

# Critical perspectives on ‘manufactured’ risks arising from Eurocentric business practices in Africa

**Nayak, B.**

Accepted version deposited in Coventry University Repository

**Original citation:**

Nayak, B. (2018) Critical perspectives on ‘manufactured’ risks arising from Eurocentric business practices in Africa *Critical perspectives on international business (in press)*. DOI: 10.1108/cpoib-11-2016-0058

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/cpoib-11-2016-0058>

Emerald

**Copyright © and Moral Rights are retained by the author(s) and/ or other copyright owners. A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge. This item cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the copyright holder(s). The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.**



**Critical perspectives on 'manufactured' risks arising from Eurocentric business practices in Africa**

Journal:	<i>critical perspectives on international business</i>
Manuscript ID	cpoib-11-2016-0058.R3
Manuscript Type:	Academic Paper
Keywords:	Eurocentric, manufactured, risk, resource-seeking, co-option

SCHOLARONE™  
Manuscripts

## Critical perspectives on ‘manufactured’ risks arising from Eurocentric business practices in Africa

### Abstract

**Purpose** – *this paper considers the Eurocentric conceptualisation of risk, which reinforces language, culture and business practices that are in conflict with Africa’s own traditional business methodologies”. It attempts to identify the rent-seeking methods and resource-seeking strategies that sustain the hegemony of global corporations in Africa.*

**Design/methodology/approach** – *the paper explores nonlinear historical narrative around the concept and construction of the idea and language of risk. It follows discourse analysis to identify how the Eurocentric concept of risk was exported and incorporated within the language of international business in non-Western business traditions. The fundamental research question driving this paper is: to what extent does the conceptualisation of risk perpetuate the African continent as risk-ridden?*

**Findings** – *the rent and resource-seeking strategies employed by multinational corporations (MNCs) are central to ‘manufactured’ risks, and this negatively creates impact for post-independent Africa. Whilst the state is inconsistent in its approach to dealing with this crisis, global corporations continue to do business, extract resources and expand their capital and market base in Africa.*

**Originality/value** – *the philosophical basis of risk and its historical foundations in the African context are presented. Neo-colonial business methods, languages, cultures and strategies are explored and consideration is given as to how African governments could address the issue of co-option, as well as how to respond to the risks arising by MNCs’ business practices. The paper adds to the theoretical narratives by arguing that when considering entry into the marketplace, MNCs must ensure they integrate African perspectives (native categories) into their operational strategies. Moreover, management practitioners might consider addressing the essential topics of language, culture, business systems and business practices using ethnomethodological lenses.*

**Paper type** – Conceptual paper

**Key words:** Eurocentric, manufactured, risk, resource-seeking and co-option

### Introduction

Contemporary international business (IB) literature that explains the strategic behaviour of MNCs encompasses the resource-based view of the firm (Penrose, 1959a; Peteraf, 1993; Prahalad, 1990), internalisation (Rugman and Verbeke, 2004) and the internationalisation

1  
2  
3 theories (O'Rourke and Williamson, 2001). Whilst these concepts are explicit in their  
4  
5 consideration of political and institutional factors, little is said about the created risks that  
6  
7 effectively frame the perception of emerging economies as risk-prone. There is currently a  
8  
9 relatively low volume of research investigating the Eurocentric approaches that multinational  
10  
11 corporations (MNCs) adopt in order to seek resources and gain rents within the African  
12  
13 context. Therefore, the main objective of this paper is to explain how MNCs preserve the  
14  
15 motives of the colonial agenda of the West, and also begins to demonstrate the fact that the  
16  
17 introduction and integration of culture, language and educational systems were specifically  
18  
19 crafted in order to acquire and maintain control of African resources, even after  
20  
21 independence. The key research question is to what extent does the conceptualisation of risk  
22  
23 perpetuate the idea of the African continent as risk-ridden? To answer this question, nonlinear  
24  
25 historical narratives around the concept and construction of the idea and language of risk are  
26  
27 considered. In doing so, discourse analysis is utilised in order to explore the way in which the  
28  
29 Eurocentric concept of risk was exported and incorporated within the language of  
30  
31 international business (IB) in non-Western business traditions including Africa (Fairclough,  
32  
33 2003).  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38

39  
40 In exploring the extent to which the conceptualisation of risk perpetuates the African  
41  
42 continent as risk-ridden, this paper is organised and proceeds by, firstly, exploring the way in  
43  
44 which the post-industrial Western European business model, fundamentally conflicts with the  
45  
46 African concept of conducting business. Secondly, it attempts to explain how the language  
47  
48 and methodologies of international business, inherently produces risk and uncertainties  
49  
50 within post-independent Africa, which it continues to struggle to deal with. Thirdly, it argues  
51  
52 that whilst inward foreign direct investment (FDI) has produced good results in other  
53  
54 emerging markets, the resource-seeking (Dunning and Lundan, 2008) nature of MNCs  
55  
56 operating in Africa rather develops risk, thereby creating winners and losers in the African  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 marketplace. This is a consequence of MNCs seeking to maximise profit at the expense of  
4  
5 supporting (native programmes such as) the Millennium Development Agenda and the  
6  
7 Sustainable Economic Development goals of African economies (Freer, 2017). Finally, the  
8  
9 paper concludes, by discussing the wider social policy and practical implications, and the  
10  
11 agenda for future research. We proceed by examining how pre-and post-colonial business  
12  
13 models have shaped the practices, language and culture of international business (IB).  
14  
15

### 16 17 **The adoption of Western European business models in Africa**

18  
19  
20 In order to understand the extent to which pre-and post-colonial African countries are  
21  
22 currently experiencing neo-colonialism through inward foreign direct investment (FDI), it is  
23  
24 important to start by looking critically at the map of the continent and carefully examining  
25  
26 the way in which the imperialists demarcated the individual states. The identification and  
27  
28 examination of these contextual problems are crucial because they are the rudiments that  
29  
30 have characterised the conceptualisation of risk by MNCs operating in Africa. Most  
31  
32 importantly, these contextual factors perpetuate the idea that African countries are risk-  
33  
34 ridden; therefore, the way risk is assessed and managed in the African context emanate from  
35  
36 an established view created by colonialisation.  
37  
38

39  
40  
41 The pre-and post-colonial map shows that, firstly, large modern cities were founded and  
42  
43 developed for the purposes of natural resource extraction. Secondly, transport links were  
44  
45 created to provide ease of access to ports for the enablement of foreign trade, but not for trade  
46  
47 within Africa. Thirdly, colonialists established and maintained governments or  
48  
49 administrations that were trained and prepared to manage these two activities for the benefit  
50  
51 of their imperialist agenda (Ager, 2005). Moreover, the demarcation of cities and regions in  
52  
53 Africa during the colonial era created scattered populations, whereby some cities and  
54  
55 countries were likely to generate the resources needed to sustain a government institution,  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 along with the social structures needed to support them, or were left for the purpose of rustic  
4  
5 farming (Clapham, 1996).  
6  
7

8 To a large extent, imperialists established the territorial structures which they assumed, from  
9  
10 their own experience, to be necessary and indispensable elements of maintaining their  
11  
12 hegemony. In this regard, writers such as Clapham (1996) and Ayres (2012) agree that the  
13  
14 boundaries created through colonisation, irrespective of whether they meant anything to  
15  
16 Africans, were critical in order to maintain and regulate future competition at the global level.  
17  
18 In addition, education in Africa was fashioned throughout the territories to provide the skills  
19  
20 needed to operate within a modern society for which the imperialists maintained control. The  
21  
22 subsequent changes to the global system in the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century enabled several  
23  
24 African countries to attain independence, along with a combination of domestic and  
25  
26 international conditions. Suffice to note that the 20<sup>th</sup> century ushered in a period of new  
27  
28 political order such as democratisation, decolonisation and nationalism. Furthermore, the  
29  
30 discovery of new communications and transportation technology, along with space  
31  
32 exploration, shaped the way multinational corporations (MNCs) conducted their business  
33  
34 activities (Huntington, 1993; Hewitt, 2014; Radice, 2014).  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39

40 Consequently, the newly independent nations in Africa (NINA), which projected themselves  
41  
42 as an economic powerhouse after they won the struggle against imperialism, unfortunately  
43  
44 did not realise that the already entrenched models of administration and languages of doing  
45  
46 business followed the imperialist pattern as there was no alternative in Africa. In fact, the  
47  
48 Eurocentric way of doing business (language and culture) that defined the activities of MNCs  
49  
50 were rarely guided by any concern for the identity of indigenous states, societies and regions  
51  
52 in Africa. Understanding these origins is important; because Africa's political, institutional,  
53  
54 economic, financial and sociocultural structures were severely affected during European  
55  
56 colonisation. For example, the Ubuntu philosophy, which underpins every business  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 transaction in the African context, is influenced by communalism and human kindness. This  
4  
5 is in direct opposition to the profit maximisation and shareholder-driven philosophy of doing  
6  
7 business in the West (Amaeshi *et al.*, 2006; Chang, 1997; Keay and Adamopoulou, 2012;  
8  
9 Sekerka and Stimel, 2012). In addition, Ackroyd and Murphy (2013) found that the  
10  
11 reorganisation of the processes of capitalist production has helped the international elites to  
12  
13 sustain their hegemony through intellectual property rights, therefore reinforcing  
14  
15 neocolonialism and perpetuation of risk in Africa.  
16  
17

