Visiting	3	3.0
When returned home (N=93)		
2005 or before	13	14.0
2006-2010	12	12.9
2011-2015	44	47.3
2016	24	25.8
Why returned home		
Reunite with family	41	41.8
A failure, had nothing	12	12.2
Xenophobia	10	10.2
Stability/peace in Zimbabwe	4	4.1
Started business	5	5.1
Acquired skills to use at home	14	14.3

Weak currency in SA	5	5.1
To retire at home	4	4.1
Other	3	3.0

Source: Survey results

Three-quarters of the household heads that returned home were working or looking for work wherever they immigrated, indicating that they were labor or economic migrants (Table 1). This confirmed Kiwanuka and Monson (2009) who argued that most of the Zimbabweans who escaped the crisis were economic migrants rather than refugees where they immigrated. The largest proportion (47.1%) of the household heads returned between 2011 and 2015 (Table 1). An assessment of the association between the period when returned and migration status revealed a significant result ($P<0.05$) which indicated that the majorities (51.1% and 42.6%, respectively) of both those who returned from migrating to South Africa and locally came back during this same period (2011-15).

For those who returned from migrating to South Africa, this was probably because of the improvement in the economy and social service delivery at home as a result of the GNU's adoption of multiple currencies dominated by the United States Dollar (Mandiyanike, 2014). Others could have been 'forced' to return home by the second major xenophobic attacks in South Africa in 2015. As for those who returned from migrating to other places in Zimbabwe, this was probably because of retrenchments as Zimbabwean companies tried to remain viable in the shrinking economy. For instance, the Southern Eye of 6 May 2015 cited the Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (Zimstats) which estimated the number of employees retrenched between 2011 and 2014 at 227,000.

The Household Heads' Reasons for Returning Home: The majority (41.8%) of the heads who migrated before returned because they desired to reunite with families left back home (Table 1). This supported studies that emphasize the role played by family factors such as reunification in the decision to return home (Makina, 2012). The second largest proportion (14.3%) of the household heads returned because they realized the opportunity to use the skills that they gained abroad at home. This confirmed Wilson's 1985 and Sjaastad's 1962 Human Capital models which argue that migrants return because they have acquired higher qualifications or skills while abroad which they hope to use at home. Other researchers found that more than half (58%) of migrant Vietnamese in the Pacific desired to use knowledge gained abroad upon returning (Iredale, Guo and Rozario, 2003). This was followed by those who returned because their migration was "a failure; they had nothing" (12.2%). This supported the neoclassical theory which explains return migration in terms of failure not only to find a job but one that pays more than those in the home country. Failure might also have meant that the migrant came back with nothing after having failed to remit meaningfully as argued by Hungwe (2012). Xenophobia 'forced' one-tenth of the household heads who migrated before to return home (Table 1).

As mentioned already, there were xenophobic attacks on Zimbabweans and immigrants from other African countries in South Africa sometime during 2008 and 2015 (New Zimbabwe, 15 April 2015). These foreigners were blamed by South Africans for taking their jobs as well as lowering wages as they accepted low wages for them and their families left in Zimbabwe to survive. While returning because of the desire to reunite with families left back home was associated with both those who migrated to South Africa and locally (53.2% and 44.9%, respectively), xenophobic attacks were mainly mentioned by those who migrated to South Africa. On the other hand, those who mainly mentioned having started a business at home or acquired skills which they intended to use at home were internal migrants who had migrated mainly to Zimbabwe's urban areas. This included rural teachers who had migrated to urban areas in order to study as teachers at the colleges and universities which are mainly found in towns and cities in Zimbabwe.

Table 2: When and Why Returned by Migration Status of the Household Head

When and why returned home	International % (N=49)	Internal % (N=54)
When returned home*		
Before 2006	6.7	23.3
2006-2010	6.7	19.1
2011-2015	51.1	42.6
2016	35.6	17.0
Why returned home**		
Reunite with family/Retired	53.2	44.9
A failure, had nothing	12.8	10.2
Xenophobia	21.3	0.0
Stability at home/weak currency	6.4	12.2
Started business/acquired skills	6.4	32.7

Source: Survey results
* Significant at 5% level (P<0.05) ** Significant at 1% level (P<0.01)
Source: Survey results

The other reasons for returning mentioned by smaller proportions or numbers of the migrant heads included stability or peace in Zimbabwe, the desire to retire at home, weaker currency in the host country and others like illness (Table 1). This supported the notion that stability in the economy and improvements in social service delivery especially during the period of the GNU (2009-13) influenced some of them into returning home.

Personal Characteristics by Migration Status of the Household Head: A significant result (P<0.05) indicated an association between migration status and age of the household head. While the majority (58.3%) of the non-migrant heads of households was aged 40 or older, the largest proportions of both those who migrated to South Africa (international) and locally (internal) were aged 30-39 (49.0% and 50.0%, respectively) (Table 3). In other words, non-migrants were significantly older than both groups of return migrants. Instead of returning in their old ages for retirement, most of the household heads came back early and in the middle of their family and working lives. This confirmed that their return migration was mainly 'pushed' or 'pulled' by circumstances in which they found themselves such as xenophobic attacks in South Africa or retrenchments in Zimbabwe's urban areas.

A highly significant result (P<0.01) indicated an association between migration status and sex of the household head. While three-fifth of the non-migrant heads of households were females the majorities (75.5% and 59.3%, respectively) of both heads that migrated to South Africa and locally were males (Table 3). There is gender inequality in labor migration from this region with female heads of households less likely to ever migrate especially to South Africa than their male counterparts. This confirmed that southeastern Zimbabwe is one of those regions in which labor migration is still a men's affair while women and children remain behind.

Table 3: Personal Characteristics by Migration Status of the Household Head

Characteristic	Migration status Non-migrant % (N=60)	International % (N=49)	Internal % (N=54)
Age (years)*			
Below 30	15.0	20.4	20.4
30-39	26.7	39.0	50.0
40 or older	58.3	30.6	29.6
Sex**			
Male	40.0	75.5	59.3
Female	60.0	24.5	40.7
Marital status			

Never married	8.3	8.2	9.3
Married	68.3	75.5	79.6
Disrupted	23.3	16.3	11.1
Highest education level**			
Not educated	6.7	8.2	9.3
Primary	35.0	26.5	7.4
Secondary	55.0	51.0	57.4
Certificate/Diploma/Degree	3.3	14.3	25.9

Source: Survey results
* Significant at 5% level (P<0.05) ** Significant at 1% level (P<0.01)

This presents challenges to these women as found by other researchers since some of the migrant husbands may forget their families left behind and start new families in the host country (Muzondidya, 2008). This was particularly so because the migrants' wives left in Zimbabwe never visited them while in South Africa. This further places them at risk of being infected with sexually transmitted illnesses (STIs) such as HIV and AIDS by their spouses when they return home. A few studies have, however, highlighted the positive effects of this labor migration involving men including increased female autonomy (Yabiku, Agadjanian and Sevoyan, 2010). The result for marital status, which was statistically insignificant, indicated no differences in marital status among the non-migrants, international and internal return migrants as their majorities (68.3%, 75.5% and 79.5%, respectively) were married (Table 3). However, most of the household heads with disrupted marriages were found among the non-migrants (23.3%). This suggested that not all of the female heads of household were heads because their husbands had migrated to South Africa (de facto) but a few were probably de jure heads of household due to widowhood, divorce or separation. A highly significant result (P<0.01) indicated an association between migration status and education level of the household head. The majorities (55.0%, 51.0% and 57.0%, respectively) of the non-migrants, international and internal return migrants had some secondary education since four years of secondary education is the norm in Zimbabwe. Major differences were found in the second largest proportions.

While the second majorities for non-migrants and those who returned from migrating to South Africa (35.0% and 26.5%, respectively) had primary education only, the second largest proportion (25.9%) of those who returned from migrating locally (internal) was professionally qualified with a certificate or diploma or degree. In other words, there were more educated heads among those who returned from migrating locally than those who returned from South Africa or those who never migrated. This confirmed other studies which argue that some of the labor migrants from southeastern Zimbabwe migrate to South Africa soon after completing Grade 7 (Zimbabwe Youth Council, 2014; Manamere, 2014). This also confirmed that some of the heads migrated locally to urban centres in order to further their education.

Household and District Level Variables by Type of Return Migration: A significant result (P<0.05) also indicated an association between migration status of the household head and one of the indicators of socio-economic status that is, materials used to build the main house. The majorities of non-migrants, international and internal return migrants (84.5%, 70.8% and 88.9%, respectively) had main houses built of brick walls and iron/asbestos/tile roofs. The proportion (70.8%) for international return migrants was, however, the lowest (Table 4). On the other hand, nearly three-tenth of the international return migrants had traditional huts made of pole and dagga or brick walls and thatch as their main houses. This suggested that some international migrants to South Africa failed to improve their socio-economic statuses even after migrating to 'the land of gold' (*egoli)*. This further supports our earlier finding that some of the heads who returned from South Africa were failures as they had nothing to show for their migration.

This confirmed Hungwe (2012) who said some migrants came back with nothing after having failed to remit meaningfully. Although the result for household size was insignificant, the distribution was slightly as expected since larger proportions (53.5% and 64.4%, respectively) of both international and internal return migrants came from smaller households (1-5 members) (Table 4). We expected heads from smaller households to return home than those from larger households who would continue working abroad in order

to provide for the large households. Similarly, other scholars argued that migrants with more numbers of dependents are less likely to return than those with fewer dependents (Makina, 2012).

Table 4: Household and District Level Variables by Migration Status of the Head

Variable	Migration status Non-migrant % (N=60)	International % (N=49)	Internal % (N=54)
Household size			
1-5 members	45.6	53.5	64.4
6 or more	54.4	46.5	35.6
Materials used to build main house*			
Mud/brick + thatch	15.5	29.2	11.1
Brick + iron sheets/asbestos/tiles	84.5	70.8	88.9
Ownership of cattle / plough			
Own cattle/plough/both	48.3	50.0	63.5
Neither own cattle nor plough	51.7	50.0	36.5
District**			
Chimanimani	25.0	20.4	9.3
Chipinge	26.7	26.5	16.7
Bikita	16.7	20.4	50.0
Zaka	31.7	32.7	24.1

Source: Survey results
* Significant at 5% level (P<0.05) ** Significant at 1% level (P<0.01)

Another insignificant result was for the other variable assessing the socio-economic status of the household, whether owned cattle or plough. Almost equal proportions (half-half) of the non-migrant and international return migrants owned or did not own cattle, a plough or both. In contrast, a larger proportion (63.5%) of the internal return migrants owned cattle, a plough or both. This suggested that some heads who returned from migrating locally (internal) were socio-economically better than those who returned from South Africa or those who never migrated as they owned cattle, a plough or both. A highly significant result (P<0.01) also showed an association between migration status of the household head and district.

Nearly one-third, the majority, of those who returned from migrating to South Africa came from Zaka district while the second majority (26.5%) came from Chipinge district. This was probably because of the close proximity of Zaka to South Africa than Chipinge such that some of the migrants 'jump' the border through informal routes in the forests. Most of rural Zaka district, like Chiredzi, is also so dry that livelihoods based on small-scale rain-fed agriculture alone cannot be sustained. In contrast, half of the internal return migrants were found in Bikita district and the second majority (24.1%) in Zaka district (Table 4). In other words, there were more household heads that returned from migrating locally than to South Africa from Bikita district. This confirmed that there was more labor migration from Bikita district to towns and cities in Zimbabwe than from the other districts. This was probably because of Bikita's location on the highway between Masvingo town and the city of Mutare in the east. Hence, other potential labor migrants from Bikita could have moved to either urban Centre than South Africa.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Most of the household heads who returned from migrating to another country had gone to South Africa while those who returned from migrating locally had gone to towns in Zimbabwe. Since most of the non-migrant heads were females, they were probably the wives of men that had migrated to South Africa. The study noted, however, that a few of them were actually de jure female heads of households. The majorities of both the international and internal return migrants came back home during 2011-15. For those who came from migrating locally to Zimbabwean towns, this was because companies were retrenching during this period in order to remain viable in the shrinking economy. As for the heads who returned from migrating to South Africa, this was because the Zimbabwean economy was more stable than when they left at the peak of the crisis (2007-09) due to the adoption of multiple currencies in February 2009 or because of xenophobic

attacks in South Africa in 2015. However, the reason stated by most of the migrant heads for returning was the desire to reunite with families left back home. The other reasons were different with xenophobia mainly mentioned by those who returned from migrating to South Africa while "started a business or acquired skills to use at home" were reasons mainly mentioned by those who returned from migrating locally to urban areas.

Some of them could have migrated to towns to train as teachers where most of the teachers' colleges are found. Return migrants were exclusively male which was typical of labor migration in the past. They were significantly younger than non-migrants having returned in the middle of their active ages because of favorable conditions at home or unfavorable ones at destination areas including xenophobia or retrenchment. Slightly above a quarter of those who returned from migrating to South Africa were associated with low levels of education, which confirmed that some of them migrate to South Africa soon after completing Grade 7. As a result, three-tenth of them was relatively poor as they came from households having traditional huts as their main houses. This was despite having migrated to 'egoli' (land of gold). Furthermore, Zaka district was most associated with heads who returned from another country particularly South Africa probably because of its close proximity to that country. On the other hand, Bikita district was most associated with those who returned from migrating locally especially to urban areas in Zimbabwe.

