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INNOVATION NETWORKS IN EUROPEAN SMALL BUSINESSES

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ABSTRACT

Networks are becoming increasingly important for small businesses that wish to engage in innovative projects. Although a small firm's own resources may be limited, a company can leverage the resources of other firms through the sharing of ideas, resources and capabilities. Strong ties with customers, suppliers, and other firms may facilitate revenue growth and exchange of tie shared systems because these parties are typically more readily available for cooperating in information transfer and joint problem-solving. This study examines the innovation partnerships engaged in by European small businesses through analysis of by data from the Eurostat Community Innovation survey, which included information about small businesses' relationships with customers/clients, suppliers, universities, government institutions and private R&D organizations.

INTRODUCTION

Networks are becoming increasingly important for creating value in entrepreneurial firms as they provide firms with access to markets, information, technology, and other resources (Birley, 1985; Dussauge, Garrette & Mitchell, 2000; Farr-Wharton & Brunetto, 2007; Gnyawali & Madhavan, 2001; Gulati, Nohria & Zaheer, 2000; Hitt & Ireland, 2002; Hoang & Antoncic, 2003; Taylor & Thorpe, 2004). This enables firms to innovate and compete in markets without first owning all of the resources necessary to do so, which is particularly important to new firms with limited resources (Dubini & Aldrich, 1991).

This study examines the cooperative partnerships engaged in by small businesses by analyzing data from the 2008 Eurostat Community Innovation survey, which asked about cooperative partners such as customers/clients, suppliers, universities, government institutions and private R&D organizations. The following section provides a background on the importance of networks to innovation. The results of this study are them presented.

NETWORKS, INNOVATION AND SMALL BUSINESSES

SMEs face significant hurdles in their attempts to innovate because their small size and limited resources present numerous challenges. According to Eurostat (2009), larger companies are more likely than SMEs to control the resources necessary for innovation, including human and financial capital. One potential solution for small businesses that want to innovate but do not have the necessary resources and capabilities is cooperation with other organizations (Birley, 1985; Farr-Wharton & Brunetto, 2007; Gnyawali & Madhavan, 2001; Gulati at al., 2000; Hoang & Antoncic, 2003; Taylor & Thorpe, 2004). Empirical studies suggest networks have a strong influence on successful innovation because they influence access to information and knowledge acquisition (Fosfuri & Tribo, 2008; Granovetter, 1973; Hoang & Antoncic, 2003; Liao, Fei & Chen, 2007; Liao, Wu, Hu, & Tsuei, 2009; Miller & Besser, 2005; Murovec & Prodan, 2009). In fact, innovation itself is said to be a social process regardless of business size (Australian Institute for Commercialisation, 2011; Charan & Lafley, 2008).

Perhaps because of the sharing of resources, collaboration has been shown to be related to innovation success. A study of Australian businesses showed that collaboration was related to a 70% increase in the chances for creative innovation (Australian Institute for Commercialisation, 2011). Cooperation with other firms in the value chain is very common and often said to be one of the most beneficial forms of collaboration (Aldrich, Reese, & Dubini, 1989; Australian Institute for Commercialisation, 2011; Birley, 1985; Dollinger, 1985; Farr-Wharton & Brunetto, 2007; Granovetter, 1973, 1982; Gulati et al., 2000; Hoang & Antoncic, 2003; Madsen, 2007; Robinson & Stubberud, 2011; Teece, 1986; Uzzi, 1997). Liao, Welsh and Stoica (2003) note that the most important knowledge is likely to come from customers and competitors, and previous research has shown that new product development tends to be more successful when customer needs are clearly defined (Campbell & Cooper, 1999; Lukas & Ferrell, 2000; Mavondo, Chimhanzi & Stewart, 2005). Overall, innovative firms have been found to be significantly more networked with customers and with universities than the average firm (Fisher, Polt & Vonortas, 2009).

Although small businesses dominate the economic landscape in most countries, they also are the most likely to face difficulties in innovating on their own. Cooperating with partners is one way that SMEs can engage in innovation despite their limited resources. The following section presents the methodology and results of this study on the partners most often used by small businesses for innovation.

METHODOLOGY, RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This study analyzes data from the Eurostat Community Innovation 2008 survey (Eurostat, 2011) to examine the cooperative partners used by small businesses (10-49 employees). Data regarding a variety of innovative activities during the 2006-2008 time period were collected. The survey included the 27 EU Member States, plus Iceland and Norway, but this study concentrates on the 8 countries for which complete data were available. Only those firms that had been engaged in innovation activities are included in this study. According to Eurostat (2011), innovation activity includes the introduction of new or significantly improved goods or services or processes based on new technological developments, new combinations of technologies that already exist, or new ways of utilizing other knowledge acquired by the enterprise. Organizational and marketing innovation is also included. Enterprises that have abandoned or delayed innovation activities are included as innovators.

Table 1 presents the data showing the number of small firms that had engaged in technological cooperation for innovation during 2005-2008. Table 2 presents the percentage of the firms included in Table 1 that had cooperated with particular partners. Therefore, Table 2 refers to those companies that stated they had engaged in cooperation for innovation.