### 18 19 **The concept and language of risk**

20  
21 The idea, concept and language of risk derive from philosophical lineages that conceive  
22  
23 societies as internally homogeneous and externally distinctive and bounded objects. The  
24  
25 language used in such accounts reveals the framework employed during the industrial  
26  
27 revolution within Western Europe. Such conceptual narrative and methodological analogy,  
28  
29 which have been the bedrock of multinational business activities, reduces societies as single  
30  
31 nation states (Wolf, 2010). In fact, Gubrium and Holstein (2002) suggest that how the social  
32  
33 world is experienced is partly created by language, as well as being the mechanism by which  
34  
35 perspectives are conveyed.  
36  
37

38  
39  
40 The post-industrial Western European way of doing business, including language and  
41  
42 methodologies, theories and concepts have their historical specificities. Further, these  
43  
44 peculiarities and depositories have their ideological origins (Freeden, 1996; 2005).  
45  
46 Considering the evolvement of globalisation, Skinner (1978; 1998; 2008) argues that these  
47  
48 idiosyncrasies change not only to address the challenges of new circumstances and new deeds  
49  
50 of MNCs, but also within the legacies of the past. Factors influencing inward FDI into Africa  
51  
52 and the multi-motives of MNCs have therefore been no different (Nyuur, 2012; Jakubiak and  
53  
54 Kudina, 2008; Grubel, 2014). The narrative and concept of risk, its method of assessment and  
55  
56 the language to represent it within international business in Africa originated with the  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 European colonisation of the continent. Risk perception indexes and ratings compare  
4  
5 European business models with Africa, indicating that bureaucracy and weak enforcement of  
6  
7 rules create negative stereotypes which induce country and regional effects (Adams *et al.*,  
8  
9 2014). This aspect of the Eurocentric worldview dominates the theory and practice of  
10  
11 International Business, not only in Africa, but around the world, whereby everything is  
12  
13 measured in terms of economic growth, inherently attributing levels of risk to the duality of  
14  
15 progress and backwardness.  
16  
17

18  
19 The colonial educational system, however, and the subsequent normalisation of colonial  
20  
21 language and methodologies of doing business created the postcolonial Africa in terms of  
22  
23 practice and production of knowledge (Chakrabarty, 2001) where indigenous ways of doing  
24  
25 business, its language, methods, theories and strategies, were submerged within the  
26  
27 conventional European practices. It is imperative, therefore, to incorporate, innovate and  
28  
29 integrate African perspectives on business risk, since the rent-seeking methodologies and  
30  
31 wider business culture of MNCs operating in Africa, do not reflect the traditional African  
32  
33 business practice. These are some of the reasons why it has been difficult for African  
34  
35 countries and its businesses to maintain its uniqueness, whilst assimilating it within the  
36  
37 western European theoretical traditions of analysing risk in international business practice.  
38  
39 This precursor may to some extent help to explain the oscillating nature of Africa's march  
40  
41 towards prosperity.  
42  
43  
44  
45

46  
47 In examining the relationship between language and the culture of Western business  
48  
49 methodology, from which risk and uncertainty arise and from which post-independent Africa  
50  
51 struggles to deal with, it is possible to identify the sources of risk for the African continent, as  
52  
53 defined within international business circles.  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



### Theoretical and conceptual trends to identify risk

During the 1990s, the language and concept of risk broadened its scope by moving beyond technical consideration of the engineers and the natural scientists (Krimsky and Golding, 1992). Early 1990s research around risk was dominated by the Risk and Culture approach of Douglas and Wildavsky (1982) as well as the Risk Society approach of Beck (1986, 1992). Both approaches used to define risk were based on the etymological distinction between risk and uncertainty, which led to the growth of research on the culture of risk. In this regard, Lash (2000) introduced systemic risk, whereas Japp (1996) promulgated the significance of scientific risk assessment. Subsequently, Aven (2016) introduced the strategy for the efficient management of risk in international business. It is interesting to note that the scientific approaches to risk assessment and management are technocratic and reductionist in nature because they effectively disregard the diversities and complexities of the African marketplace. In addition, the conceptual and etymological distinction between risk and uncertainty is meaningless, because risk contributes to uncertainty, which inevitably contributes to risk; the two concepts move together. The assessment and management of risk needs, therefore, to be studied together and any attempt to study these two concepts separately, under western European tradition, is reductionist. These theoretical approaches and challenges continue to dominate different debates around the concept of risk in international business (Miller, 1992; Beck, 1998; Aven, 2016).

These theoretical trends in the conceptualisation of risk in different forms are expressions of certain culturally specific national circumstances within Western Europe (Dingwall, 1999). The risk society thesis is based on Giddens' concept of reflexive modernisation. Giddens (1990:38) defined reflexivity as *social practices that are constantly examined and reformed in the light of incoming information*. It is also interesting to note that Lizardo and Strand (2009) agree that recent globalisation scholars seem to have interchanged the concept of risk

1  
2  
3 with the notion of *fortuna* whereby international business activities are predetermined by an  
4  
5 order established by traditional cosmologies of modern capitalism. Such conceptualisation  
6  
7 has exposed African societies to risks without any kind of insurance by the multinational  
8  
9 corporations, whose primary motive of entering the continent is resource-seeking.  
10

11  
12 Warren (1999) and Löfstedt (2009) conceptualised the idea of risk as an absence of trust in  
13  
14 élites and institutions. The absence of trust, therefore, creates both institutional and  
15  
16 reputational risk (Hood *et al.*, 2001; Power, 2004, 2007). The reality of institutional and  
17  
18 reputational risks propagates distrustful, individualised and dis-embedded citizens, which  
19  
20 accelerate crises of legitimacy, credibility, accountability and sustainability of states and  
21  
22 governments (Lyons, Lowery and De Hoog, 1992). It is important, therefore, to measure the  
23  
24 management of risk and uncertainty based on communicative action (Habermas, 1972). The  
25  
26 statistical and scientific methods which were developed to calculate risk have, therefore,  
27  
28 presented the African marketplace as risky and unsafe to do business (Aven, 2016). Such  
29  
30 classifications, which actually sought to assess the level of risk on the African continent, have  
31  
32 in reality reduced its potential to a natural resource-rich continent. Consequently, Africa has  
33  
34 become known primarily for resource-seeking FDI and the recent trends of Chinese  
35  
36 investments in Africa only re-affirms the picture the imperialist have carefully created.  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41

42 This paper argues that uncertainties are lived experiences of people within a social, political,  
43  
44 economic, cultural and religious context. Tulloch and Lupton (2003) argue that the individual  
45  
46 experiences of the social processes of risk perception may lead people to adopt a broad range  
47  
48 of unclear or contradictory views about the magnitude of risk. All studies and advances in  
49  
50 the scientific approach to risk assessment and its management as outlined in the work of  
51  
52 Aven (2016) remain, therefore, exclusive to the African society, as well as its uniqueness and  
53  
54 concerns. These studies do not seem to engage with the complexities of African society and  
55  
56 business culture. Any attempt to mask the complexity of the social experience of risk  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 perception in rigid conceptual abstractions may lead us further away, rather than towards a  
4  
5 more intimate understanding of how risk conceptualisation perpetuates Africa's difficulty in  
6  
7 its walk towards prosperity. In a related study, Koukpaki (2014), categorised uncertainty and  
8  
9 risk factors in the African context. He argued that uncertainties are influenced by unknown  
10  
11 outcomes, missing data and information as well as ambiguities in the marketplace. These  
12  
13 factors are pertinent because the way MNCs assess and predict risk is often based on the  
14  
15 language of ambiguity. Consequently, MNCs seem to be key contributors of the reputational  
16  
17 and commercial risks confronting Africa in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Koukpaki, 2014).  
18  
19

20  
21  
22 In the UK, for example, small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) amounted to 99.3% of  
23  
24 all private sector businesses in 2016. Total employment in the SME sector stood at 15.7  
25  
26 million, accounting for 60% of all private sector employment. Moreover, the combined  
27  
28 annual turnover of SMEs hovered around £1.8 trillion, which represents 47% of the entire  
29  
30 UK's private sector turnover in 2016 (ONS, 2016). In another example, Muenjohn and  
31  
32 McMurray (2016) indicated that SMEs accounted for 99% of all business institutions, 75% of  
33  
34 total employment and 40% of Thailand's GDP. The questions, therefore, are why is Africa so  
35  
36 dependent upon multinational corporations to provide jobs (see Ahiakpor, 2010; Smith, 2013;  
37  
38 Assié-Lumumba, 2006)? To what extent does the conceptualisation of risk perpetuate the  
39  
40 African continent as risk-ridden? And how do we objectively determine risk and develop  
41  
42 methods to manage uncertainties? Answers to these questions will undoubtedly enhance our  
43  
44 understanding and appreciation of Eurocentric methods of risk and uncertainties within  
45  
46 international business.  
47  
48  
49