The Study Recommends that:

- There is need to restore stability immediately after a crisis in developing countries since this helps attract back those nationals including heads of households who would have escaped the country during the crisis in order to help families survive.
- The government of Zimbabwe should control migration of young men from south-eastern Zimbabwe to South Africa soon after completing Grade 7 since this is associated with lower socio-economic status such as returning home to households with traditional huts as their main houses or without a plough, cattle or both.
- Zaka and Chipinge district are some of the districts that should be targeted in efforts to control labor migration to South Africa.
- There is a need for further studies involving larger samples to confirm the association found by this study between labor migration to South Africa and poverty since some people who migrate to South Africa expect their socio-economic lives to improve overnight.

References

Chagonda, T. (2010). Dollarization of the Zimbabwean economy: cure or curse? The case of the teaching and banking sectors. Conference on the renaissance of African economies, Dar as Salaam, Codesria, 20-21.

Creswell, J.W. (2011). Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach, (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crush, J. (2002). Zimbabweans who move: Perspectives on international migration in Zimbabwe. SAMP Migration Policy Series, 25.

Crush, J. & Tevera, D. (2010). Zimbabwe's Exodus: crisis, migration, survival. Cape Town: Idasa or Ottawa: IDRC.

Hungwe, C. (2012). The migration experience and multiple identities of Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa, *Online Journal of Social Sciences Research*, 1(5), 132-138.

Iredale, R. Guo, F. & Rozario, S. (2003). Return migration in the Asia Pacific. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Kiwanuka, M. & Monson, T. (2009). Zimbabwean migration into Southern Africa: New trends and responses. Forced Migration Studies Program University of the Witwatersrand.

Lefko-Everett, K. (2004). Botswana's changing migration patterns. Migration Information Source.

Makina, D. (2012). Determinants of return migration intentions: Evidence from Zimbabwean Migrants, living in South Africa, *Development Southern Africa*, 29(3), 365-378.

Manamere, K. T. (2014). Majoni Joni – Wayward criminals or a good catch? Labor migrants, masculinity & marriage in rural southeastern Zimbabwe. *African Diaspora*, 7, 89-113.

Mandiyanike, D. (2014). Zimbabwe's return migrants – before and after challenges. SAMP Policy Brief, 29.

Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, J., Kouaouci, G., Pellegrino, A. & Taylor, J. E. (1993). Theories of international migration: a review and appraisal. *Population and Development Review*, 19(3), 431-466.

Mlambo, A. & Raftopoulos, B. (2010). The regional dimensions of Zimbabwe's multi-layered crisis: an analysis. Election processes, liberation movements and democratic change in Africa conference.

Murisa, T. (2010). Social development in Zimbabwe. Discussion paper prepared for the Development Foundation for Zimbabwe.

Muzondidya, J. (2008). Majoni Joni: Survival strategies among Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa. Paper presented at the International Conference on the Political Economies of Displacement in Zimbabwe, Wits University, 9-11.

New Zimbabwe. (15 April 2015). SA: one Zimbabwean killed 800 displaced.

Pasura, D. M. (2008). A Fractured Diaspora: Strategies and Identities among Zimbabweans in Britain.

Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Warwick.

Roman, M. & Goschin, Z. (2014). Return migration in an economic crisis context: a survey on Romanian healthcare professional.

Southern Eye. (6 May 2015). Companies retrench over 200,000 workers.

UNDP. (2010). The potential contribution of the Zimbabwe diaspora to economic recovery. Comprehensive economic recovery in Zimbabwe. Working Paper Series, 11.

Yabiku, S. T., Agadjanian, V. & Sevoyan, A. (2010). Husbands' labor migration and wives' autonomy. *Population Studies*, 64(3), 293-306.

Zimbabwe Youth Council. (2014). Harmful Cultural and Social Practices Affecting Children: Our Collective Responsibility.

Journal of Social and Development Sciences (JSDS)
Vol. 9, No. 4, December 2018 (ISSN 2221-1152)

The Dominant Factors Influencing the Flow of Foreign Direct Investment to Indonesia

Makmun Syadullah, Akhmad Yasin
Researcher at the Fiscal Policy Agency, Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Indonesia
makmunsyadullah@yahoo.com, akhmadyasin08@gmail.com

Abstract: This paper aims to examine the impact the gross domestic product of the exporting country and the importing country, total tax rate to a commercial profit of exporting country, and importing. As for as, the object of research is the flow of FDI from four countries, namely the Netherlands, Malaysia, Singapore, and Japan to Indonesia. While the methodology used a gravity model specification to model bilateral FDI outflows. Our study finds most real GDP for both the exporting and importing country have consistently positive signs as expected, although generally, only the coefficient of the GDP of the importing country is significant. The coefficient percentage of the total tax rate to commercial profit, both in the exporting country and importing country, also in line with the theory, although both are insignificant.

Keyword: *International investment, tax, economic growth, Economic Development, Fiscal, Policy, Panel Data Models.*

1. Introduction

The diversity of corporation tax between countries is one factor that distorts investment between countries. The company must comply with tax laws in each country where it operates. Compliance with tax regulations and procedures places a heavy administrative burden on companies involved in cross-border activities, mainly because tax changes often occur. The diversity of tax regulations also creates double taxation. Although there are multiple tax agreements, problems persist, especially about the calculation of the price of transfers and restructuring of international groups, (Princen, 2012). In the debate about corporate tax reform, the discussion of each country's corporate tax and how it affects the decision of multinational companies to invest focuses on the tax rate according to the law. Although taxes are a useful proxy, they are often very different in magnitude from a more meaningful level: the average effective tax rate (Cederwall, 2015). According to Martin (2009), investment decisions can be considered as one of the most important decisions taken by financial managers. The investment decision-making process influences the firm's affirmation in the business environment and increases its market share

Investment decision concerns the issue of capital allocation for fixed assets or financial assets; central place returns to fixed assets, acquired as a result of the capital investment. Edame and Willie Wilfred Okoi (2014) examine the impact of taxation on investment and economic growth in Nigeria from 1980-2010. The result of the analysis showed that taxation is negatively related to the level of investment and the output of goods and services (GDP) and is positively related to government expenditure in Nigeria. They also observed that taxation statistically is a significant factor influencing investment, GDP and government expenditure in Nigeria. Christopher et al. (1983) in Edame and Willie Wilfred Okoi (2014), Discovered in a study of 208 British industrial companies, that the low investment experienced then was as a result of inadequate demand for funds (rather than general storage of capital) reflecting low investment opportunities. They subsequently suggested that a policy aimed at expanding the domestic demand would stimulate investment. Discovered in a bid to quantity demand, many proxies have been suggested, including sales, output, profit and others.

Investment decisions regarding capital allocation issues for both fixed assets and financial assets. According to Edame and Willie Wilfred Okoi (2014) who examined the impact of taxation on investment and economic growth in Nigeria from 1980-2010, taxation was negatively related to the level of investment and output of goods and services (GDP) and positively related to government spending. Taxation is also statistically a significant factor affecting investment, GDP, and government expenditure. Christopher et al. (1983) in Edame and Willie Wilfred Okoi (2014), in a study of 208 British industrial companies found that low investment was a result of insufficient funding requests. Indonesia is one of the world's investment destination countries. This is because Indonesia has important aspects that support a trusted investment business. Indonesia's unique attractiveness becomes its trigger for foreign investors to invest their capital. The attractiveness is embodied in important aspects of investment support such as the healthy economy, stable political situation, favourable

investment climate, abundant natural resources, favourable demographic situation, and growing domestic market.

Based on the above background, this paper aims to examine the impact the real gross domestic product of the exporting country, the GDP of importing country. Total tax rate to a commercial profit of exporting country, and total Tax rate to a commercial profit of importing. For that will be tested against the four largest countries that invest in Indonesia, namely the Netherlands, Singapore, Japan, and Malaysia. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) sourced from these four countries in 2015 reached USD 13,162,93 million or 44,96 per cent of total FDI into Indonesia.

2. Literature Review

The Impact of Taxation on the Investment: According to Bucataru (2002), investment decisions and decision-making processes are influenced by a number of internal and external factors.

Internal Factors: Company goals; involvement of managers and employees in submitting maximum efforts to achieve goals; the nature of the product or service offered; company characteristics; unit interdependence in achieving goals.

External Factors: According to Martin (2009) fiscal factors play an important role in the decision-making process of a company in determining where it will carry out its activities. Other aspects that are also considered include infrastructure, available labour, laws, quality of local services, etc. The company will decide to set its activities in countries where fiscal costs and production costs are cheaper. Meanwhile, according to Vartia (2008), in OECD member countries, the increase in tax rates was negatively responded by decreasing the benefits of capital depreciation through changes in user capital costs. Vartia concluded that personal and corporate income taxes have a negative effect on productivity. In contrast, tax incentives for research and development (R & D) have a positive effect on productivity. Edame and Willie Wilfred Okoi (2014) in their study found an inverse relationship between corporate income tax and personal income tax with investment. Every one per cent increase in corporate income tax will result in a decrease in the level of investment. As a result, an increase in personal income tax will result in a decrease in the level of investment. According to the OECD cross-border FDI flows decreased 3.7 per cent after a 1 percentage point increase in the tax rate on FDI.

While the range of decreases varies greatly, which is in the range of 0per cent to 5per cent depending on the type of industry and country studied. This reflects increased capital mobility because non-tax barriers to FDI are removed. This estimate can be used to estimate the long-term impact on corporate tax reform FDI. Economic Growth and Investment: Many factors influence foreign investment, such as economic growth, market clarity in destination countries, adequate macroeconomic stability characterized by low inflation rates and stable exchange rates. Another important thing to consider is political stability in the destination country. According to Shahzad and Seilan (2013), Clegg and Scots-Green (1999) and Neubaus (2006) market size and growth variables have a significant positive effect on FDI. Whereas according to Neubaus (2006), market size affects most horizontal FDI but does not matter for vertical FDI. In contrast, Jayachandran and Seilan (2010) found that the rate of economic growth had no effect on the existence of foreign direct investment. GDP is only one of the factors that influence FDI. Previous research in Pakistan by Awan, et al. (2011), shows that GDP positively and significantly affects FDI inflows because the increase in GDP causes an increase in attractiveness of FDI to Pakistan.

3. Research Methodology and Data

This paper uses the specifications of the gravity model developed by Beck and Alexis Chaves (2012). According to the interests and purposes, this study does not fully use the gravity model specification used by Beck and Alexis Chaves. The author modifies, so the gravity model specification used in this paper is as follows:

$$\ln(FDI_{ijt}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \ln GDP_{it} + \beta_2 \ln GDP_{jt} + \beta_3 \ln Tax_{it} + \beta_4 \ln Tax_{jt} \quad (2)$$

Where:

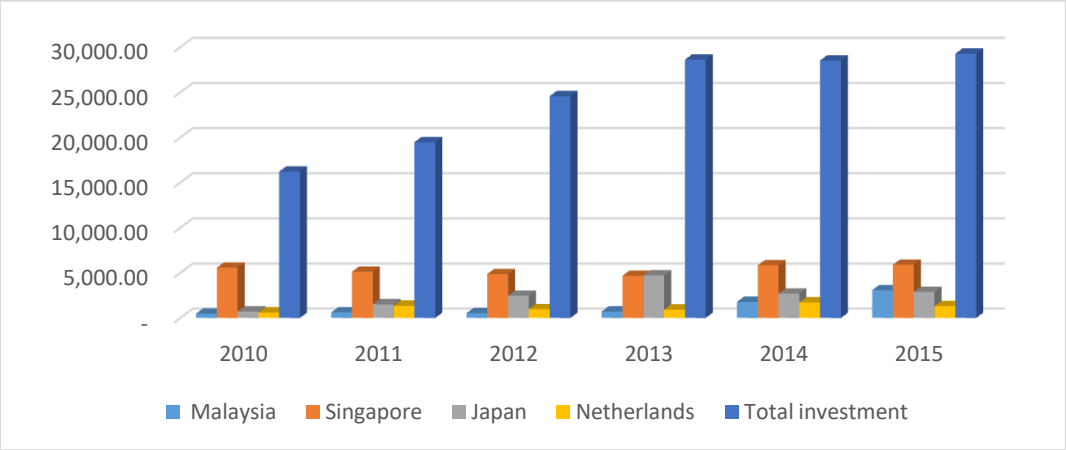
FDI_{ijt}	:	the value of real foreign direct investment flowing from country i to country j in year t
GDP_{it}	:	the real gross domestic product of exporting country i in year t
GDP_{jt}	:	the GDP of importing country j in year t
Tax_{it}	:	percentage total Tax rate to a commercial profit of exporting country i in year t
Tax_{jt}	:	percentage total Tax rate to a commercial profit of importing country j in year t

FDI data is sourced from the Indonesian Investment Coordinating Board. This data does not include investments in the oil and gas sector, banking, non-banking financial institutions, insurance, leasing, investments issued by technical / sectoral agencies, and portfolios and household investments. In this paper four countries were chosen, namely the Netherlands, Malaysia, Singapore and Japan. FDI inflows from these countries account for 45 per cent of the total FDI inflows to Indonesia.

4. Analysis

Overview of FDI Inflows to Indonesia: National policy is the key to the attraction of FDI. In recent decades many countries have begun to liberalize especially those related to FDI policy. In some cases, FDI is just a complement to domestic investment. However, in its development, FDI has an important role in investment as a whole. The growth of FDI in Indonesia from 2010 to 2015 can be seen in Figure 1. The figure shows an increasing trend of FDI flows. This cannot be separated from a number of government regulatory incentives provided to attract investors to Indonesia such as fiscal incentive policy packages to support increased investment. The government also built Special Economic Zones (SEZs) to accommodate industrial activities, exports, imports and other economic activities that have high economic value and international competitiveness. The development of the SEZs was inspired by the success of several countries that adopted it earlier, such as China and India. Even empirical data illustrates that SEZs in the country is able to attract investors, especially foreign investors to invest and create jobs. It is none other than because of the ease that investors get, the ease of shaped ease in the field of fiscal, taxation and customs. In fact, there are also non-fiscal areas, such as ease of bureaucracy, special arrangements in the field of employment and immigration, and efficient service and order within the region.