50  
51 International business is not only about demand, supply, and pricing but also about the  
52  
53 conditions in which production, distribution, and consumption take place. It is about  
54  
55 understanding these conditions under which the market operates both as a process and as an  
56  
57 organisation. It is central to understanding these conditions to be able to unpack the  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 specificities of risks in the African marketplace and develop a strategy to sidestep it. The  
4 Eurocentric approach developed by Beck (classifying some societies as risk-prone) has  
5 therefore failed to adequately define the relations and interplay between institutional  
6 dynamism and social reflexes on the one hand and self-referentiality and critical reflection on  
7 the other (Elliott, 2002). The Eurocentric approach to risk analysis is a limited and self-  
8 serving myopia that creates different forms of conflict due to its resource and rent-seeking  
9 strategy of doing business in the peripheries of Africa. Faria (2014) argues for a trans-modern  
10 pluriversal perspective that would allow for many worlds and many bodies of knowledge to  
11 co-exist to reflect the actual realities of today within the context of historical experience. The  
12 rent-seeking business strategies create risk both in the short-term and long-term objectives of  
13 international businesses within Africa. To understand the extent to which Africa has been  
14 described as a risk-ridden continent, the next section explicates how MNCs manufacture risk  
15 as they seek to utilise their core competencies and resource capabilities.

### 32 **Associated risks of rent and resource-seeking strategies of MNCs**

33 Rent-seeking approaches consist in the use of MNCs' resources to maximise economic gain  
34 from their activities (Tollison, 1982). Whilst rents are a perfectly good profit maximisation  
35 concept, global corporations have utilised their competitive advantage to seek excessive rents  
36 by creating entry barriers into industries in order to sustain their hegemony (Dunning and  
37 Lundan, 2008). Examples of MNCs that lobby governments to provide remarkably long  
38 tenure operational licenses and tariff protection are prevalent in Africa (Kolk and Lenfant,  
39 2010). Resource-seeking MNCs, on the other hand, are usually prompted to invest abroad to  
40 acquire specific resources of a higher quality at a lower cost than could be obtained in their  
41 home country. There are three main types of resource-seeking MNCs. Firstly, those seeking  
42 physical resources. Secondly, those seeking plentiful supplies of cheap and well-motivated  
43 unskilled or semi-skilled labour, and finally, those prompted by the need to acquire

1  
2  
3 technological capabilities (Dunning and Lundan, 2008). To understand the associated risk of  
4  
5 rent and the resource-seeking strategy of MNCs in Africa, we present a review of three time  
6  
7 periods. Firstly, the period of 1880s to the 1890s; secondly from the 1890s to the 21<sup>st</sup> century  
8  
9 and thirdly, the dawn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.  
10

11  
12 The period 1880s to 1890s witnessed European nations such as Belgium, Britain, France and  
13  
14 Germany turn Africa into colonies following a formal partition at the Berlin conference. The  
15  
16 Act provided these Western nations with the legitimacy to govern Africa economically,  
17  
18 politically and militarily, based on their spheres of control, allowing them to gain full access  
19  
20 to Africa's natural resources. During this period, the core functional activities, such as human  
21  
22 expertise, capital and technology needed to produce goods and services were provided by  
23  
24 western companies (Frynas and Paulo, 2006). FDI was not particularly important as most  
25  
26 activities of MNCs were based around the importation of raw materials and exportation of  
27  
28 finished products.  
29  
30  
31

32  
33 The increased activities of MNCs in Africa, following the independence of most African  
34  
35 states, were motivated by the acquisition of strategic assets which were monopolised for the  
36  
37 ultimate advancement of the West as Headquarters of the MNCs became the principal actors  
38  
39 of global influence (Ciabuschi *et al.*, 2012). For example, Frynas and Paulo (2006) confirmed  
40  
41 that in Anglophone Africa, a Shell-BP venture was given an effective monopoly on oil  
42  
43 exploration and production in Nigeria, and a colonial ordinance stipulated that only British oil  
44  
45 companies were permitted to obtain oil licenses. This allowed Shell-BP to establish and  
46  
47 maintain their dominance, leading to their subsequent multi-nationalisation in oil production.  
48  
49 Moreover, in Francophone Africa, French oil production dominated the oil industry even  
50  
51 after independence. The Gabonese and Algerian governments were forced to sign a guarantee  
52  
53 that French oil companies would receive preferential treatment, granting them concessions  
54  
55 for several years (Frynas and Paulo, 2006).  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 Having recounted the past, it is clear that the contemporary picture of MNC activities in the  
4  
5 21<sup>st</sup> century in Africa was focused on seeking rents and resources and they consequently  
6  
7 behaved as *classic Gerschenkronian latecomers*, whereby Gerschenkron (1962) explained the  
8  
9 strategic decisions of German and American MNCs that rapidly employed their core  
10  
11 competencies to maximise their fortunes. These giant corporations, according to Vernon  
12  
13 (1971) were responsible for striding across national borders and reducing nation states into  
14  
15 subservient entities. Driven primarily by market forces, pitiable corporate social  
16  
17 responsibility practices and corporate failures ranging from labour rights, environmental  
18  
19 neglect, coupled with severe and deadly community oppositions have earmarked the  
20  
21 operational credentials of MNCs operating in Africa. Radical economists such as Lall and  
22  
23 Streeten (1977) also shared the view that MNCs were used by colonial powers as instruments  
24  
25 of economic exploitation, political instability in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and the primary  
26  
27 cause of environmental damage, mainly due to their motives for profit maximisation. In  
28  
29 addition, there are many empirically observed forms of tax avoidance by MNCs operating in  
30  
31 Africa and other emerging markets (Gravelle, 2009).  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36

37 In a related study, Sikka (2003) confirms that UK and US MNCs engage in income-shifting  
38  
39 strategies in an attempt to maximise revenues whilst minimising taxes. MNCs operating in  
40  
41 Africa overprice their imports to avoid corporate taxes and under-price their exported goods  
42  
43 and services in order to allocate profits to the various parts within their own group of  
44  
45 companies. Consequently, by the end of the decade, the majority of African countries would  
46  
47 celebrate their 50th independence anniversary whilst simultaneously dealing with the risks  
48  
49 manufactured by MNCs operating in their countries.  
50  
51  
52

53 At the dawn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, MNCs became more closely associated with the concept of  
54  
55 globalisation, which highlighted how connected the world has become for businesses that  
56  
57 have developed the resources needed to exploit opportunities. Some MNCs had whole or  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 partial ownership of companies abroad, whilst others entered overseas markets by procuring  
4 existing companies or setting up new international business ventures. African governments  
5 hoped to benefit from this process to sustain economic growth and development. Following  
6 the dwindling economic growth in Africa at the turn of the century, host governments  
7 projected their countries as an attractive FDI location due to the supposed benefits. In fact,  
8 some governments relinquished revenues that could have been extracted from corporate taxes  
9 and duties with the belief that employment generation, diffusion of an entrepreneurial culture  
10 and other forms of benefits borne out of innovation and international competitiveness would  
11 be realised. The economic reform programmes and structural adjustments handouts which  
12 were given by the Breton Woods Institutions, to be implemented by several African  
13 countries, in most cases also failed to account for local contexts (Aryeetey *et al.*, 2005).

14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28 Historically, the bulk of foreign direct investment has originated from industrialised  
29 economies. Since MNCs from the US invested in Europe before 1939, and Japanese MNCs  
30 began to locate to advanced economies in the 1980s (Ferner *et al.*, 2004), their mode of  
31 operation became the fulcrum upon which the development of the theories of multinational  
32 corporations depended. New models and philosophies of FDI in the 21<sup>st</sup> century were partly  
33 fuelled by the resource-based protagonists (Penrose, 1959a; Peteraf, 1993) which focused on  
34 its benefits without much consideration of the impact. In a related study, Rugman and  
35 Verbeke (2004) supported the Penrosian ideology and further extended it by arguing that the  
36 key actors in the globalisation process primarily consisted of the largest MNCs from the  
37 Triad countries, and that it was home to most innovations in several industries and markets.  
38 The operations of these corporations also included the three largest markets in the world for  
39 new products. In examining the extension of the RBV theory, the factors that underpin the  
40 successful expansion of MNCs includes their international network, knowledge intensity,  
41 efficiency and scale, economic gains and the increasing scope for tax reduction through  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 transfer pricing. In fact, Buckley and Casson (1976); Johnson, (1970); Rugman and Verbeke  
4  
5 (2003) concur that internalisation occurs only to the point where the benefits equal the costs.