Figure 1: Statistic of Foreign Direct Investment by Country 2015 (million USD)



Source: Investment Coordinating Board of the Republic of Indonesia

The sectors most in demand by foreign investors are mining with a contribution of 13,72per cent), transport, storage & communication metal (11,24per cent), machinery & electronic industry (10,56 per cent), electricity, gas & water supply (10,35 per cent), real estate, Ind. estate & business activities (8,31 per cent) and Food Crops & Plantation (7,08 per cent). Total investment in the sector reached 67.94 per cent (see Table 1).

Table 1: Statistic of Foreign Direct Investment Realization by Sector 2016 (million USD)

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Food Crops & Plantation	750.96	1,222.49	1,601.87	1,605.34	2,206.72	2,072.02
Livestock	25.03	21.14	19.82	11.30	30.82	75.13
Forestry	39.36	10.33	26.94	28.83	53.33	18.98
Fishery	18.02	9.99	28.99	10.01	35.29	53.10
Mining	2,200.55	3,619.22	4,255.45	4,816.36	4,665.10	4,017.20
Food Industry	1,025.75	1,104.64	1,782.95	2,117.74	3,139.58	1,521.18
Textile Industry	154.80	497.26	473.12	750.70	422.49	433.43
Leather Goods & Footwear Industry	130.38	255.01	158.88	96.19	210.66	161.58
Wood Industry	43.06	51.14	76.29	39.50	63.65	47.11
Paper and Printing Industry	46.41	257.53	1,306.61	1,168.88	706.49	706.93
Chemical and Pharmaceutical Industry	793.36	1,467.40	2,769.79	3,142.31	2,323.37	1,955.75
Rubber and Plastic Industry	104.31	369.96	660.30	472.22	543.91	694.47
Non-Metallic Mineral Industry	28.40	137.15	145.76	874.13	916.88	1,302.81
Metal, Machinery & Electronic Industry	589.51	1,772.78	2,452.62	3,327.09	2,471.95	3,092.49
Medical Preci. & Optical Instru, Watches & Clock Industry	-	41.92	3.40	26.08	7.24	6.87
Motor Vehicles & Other Transport Equip. Industry	393.77	770.13	1,840.05	3,732.24	2,061.28	1,757.26
Other Industry	27.56	64.74	100.19	111.70	151.77	83.21
Electricity, Gas & Water Supply	1,428.62	1,864.93	1,514.57	2,221.75	1,248.81	3,028.92
Construction	618.35	353.70	239.57	526.81	1,383.61	954.52
Trade & Repair	773.58	826.00	483.58	606.50	866.80	625.05
Hotel & Restaurant	346.61	242.24	768.16	462.52	513.11	650.19
Transport, Storage & Communication	5,072.12	3,798.86	2,808.23	1,449.87	3,000.89	3,289.89
Real Estate, Ind. Estate & Business Activities	1,050.36	198.65	401.78	677.72	1,168.43	2,433.58
Other Services	553.93	517.33	645.77	341.74	337.51	294.30

Source: Investment Coordinating Board of the Republic of Indonesia.

FDI is believed to have a positive effect on the economic growth of destination countries (Effendi and Soemantri 2003). This positive impact is due to the transfer of technology and managerial skills, the introduction of new production technologies and access to international networks. For developing countries, the entry of foreign direct investment also means the ease of obtaining soft loans. But this does not apply to Venezuela, because the impact of FDI on economic productivity is very small Aitken and Harisson (1999). This finding is similar to the results of a study conducted by Germidis (1977) which states that FDI does not have a significant effect on increasing economic growth. The results of this empirical study differ from the findings obtained by Borensztein, Gregorio, and Lee (1998) which states that the existence of FDI actually increases economic growth. This finding is supported by Alfaro, Chandra, Kalemli-Ozcan, and Sayek (2000)

who also stated that the presence of FDI had a positive impact on economic growth, especially in the financial sector. The differences in findings from several different researchers are the main attraction of researchers to conduct research on the impact of foreign direct investment in Indonesia, whether to support the hypothesis that direct foreign investment will increase economic growth or vice versa. GDP is real annual GDP obtained from an OECD national account. While the total tax rate for commercial profits is obtained from the World Bank. Unlike the previous study, the focus of this paper is not to measure the impact of FDI on economic growth but emphasizes whether economic growth factors in Indonesia are one of the driving factors for the entry of FDI.

Estimation and Result: To measure the impact of some variables that predictably affect FDI to Indonesia, the initial model used is a common effect, but the regression results indicate that there is a coefficient sign that is not in accordance with the expected, i.e the tax coefficient in the FDI exporting country is negative. After cross-section test of F and Cross-section Chi-square value <0.05, so the common effect model is rejected. GDP is the real annual GDP obtained from the OECD national accounts. While the total tax rate to commercial profit is obtained from the World Bank.

Table 2: Model Foreign Investment Ratio

Variable	Comman Effect	Cross Section Fixed Test
Gdpothers	0.745098	0.783730
Gdpindo	1.582193*	2.357712
Taxothers	-3.624647*	0.871945*
Taxindo	0.039354	-1.088968
Constant	11.16543	-6.434142
R-squared	0.512322	0.594547

Source: Internal Calculation *) significant at level 5per cent

Based on Table 2, the Fixed Test Cross Section Model, all coefficients of explanatory variables have signs according to the theory. Real GDP for exporting and importing countries consistently has positive signs as expected, but only significant importing country GDP coefficients. If the exporting country's GDP increases 1per cent, FDI outflows to Indonesia will increase by 0.75 per cent, whereas if Indonesia's GDP increases by 1per cent, FDI inflows to Indonesia will increase by 2.36 per cent. The results of this study are in line with the results of Beck's (2012) study, but in contrast to the results of research by Aitken and Harisson (1999), Germidis (1977) who found that the impact of FDI did not significantly influence economic growth. Like eggs with chicken, whichever comes first? Will FDI affect economic growth or vice versa economic growth that drives FDI inflows? Unlike previous research, this paper sees that economic growth will drive FDI inflows. This is in line with Lipsey's (1979) that investment deterrence is national income, investment level and expectations. The level of demand for goods is the main determinant Lipsey's investment argues that the higher the level of demand and income, the higher the desire among companies to invest, because of good expectations about the future.

Tax rates in exporting countries and importing countries have a negative impact on FDI but are not significant. If the percentage of the total tax rate for commercial profits in the exporting country rises by 1per cent, then the outflow of FDI to Indonesia will increase by 0.87 per cent. The tax elasticity increase in the negative importing country is 1.09 per cent, which means that if the percentage of the total tax rate on commercial profits in Indonesia decreases by 1per cent, FDI inflows will increase by 1.09 per cent. The impact of taxation in importing countries is not statistically significant, which can mean that taxes do not play a role in attracting foreign investment. Research conducted by Martin (2009) also shows that taxation plays an important role in the investment decision-making process, but companies must also consider other aspects (infrastructure, available labour, laws, the local quality of services, etc.) if they want to be efficient. The Indonesian government also provides various incentives to facilitate investors to expand their business in Indonesia. Among them are tax holiday facilities, tax incentives, and simplification of licensing, import duty exemption facilities that are applied to imported machinery. The Indonesian government also provides tax

allowance facilities, which are facilities provided by the government in the form of reducing the company's net income to 30 per cent of the investment value.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion: Some conclusions from this study are: First, real GDP for exporting and importing countries has positive signs consistently as expected, but only the import coefficient of GDP of the country is significant. This finding shows that the higher the economic growth in the destination country, the higher the company's desire to invest, because of good expectations about the future. Second, the tax rate coefficient in both the exporting country and the importing country has a negative impact, but the effect is not significant. Taxation plays an important role in the decision making process investment, but companies must also consider other aspects (infrastructure, available labour, laws, quality of local services, etc.) Want to be efficient.

Recommendations: Based on the findings above, the Indonesian government needs to develop a strategy to accelerate and develop economic development that can be pursued through First, developing economic development corridors by building economic centres on each island. In addition to developing industrial clusters based on commodity and sector advantages. Second, strengthen national relations both locally and internationally. This can reduce transaction costs, create synergies between centres of growth and overcome access to services. Like intro and inter-connectivity between growth centres and international trade and tourism doors. While in terms of taxation, the government has provided a number of incentives to foreign investors. This strategy can be further developed by providing incentives to sectors that are less developed but attracted by foreign investors.

References

Aitken, B. J. & Harrison, A. (1999). Do domestic firms benefit from direct foreign investment? Evidence from Venezuela. *American economic review*, 89, 605-618.

Alfaro, L., Chandra, A., Kalemli-Ozcan, S. & Sayek, S. (2000). FDI and economic growth: The role of local financial markets. Harvard Business School. Working Paper, 01-083.

Awan, Muhammad Zahid., Bakhtiar Khan. & Khair, uz Zaman. (2011). Economic determinants of foreign direct investment(FDI) in commodity producing sector: A case study of Pakistan, *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(2), 537-545.

Beck, Stacie. & Alexis, Chaves. (2012). The Impacts of Various Taxes on Foreign Direct Investment, U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis or the U.S. Department of Commerce.

Borensztein, E., De Gregorio, J. & Lee, J. W. (1998). How does foreign direct investment affect economic growth? *Journal of international economics*, 45, 115-35.

Bucătaru, Dumitru. (2002). Gestiunea financiară a întreprinderii, Partea I, Sedcom Libris Publ. H., Iasi.

Cederwall, Eric. (2015). How Taxes Affect Investment Decisions for Multinational Firms.

Christopher, M., Carolyn, A. & Brunm, S. (2003). Impact of corporate tax on economic development – Crowy Williams Publication, Geneva U.S.A.

Clegg, J. & Scott-Green. (1999). The Determinant a New FDI Capital Flow into the EC: A Statistical Comration of the USA and Japan, *Journal of Common Market Studies*, 37(4), 597-616.

Edame, Greg Ekpung. & Willie, Wilfred Okoi. (2014). The Impact of Taxation on Investment and Economic Development in Nigeria, *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies MCSER Publishing, Rome-Italy*, 3(4), 209-2018.

Effendi, N. & Soemantri, F. M. (2003). Foreign direct investment and regional economic growth in Indonesia: A panel data study. Working paper in economics and development studies.

Germidis, D. (1977). Transfer of technology by multinational corporations. Development centre of organization for economic cooperation and development. Paris.

Jayachandran, G. & Seilan, A. (2010). A Causal Relationship between Trade, Foreign Direct Investment and Economic Growth for India. *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics*, 42, 75-88.

Lipsey, R. G. (1979). Tax evasion and its effects on the economy. Joanne publishers Ltd. Onitsha. Miscellaneous taxation provision Decree 1985.

Martin, Adina. (2009). The Impact of Taxation on the Investment Localization Decision in the Context of Globalization, Analele Stiinłifice ALE Universităłii. Alexandru Ioan Cuza" Din Iasi Tomul LVI Stiinńe Economics, 133-142.

Neubaus, M. (2006). The Impact of Foreign Direct Investment on Economic Growth: An Analysis for the Transition countries of Central and Eastern Europe, Physical Verlag HD, 141-151.

Princen, Savina. (2012). Determining the impact of taxation on corporate financial decision-making, Reflets et perspectives de la vie économique 3, 161-170.

Shahzad, A. & Al-Swidi, A. K. (2013). Effect of Macroeconomic Variables on the FDI inflows: The Moderating Role of Political Stability: An Evidence from Pakistan. *Asian Social Science,* 9(9), 270-279.

Vartia, Laura. (2008). How do Taxes Affect Investment and Productivity? An Industry-Level Analysis of OECD Countries, OECD-Economics Department Working Papers, 656.

Journal of Social and Development Sciences (JSDS)
Vol. 9, No. 4, December 2018 (ISSN 2221-1152)

Factors Affecting Delegation Authority toward Employees Performance

Adnan Alhosani[1], Rosman Md Yusoff[2], Fadillah Ismail[3], Fazal Ur Rehman[4]
[1,3,4]FPTP, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia, Parit Raja, Johor, Malaysia
[2]PPUK, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia, Parit Raja, Johor, Malaysia
[4]COMSATS Institute of Information Technology, Attock Campus, Pakistan
fazal_marwatpk@yahoo.com

Abstract: Employees are the key asset of every organization and their performance can influence the goals and objectives of organizations in a positive or negative way. The aim of this study is to develop a theoretical framework in relations to examine the effects of employee's satisfaction and participation, delegation authority and empowerment on employee's performance in UAE organizations. Specifically, to get an in-depth understanding of the linkage between delegation authority and employees performance with emphasize on (employee participation and employee satisfaction). This study is only limited to Dubai organizations and future research may be conducted in other countries as well as can assess the moderating role in the defined variables. By integrating employee's satisfaction and participation, delegation authority and empowerment, and employee's performance literature, the main contribution of this paper is the analysis of defined variables in Dubai organizations with emphasize on new challenges and to boost up the gap of relevant literature.