6  
7 However, industry-specific factors, regional-specific factors, nation-specific factors and firm-  
8  
9 specific factors, with a focus on the ability of the management to organise an internal market  
10  
11 remain the key parameters relevant to the internalisation decision.

12  
13  
14 Recent thinking on theories of the multinational corporation have recommended new  
15  
16 explanations of the dragon multinationals, whose aim and motive of internationalisation  
17  
18 differs from the traditional MNCs. This category of businesses is the most enterprising yet  
19  
20 profitable MNCs from fast developing economies such as China, India, Brazil and Mexico. In  
21  
22 this theory, Matthews (2005) argues that firms that internationalise rapidly engage clever  
23  
24 adaptation of multiple connections created within the global economy. The dragon  
25  
26 multinationals help to expose the weaknesses and limitations of the traditional accounts of  
27  
28 MNCs, and the existing theories and frameworks that sought to validate their activities in  
29  
30 Africa and other emerging economies. In the same vein, the multiple motives of the dragon  
31  
32 multinational and Chinese investors in Africa, and the development implications, need  
33  
34 critical examination. The phenomenon has been a source of both optimism and concern, since  
35  
36 their characteristics are quite dissimilar from those of the traditional FDI countries. Whilst it  
37  
38 is not disputed that MNCs (whether from America, Europe or Asia) exist in order to  
39  
40 maximise revenue, and that every transnational activity would therefore be based on that, the  
41  
42 more positive publicity that it has enjoyed to date should be presented alongside the arising  
43  
44 risks created by MNCs as a result of their resource-seeking behaviour which effectively  
45  
46 perpetuates the neo-colonial agenda in Africa.

47  
48  
49 Vercellone (2008) argues that the rent-seeking approaches of MNCs operating in Africa  
50  
51 emphasise the solution searched for by the capital investments of MNCs, which is to advance  
52  
53 rights to intellectual property in order to collect monopoly rents. Technically, core  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 competencies transferred would ultimately lead to rent-seeking behaviour in intra-firm  
4 contexts as well as transactions with external organisations as proposed by the transaction  
5 cost advocates. Rent-seeking activity is governed by self-interest, and leads to the ultimate  
6 utilisation of MNC's bargaining power in order to influence market actors to gain and then  
7 reinforce their market position. In a somewhat neglected but representative article, Penrose  
8 (1959b), in her expanded work, concluded that MNCs make excess profits on their FDI in  
9 poorer countries. This is an observation which has received no further empirical attention by  
10 the internalisation researchers. This observation which has been echoed by the leading  
11 thinkers of Penrose's theory, such as Rugman and Verbeke (2002), who ignite attention and  
12 interest because much of the RBV debate has predominantly focused on how firms gain and  
13 sustain competitive advantage as argued by Gerschenkron (1962).  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27

28 It is also observed that the RBV, internalisation, internationalisation and convergence  
29 theories have obscured the real risks that MNCs create, because of their divide and rule  
30 strategies in emerging markets. These strategies have been highlighted in many studies that  
31 decry financialisation and coupon pool capitalism along with benevolent distortions (Froud,  
32 Haslam, Johal and Williams, 2001; Zargarzadeh and Loroy, 2013; Calvano, 2007, amongst  
33 others). Whilst the culmination of the internalisation theory pulls academic interest away  
34 from the impact of internationalisation (see Prahalad, 1990, Birkinshaw, 2000; Rugman and  
35 Verbeke, 2005), less and less attention has been drawn to the real institutional, political,  
36 economic and regional risks that these MNCs create as they seek to utilise their rare,  
37 valuable, inimitable and non-substitutable resources. Recent theories suggest that these real  
38 risks are in fact mitigated by the fact that MNCs are also motivated to do good and become  
39 good citizens of the planet. Factors influencing this have ranged from corporate social  
40 responsibility theories and ethicality of business decisions (Payne, Raiborn and Askvik, 1997;  
41 Millar, Choi and Chen, 2004; Abugre and Nyuur, 2015).  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 Additionally, the problem with the internalisation view, as expressed by authors such as  
4  
5 Rugman and Verbeke (2002), Penrose (1959a); Prahalad and Hamel (1990), is that it fails to  
6  
7 acknowledge the non-remediable issues discussed in modern theories of the MNC. The fact  
8  
9 remains that the implementation of MNCs' business culture and methodologies of business  
10  
11 practice, and their resource-seeking methodologies, have yielded the Africa we see today. In  
12  
13 addition, these theories portray MNCs as fully rational in their motives of transnational  
14  
15 operations. Further, the minimalistic nature of human cognition and subjective utility, as  
16  
17 reinforced by the theory of bounded rationality, enshrines new perspectives on the  
18  
19 manufactured risks of doing business in Africa. Combining the resource-based theory of the  
20  
21 firm in line with the bounded rationality theory, we argue that although the presence of  
22  
23 MNCs in Africa and the whole network of their operations in Africa appear beneficial, by the  
24  
25 very strategic nature of their rent-seeking and resource-seeking approaches, they aim to  
26  
27 maximise profits and improve shareholders' wealth in order to gain economic and political  
28  
29 power, thereby preserving the neo-colonial agenda of the West (Lizardo and Strand, 2009).  
30  
31  
32  
33

34  
35 It is significant that there is currently no research being carried out that aims to enhance our  
36  
37 understanding of how and why MNCs manufacture risk in Africa, and how MNCs could  
38  
39 perceive every culture and language as a resource, based on the native categorisation concept  
40  
41 introduced by Buckley and Chapman (1997). In this concept, the authors proposed the  
42  
43 adoption of polycentrism in the conceptualisation and implementation of MNC strategy.  
44  
45 Understanding the local context as perceived through a Western lens is not enough, but rather  
46  
47 the appreciation and reconfiguration of IB strategy based on the emic-etic approach as well as  
48  
49 native language and culture. In their work, Kottak (2002) and Adler (1983) define emic as  
50  
51 meanings specific to a particular language and culture whereas etic features are classified as  
52  
53 being similar to all languages and culture.  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

### Conceptualising the risks arising out of business practice in Africa

In examining the degree to which MNCs support the global perception of the African continent as risk-ridden, we can consider different types of risks that MNCs create whilst conducting business in different parts of the world. According to Moles *et al.*, (2011), the main risk they create is operational, which emerges from the execution of a company's business functions. Market risk is also created when the actions of resource-seeking MNCs produce a change in the value of the market factors. Although there are different ways of conceptualising risks, Manuj and Mentzer (2008) mentioned that the combination of supply, process, demand and security risk force market actors to behave differently, which determines the overall risk level in certain industries, markets and regions. In a related study, L'Hermitte *et al.*, (2016) cite that there are challenges in ensuring a clear categorisation of risks in the supply chain of MNCs, simply because of the nature of their operations. Risks can be defined from three angles: firstly, from a rational economic perspective; secondly, from the psychological perspective; and thirdly, from the social construction of risk.

From the rationalist view, risk is underpinned by the theory of utility as presented by Krugman (1979). He enshrined the factors that influence monopolistic competition, increasing returns and the global entry behaviour of multinational firms. The theory suggests that MNCs are consistently risk-averse, and in deciding to do business in Africa and will often do their best to avoid losses to the detriment of the continent.

From a psychological perspective, the argument is based on the prospect theory, which also suggests that MNCs operating in Africa adopt a combination of risk and loss aversion strategies at the expense of fundamental corporate socially-responsible practices, as noted by Kahneman and Taversky (1979). From the psychological perspective, there are two components of risk that might influence the MNCs' perceptions: the first is (a) fear factor, which indicates how much the MNCs deal with the potential outcomes of doing business in

1  
2  
3 Africa and (b) the control factor, the extent to which the MNCs are in control of the outcomes  
4 of doing business in Africa. Applying this theory in the context of Africa, Shapira (1995) also  
5 argued that MNCs often discount risks on the basis that they could control these risks by  
6 utilising their efficiencies and core capabilities without much ethical consideration.  
7  
8  
9

10  
11  
12 The social construction of risk, on the other hand, is underpinned by the way in which social  
13 groups can develop shared cognitive schema which is defined as core ideas about how the  
14 industry works, cause-and-effect relationships and what constitutes a reasonable conduct of  
15 business. The extent of agreement about the meaning that is shared can be ephemeral or  
16 profound in shaping attitude. Sociologists refer to these shared meanings as institutions.  
17 Thus, an institution is a persistently reproduced social pattern that is relatively self-sustaining.  
18 Social institutions affect which actions are seen as legitimate. In the world of risk  
19 management, MNCs' decision-making processes, therefore, are determined by what is  
20 socially determined in the West, which legitimises the risks manufactured in Africa. This is  
21 often based on shared cognitive schema, For instance, in the year 2007, the entire African  
22 economy declined by 15% (Hillier, 2007). The Central African region, with its inherent  
23 human rights violations, inequality, poverty and human suffering, are also hosts to some of  
24 the giant MNCs in the history of current economic globalisation. Yet, these corporations  
25 continue to announce annual increases in their profits, whilst local economic activities  
26 continue to decline. In fact, with regards to the manufactured risks arising as a result of  
27 MNCs operating in these parts of Africa, Kolk and Lenfant (2010) state that MNCs have  
28 dilemmas about the contribution they can and cannot make in Africa given the different  
29 foreign setting. It seems that the more the resource endowment, the more conflict-prone the  
30 country becomes (Kolk and Lenfant, 2010; Calvano, 2007; Gu, 2009).  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53

54  
55  
56 MNCs rely mostly on their government actions to put, broadly speaking, three kinds of social  
57 pressure on African governments: coercive, mimetic and normative. The coercive pressures  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 put on African governments come from socio-cultural endorsements that can be applied if  
4 these governments act in legitimate ways according to the Western concept of civilisation.  
5  
6

7 Weak African governments end up succumbing to poor business deals. This is explained by  
8 Boone (1994), Van de Walle (1994), Lewis (1996), Koukpaki (2013) who contend that  
9 Africa's decline or stagnation is because African leaders, having inherited artificial policies  
10 from colonialism, resort to neo-patrimonial strategies to foster their power and prevent the  
11 dislocation of their peasant societies. These neo-patrimonial policies, essentially  
12 redistributive in nature, use the resources of the state to pursue their political and personal  
13 ambitions of power maximisation.  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21

22  
23  
24 Clearly, the notion of risk management and control in this sort of setting are non-existent.  
25  
26 The MNCs' investments are welcome without any due diligence on the risks. The mimetic  
27 pressures are often based on imitating others as to how they allow MNCs to do business, risk-  
28 free in other countries, then sell it to other countries by hiding the real risks. We believe that  
29 these mimetic pressures have established roots in the education systems, where the lack of  
30 effective educational systems led to non-risk management culture. Akam and Ducasse (2002)  
31 confirm this by arguing that education in Africa is confronted with diverse problems: the  
32 mimetic western consumerism, low rate of primary education, inadequate education policies,  
33 politico-economic crises, lack of educational infrastructure, plethoric student numbers, lack  
34 of research, without mentioning the pressure from the West which has characterised many  
35 parts of the African continent. To compensate for these deficiencies in the lack of education  
36 system, local elites believe that accepting the deals of MNCs could increase employment  
37 opportunities, particularly for younger generations.  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51

52  
53  
54  
55 Normative pressures are underpinned by values and the broader social values which MNCs  
56 subscribe to in conducting business in Africa. Normative pressures come from Western  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 governments who often aim to support their strategic industries. Due to the resource-  
4 dependent nature of MNCs, African countries have become vulnerable to such normative  
5 pressures, which increase the degree of risk in the region (Asiedu, 2002; Adams *et al.*, 2014).  
6  
7 The basic assumption is that organisations need to acquire their resources by exchanging with  
8 others in their environment, and this creates the dependencies. According to Sporn (1999),  
9 the scarcity of resources determines the degree of dependency. Assié-Lumumba (2006) takes  
10 this one step further, expressing the view that this dependency is to the detriment of African  
11 universities who are unable to produce capable elites who have been trained in their own  
12 language and culture to negotiate risks as brought up by large MNCs.  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24

#### 25 **Associated risks of co-option**

26  
27 During the colonial period from 1880 to 1960, MNCs extracted resources to benefit their  
28 colonial industries (Schneider, 2003). The resource-seeking activities of these corporations  
29 were primarily focused on natural resources such as gold, diamond and bauxite. Whilst  
30 resource extraction was ongoing, colonial governments engaged in market-facilitating and  
31 welfare-enhancing activities, including the building of roads and railway infrastructure, in  
32 order to facilitate the movement of extracted natural resources, but not necessarily to link  
33 countries or businesses for the development of the local economy (Ayres, 2012; Clapham,  
34 1996). Apart from the pre-colonial and post-colonial practices, evidence does tend to support  
35 the fact that MNCs manufacture risk in Africa in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. By nature of their strategic  
36 motivations, they seek to assimilate and win over the existing cultures with new products and  
37 services. Ager (2005) cites an example from France, stating that the French managed to keep  
38 a system of relationships to maintain their supremacy over their ex-colonies. France's aim  
39 was to maintain privileged relations with its former colonies by ensuring that the French  
40 language was used, that education was provided in and through French, and that cultural  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 activities through the medium of French were available. It is, therefore, almost impossible for  
4  
5 an ex- French colony to reject any business deal from an MNC which has a predominantly  
6  
7 French interest, based on any risk assessment.  
8  
9

10 The historical relationship was designed to ensure domination of the colonies for their  
11  
12 projected intention and gains. This is evident in the type of administrative and leadership  
13  
14 style, and legacies and development programmes provided by the colonialists in Africa. In  
15  
16 addition, Iheriohanma and Oguoma (2010) indicated that the development structures and  
17  
18 policies by the colonialists never allowed space for the emergent leaders in Africa to revolt  
19  
20 against the structures, or worse still, that these leaders did not realise it was necessary to  
21  
22 reform the inherited development structures to the needs of Africa and Africans. Furthermore,  
23  
24 non-transparent resource management is part of the infrastructure required for efficient neo-  
25  
26 colonial exploitation, whereby the economic and commercial interests of rich countries take  
27  
28 precedence over effective financial control (Blaut, 1973; Verschave, 1998). Duruigbo (2005,  
29  
30 2014), in his extensive research work, confirms that MNCs have been the beneficiaries of the  
31  
32 risks that they create and that the only losers are the small businesses and the citizens of these  
33  
34 countries. As a result of the issues enumerated above, the current claims that Africa is rising  
35  
36 must also be considered alongside the rising levels of debt, as documented by the *Financial*  
37  
38 *Times* (2017). Consequently, the perpetuation of risk negatively impacts on Africa's ability to  
39  
40 improve its financial status.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

### 46 **Conclusion and implications**

47  
48 This paper has critically explored the contextual factors in the pre-colonial and post-colonial  
49  
50 eras that affect the ways MNCs conduct business in Africa. Drawing on the methodological  
51  
52 approaches of nonlinear historical narrative, this paper maintains that the language, culture,  
53  
54 and educational system have shaped the language of risk used by MNCs doing business.  
55  
56 These antecedents produce risk and uncertainty for which post-independent Africa struggles  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 to deal with effectively. The theory and conceptual trends of risk in IB have been reviewed,  
4  
5 and it is clear that risk and uncertainty are lived experiences of people within a social,  
6  
7 political, economic and religious context. In addition, in conceptualising the manufactured  
8  
9 risks arising from business practice in Africa, this paper argues that there is associated risk of  
10  
11 co-option at play. A combination of trans-modern and pluriversal perspective within African  
12  
13 societies and knowledge which reflect the realities of today within the context of the  
14  
15 historical experiences of the African countries.  
16  
17

18  
19 In view of the issues identified, there are political implications for the nation-states as MNCs  
20  
21 utilise the instabilities and weaknesses of governments on the continent to seek and exploit  
22  
23 resources to maintain their competitive advantage at a global level. In terms of economic  
24  
25 implications, weaker governments cannot have an effective development programme for their  
26  
27 countries, thereby perpetuating a cycle of uncertainty and unemployment, particularly within  
28  
29 younger generations. Economic instability leads to social unrest, whereby governments are  
30  
31 continuously held accountable for the inadequacies in social inequality.  
32  
33

34  
35 On the theoretical side, given the potential increase of emerging market multinational  
36  
37 activities at the current time, the emic-etic approach and native categorisation could become  
38  
39 the cornerstone of strategic decision-making employed by multinationals operating within  
40  
41 Africa (Buckley and Chapman, 1997; Adams *et al.*, 2017; Buckley, Chapman and Gajewska-  
42  
43 De, 2014). In international business circles, emic is used in the context of being cross-  
44  
45 culturally incomparable, by highlighting the differences between nation states. The etic, on  
46  
47 the other hand, is used as being cross-culturally comparable which reinforces the  
48  
49 convergence argument that business language, cultures and policies around the world are  
50  
51 converging. In this method, the understanding of how local people think, perceive and  
52  
53 classify their world, their rules for behaviour, how they imagine and interpret their world and  
54  
55 the things that surround them should form the basis of the operational strategy for MNCs  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 entering the African marketplace. Whilst most international business research involves cross-  
4  
5 cultural data, the conclusions drawn from the analysis have focused on interpreting local  
6  
7 languages and culture, attitudinal and behavioural phenomena using Western lenses rather  
8  
9 than anthropological and ethnomethodological lenses (Doz, 2011, Sinkovics, Peng and  
10  
11 Ghauri, 2008).  
12