Keywords: *Delegation of Authority, Empowerment, Employee Performance*

1. Introduction

The Arab social setting similar like others is very special and full of attractive features. Historically, dialect and religion are profoundly entwined, family, and tribe traditions are assuming a significant part of the culture. Beside globalization and modernization, the priorities of the Gulf district, including UAE, look to make knowledge economies. According to (Sabri, 2004; 2012), the Arab managers and leaders feel hesitation to assign authority to others and most often organize the necessities of family and companions, and the requirements of the associations. The scenario which has been affirmed by the GLOBE study (House, Javidan and Dorfman, 2001; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004) have found that self-assurance (exemplified by race-saving, dependence on technique and self-centeredness) is a standout amongst the huge qualities displayed by Arab leaders and managers. As indicated by (Al-Jammal, Al-Khasawneh, and Hamadat, 2015) those employees who are occupied with their duty and committed to their companies can contribute to the organization benefits with good margin including lesser worker turnover and higher proficiency. Delegation of authority may support the lesson of workers in any company and it makes the employee have a fearless environment and feeling of having a place full of features for the leaders in an organization.

Besides, delegation authority is a fundamental subject for the company. As the impact of authority delegation may help in gaining competitive advantage, increase revenue and viability in assignment culmination. In a similar strain, they may express that entrustment of power has reduced the operational loads of the supervisors, has invented contribution and confidence between the administration and the representatives which encourage worker's fulfilment. Some studies (Kombo, Obonyo, and Oloko, 2014; Kiiza and Picho, 2015) have validated that the use of authority delegation can assist workers' viability and improve the leaders' capacity to maintain their duties, keep moving on towards commercial concerns, workers' reliability, and accomplish execution effectiveness. Competencies can be said to be the main thrust behind associations' development and value. As worker competencies are the connections between the earnings of products and the workers' involvement in the operations (Anyadike, 2013), as worker competencies are the consequence of effectiveness and practise of association means.

Worker competencies are viewed as the competency assessment concern with the capacity to deal with the workload, finishing the work on time with minor mistakes, and capacity to work with a great extent unsupervised, accomplishment valued as in time utilisation. Therefore, due to the importance of the above-mentioned factors, this study has the objective to propose a model (employee's satisfaction, employee's participation, empowerment, and employee's performance). In Gulf organizational setting, precisely, it is

interesting to understand the mediating role of empowerment between employee's satisfaction employee's participation and employee's performance. This study may be helpful to HR managers in the various sectors at gulf to formulate better management policies to improve the level of performance, increase profitability, and efficiency to achieve the organizational objectives.

2. Literature Review

Employee Participation: In Emiratis and the Arab States, specifically in UAE, leaders prefer to hire local to get engage them in the working environment. Nevertheless, nearly three of every four employees are not locked in or effectively disengaged at work. This demonstrates that there is a vast potential to expand the engagement levels, specifically when talking among UAE nationals. A recent representative engagement meta-analysis study has affirmed that associations who possess greater engagement of local workers are providing better opportunities to accomplish the hierarchical results such as income and profitability (Gallup, 2016). However, the participation of employee's in decision making is the degree where managers urge to share or take an interest in hierarchical basic decision making. The managers may think about to get a better and ideal style that enables the organization to accomplish the outcome objectives. Participative style of management is also known as a shared authority, representative strengthening, worker association, participative basic leadership, scattered initiative, open-book management, or democracy in industries.

The fundamental idea includes power-sharing approaches, where the working environment impacts are shared among team members. Such power-sharing plans may involve a different representative of associations, can better plans about co-workers working conditions, critical thinking, and basic leadership. At a point, where everybody in an association takes interest in the basic leadership process and hierarchical correspondence are substantially more successful and can deliver productive outcomes (Johnson, 2004). Johnson (2004) portrays employee support as a blend of responsibility and hierarchical citizenship. The cutting-edge of business has acknowledged the genuine hierarchical with focus on the capacity that lies in the profundities of individual and their support to convey super standard yields. The key to beat contenders has turned out to be progressively subject to the levels of execution conveyed by an association's workers (Izak, 2008). Glaser (2005) cites William James saying: "The most profound guideline of human instinct is to be valued".

Armstrong and Baron (2005) have concurred and asserted that non-financial inspirations can be given for the better execution of administration, by giving chances to get success, and in addition to improving occupation engagement and responsibility. Jackman and Strober (2005) have depicted a magnificent connection among managers and employees where the input is given all the time, and it is followed up in many ways to enhance the worker execution capabilities and in addition to conceive the advancement. However, in modern organizational setting the democratization is highly preferable. As the participation of employees in decision making can contribute to organizational objectives, enhance employee's motivation, performance and confidence, and can bring innovation (Irawanto, 2015).

Employee Satisfaction: The sociocultural standard is one of the key factors to enhance the UAE national's career decision-making process and opinion regarding what is and what isn't an appropriate profession road. For example, Harry (2007) and Al-Ali, (2008) have stretched that Arabian Gulf society puts more eminence to public sector positions rather than private segments (Al-Asfour, and Khan, 2014; Salih, 2010). Therefore, empowerment may be a huge part in employee fulfilment for advancing their execution in the organization. Also, empowerment may be one of the pivotal factors toward improvement and enhance the people thinking's, carries on, motivation and self-sufficiently, and controlling the different operational activities. It is simply the inclination control of one's own fate (Heathfield, 2012). Harter, Schmidt and Hayes (2002) have demonstrated towards a causal model ought to be created by investigating the summed-up way of workers' satisfaction and engagement towards short-term results. Furthermore, Khan, Jam, Akbar, Khan and Hijazi (2011) have verified that those organizations which have work inclusion culture, their employee are more dedicated with organizations than those organizations that don't include their employee in decision making. Sowmya and Panchanatham (2011) have uncovered that activity fulfilment is subject to chief conduct, collaborator conduct, pay and advancement, employment and working condition, and most important hierarchical perspectives.

The workers may have a huge slant towards idealistic supervisory conduct and wonderful authoritative setup. Such as Bhatti, Nawab and Akbar (2011) have observed that interest in worker cooperation within organization indicates better outcomes, high representativeness, dedication and efficiency, advancement of wanted information, abilities, states of mind and different practices, which brings about higher occupation fulfilment and authoritative execution. Meanwhile, Oluwakemi, Michael and Tunde (2011) have shown that preparation is an instrument that can help with building a more dedicated and profitable workforce and can prompt more noteworthy duty and less worker turnover. However, in today competitive environment, the employee's participation in the decision-making process is highly preferable to enhance the team learning. Further, the employee's participation in decision making has a positive significant relationship with job satisfaction (Saha and Kumar, 2017).

Empowerment: Empowering workers to lead to enable organization quick responsive, flexible and can prompt a change in both authoritative and individual performance (Meyerson, and Dewettinck, 2012). Individuals having power may feel too much vitality and control in an organization (Shabaani, Kheyri, Atefeh, Rahemipoor, Mahdieh, 2012). Whitman, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2010) have proposed a technique of execution relations among various units inside organizational operations. The study has noted a linkage among various unit level exhibitions. Specifically, a strong linkage was noted between unit level occupation fulfilment and unit level criteria, such as customer's loyalty, profitability, and hierarchical citizenship actions. However, Tuuli and Rowlinson (2010) have divided it into mental strengthening and employment execution to examine the capacity, inspirations and chance to measure mediation between strengthening and execution. It was noted that strengthening had an immediate and constructive outcome on work execution and can improve the inspiration level, provide opportunity and power of execution. The investigation has shown that engaged workers display positive execution practices, and psychological empowerment which is a profitable resource for the organization to seek after their coveted outcomes. Therefore, the employee's empowerment is the vital factor in management practices to maintain the service quality. Evidently, Islam (2016) has noted that employee's satisfaction and service quality are widely depending on the employee's empowerment. As empowerment is the new approach of management to develop their organization and fulfil the requirements of the 21th century (Serami, 2015).

Employee Performance: The vast majority of the study that relates strengthening and execution at the individual level of analysis, normally concentrating on the relationship between work design and job execution. Meanwhile, there are few connections between work improvement and company execution (Patterson et al., 2004). Measures of HRM ordinarily incorporate occupation improvement and ability upgradation. Studies have observed HRM be emphatically connected with organization execution (Guthrie, 2001). Furthermore, Grimaldi (2005) has clarified that overseeing worker execution incorporates way such as: arranging work and setting desires, checking and estimating execution, building up the ability to perform, intermittently evaluating execution, perceiving, and remunerating execution. Refining worker execution often requires capability in specific abilities. Capabilities are detectable, quantifiable examples of aptitudes, information, capacities, practices, and different qualities that an individual need to perform work parts or word related capacities effectively. According to Huselid and Becker (2005), employee's execution reminds individual job responsibilities that being occupied isn't the same as creating a result. It advises us that preparation, solid responsibility and bunches of diligent work alone are not sufficient for successful outcomes.

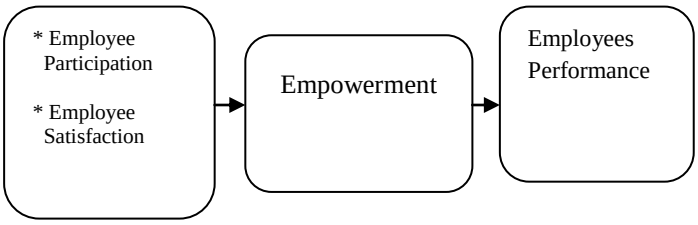
As management execution diverts our endeavors from hectic toward adequacy. Richard et al. (2009) say that hierarchical execution includes three zones specifically; benefit returns on resources, rates of profitability, item showcase execution (deals, a piece of the overall industry) and investors return. In many associations, performance is supervised through adjusted scorecard procedure where execution is checked and estimated in various measurements, for example, money related execution, client benefit, social obligation and worker stewardship. Laurie (2010) brings up that execution pointers can be estimated as far as; business execution and results, advertise standing, advancements, efficiency, performance etc. Therefore, employee's performance is the key factor for every organization to achieve its objectives. Employees performance is an "indicator of financial or other outcome of the employee that has a direct connection with the performance of the organization as well as its achievement, further revealed that working atmosphere, leadership, team and co-worker relationship, training and career development, reward program, guidelines and procedures and

workstation wellbeing as well as employee engagement are major factors that determine employee performance" (Inuwa, 2016).

3. Research Framework

Based on Figure 1, factors of employee participation and employee satisfaction are independent variables and employee performance is the dependent variable. Also, empowerment has the mediating role between the relationships. The illustration of the theoretical framework:

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework (Adapted from Walker, 2007; Khan et al., 2011; Grimaldi, 2005; and Meyerson & Dewenttinck, 2011)



4. Suggestions

Numerous studies, such as, Hashim, Ahmed and Jaradat (2013) have appreciated the designation of power to positively influence the loyalty of employees with organizations and the sense to successfully deliver the assigned task. In this manner, the worker will attempt to legitimize the power assigned to them by demonstrating uplifting disposition in playing out the errands and capacities by means of compelling usage of the accessible resources. In associations, powerful designation allows subordinates to consolidate the application of skills at the workplace, and the approaches to successfully achieve the organizational objectives (Eddie, 2002). However, to effectively enhance the employee's contribution at the workplace, to usefully use their energies, it is highly appreciated to give them a chance with full power and confidence, freedom in the usage of skills can result in something unique. Such power and confidence can upgrade the level of positivity, and the feelings to successfully achieve the organizational objectives. It can sustain the level of performance as the employees will try to compete with their colleagues, to show their image of capacity that will result in better performance at the workplace. Therefore, it is highly recommended to empower human resources to upgrade their level of motivation, feelings, performance, and job satisfaction.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Along these lines, if power delegation isn't appointed to the workers, implementation of undertakings may be unproductive. Giving personnel the privilege to complete or officially correct increment to increase their spirit for better performance. This may make the workers feel that they are part and parcel of the associations to accomplish the mission and vision of it. Subsequently, designation of administrative errands to personnel can affect the worker's execution and it may help the directors to concentrate on different activities for the advantages of association. Along these lines, the appointment of power is an administrative practice. As the designation of power demonstrates that the leaders believe in the capacity of their subordinates to follow up for their benefit or for the sake of association. Representatives may see this as a type of trust and endeavor to legitimize the trust through the compelling release of duties anticipated from them. Likewise, worker empowerment has broadly been perceived as a fundamental supporter of authoritative accomplishment with numerous creators which is an immediate connection between the level of employee empowerment and employee execution, job satisfaction from employee and worker duty. Engaging workers, associations often empower to be more adaptable, responsive and can prompt upgrades in both individual and organizational performance. However, this study is only limited to gulf organizational settings, while future studies can be completed in a quantitative manner in the other parts of the world.

References

Al-Jammal, I., Al-Khasawneh, J. A. & Hamadat, A. M. (2015). The impact of the delegation of authority on employees' performance at great IRBID municipality: Case study. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, 5(3), 61-72.

Anyadike, N. O. (2013). Human resource planning and employee productivity in Nigerian public organization. *Global Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1(4), 56-68.

Al Ali, J. (2008). Emiratisation: Drawing UAE nationals into their surging economy. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy,* 28(9), 365–379.

Al-Asfour, A. & Khan, S. A. (2014). Workforce localization in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: issues and challenges. *Human Resource Development International,* 17(2), 243–253.

Armstrong, M. & Baron, A. (2005). Managing performance: Performance Management in Action. London, UK: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Bhatti, K. K., Nawab, D. S. & Akbar, D. A. (2011). Effect of direct participation on organizational commitment. *International Journal of Business and Social Science,* 2(9), 15-23.

Eddie, S. (2002). Don't be afraid to delegate. Department of Public Administration and Development Studies, *University of South Africa*, 21(2), 66-79.

Gallup, Q12 Meta-Analysis Report. (2016).

Glaser, J. E. (2005). Creating wealth: Change I-Thinking to We-Thinking & Build a Healthy, Thriving Organization. Avon, USA: Platinum Press.