13  
14 Understanding these underlying factors could have profound implications for the future  
15  
16 direction of cross-cultural and international business research. Additionally, the polarity of  
17  
18 the investment direction is reversed, making this research timely as IB research begins to  
19  
20 grapple with the current ethical challenges facing emerging market multinationals operating  
21  
22 in other emerging markets. In dealing with risks manufactured by MNCs, the advantages of  
23  
24 treating the emic approach as equally beneficial would undoubtedly lead to future research  
25  
26 that focuses more on *native categories* of the African marketplace as suggested by Sinkovics  
27  
28 *et al.*, (2008); Buckley and Chapman (1997).  
29  
30  
31  
32

33 This paper extends the current debate on reinventing entry strategies into emerging markets  
34  
35 (London and Hart, 2004; Cuervo-Cazurra, 2012) by arguing that the understanding of the  
36  
37 native categories within the African context by MNCs could enhance new ways of  
38  
39 conceptualising risk. In this sense, the starting point of any theoretical analysis on the risks  
40  
41 arising out of conducting business in Africa must acknowledge the specificities of the African  
42  
43 context in terms of local ideas, knowledge, history, language and methods of business  
44  
45 practice which are different from those in the West. It could mean that MNCs need to see the  
46  
47 African culture, language and philosophy of doing business as a resource, rather than a risk in  
48  
49 itself. In addition, following critical analysis of the internalisation and RBV theories, the  
50  
51 benefit-attention that FDI has enjoyed to date should be presented alongside the  
52  
53 manufactured risks arising from MNCs as a result of their rent and resource-seeking  
54  
55 approaches on the African continent. In relation to this, the classical populist economic  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 development strategy in African countries, whereby governments remove taxes, provide  
4 subsidies, legitimise and encourage inward FDI when faced with a crisis, frequently produces  
5 economic and political problems as domestic economic interests are usually crowded out in  
6 favour of large MNCs.  
7  
8  
9

10  
11  
12 On a practical level, it is imperative for African governments to implement a nationalist-  
13 modernising strategy whereby the levels of export from local businesses could initially be  
14 proportioned to the levels of MNCs' resource-seeking activities. This approach would ensure  
15 the proliferation of local business groups that could gain access to local and international  
16 capital in order to maximise local production. In this sense, the government would not have  
17 to deal with the consequences of risk and the associated challenges that emanate from the  
18 flight of capital.  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27

### 28 29 **Future research**

30  
31  
32 This paper has explored the rational, psychological and social constructions of risk. It would  
33 be advantageous in future research to explore the pressure put upon African governments to  
34 integrate these manufactured risks in the way business is conducted. In addition, a full  
35 empirical and theoretical enquiry to examine the nature of manufactured risk from an African  
36 perspective on the discursive psychological methodology to investigate how African leaders  
37 report on risk, as risk theories in Western-based theories are likely to be exaggerated and  
38 discursively shaped by their own ideals, which do not necessarily apply to the contextual  
39 realities in Africa. The Eurocentric theories and approaches to conceptualising risk in Africa,  
40 its assessment and management methods are limited and subsequently create different forms  
41 of conflict due to MNCs' resource and rent-seeking approaches to conducting business in  
42 Africa.  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

**References**

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6 Abugre, J.B. and Nyuur, R.B. (2015), 'Organizations' commitment to and communication of CSR  
7 activities: Insights from Ghana', *Social Responsibility Journal*, 11(1): 161–178.  
8  
9 Ackroyd, S., and Murphy, J. (2013), 'Transnational corporations, socio-economic change and  
10 recurrent crisis', *Critical perspectives on international business*, 9 (4): 336-357.  
11  
12 Adams, K., Debrah, Y.A., Williams, K. and Mmieh, F. (2014), 'Causes of financial FDI inflows into  
13 Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA): Evidence from Ghana', *Thunderbird International Business  
14 Review*, 56(5): 439–459.  
15  
16 Adams, K., Nyuur, R. B., Ellis, F. Y., and Debrah, Y. A. (2017), 'South African MNCs' HRM  
17 Systems and Practices at the Subsidiary Level: Insights From Subsidiaries in Ghana', *Journal  
18 of International Management*, 23(2):180-193.  
19  
20 Adler, N. J. (1983), 'A typology of management studies involving culture', *Journal of international  
21 business studies*, 14(2): 29-47.  
22  
23 Ager, D. E. (2005), 'French cultural, languages and telecommunications policy towards Sub Sahara  
24 Africa', *Modern and Contemporary France* 13: 57–69.  
25  
26 Ahiakpor J. C.W. (2010). *Multinational Corporations in the Third World: Predators or Allies in  
27 Economic Development? Religion and Liberty: Vol. 2:5*, available at  
28 [https://acton.org/pub/religion-liberty/volume-2-number-5/multinational-corporations-third-  
29 world-predators](https://acton.org/pub/religion-liberty/volume-2-number-5/multinational-corporations-third-world-predators) (accessed on October 20, 2017)  
30  
31 Akam, N., and Ducasse, R. (2002), 'Dynamiques locales de la mondialisation: Les Afriques en  
32 perspective: quelle université pour l'Afrique? Bordeaux', *Maison Des Sciences de l'Homme  
33 d'Aquitaine*.  
34  
35 Amaeshi, K., Adi, B. C., Ogechie, C., and Amao, O. O. (2006), 'Corporate Social Responsibility in  
36 Nigeria: Indigenous practices or Western influences', *Journal of Corporate Citizenship*, 24:  
37 83-99.  
38  
39  
40 Asiedu, E. (2002), 'On the determinants of foreign direct investment to developing countries: is  
41 Africa different? *World development*, 30 (1): 107-119.  
42  
43 Assié-Lumumba, N. T. (2006), *Higher Education in Africa, Crises, Reforms and Transformation*,  
44 Dakar, Council for Development of Social Science Research in Africa, CODESRIA.  
45  
46 Aven, T. (2016), 'Risk assessment and risk management: Review of recent advances on their  
47 foundation', *European Journal of Operational Research*, Vol 253 (1).  
48  
49  
50 Aryeetey, E., and Nissanke, M. (2005), *Financial integration and development: liberalization and  
51 reform in sub-Saharan Africa*. Routledge.  
52  
53 Ayres, C. J. (2012), 'The international trade in conflict minerals', Colton, *Critical perspectives on  
54 international business*, 8 (2): 178-193.  
55  
56 Beck, U. (1992), *Risk Society. Towards a New Modernity*, London: Sage.

- 1  
2  
3 Beck, U. (1994) The reinvention of politics: towards a theory of reflexive Modernization. In: U. Beck,  
4 A. Giddens, S. Lash (eds.), *Reflexive Modernization. Politics, Tradition and Aesthetics in the*  
5 *Modern Social Order*, 1-55, Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- 6  
7 Beck, U. (1998), *World risk society*, Polity Press, Cambridge.
- 8  
9  
10 Birkinshaw J, Hood N. (2000), 'Characteristics of foreign subsidiaries in industry clusters', *Journal of*  
11 *International Business Studies* 31(1): 141–154.
- 12  
13 Blaut, J.M. (1973), 'The theory of development', *Antipode*, Vol. 5 (2): 22-26.
- 14  
15 Boone, C. (1994), 'State and ruling classes in post-colonial Africa: the enduring contradictions of  
16 power, in J. Migdal (ed.), *State Power and Social Forces*, Cambridge, Cambridge University  
17 Press.
- 18  
19 Bourdieu, P. (1991), *Language and Symbolic Power*, Polity Press, Cambridge.
- 20  
21 Buckley P, Casson M. (1976), *The Future of the Multinational Enterprise*, Macmillan: London.
- 22  
23  
24 Buckley, P. J., Chapman, M., Clegg, J., and Gajewska-De Mattos, H. (2014), 'A linguistic and  
25 philosophical analysis of emic and etic and their use in international business  
26 research', *Management International Review*, 54(3): 307-324.
- 27  
28 Buckley, P. J., and Chapman, M. (1997) The use of native categories in management research. *British*  
29 *Journal of Management*, 8(4): 283-299.
- 30  
31 Calvano, L. (2007), 'Multinational corporations and local communities: A critical analysis of  
32 conflict', *Journal of Business Ethics*, 82(4): 793–805
- 33  
34 Chakrabarty, D. (2001), *Provincialising Europe. Postcolonial Thought and Historical Difference*.  
35 Princeton: Princeton U P.
- 36  
37 Chang, S. J. (1997), 'Whose Wealth To Maximize: A Survey Of Alternative Views On Corporate  
38 Objectives', *Journal of Financial Education* 1-13.
- 39  
40 Ciabuschi, F., Dellestrand, H., and Kappen, P. (2012), 'The good, the bad, and the ugly: Technology  
41 transfer competence, rent-seeking, and bargaining power', *Journal of World Business*, 47 (4):  
42 664-674.
- 43  
44 Clapham, C. (1996) *Africa and the international system: The politics of state survival* Vol. 50.  
45 Cambridge University Press.
- 46  
47 Cuervo-Cazurra, A. (2012), Extending theory by analyzing developing country multinational  
48 companies: Solving the Goldilocks debate. *Global Strategy Journal*, 2 (3): 153-167.
- 49  
50 Dean, M. (1999) Governmentality. *Power and Rule in Modern Society*. London; Thousand Oaks; New  
51 Delhi: Sage.
- 52  
53 Dingwall, R. (1999), 'Risk Society': The Cult of Theory and the Millennium? In: *Social Policy &*  
54 *Administration* 33 (4): 474-491.
- 55  
56 Douglas, M. and Wildavsky, A. (1982), *Risk and culture. An Essay on the Selection of Technological*  
57 *and Environmental Dangers*, Berkeley: University of California Press.
- 58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Doz, Y. (2011), Qualitative research for international business. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 42(5): 582-590.  
4  
5  
6 Dunning, J. H., & Lundan, S. M. (2008), *Multinational enterprises and the global economy*. Edward  
7 Elgar Publishing.  
8  
9  
10 Duruigbo, E. (2005), The World Bank, Multinational Oil Corporations, and the Resource Curse in  
11 Africa. *U. Pa. Journal of International Economy Vol. 26* (1).  
12  
13 Duruigbo, E. (2014), Balancing Energy Development and Environmental Rights: From Foreign  
14 Litigation to International Insurance?.
- 15  
16 Elliott, A. (2002), Beck's Sociology of Risk: A Critical Assessment. In: *Sociology Vol. 36* (2): 293-  
17 315.  
18  
19 Englebert, P. (2000), Pre-colonial institutions, post-colonial states, and economic development in  
20 tropical Africa, *Political Research Quarterly*, Vol. 53: 7-36.  
21  
22 Ewald, F. (1986), *The Welfare State*, Paris: Grasset.
- 23  
24 Fairclough, N. (2003), *Analysing Discourse: Textual Analysis for Social Research*, Routledge,  
25 London.  
26  
27 Faria, A. (2014), Border Thinking in Action: Should Critical Management Studies Get Anything  
28 Done? In Malin, V., Murphy, J & Siltaoja, M. (eds.) *Getting Things Done* (Dialogues in  
29 Critical Management Studies, Bingley: Emerald Vol (2) 277-300.  
30  
31 Ferner, A., Almond, P. and Colling, T. (2004), 'Institutional theory and the cross-national transfer of  
32 employment policy: The case of "workforce diversity" in US multinationals', *Journal of*  
33 *International Business Studies*, 36(3): 304-321.  
34
- 35 Financial times (2017), retrieved from [https://www.ft.com/content/de5fab92-0f27-11e7-a88c-](https://www.ft.com/content/de5fab92-0f27-11e7-a88c-50ba212dce4d)  
36 [50ba212dce4d](https://www.ft.com/content/de5fab92-0f27-11e7-a88c-50ba212dce4d) accessed on 15.08.17  
37
- 38 Freeden, M. (1996), *Ideologies and Political Theory: A Conceptual Approach*. Oxford: Clarendon  
39 Press.  
40  
41 Freeden, M. (2005), *Liberal Languages*. Princeton: NJ: Princeton UP.  
42
- 43 Freer, J. (2017), Sustainable development goals and the human resource crises, *International Health*,  
44 *Vol. 9: 1-2*.  
45
- 46 Froud, J., Haslam, C., Johal, S. and Williams, K. (2001), 'Financialisation and the coupon  
47 pool', *Gestão & Produção*, 8(3).  
48
- 49 Frynas, J. G., & Paulo, M. (2006), A new scramble for African oil? Historical, political, and business  
50 perspectives. *African Affairs*, 106 (423): 229-251.  
51
- 52 Gerschenkron, A. (1962), *Economic Backwardness in Historical Perspective*. Cambridge, MA:  
53  
54 Giddens, A. (1990), *The Consequences of Modernity*. Stanford University Press, Stanford.  
55  
56 Giddens, A. (1999), "Risk and Responsibility", *Modern Law Review*, 62 (1).  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Gravelle, J. G. (2009), Tax havens: International tax avoidance and evasion. *National Tax Journal*,  
4 727-753.
- 5  
6 Grubel, H. G. (2014), A theory of multinational banking. *PSL Quarterly Review*, Vol. 30 (123).
- 7  
8  
9 Gu, J. (2009), China's private enterprises in Africa and the implications for African development. *The*  
10 *European Journal of Development Research*, 21(4): 570-587.
- 11  
12 Gubrium, J. F., & Holstein, J. A. (2002), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method*. Sage.
- 13  
14 Habermas, J. (1972), "Technology and Science as Ideology," in B. Barnes (ed.) *Sociology of Science*,  
15 Penguin, Harmondsworth.
- 16  
17 Hewitt, R. R. (2014), Globalization and landscape architecture: A review of the literature. *SAGE*  
18 *Open*, 4(1)
- 19  
20 Hillier, D., (2007), "Africa's missing billions. International arms flows and the cost of conflict", 26  
21 IANSA, Oxfam International and Saferworld.
- 22  
23 Hood, C. and Rothstein, H. (2001), "Risk Regulation Under Pressure", *Administrative & Society* Vol.  
24 33 (1).
- 25  
26 Hood, C., Rothstein, H. and R. Baldwin (2001), *The government of risk: Understanding risk*  
27 *regulation regimes*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- 28  
29  
30 Huntington, S. P. (1993), *The third wave: Democratization in the late twentieth century* (Vol. 4).  
31 University of Oklahoma press.
- 32  
33 Iheriohanma, E.B.J. and Oguoma, O. (2010), "Governance, leadership crisis and underdevelopment in  
34 Africa: An explorative discourse" *European Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 12 (3): 409-416
- 35  
36 Jakubiak, M., & Kudina, A. (2008), *The Motives and Impediments to FDI in the CIS* (No. 0370).  
37 CASE-Center for Social and Economic Research.
- 38  
39 Japp, K.P. (1996), *Sociological Risk Theory*, Weinheim; München: Juventa.
- 40  
41 Johnson, H.G. (1970), The efficiency and welfare implications of the multinational corporation. In  
42 C.P. Kindleberger, ed., *The international corporation: A symposium*, Chapter 2. Cambridge,  
43 MA: MIT Press.
- 44  
45 Kahneman, D. and Tversky, A. (1979), Prospect theory: an analysis of decision under risk,  
46 *Econometrica*, 47: 263-91
- 47  
48  
49 Keay, A., & Adamopoulou, R. (2012), Shareholder value and UK companies: a positivist  
50 inquiry. *European Business Organization Law Review (EBOR)*, 13(1), 1-29
- 51  
52 Kolk, A., & Lenfant, F. (2010), MNC reporting on CSR and conflict in Central Africa. *Journal of*  
53 *Business Ethics*, Vol. 93: 241-255.
- 54  
55 Kottak, C. P. (2002), *The Exploration of Human Diversity*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- 56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Koukpaki, A. S. F. (2013), *The concept of strategic leadership in the development and improvement*  
4 *of higher education in the Republic of Benin : a qualitative case study of an African*  
5 *university*. EdD thesis The Open University.  
6  
7  
8 Koukpaki, A. S.F. (2014) *The Learning, Training and Development Needs of Strategic Leadership in*  
9 *the Context of Higher Education In a Scottish Research Intensive University: A qualitative*  
10 *Case Study*, in A.O.U Onuka, *Analysing Educational Issues: Essays in Honour of Emeritus*  
11 *Professor Pai Obanya*, Society for the Promotion of Academic and Research Excellent  
12 (SPARE)  
13  
14 Krinsky, S. and Golding, D. (1992), *Social Theories of Risk*, Westport CT: Praeger.  
15  
16 Krugman, P. R. (1979), Increasing returns, monopolistic competition, and international trade. *Journal*  
17 *of international Economics*, 9 (4): 469-479.  
18  
19 Kudina, A., & Jakubiak, M. (2012), The Motives and Impediments to FDI in the CIS. In *EU eastern*  
20 *neighborhood* (71-82). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.  
21  
22 L'Hermitte, C., Tatham, P., Brooks, B., and Bowles, M (2016), Supply Chain agility in humanitarian  
23 protracted operations, *Journal of Humanitarian Logistics and Supply Chain Management*, vol.  
24 6 (2):173-201.  
25  
26 Lall, S., & Streeten, P. (1977), Introduction. In *Foreign Investment, Transnationals and Developing*  
27 *Countries* (3-15). Palgrave Macmillan UK.  
28  
29 Lewis, P. M. (1996), Economic Reform and political Transition in Africa: The Quest for a Politics of  
30 Development *World Politics* 49 (1) 92-129.  
31  
32 Lizardo, O., & Strand, M. (2009), Postmodernism and globalization. *Protosociology: An International*  
33 *Journal of Interdisciplinary Research* Vol. 26 (39).  
34  
35 Löfstedt, R. (2009) *Risk Management in Post-Trust Societies*, Palgrave Macmillan, London.  
36  
37 London, T., & Hart, S. L. (2004), Reinventing strategies for emerging markets: beyond the  
38 transnational model. *Journal of international business studies*, 35 (5): 350-370.  
39  
40  
41 Lyons, W.E, Lowery D., and De Hoog R. (1992), *The Politics of Dissatisfaction*, Sharpe, New York.  
42  
43 Manuj, I., & Mentzer, J. T. (2008), Global supply chain risk management strategies. *International*  
44 *Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management*, 38 (3): 192-223.  
45  
46 Mathews, J. A. (2006), Dragon multinationals: New players in 21st century globalization. *Asia Pacific*  
47 *journal of management*, 23(1): 5-27.  
48  
49 Millar, C. J. M. Choi, C.J and Chen, S. (2004), Global Strategic Partnerships between MNEs and  
50 NGOs: Drivers of Change and Ethical Issues; *Business and Society Review* 109 (4): 395-414  
51  
52  
53 Miller, K. D. (1992), A framework for integrated risk management in international business. *Journal*  
54 *of international business studies*, 23(2): 311-331.  
55  
56 Muenjohn, N., & McMurray, A. (2016), The impact of leadership on workplace innovation in Thai  
57 and Vietnamese SMES. *The Journal of Developing Areas*, 50 (5): 479-486.  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Moles, P, Parrino, R and Kidwell, D (2011), *Corporate Finance*, Chichester, John Wiley & Sons Ltd
- 4  
5 Nyuur, R. and Debrah, Y. (2012), *The changing and multi-motives of FDI in SSA: evidence from*  
6 *Ghana*. In: 39th Academy of International Business (UK & Ireland Conference), 29-31 March  
7 2012, Liverpool, UK. <http://nrl.northumbria.ac.uk/9217/> accessed on 20/08/2017
- 8  
9 O'Rourke, K. H., & Williamson, J. G. (2001), *Globalization and history: the evolution of a*  
10 *nineteenth-century Atlantic economy*. Mit Press.
- 11  
12 Payne, D., Raiborn C. and Askvik J. (1997), A Global Code of Business Ethics. *Journal of Business*  
13 *Ethics Vol.16: 1727–1735*
- 14  
15 Penrose E.T. (1956), Foreign investment and the growth of the firm. *Economic Journal, Vol. 66: 220–*  
16 *235.*
- 17 Penrose E.T. (1959a), *The Theory of the Growth of the Firm*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- 18 Penrose ET. (1959b) Profit sharing between producing countries and oil companies in the Middle  
19 East. *Economic Journal Vol. 69: 238–254.*
- 20  
21 Peteraf A. (1993), The cornerstones of competitive advantage: a resource-based view. *Strategic*  
22 *Management Journal Vol. 14 (3): 179–191.*
- 23  
24 Power, M. (2004), The risk management of everything. *The Journal of Risk Finance, Vol. 5(3): 58-*  
25 *65.*
- 26  
27  
28 Power, M. (2007), *Organized Uncertainty: Designing a world of risk management*, Oxford University  
29 Press, Oxford.
- 30  
31 Prahalad CK, Hamel G. (1990), The core competence of the corporation. *Harvard Business Review,*  
32 *Vol. 90 (3): 79–91.*
- 33  
34 Radice, H. (2014), Transnational corporations and global capitalism: reflections on the last 40  
35 years. *Critical perspectives on international business, Vol. 10 (1/2): 21-34.*
- 36  
37 Rugman A. M. & Collinson S. (2012), *International Business (6<sup>th</sup> Edition)*, Pearson Education,  
38 Harlow, UK
- 39  
40 Rugman, A.M. (2012), 'Advancing empirical research in international business', *Multinational*  
41 *Business Review, 20(4)*
- 42  
43 Rugman, A.M. and Verbeke, A. (2002), 'Edith Penrose's contribution to the resource-based view of  
44 strategic management', *Strategic Management Journal, 23(8): 769–780.*
- 45  
46 Rugman, A.M. and Verbeke, A. (2003), 'Extending the theory of the multinational enterprise:  
47 Internalization and strategic management perspectives', *Journal of International Business*  
48 *Studies, 34(2): 125–137*
- 49  
50 Rugman, A.M. and Verbeke, A. (2004), 'A perspective on regional and global strategies of  
51 multinational enterprises', *Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 35(1): 3–18.*
- 52  
53 Rugman, A.M. and Verbeke, A. (2005), Towards a theory of regional multinationals: a transaction  
54 cost economics approach. *Management International Review, 45* accessed on 22/10/2016  
55 *from*  
56 *[http://www.henley.reading.ac.uk/web/FILES/management/mgmt\\_A\\_Rugman\\_TowardsATheoryofRegionalMNEs.pdf](http://www.henley.reading.ac.uk/web/FILES/management/mgmt_A_Rugman_TowardsATheoryofRegionalMNEs.pdf)*