Grimaldi, L. (2005). Study proves recognition pays off. Meetings & Conventions. 30-40.

Guthrie, J. P. (2001). High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: Evidence from New Zealand. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(1), 180-190.

Harry, W. (2007). Employment creation and localization: the crucial human resource issues for the GCC. *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 18(1), 132–146.

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L. & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(2), 268.

Hashim, T., Ahmed, A. & Jaradat, N. (2013). The impact of structural empowerment in achieving psychological empowerment in the Jordanian public organizations. *Journal of Hebron University for Research*, 8(1), 44-56.

Sabri, Socio-cultural values and organizational culture, H. A. & Becker, K. (2004). Islam and Business, 123-45, New Brunswick, NJ: Haworth Press.

Sabri, H. A. (2012). Re-examination of Hofstede's work value orientations on perceived leadership styles in Jordan, *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 22(3), 202-218.

Heathfield, S. M. (2012). Training: Your investment on people development and retention. *Human Resource Journal*, 56(2), 12-17.

Huselid, M. A. & Becker, B. E. (2005). The workforce scorecard: Managing human capital to execute strategy. Harvard Business Review Press.

Inuwa, M. (2016). Job Satisfaction and Employee Performance: An Empirical Approach. *The Millennium University Journal*, 1(1), 2016.

Irawanto, D. W. (2015). Employee participation in decision-making: evidence from a state-owned enterprise in Indonesia, *Management,* 20(1), 159-172.

Islam, M. (2016). The impact of employee empowerment on employee satisfaction and service quality: empirical evidence from financial enters prizes in Bangladesh, Business: *Theory and Practice*, 17(2), 178–189.

Izak, W. D. (2008). A critical analysis of factors that influence employee work performance. Department of Master of Business Administration, South Africa, 1-192.

Jackman, J. M. & Strober, M. H. (2005). Fear of feedback. In: Harvard Business Review on Appraising Employee Performance. USA: Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation, 29–46.

Johnson, M. (2004). The new rules of engagement: Life-work Balance and Employee Commitment. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Khan, T. I., Jam, F. A., Akbar, A., Khan, M. B. & Hijazi, S. T. (2011). Job involvement as a predictor of employee commitment. *International Journal of Business and Management,* 6(4), 252-262.

Kiiza, P. & Picho, E. O. (2015). Delegation and staff commitment in the school of finance and banking in Kigali,

Rwanda: An empirical study. *Global Journal of Commerce and Management Perspective*, 4(3), 50-54.

Kombo, B. W., Obonyo, G. O. & Oloko, M. (2014). Effects of the delegation on employee performance in savings and credit cooperative societies in Kisii County, Kenya. *The International Journal of Business and Management*, 2(7), 22-31.

Laurie, J. M. (2010). Management and Organizational Behavior FT Prentice Hall.

Meyerson, G. & Dewettinck, B. (2012). Effect of Empowerment on Employees Performance. *Advanced Research in Economic and Management Sciences*, 2, 40-46.

Oluwakemi, A. O., Michael, O. & Tunde, E. (2011). Enhancing employees' commitment to organization through training. *International Journal of Business and Management,* 6(7), 280-286.

Patterson, M., Warr, P. & West, M. (2004). Organizational climate and company productivity: The role of employee affect and employee level. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77(2), 193-216.

Richard, P. J., Devinney, T. M., Yip, G. S. & Johnson, G. (2009). Measuring organizational performance: Towards methodological best practice. *Journal of management*, 35(3), 718-804.

House, R. J., Javidan, M. & Dorfman, P. (2001). Project GLOBE: An introduction, *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50(4), 489-505.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W. & Gupta, V. (2004). Culture, Leadership and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Saha, S. & Kumar, S. P. (2017). Influence of participation in decision making on job satisfaction, group learning, and group commitment: empirical study of public sector undertakings in India. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 22(1), 79–101.

Salih, A. (2010). Localizing the private sector workforce in the Gulf cooperation council countries: A study of Kuwait. *International Journal of Public Administration,* 33(4), 169–181.

Saremi, H. (2015). Empowerment as a New Approach in the Management, Proceedings of the International Conference on Global Business, Economics, Finance and Social Sciences (GB15_Thai Conference) ISBN: 978-1-941505-22-9 Bangkok, Thailand, 20-22 February 2015 Paper ID: T567.

Sowmya, K. R. & Panchanatham, N. (2011). Factors influencing job satisfaction of banking sector employees in Chennai, India. *Journal of Law and Conflict Resolution,* 3(5), 76-79.

Taktaz, Behzad., Shabaani, Sedigheh., Kheyri, Atefeh Rahemipoor Mahdieh. (2012). The Relationship between Psychological Empowerment and Performance of Employees, *SINGAPOREAN Journal of business economics, and management studies*, 1(5), 19-26.

Tuuli, M. M. & Rowlinson, S. (2010). An exploratory study of the contextual meaning and consequences of empowerment in project teams.

Walker, G. B. (2007). Public participation in participatory communication in environmental policy decision-making: From concepts to structured conversations. *Environmental Communication*, 1, 99–110.

Whitman, D. S., Van Rooy, D. L. & Viswesvaran, C. (2010). Satisfaction, citizenship behaviors, and performance in work units: A meta-analysis of collective construct relations. *Personnel Psychology*, 63(1), 41-81.

Journal of Social and Development Sciences (JSDS)
Vol. 9, No. 4, December 2018 (ISSN 2221-1152)

Policy and Non-Policy Factors: What Determines Foreign Direct Investments in Africa?

Olawumi Dele Awolusi
University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa
awolusi@ukzn.ac.za

Abstract: Studies have been conducted on the determinants of foreign direct investment (FDI) destinations. However, there seem to be few studies on determinants in African countries. This paper evaluates the determinants of FDI inflows, by examining specific relationships between the determinants (policy and non-policy factors) and FDI inflows to Africa, using a panel dataset from 1980 to 2016. Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) were used as the estimation techniques. The dependent variable, FDI inflows, was represented by the ratio of FDI flows to GDP, while the independent variables were agglomeration effects, trade openness, fiscal balance-macroeconomic condition, market size, economic instability, exchange rate, foreign aid, human capital development, corporate tax, and natural resource endowment. First-year lag of FDI (agglomeration effects), trade openness, market size, economic instability, foreign aid, human capital development, and natural resources (oil and metals) endowment have positive and significant effects on FDI inflows to Africa, while there is a negative relationship between FDI inflows to the continent and fiscal balance (public debt), exchange rate, and corporate tax. Consequently, government policies and non-policy factors played significant roles in facilitating FDI inflow into Africa during the study period. The p-value of the estimation (0.0001) further attests to the statistical significance of the results. Consequently, African countries must improve their regulatory framework to be able to attract more inflow of FDI. Efforts should also be made to reform and improve macroeconomic policies, institutional quality, and natural comparative advantages.

Keywords: *Foreign Direct Investment; FDI; Policy Factors; Non-Policy Factors; OLS; GMM; Africa.*

1. Introduction

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), as a form of capital obtained through foreign sources, has preferred multifaceted characteristics compared to other sources of capital (El-Wassal, 2012; Anyanwu & Yameogo, 2015). Consequently, as an important element in the economic development process, FDI has become the largest and the most reliable component of capital flows to African countries (Asiedu, 2002; Asheghian, 2004; El-Wassal, 2012). However, there is no simple way of describing the policy and non-policy environments for FDI in developing countries in the last three decades. In countries that historically emphasized import-substituting industrialization – such as most of Africa, Latin America, and Southeast Asia countries – FDI was either completely prohibited or multinational firms had to operate under severe restrictions (Asiedu, 2002; Asheghian, 2004; Aregbesola, 2014). According to Aregbesola (2014), contrary to the restrictive stance towards FDI by most developing countries, licensing of foreign technology was aggressively encouraged to encourage technological development of indigenous firms, while some were encouraged to form joint ventures with local firms (Alba, Park & Wang, 2009; Culem, 1988; Billington, 1999). Asheghian (2004) also observed that the rationale behind restrictive policies was aimed at weakening the bargaining position of foreign firms.

It is interesting to note that many African countries still do not allow free entry of multinational firms and often expresses preferences with regard to the type of FDI (Anyanwu & Yameogo, 2015; Alfaro, Chanda, Kalemli-Ozcan & Sayek, 2004). Unfortunately, there is little in the literature that helps us to understand such policies, other than the standard argument that certain industries are able to secure greater protection for themselves than others. Perhaps it is also the case that positive spillovers to the local economy are perceived to be higher under certain types of FDI than others (Hill, 2013). Previous studies (Asiedu, 2002) also observed a lower impact of FDI on Africa in terms of linkages and spill-over into the domestic economy compared to developed and emerging economies. This is due mainly to a concentration of FDI into resources (natural resources, like oil and metals) rather than manufacturing. However, despite the subtle policy interventions outlined above, Asiedu (2002) maintained that when measured by a broad yardstick, overall government policy has become more liberal across the world – with intense competition for strategic FDI from developed and 'emerging nations' by most developing countries (Hailu, 2010; Kimura & Todo, 2010).

Consequently, both developing and developed countries are increasingly recognizing FDI as an important tool of economic growth for the host country (Billington, 1999). In numeric terms, FDI flows around the world rose from $54 billion in 1980 to $208 billion in 1990. These later increased to $1,401 billion in 2000 before falling to $1,114 in 2009 (UNCTAD, 2009). Despite variances in some West African (mainly due to declining commodity prices and the Ebola crisis) and North African countries (due to political and security issues), FDI inflows into Africa were relatively stable at $54 billion in 2014 (UNCTAD, 2015). Specifically, in Sub-Saharan Africa alone, FDI inflows still rose by 5% in 2014 (UNCTAD, 2015; Aregbesola, 2014), while East Africa saw its inward FDI increased by 11% to $6.8 billion. Central African countries also attracted $12.1 billion in 2014, a 33% increase from 2013 figures (UNCTAD, 2015). With an inflow of USD$10.8, South Africa still received the highest African FDI inflows in 2014 (UNCTAD, 2015). These trends reflect the increasing importance placed on FDI inflows by many African countries.

It's also based on the premise that, besides bringing in capital, FDI can facilitate improvements in domestic industrial infrastructure, transfer of technology, technical assistance, increased tax revenue, employment, regional expansion, and foreign reserves (El-Wassal, 2012; Aregbesola, 2014). Although studies on the determinants of FDI destination are on the increase, most have focused on developed and emerging economies (Asiedu, 2002; Asheghian, 2004; Culem, 1988; Billington, 1999). According to Aregbesola (2014), despite the limited studies concentrating on some countries in Africa (Adam & Tweneboah, 2009; Alfaro et al., 2004), there seem to be few studies concentrating on FDI determinants into Africa. According to Asiedu (2002), despite the importance of FDI in conveying knowledge spillovers among countries, evidence relating to determinants of FDI inflow has been mixed. Therefore, a study of the dynamic relationship between FDI inflows and the various determinants in Africa will be beneficial to many policy-makers in terms of formulating their trade and FDI policies (Steers & Nardon, 2006; Hill, 2013; Porter, 1990).

Consequently, this paper seeks to evaluate the determinants of FDI inflows, by examining the specific relationships between the determinants (policy and non-policy factors) and FDI inflows into Africa using a panel dataset from 1980 to 2016. This objective was motivated by the submission of Wyk and Lal (2008). Consequently, the analytical focus was premised on Africa. This paper therefore argues that the practice of pooling developed or emerging and developing economies together in analyzing FDI determinants, is inappropriate: developed economies have substantial amounts of two-way FDI flows compared to developing nations with mostly one-way flows (they are exclusively recipients of FDI flows from developed economies) (Wyk & Lal, 2008; El-Wassal, 2012). The remaining part of this paper is structured as follows: Section two reviews the related literature and section three treats the adopted methodology. Section four presents the results and discussion of the findings. The last section, section five, presents a summary and concludes with some policy implications and recommendations.

2. Literature Review

Theoretical Framework: This study was premised on the influence of government (institutional) and non-government regulatory frameworks on FDI inflows from multinational enterprises (Asheghian, 2004; Culem, 1988). Past studies have also used macroeconomic and institutional factors (Alibar, 1970; Asiedu, 2004; Asiedu & Lien, 2004). According to Wyk and Lal (2008), the dual impact of institutional factors and macroeconomic variables has emerged as an important theoretical framework in the analysis of FDI flows to African economies. According to these studies, macroeconomic theory attempts to explain FDI in relation to macroeconomic variables like GDP, inflation, exchange rate, and employment (Alibar, 1970). Wyk and Lal, (2008) also maintained that the macroeconomic approach focuses on the pattern of net investment flows among nations. On the other hand, institutional theory focuses on the institutional rules that shape and bind organizational behavior in society (Asiedu, 2004; Asiedu & Lien, 2004). The following theories were used to explain theoretical motivations for FDI inflows: transaction cost analysis (TCA), the resource-based view, and institutional theories (Asikhia and Awolusi, 2015; Mustapha, Fakokunde and Awolusi, 2014; Steers & Nardon, 2006; Hill, 2013). This is because much of the existing literature presents no agreement regarding the theoretical framework that should be used to explain the determinants of FDI inflows (Billington, 1999; Aregbesola, 2014), while a theoretical framework can also be based on more than one theory (Billington, 1999). In addition, the three theories are positioned as a strategy tripod, in an interactive position towards improved inflow of FDI to African economies.

TCA seeks to identify the environmental factors that together with a set of related human factors explain how companies can organize transactions to reduce the costs associated with these transactions (Asika and Awolusi, 2013; Awolusi, 2013a; Correa & Kumar, 2003; Peng, 2009), Consequently, the focus of this study is on the premise that FDI decisions are influenced by a country's ability to reduce high transactional costs – usually in the form of opaque regulatory behavior, corruption, and resource-poor and inefficient financial and judicial systems (Asheghian, 2004). The study also argues that improved levels of political-economic freedom, as an important institutional change, will facilitate lower costs and higher FDI inflows to African economies (Asiedu, 2004). The resource-based theory views internal organizational factors as the determinants of FDI inflows (Steers & Nardon, 2006; Hill, 2013; Porter, 1990). The resource-based view suggests that valuable firm resources – comprising tangible and intangible elements – are usually scarce, imperfectly imitable, and lacking in direct substitutes (Asikhia and Awolusi, 2015; Awolusi, 2013b; Brouthers & Hennart, 2007). It is about producing the most value from one's existing capabilities and resources by combining these with others' sources of advantage, and, in this, ensuring that complementarity is paramount (Hill, 2013).

The resource-based view suggests that countries must develop some unique strategic assets or resources that they can exploit in foreign markets or use foreign markets as a source for acquiring or developing new resource-based advantages (Asheghian, 2004). Consequently, many countries often explored or developed resource-based advantages by developing or acquiring a set of country-specific resources and capabilities that are valuable, rare and imperfectly imitable – and for which there are no commonly available substitutes (Korth, 1985; Rivera-Batiz & Oliva, 2003). Consequently, resource-seeking investors are mainly interested in abundant natural resources, while market-seeking investors often look for large and expanding local markets as a prerequisite to making FDI decisions (Peng, 2009). The interaction among government institutions, organizations, and strategic choices also influence FDI flows to many developing and emerging economies (Aregbesola, 2014; Mustapha et al., 2014; Awolusi, 2013a). Consequently, most MNCs often consider wider influences from sources such as government policies and various environmental factors in terms of their decision to invest in other countries (Hill, 2013; Porter, 1990).

Institutional theory research suggests that a country's institutional environment affects a country's decision to invest in other countries, because the environment reflects the "rules of the game" by which firms participate in a given market (Brouthers & Hennart, 2007; Caves, 1996). Specifically, the efficiency of the political institutions in the recipient nation to formulate the desired investment-related fiscal and monetary policies must be strengthened (Asheghian, 2004). Thus, developing countries that compete for a larger share of global FDI flows have started liberalizing their institutional environments – to create favorable investment opportunities for MNEs (Hill, 2013). This is on the premise that institutional quality, sound macroeconomics, educational levels (human capital), and natural resources are the major determinants of FDI inflow to many African economies (Asiedu, 2004b; Asiedu & Lien, 2004). However, the inadequate functioning of institutions in Africa has been identified as creating high political risk, corruption, poor governance, bureaucracy, and rule-of-law failures (Anyanwu, 2012). In addition, most African countries are characterized by less structural interaction between political and economic institutions – which inhibits the inflow of FDI (Aregbesola, 2014).

Determinants of FDI Inflows: Studies have been conducted to understand the determinants of FDI destinations. Agglomeration effects (economies) may exist given that foreign investors may be attracted to countries with more existing foreign investment (Nnadozie & Osili, 2004). This is on the premise that, due to lack of knowledge of a country's environment, foreign investors may view the investment decisions by others as being a good signal of favorable conditions, and they then invest there too (Anyanwu, 2012, 2011, 2006). In another comprehensive study, Chakrabarti (2001) compiled previous work done on the determinants of FDI direction; he identified eight determinants of FDI inflows: labor cost, market size, trade barriers, economic openness, growth rate, exchange rate volatility, trade deficit and tax (Aregbesola, 2014). According to Aregbesola (2014), although most of the findings were inconclusive, variables like growth rate, market size, and economic openness were found to be major determinants of FDI inflows in the studies evaluated. Similarly, trade openness has also been found to be positively associated with FDI inflows (Asiedu, 2002). However, due to the tariff-jumping theory, some studies have found a negative impact of trade openness on market-seeking FDI inflows (Anyanwu, 2012).

Furthermore, while Nnadozie and Osili, (2004) observed a negative influence of economic instability on FDI inflows, Brahmasrene and Jiranyakul, (2001) indicate otherwise. As regards the influence of economic and financial factors, Alfaro et al. (2004) observed the role of the local financial markets as a major determinant of the absorptive capacity of the southern Africa host countries. Similarly, a case study on Ghana by Kyereboah-Coleman and Agyire-Tettey, (2008) showed that the volatility of the real exchange rate has a negative influence on FDI inflow. However, this assertion was disputed by Brahmasrene and Jiranyakul, (2001). The influence of host country institutions was also mentioned in past literature. For instance, Mohamed and Sidiropouls, (2010) found institutional variables among the key determinants of FDI inflows in the MENA region. Weak institutional enforcement may lead to sharp labor practices and the avoidance of projects by multinational companies with long gestation, and which are investment-intensive and have low initial profitability (Anyanwu, 2012). In addition, Dabla-Norris et al. (2010) found the degree of diversification in an economy was another major determinant of FDI flows. According to the study, countries with a better diversified economic structure often attracted higher FDI inflows to the preferred economic sectors.

Furthermore, previous studies also observed significant relationships between FDI inflows and foreign aid (Blaise, 2005; Anyanwu, 2012; Kimura & Todo, 2010; Harms & Lutz, 2006; Yasin, 2005); attraction of natural resources (Dupasquier & Osakwe, 2006; Aseidu, 2002, 2006; Mohamed & Sidiropoulos, 2010); good infrastructure, macroeconomic stability, an efficient legal system, less corruption and political stability (Hailu, 2010); human resource development, productivity and cost (Reiter et al., 2010; Rodríguez & Pallas, 2008; Alsan et al., 2006; Anyanwu, 2012; Nonnemberg & Cardoso de Mendonça, 2004). However, contrary to these studies, Harms and Lutz (2006) find that the effect of aid on FDI is generally insignificant but significantly positive for countries in which private agents face heavy regulatory burdens. In addition, Hailu (2010) maintained that the availability of a stock market has a positive but insignificant effect on FDI inflows. In focusing on this study, the operationalization of the policy and non-policy factors (Table 1) were distilled from various articles and empirical research on FDI inflows. They were then categorized into a number of subgroups – similar to Aregbesola (2014) and Anyanwu (2012) – representing various determinants of FDI inflows. These dimensions are: agglomeration effects, trade openness, fiscal balance-macroeconomic condition, market size, economic instability, exchange rate, foreign aid, human capital development, corporate tax, and natural resource endowment (Fedderke & Romm, 2006). Agglomeration effects, foreign aid, and natural resource endowment are the non-policy factors (Mateev, 2009).

3. Methodology

This research employed a panel dataset of 42 selected African countries from 1980 to 2016. The selected countries are: Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, and Zambia. The data used in this analysis was generated from World Trade Organization (WTO) database, the World Bank African Development Indicators (ADI), United Nations Commodity Trade Statistics (UNCTS) Database, International Monetary Fund (IMF), United Nations Statistics Database (UNdata), World development indicators ONLINE, and UN Statistics Database (UNdata).

Econometric Model: Based on a framework from Aregbesola (2014), Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) were used as the estimation techniques. The GMM approach was adopted to address the potential endogeneity of the regressors (El-Wassal, 2012). The econometric model used in this study is akin to the basic production function. Consequently, to analyze the effect of policy and non-policy factors on FDI inflows, the Coub-Douglas Production Function was expanded (Oladipo, 2008; El-Wassal, 2012). In addition, the GMM estimators used were based on differencing regressions to control unobserved effects and the utilization of previous explanatory and lagged-dependent variables as instruments (El-Wassal, 2012). To control these endogeneity concerns – due to the use of dynamic panel methods on cross-country data and to incorporate country-fixed effects – this paper utilizes the system-GMM approach of Blundell and Bond (1998). Therefore, considering the following regression specification:

$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \lambda\varepsilon_{i,t-1} + \beta_1 X_{it} + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{it}$ ……equation 1

Where Y_{it} is the logarithm of FDI inflow as a percentage of GDP, while X_{it} represents the set of relevant explanatory variables, μ_i is the time-invariant country-specific effects, and $\varepsilon_{i,t}$ is the error term. According to El-Wassal (2012), the system-GMM approach only allows current and future values of the independent variables to be affected by the error term, while relaxing the assumption of strict exogenity, and equation 1 was mathematically translated to equation 2 below to eliminate the country-specific effect:

$Y_{it} - Y_{it-1} = \eta(Y_{it-1} - Y_{it-2}) + \beta(X_{it} + X_{it-1}) + (\varepsilon_{it} + \varepsilon_{it-1})$……equation 2

Based on this method, equation 2 automatically controls for the correlation between the new error term, $\varepsilon_{it} - \varepsilon_{it-1}$, and the lagged dependent variable, $Y_{it-1} - Y_{it-2}$. Therefore, using the Bundell-Blond approach (El-Wassal, 2012) and the basic assumptions of the GMM dynamic estimator (equations 3 and 4), the resultant model for this study is shown in equation 5:

$E[Y_{i,\,t-s}.(\varepsilon_{i,t} - \varepsilon_{i,t-1})] = 0$, where $s \geq 2$; $t = 3,...,T$,……equation 3
$E[Z_{i,\,t-s}.(\varepsilon_{i,t} - \varepsilon_{i,t-1})] = 0$, where $s \geq 2$; $t = 3,...,T$ ……equation 4

It is also important to note that the assumptions were restrictive due to sample size, $s = 2$ and $t = 3,...,T$. Equation 2 was subsequently translated and expanded to our multiple regression equation 5 as follows:

$$\left(\frac{FDI}{GDP}\right)_{it} = \alpha o + \alpha 1 \left(\frac{FDI}{GDP}\right)_{it-1} + \alpha_2 TO_{it} + \alpha_3\ DEBT_{it} + \alpha_4 MS_{it} + \alpha_5 EI_{it} + \alpha_6 ER_{it} + \alpha_7 FA_{it} + \alpha_8 HCD_{it} + \alpha_9 CTAX_{it} + \alpha_{10} NRE_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$$ ……equation 5

Where:
FDIINFL = FDI inflow, which is expressed as a percentage of GDP
AE = Agglomeration effects expressed as lags of the dependent variable
TO = Trade Openness expressed as a ratio of merchandise trade to GDP (percentage)
DEBT = Fiscal balance, which is measured by public debt
MS = Market size, measured by population growth
EI = Economic instability, measured by the level of inflation
ER = Exchange rate
FA = Foreign Aid, measured by net official development assistance as a share of GDP
HCD = Human Capital Development, measured by the ratio of secondary and tertiary institution enrolment in the population.
CTAX = Corporate tax, measured by corporate tax as a percentage of GDP
NRE = Natural resources endowment, measured by resource dummy
$_i$ = represents the country
$_t$ = represents time in year
$\alpha 0$= is an intercept, and
εit= is the error term.

Defining the Dependent and Explanatory Variables: The dependent variable is the ratio of FDI flows to GDP, as used in previous studies (Alba, Park &Wang, 2009; Alfaro et al., 2004; Asiedu, 2002). According to Aregbesola (2014) and Anyanwu (2012), the variable is adjudged the most efficient measure of FDI inflow, because it captures the relative contribution of FDI to GDP. An agglomeration effect was tested for by relating current FDI inflows to past FDI inflows, and this is proxied by the lags of the dependent variable. Trade openness depicts the extent to which an economy is opened to foreign markets, through its active participation in trade and investment. In this study, trade openness is proxied by the ratio of merchandise trade to GDP. Fiscal balance, which is proxied by public debt, reflects the stability of the macroeconomic framework (Kok & Ersoy, 2009). Market size, as measured by population growth was justified as an important determinant of market size. Economic instability was measured by the level of inflation, which measures the impact of price changes in the domestic market on the consumption of locally manufactured and imported products (Nnadozie & Osili, 2004; Brahmasrene & Jiranyakul, 2001). Exchange rate was measured using variables adapted from Kyereboah-Coleman and Agyire-Tettey (2008) and Brahmasrene and Jiranyakul (2001).

Foreign Aid was measured by net official development assistance as a share of GDP – a measure that has been used in previous studies (Kimura & Todo, 2010; Blaise, 2005). Human Capital Development was measured by the ratio of secondary and tertiary institution enrolment in the population (Reiter et al., 2010). Furthermore, corporate tax was measured by corporate tax as a percentage of GDP. This was on the premise that the administration of corporate tax in a country may reflect the strategic interest of the country in local manufacturing at the expense of foreign companies; accordingly, high corporate tax may be used to discourage investment in certain sectors (Aregbesola, 2014). The last independent variable, natural resources endowment, was measured by a country resource dummy to control for the variability in FDI behavior that is resource-induced. According to Aregbesola, (2014) and Anyanwu (2012), this is essential given that most countries in Africa only attract FDI that is resources induced. Consequently, a dummy variable of '1' was introduced for countries endowed with strategic natural resources (e.g. crude oil, gold, platinum and coal), while another dummy of '*0*' was introduced for countries that do not possess such resources (Dupasquier & Osakwe, 2006; Aseidu, 2002, 2006; Mohamed & Sidiropoulos, 2010).

4. Results and Discussion of Findings

Descriptive Statistics: Both Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) were used as the estimation techniques in this study. The GMM estimators used were based on differencing regressions to control for unobserved effects and the utilization of previous explanatory and lagged-dependent variables as instruments (El-Wassal, 2012). However, before the application of these techniques, a series of diagnostic tests were undertaken to cater for sensitivity and reliability (Asikhia and Awolusi, 2015; Awolusi, 2013a; Hailu, 2010; Kimura & Todo, 2010). Firstly, to correct for possible autocorrelation between the regressor variables and the error terms, the Hausman test was conducted (Dupasquier & Osakwe, 2006; Aseidu, 2002). In addition, to cater for the standard errors, the redundancy variable test was conducted using the White diagonal standard errors and covariance technique (Aregbesola, 2014). The results were robust and showed the absence of arbitrary serial correlation and time-varying variances in the disturbances.