- 1  
2  
3 Schneider, G. E. (2003), Globalization and the poorest of the poor: Global integration and the  
4 development process in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 37(2): 389.  
5  
6 Sekerka, L. E., & Stimmel, D. (2012), Environmental sustainability decision-making: clearing a path to  
7 change. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 12(3): 195-205.  
8  
9 Shapira, Z (1995), *Risk Taking: a Managerial Perspective*, New York Russell Sage Foundation  
10  
11  
12 Sikka, P. (2003), Big companies and rich individuals run rings round the Inland Revenue. The  
13 government should act, *The Guardian*. Accessed from  
14 <https://www.theguardian.com/money/2003/jun/30/tax.socialexclusion> on 1/09/2017  
15  
16 Sinkovics, R. R., Penz, E., & Ghauri, P. N. (2008), Enhancing the trustworthiness of qualitative  
17 research in international business. *Management International Review*, 48(6): 689-714.  
18  
19 Skinner, Q. (1978), *The Foundations of Modern Political Thought*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP.  
20  
21 Skinner, Q. (1998), *Liberty before Liberalism*. Cambridge: Cambridge UP.  
22  
23 Skinner, Q. (2008), "A Genealogy of the Modern State". British Academy Lecture 13 May,  
24 2008. Published in *Proceedings of the British Academy*-162, 325-370.  
25  
26 Smith, D. (2013), Africa 'ripped off big time' by foreign resource firms. The Guardian Newspaper,  
27 available at [https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2013/jun/18/africa-ripped-off-](https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2013/jun/18/africa-ripped-off-foreign-resource-firms)  
28 [foreign-resource-firms](https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2013/jun/18/africa-ripped-off-foreign-resource-firms) (Accessed on 20/10/2017)  
29  
30 Sporn, B. (1999), *Adaptive University Structure: An Analysis of adaptation to Socioeconomic*  
31 *Environments of US and Europeans Universities*, London, Higher Education Policy Series 54,  
32 Jessica Kingsley Publishers. The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.  
33  
34  
35 Tollison, R. D. (1982), Rent seeking: A survey. *Kyklos*, 35(4): 575-602.  
36  
37 Tulloch, J. and Lupton, D. (2003), *Risk and everyday life*. London: Sage Publications.  
38  
39 UK Department for Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy (2016)  
40 [https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/559219/bpe\\_2](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/559219/bpe_2016_statistical_release.pdf)  
41 [016\\_statistical\\_release.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/559219/bpe_2016_statistical_release.pdf) accessed on 19.08.17  
42  
43 Van de Walle, N. (1994), Neo-patrimonialism and democracy in Africa, with an illustration from  
44 Cameroon, in J. Widner (ed.), *Economic Change and political liberalisation in Sub-Saharan*  
45 *Africa*, Baltimore, MD, Johns Hopkins University Press, 129-157.  
46  
47 Vercellone, C. (2008), 'The new articulation of wages, rent and profit in cognitive capitalism', lecture  
48 as part of *The art of rent*, Lecture Series, Queen Mary University School of Business and  
49 Management, London, UK  
50  
51  
52 Vernon, R. (1971), Sovereignty at bay: The multinational spread of US enterprises. *Thunderbird*  
53 *International Business Review*, Vol. 13(4): 1-3.  
54  
55 Verschave, F. X. (1998), *La Françafrique: Le plus long scandale de la République*, Editions Stock,  
56 Paris.  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 Warren, M. (1999), *Democracy and Trust*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.  
4

5 Wilkinson, I. (2001), Social Theories of Risk Perception: At Once Indispensable and Insufficient. In:  
6 *Current Sociology* Vol. 49 (1): 1-22.  
7

8 Wolf, E.R. (2010), *Europe and People without History*, University of California Press, Berkley.  
9

10 Zargarzadeh, M. A and Leroy, H. L. (2013), Benevolent Deception! An Investigation of the  
11 Mechanisms Underlying Failed Commitments in Organizations, *Strategic Management*  
12 *Society* (SMS) 2013 Annual Meeting, Atlanta, Georgia, USA.  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60