Table 1: Mean, Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations of the Main Regression Variables (Excluding Dummies) – Average from 1980-2016

Constructs	Obs.	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
FDIINF	599	3.66	8.48	1.00									
AE	545	5.63	1.42	0.11	1.00								
TO	579	33.24	16.41	0.26**	0.29**	1.00							
DEBT	542	9.34	3.48	0.03	0.34**	0.25**	1.00						
MS	577	3.59	9.51	-1.03	0.36**	0.29**	0.13	1.00					
EI	546	9.11	19.79	0.26*	0.12	0.25**	-0.10	0.34**	1.00				
ER	513	5.01	11.55	0.11	-0.14	-0.11	-0.11	0.11	-0.14	1.00			
FA	544	21.21	16.38	0.33**	0.32**	0.32**	0.09	0.26**	0.23**	-0.09	1.00		
HCD	596	13.45	10.61	0.18	0.33**	0.32**	0.32**	0.11	0.26**	0.23**	-0.10	1.00	
CTAX	547	14.11	7.45	0.11	0.18	0.33**	0.32**	0.32**	0.11	0.26**	0.23**	0.01	1.00

Note: *p≤0.1, **p≤0.05, ***p≤0.001

Table 1 (above) shows the descriptive statistics and correlation matrix of all the variables (Dummy Variable). It is important to note that none of the explanatory variables was strongly correlated. Consequently, all the variables were used in our analysis. Second, in order to determine the order of integration, a unit root test was conducted. This was an attempt to identify non-stationarity (unit roots). A standard augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test was conducted to eliminate autocorrelation and white noise (Anyanwu, 2012), while a Phillips Perron (PP) test was also conducted, given the imperative of uncorrelated error terms. The two tests were conducted at the level, first difference and second difference series (Hair et al., 1998). The results of the unit root tests are presented in Table 2 (below).

Table 2: Summary of Unit Root Test Results

Variables	ADF Test: First Difference: Constant with Trend	2nd Diff. Statistics	PP Test: First Difference: Constant with Trend	2nd Diff. Statistics	Order of Integration
African Panel	-3.220880*	-5.453346	-5.057306* **	-7.765237	1(2)
LnAE	-2.325263*	-2.847635	-4.07412**	-4.697345	1(2)
LnTO	-4.096229*	-5.434563	-4.096805*	-4.573655	1(2)
LnDEBT	-3.174591*	-3.245674	-3.174591*	-3.662856	1(2)
LnMS	-3.963164*	-3.834577	-5.860987*	-5.345675	1(2)
LnEI	-6.428332*	-6.134567	-4.407357*	-4.945567	1(2)
LnER	-5.709925*	-5.728656	-6.801947*	-6.793456	1(2)
LnFA	-2.965081**	-2.123563	-4.489557*	-4.565734	1(2)
LnHCD	-4.552479*	-4.734564	-5.737240*	-5.193452	1(2)
LnCTAX	-4.907973**	-4.456754	-2.89165**	-2.234566	1(2)
LnNRE					

Note: Critical Values: (ADF): 1% -2.9289; 5% -2.6772; 10% -2.1222; (Phillips-Perron): 1% -3.1122; 5% -2.8336; 10% -2.5432. *, ** and *** implies 1%, 5% and 10% levels of significant respectively.

The result of the unit root test assumed stationarity of the series for all the variables by the rejection of the null hypothesis for the second difference at all the critical values (maximum lag of one). Therefore, the models follow an integrating order of 1(2) process and are therefore a stationary process (Hair et al., 1998). The computed value of the test statistic was also compared to the critical value for both the ADF and PP test (constant with the trend) in order to reject or accept the null hypothesis. Consequently, a null hypothesis was rejected, since the former was greater (in absolute value) than the latter (Hair et al., 1998).

OLS and GMM Results: From table 3, the Sargan test suggests that none of the variables is statistically significant – thereby negating the null hypothesis that the overidentifying restrictions are valid. Furthermore, as a diagnostic measure, Durbin-Watson statistics of 2.011 posits the absence of potential first-order autocorrelation in all the variables. The results of OLS and GMM in table 3 therefore suggest that apart from fiscal balance, exchange rate and corporate tax, all the variables tested in this study are regarded as important considerations for attracting FDI to African countries. Specifically, Trade Openness, Market Size (population growth), and Foreign Aid are statistically significant at 1% level, lags of FDIINFL (agglomeration effects) was statistically significant at 5% level, while the level of inflation, Human Capital Development, and natural resource endowments were statistically significant at 10% levels.

Table 3: OLS and GMM Results for FDI Inflows into Africa (Panel)

VARIABLES	OLS	GMM
Agglomeration effects (lags of FDIINFL)	0.1434 (1.23)**	0.0812 (1.99)**
Trade Openness	0.1422 (4.41)*	0.1375 (2.94)*
Fiscal Balance (public debt)	-0.034 (-1.01)	-0.0122 (-1.09)
Trade Openness Market Size (population growth)	0.2331 (5.33)*	0.2198 (2.88)**
Economic instability (level of inflation)	-0.2079 (-1.92)***	-0.18750 (-1.98)***
Exchange Rate	-0.0171 (-2.01)	-0.2104 (-1.92)
Trade Openness Market Size (population growth); Foreign Aid	0.2773 (6.12)*	0.2999 (8.22)**
Human Capital Development	0.2132 (2.19)** *	0.1278 (-0.27)
Corporate tax	-0.0251 (-1.99)	-0.0322 (-0.22)
Metal dummy	2.129 (4.56)*	
Oil dummy	4.3248 (3.766)*	
Constant	75.3264 (3.55)*	122.3679 (4.11)*

Observations	312	302
R-squared	0.5563	
Wald chi2(41)		166.21
Prob > chi2		0.0001
Sargan Test (Prob > chi2)		0.2512
Durbin-Watson statistics		2.011
Number of countries	42	42

Note: t-statistics in parentheses. *, ** and *** implies 1%, 5% and 10% levels of significant respectively.

Discussion of Findings: Agglomeration effects were found to be capable of enhancing the attractiveness of Africa to inflow of FDI. As recommended by previous studies (Ashegian, 2004; Akinkugbe, 2005; Caves, 2007), efforts should be made by African countries to attract more FDI so as to induce other foreign investors to make additional investment due to the perceived existing foreign investment. This is on the premise that foreign investors may view the investment decisions by others as a good signal of favorable conditions (Nnadozie & Osili, 2004). Consequently, government expenditure should be directed toward incentives and infrastructure development. Trade openness was also found to be positively associated with FDI inflows in this study. Consequence upon this, Aregbesola (2014) suggests the possible realization of an improvement in the attractiveness of Africa to the inflow of FDI, if policy-makers can sustain the various economic liberalization and market size strategies. This also buttresses their relevance as the major macroeconomic policies of relevance to other developing countries. However, in a deviation from this positive disposition, Anyanwu (2012) argued that the effect of trade openness depends on the type of FDI. This was attributed to the tariff-jumping theory which stipulates that multinational enterprises that seek to serve local markets may decide to set up subsidiaries in the host country, when it is difficult for them to import products into that country (Anyanwu, 2012).

Furthermore, the positive coefficients borne by both economic openness and population growth in this study also differ from Aregbesola (2014) and Asiedu (2002). Specifically, Aregbesola (2014) observed a reverse causality between inflow of FDI and population growth. The positive result from this study may simply imply that an increase in the inflow of FDI may alternatively improve income level and knowledge transfers (Nnadozie & Osili, 2004; Hair et al., 1998). Arguably, an increase in income level and knowledge may result in creating a larger consumer market size for further investments. The interface of government debt, exchange rate and corporate tax expectedly bears negative coefficients and were statistically not significant. This suggests that FDI inflow would decrease by increasing government debt, while an increase in exchange rate and corporate tax will definitely discourage inflow of FDI to Africa. Consequently, various government interventions are required to further liberalize African economies and to reduce corporate taxes in order to improve the attractiveness of Africa to inflow of FDI. In addition, this study is similar to Kyereboah-Coleman and Agyire-Tettey (2008). The study observed that the volatility of real exchange rate had a negative influence on FDI inflow in Ghana, although, this was refuted by Brahmasrene and Jiranyakul, (2001).

Another result was the significant relationships between the level of inflation and inflows of FDI into Africa, despite the negative coefficient. This implies that an increase in the level of inflation may reduce the attractiveness of Africa to inflow of FDI. Although this finding supports the work of Nnadozie and Osili (2004), it differs from Brahmasrene and Jiranyakul (2001). A key novel finding in this paper was the finding of a significant relationship between FDI inflows and foreign aid. Although this is similar to previous studies in advanced and emerging economies (Kimura & Todo, 2010; Harms & Lutz, 2006; Yasin, 2005), it is unique in the African context. For example, Harms and Lutz (2006) find that the effect of aid on FDI is generally insignificant, but significantly positive for countries in which private agents face heavy regulatory burdens. In addition, using cross-country panel data, Kimura and Todo (2010) find robust evidence that foreign aid from Japan has a vanguard effect. This was supported by Anyanwu (2012), using cross-country time-series data of African countries from 1996-2008. He concluded that higher FDI goes where foreign aid goes in Africa (Anyanwu, 2012). Consequently, this unique finding underscores the submission of Anyanwu (2012), that most African countries attract FDI inflows as a follow-up to foreign aid from major donor countries from developed economies.

This study also concurs with previous studies on the effect of human resource development on FDI inflows (Rodríguez & Pallas, 2008; Reiter et al., 2010; Anyanwu, 2012; Nonnemberg & Cardoso de Mendonça, 2004; Rodriguez & Pallas, 2008; Alsan et al., 2006). Specifically, Reiter et al. (2010) concluded that FDI inflows are more strongly positively related to human capital development, especially when corruption is low. In another similar study, Rodríguez and Pallas (2008) positioned human capital development as being the most important determinant of FDI inflows. This positive sentiment was shared by Alsan et al. (2006) and Anyanwu, (2012). Alsan et al. (2006) were particularly impressed by the influence of human capital development on FDI inflows in low- and middle-income countries (Anyanwu, 2012). However, another unique finding of this study was that, although the estimate for human capital development was positive and significant for OLS, the second lag was not significant at the GMM and had a negative sign. This indicates that Africa's human capital deteriorated with time over the study, despite its initial contribution to FDI inflows. Consequently, there is an urgent need for more emphasis on human capital development by policy-makers in Africa, in order to stem the rate of decline (Anyanwu, 1998, 2011, 2012). Lastly, this study also supports the positive relationships between FDI inflows and natural resource endowment in the host country, as posited by Dupasquier and Osakwe (2006) and Aseidu (2002).

5. Conclusion and Implications of the Study

Conclusions: The empirical literature on the determinants of FDI inflows is largely inconclusive. In addition, most previous studies often focused on developed and emerging economies. Consequent upon the seemly scant studies on understanding the determinants of FDI inflows into vast African countries, this paper evaluates the determinants of FDI flows by examining specific relationships between the determinants and FDI inflows into Africa using a panel dataset of 42 countries from 1980 to 2015. Findings based on the OLS and GMM estimation techniques revealed that first-year lag of FDI (agglomeration effects), trade openness, market size, economic instability, foreign aid, human capital development, and natural resources (oil and metals) endowment have a positive and significant effect on FDI inflows to Africa – while there is a negative relationship between FDI inflows to the continent and fiscal balance (public debt), exchange rate and corporate tax. Consequently, government policies and non-policy factors played significant roles in facilitating FDI inflow into Africa during the study period. Specifically, the major determinants identified in this study are trade openness, market size, foreign aid, and natural resource endowment. With the improvement in the measurement of policy and non-policy variables, the ability to explain and understand determinants of inward FDI to Africa has improved significantly.

Theoretical Implications and Recommendations: The findings from this study conform to the theoretical postulations of transaction cost analysis (TCA), the resource-based view, and institutional theories (Steers & Nardon, 2006; Hill, 2013). The transaction cost analysis seeks to identify the environmental factors that together with a set of related human factors explain how companies can organize transactions to reduce the costs associated with these transactions (Correa & Kumar, 2003; Peng, 2009). The resource-based view suggests that valuable firm resources (market size and natural resource endowment) are usually scarce, imperfectly imitable, and lacking in direct substitutes (Brouthers & Hennart, 2007). Consequently, the paper recommends that for African countries to enhance their FDI inflows there is a need to develop some unique strategic resources (like human capital, natural resources and institutions) or use foreign markets as a source for acquiring or developing new resource-based advantages (Asheghian, 2004). The paper also established that the institutional environments in many African countries played significant roles in attracting FDI.

Consequently, the paper recommends modifications in government policies on expenditures, exchange rate, and corporate tax so as to adequately influenced FDI flows to the studied African economies. Accordingly, African countries should understand and monitor macroeconomic and institutional reforms, so as to positively influence the same policies in their own domain. Mohamed and Sidiropoulos, (2010) and Asiedu, (2006) concur with this positive disposition. This finding was expected, as many African countries often receive much FDI in natural resource-based sectors, like minerals (metals), and oil and natural gas (Dupasquier & Osakwe, 2006, Asiedu, 2006). In addition, based on the validation of the institutional theory, which postulates that the environments reflect the rules of the game by which firms participate in a given market (Brouthers & Hennart, 2007), and thus there is an urgent need for African countries to formulate and implement policies to stem the negative relationship between FDI inflows and fiscal.

Balance (public debt), exchange rate, and corporate tax – as reported in this study consequently in addition to strengthening the efficiency of the various institutions in the recipient nation to formulate the desired investment-related fiscal and monetary policies, this study also recommends the use of longitudinal data-base indices of individual countries in the formulation of their FDI strategies (Wyk & Lal, 2008). This paper contributes to the literature in three ways. First, unlike previous studies which largely considered either emerging or developed economies or a group of both emerging and developed economies, this paper focused solely on African countries. Second, this study disagrees with the practice of pooling developed and developing economies when analyzing the determinants of FDI flow. This is due to variations in the pattern of FDI flows in both developed and developing economies. While developed economies have substantial leverage of two-way FDI flows, developing nations are almost exclusively recipients of FDI inflows (Wyk & Lal, 2008; El-Wassal, 2012). Third, our paper adds to the growing literature by examining a range of policy and non-policy factors that seem to play an important role in determining the inward flow of FDI to African economies.

Managerial Implications and Recommendations: The value of adding policy and non-policy variables to the FDI environment has been demonstrated in this study. Due to the positive and significant relationship between agglomeration effects and FDI inflows to Africa, the paper recommends concrete efforts by African countries to attract more FDI, so as to induce other foreign investors to make the additional investment. Consequently, government expenditure should be directed towards incentives and infrastructure development. Furthermore, policy initiatives are also required to sustain the liberalization and privatization efforts in many African countries, although liberalization and privatization processes should be well guided in order to achieve a win-win scenario for both the home and host economies. Furthermore, due to the negative relationship between FDI inflows and government spending (public debt), exchange rate, and corporate tax, the study recommends that African countries must continue to stimulate economic activities, upgrade existing infrastructural facilities, dismantle existing structural bottlenecks to private and public investment, and offer both fiscal and monetary incentives to enhance their comparative advantages. In addition, apart from the continuing macroeconomic and institutional reforms, African countries need to increase domestic investment through various tax reforms and cost sharing that will enhance public expenditure productivity.

Consequently, firms or industries, policy-makers and other stakeholders must continuously advocate suitable strategies to advance both institutional and macroeconomic changes that promote the attractiveness of the investment environment in African countries. Another important finding is that trade openness positively affects FDI inflows. Consequently, there should be sustained improvement in the attractiveness of Africa to inflow of FDI, through various economic liberalization and market-size strategies. It is also imperative for African countries to improve their trade partnership with the rest of the world – especially developed western nations and the emerging economies of Asia. This study also concurs with previous studies on the effect of human resources development on FDI inflows. Since FDI inflows are more strongly positively related to human capital development, African countries should continue to improve the stock of human capital needed for effective transfer of technology from the home nations. In addition, due to the deteriorating human capital development of most African countries during the study period, there is an urgent need to allocate more resources to human capital development by policy-makers in Africa, in order to stem this trend and to increase their comparative advantages in technology assimilation and diffusion (Aseidu, 2002).

Lastly, since this study also supports the positive relationships between FDI inflows and natural resource endowment in Africa, it is important to negotiate more beneficial and transparent contracts with these resources seeking investors. Multilateral and bilateral institutions could assist in capacity training of African leaders, policy-makers and institutions, in terms of getting the much-needed skills and the effective management of natural resource revenues (Anyanwu, 2011, 2012). However, care must be taken in using the output of this study due to some inherent limitations. Like most empirical literature on the relationships between the determinants and FDI inflow using cross-country pooled data, the study suffers from both endogeneity (since most determinants are likely to be jointly endogenous with FDI inflows) and the presence of periods and country-specific omitted characteristics (El-Wassal, 2012; Anyanwu, 2012). Although the GMM approach was adopted to address the potential endogeneity of the regressors (El-Wassal, 2012), there is still a need for future research to focus on the issue of endogeneity, based on the premise that FDI inflows and its determinants could be evidenced by strong bi-directional causality.

The hypotheses could be tested in a larger panel of emerging or developing economies, rather than just in African economies. Furthermore, due to data deficiencies and the probable non reliability of data from most developing economies, the variables included in the model may be an imperfect determinant of FDI inflows. Consequently, future studies might consider the inclusion of other relevant variables like institutional quality, infrastructural development, and monetary union (Anyanwu & Yameogo, 2015; El-Wassal, 2012). Future research could also consider the use of objective measures of institutional variables, rather than perceived or subjective indicators. There may also be a need for a comparative study of both policy (institutional) and non-policy determinants of inward FDI in various groupings of countries – i.e. developing, emerging or developed countries – due to variation in the institutional and macroeconomic environments.

References

Adam, A. N. & Tweneboah, G. (2009). Foreign direct investment and stock market development: Ghana's evidence. *International Research Journal of Finance and Economics,* 26(1), 178-85.

Akinkugbe, O. (2005). A two-part econometric analysis of foreign direct investment flows to Africa. Netherlands: Kluwer Law International.

Alba, J. D., Park, D. & Wang, P. (2009). The impact of exchange rate on FDI and the interdependence of FDI over time. ADB Economics Working Paper Series, Number 164.

Alfaro, L., Chanda, A., Kalemli-Ozcan, S. & Sayek, S. (2004). FDI and economic growth: The role of local financial markets. *Journal of International Economics*, 64(1), 89-112.

Alibar, R. Z. (1970). A theory of foreign direct investment, in: The International Corporation, Kindleberger, C.P. (ed.). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Alsan, M., Bloom, D. E. & Canning, D. (2006). The effect of population health on foreign direct investment inflows to low- and middle-income countries. *World Development*, 34(4), 613-630.

Anyanwu, J. C. (1998). An econometric investigation of the determinants of foreign investment in Nigeria, in: Nigerian Economic Society, Rekindling Investment for Economic Development in Nigeria, Ibadan, 219-241.

Anyanwu, J. C. (2006). Promoting of investment in Africa. *African Development Review*, 18(1), 42-71.

Anyanwu, J. C. (2011). Determinants of foreign direct investment inflows to Africa, 1980-2007, Working Paper No. 136, African Development Bank, Tunis.

Anyanwu, J. C. (2012). Why does foreign direct investment go where it goes? New evidence from African countries. *Annals of Economics and Finance*, 13(2), 433-470.

Anyanwu, J. C. & Yameogo, N. D. (2015). What drives foreign direct investments into West Africa? An empirical investigation. *African Development Review*, 27(3), 199-215.

Aregbesola, A. R. (2014). Foreign direct investment and institutional adequacy: New Granger causality evidence from African countries". *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 17(5), 557-568.

Asheghian, P. (2004). Determinants of economic growth in the United States: The role of foreign direct Investment. *The International Trade Journal*, 18(1), 63-83.

Asika, N. & Awolusi, O. D. (2013). Modelling Critical Success Factors of Business Process Re-engineering and Business Performance of Nigerian Oil and Gas Companies, *International Journal of Services and Operations Management*, 15(1), 28–43.

Asikhia, U. O. & Awolusi, O. D. (2015). Assessment of Critical Success Factors of Business Process Re-engineering in the Nigerian Oil and Gas Industry, *South African Journal of Business Management*, 46(2), 1-14.

Asiedu, E. (2002). On the determinant of foreign direct investment to developing countries: Is Africa different? *World Development*, 30(1), 107-119.

Asiedu, E. & Lien, D. (2004). Capital controls and foreign direct investment. *World Development*, 32(3), 479-501.

Awolusi, O. D. (2013a). Effects of motivation on employee's job commitment in the Nigerian banking industry: an empirical analysis, *International Journal of Business and Innovation Research*, 1(3), 1–17.

Awolusi, O. D. (2013b). The effects of total quality management on customer service management in the Nigerian banking industry: an empirical analysis, *International Journal of Management and Network Economics*, 3(1), 57–77.

Billington, N. M. (1999). The location of foreign direct investment: An empirical analysis. *Journal of Applied Economics*, 31(1), 65-76.

Blaise, S. (2005). On the link between Japanese ODA and FDI in China: A microeconomic evaluation using conditional logit analysis. *Applied Economics*, 37(1), 51–55.

Blundell, R. & Bond, S. (1998). Initial conditions and moment restrictions in dynamic panel data models. *Journal of Econometrics*, 87(4), 115-143.

Brahmasrene, T. & Jiranyakul, K. (2001). Foreign direct investment in Thailand, what factors matter? *Proceedings of the Academy for International Business*, 1(2), 13-25.

Brouthers, K. D. & Hennart, J. (2007). Boundaries of the firm: Insights from international entry mode research. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 395-425.

Caves, R. E. (1996). Multinational enterprise and economic analysis (2nd ed.). London: Cambridge University Press.

Caves, R. E. (2007). Multinational enterprise and economic analysis (3rd ed.). Boston: Cambridge University Press.

Chakrabarti, A. (2001). The determinants of foreign direct investment: Sensitivity analyses of cross country regressions. *Kyklos*, 54(1), 89-114.

Correa, C. M. & Kumar, N. (2003). Protecting foreign investment: Implications of a WTO regime and policy options. London: Zed Books Ltd.

Culem, C. G. (1988). The locational determinants of direct investment among industrialized countries". *European Economic Review*, 32(1), 885-904.

Dabla-Norris, E. J., Honda, A., Lahreche, J. & Verdies, G. (2010). FDI flows to low-income countries: global drivers and growth implications, IMF Working Paper, 10/132, Washington: International Monetary Fund.

Dupasquier, C. & Osakwe, P. N. (2003). Performance, promotion, and prospects for foreign investment in Africa: National, regional, and international responsibilities, Paper Prepared for the "Eminent Persons' Meeting on Promotion of Investment in Africa, Tokyo, February.

Dupasquier, C. & Osakwe P. N. (2006). Foreign direct investment in Africa: Performance, challenges, and responsibilities. *Journal of Asian Economics*, 17(1), 241-260.

El-Wassal, K. A. (2012). Foreign direct investment and economic growth in Arab Countries (1970-2008): An inquiry into determinants of growth benefits. *Journal of Economic Development*, 37(4), 79-100

Fedderke, J. W. & Romm, A. T. (2006). Growth impact and determinants of foreign direct investment into South Africa, 1956–2003. *Economic Modeling*, 23(1), 738-760.

Hailu, Z. A. (2010). Demand side factors affecting the inflow of foreign direct investment to African countries: Does capital market matter? *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(5), 104-116.

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L. & Black, W. C. (1998). Multivariate analysis (5th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Harms, P. & Lutz, M. (2006). Aid, governance, and private foreign investment. *Economic Journal*, 116(5), 773-790.

Hill, C. W. L. (2013). International business: Competing in the global marketplace (9th ed.). Irwin: McGraw-Hill.

Kimura, H. & Todo, Y. (2010). Is foreign aid a vanguard of foreign direct investment? A gravity-equation approach. *World Development*, 38(4), 482-497.

Kok, R. & Ersoy, B. A. (2009). Analysis of FDI determinants in developing countries. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 36(1/2), 105-123.

Korth, C. M. (1985). International business environment and management (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Kyereboah-Coleman, A. & Agyire-Tettey K. F. (2008). Effect of exchange-rate volatility on foreign direct investment in Sub-Saharan Africa: the case of Ghana (Case study). *Journal of Risk Finance,* 9(1), 52-70.

Mateev, M. (2009). Determinants of foreign direct investment in Central and Southeastern Europe: New empirical tests. *Oxford Journal*, 8(1), 133-149.

Mohamed, S. E. & Sidiropoulos, M. G. (2010). Another look at the determinants of foreign direct investment in MENA Countries: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Economic Development*, 35(2), 75-96.

Mustapha, A. M., Fakokunde, T. O. & Awolusi, O. D. (2014). The Quick Service Restaurant Business in Nigeria: Exploring the Emerging Opportunity for Entrepreneurial Development and Growth, *Global Journal of Commerce and Management Perspective,* 3(3), 8-14.

Nnadozie, E. & Osili, U. O. (2004). U.S. Foreign direct investment in Africa and its determinants", UNECA Workshop of Financial Systems and Mobilization in Africa, 2 Nov.

Nonnemberg, M. B. & Cardoso de Mendonça, M. J. (2004). The determinants of foreign investment in developing countries.

Oladipo, O. S. (2008). Foreign direct investment flow: Determinants and growth effects in a small open economy, Proceedings of the Northeast Business & Economics Association, Northeast Business & Economics Association 35th Annual Conference, Long Island, New York, 6-8 November.

Peng, M. W. (2009). Global business. New York: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Porter, M. E. (1990). The comparative advantage of nations. New York: Free Press.

Reiter, S., Hanson, L. & Ryard, E. (2010). Human development and foreign direct investment in developing countries: The influence of FDI policy and corruption. *World Development*, 38(12), 1678-1691.

Rivera-Batiz, L. A. & Oliva, M. A. (2003). International trade: Theory, strategies, and evidence. New York: Oxford University Press.

Rodríguez, X. & Pallas, J. (2008). Determinants of foreign direct investment in Spain. *Applied Economics*, 40(1), 2443-2450.

Steers, M. R. & Nardon, L. (2006). Managing in the global economy. New York: M.E. Sharpe, Inc.

UNCTAD. (2009). World investment report. Transnational corporations, agricultural production and development. New York and Geneva: The United Nations.

UNCTAD. (2015). World Investment Report 2015. By United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, New York: United Nations.

Wyk, J. V. & Lal, A. K. (2008). Risk and FDI flow to developing countries. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences,* 11(4), 511-528.

Yasin, M. (2005). Official development assistance and foreign direct investment flow to sub- Saharan Africa. *African Development Review,* 17(1), 23-40.