Table 1: Firms Engaged in Innovation Cooperation (Eurostat, 2011)

Country	Number of small firms	% of small firms engaged in cooperation for innovation
France	6 606	38.2%
Netherlands	2 333	34.8%
Austria	1 420	32.1%
Poland	1 619	29.5%
Czech Republic	1 524	25.1%
Germany	9 676	17.0%
Spain	2 930	14.7%
Italy	5 529	13.1%

Table 2 shows the percentages of small businesses that cooperated with various partners, including suppliers (suppliers of equipment, materials, components or software), customers (customers or clients), universities (universities or other higher education institutions), within their own group (other enterprises within your own enterprise group), competitors (competitors or other enterprises of the same sector), consultants (consultants, commercial labs, or private R&D institutes), and government (government or public research institutes).

Table 2: Partners For Innovation

Country	Suppliers	Customers	Univ.	Own group	Competitors	Consultants	Gov't
Poland	81.8	52.1	21.0	12.1	32.1	23.7	20.2
Netherlands	76.0	58.1	29.8	29.4	29.3	32.0	22.7
Czech Republic	71.1	64.5	38.4	30.1	44.4	37.9	21.2
Italy	57.8	33.4	24.9	11.1	32.7	41.7	7.5
France	56.5	42.9	24.7	37.3	23.4	24.8	18.1
Austria	52.1	40.3	41.6	31.9	25.7	31.1	13.3
Spain	43.6	24.2	26.9	13.3	17.8	21.4	31.2
Germany	32.9	56.8	48.0	34.4	25.5	31.4	17.5

Suppliers were consistently the most commonly cited cooperative partner for innovation across countries, with only Germany ranking customers, rather than suppliers, first. Customers were the second-most popular partner for five of the countries. Customers were third for Italy, where consultants were popular with 41.7% cooperating with them, and third for Austria, where universities partnered with 41.6% of the small businesses engaged in innovation. In France, other enterprises in one's own enterprise group ranked third with 37.3%, suggesting that small businesses involved in innovation there were part of larger groups. Overall, there were trends that were common over most countries, such as the popularity of suppliers and suppliers as partners, but no single partner was cited at a high level by all countries. The highest "lows" were seen in the proportions of small businesses that used suppliers and customers. For example, while suppliers ranked fourth in Germany, 32.9% of small businesses cited using them as a partner. This was higher than the largest proportion partnering with government, which was found in Spain (31.2%).

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study show that most businesses that are engaged in innovation cooperate with at least one partner in some way. Overall, suppliers and customers were the most frequently named partners for cooperation, consistent with studies by the Australian Institute for Commercialisation (2001). It is logical for suppliers to cooperate in innovation because they are likely to directly or indirectly benefit from sales related to any innovations that come about as a result of the partnership. Customers are also logical partners because they benefit from innovations as their needs are met in a better way (von Hippel, 1988). In fact, the development of improved products and services that attract customers and meet their needs is often the goal for innovation (Charan & Lafley, 2008; Liao et al., 2009). Organizations that seek to increase innovation in small businesses might find it productive to help them by discovering and cooperating with external sources, especially those in their current supply chain. If SMEs do not understand the benefits of cooperation, or have difficulty finding appropriate partners, these issues could be dealt with, possibly leading to greater innovation for these companies.

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ANALYSIS OF IRANIAN CURRENCY VERSUS DOLLAR

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ABSTRACT

In this work the Iranian currency (Rial) and the exchange rate for one Dollar in terms of Rial from January 1962 through January 2011 has been studied. This exchange rate has been studied during three periods of time. The events of nearly the last 30 years are bringing the value of Iranian currency to a disastrous condition. Inflation in Iran and international sanctions are effective conditions that are influencing the exchange rate and as a result they are bringing Iranian currency to collapse. Regression analysis is performed to predict the exchange rate through year 2020. Several recommendations are made.

INTRODUCTION

The Iranian currency (Rial) follows the exchange rate on a daily basis. In this work the Iranian currency has been studied. In particular, the exchange rate for one Dollar in terms of Rial that is 1/10 of one Toomaan from January 1962 through January 2011 has been studied.

History: According to Axworthy (2008) people lived on the Iranian plateau as early as 100,000 BC. In addition, the oldest-known wine jar, Zoroaster, Cyrus (Kurosh), Darius, Ester, and Persepolis (City of Persians) are associated with Iran and Iranians.

In 1912 the British navy switched from coal to oil for more efficiency. Under D'Arcy concession oil was discovered in 1908 in southwest Iran according to Axworthy (2008). The Revolution of 1905-1911 was followed by Pahlavi dynasty and Reza was crowned in 1926 in a country of twelve million (Axworthy, 2008). Expansion of the army, improvement of transport infrastructure, production of textiles, tobacco, sugar, expansion of education (from55,131 in 1922 to 457,236 in 1938) are due to Reza Shah according to Axworthy (2008).

In 1934 Reza Shah visited Kemal Ataturk (the supreme authority in Turkey), and the visit symbolized the parallel between the two regimes (Axworthy, 2008). In 1935 the name of Persia changed to Iran "Land of the Aryans."

British Exploitation of oil was providing only sixteen percent of profit to Iran. After 1933 this share of profit was increased to twenty percent and the duration of concession was extended to 1993 (Ansari, 2007). In 1941 British and Soviet took over Iran and Reza Shah abdicated in favor of his son Mohammad Reza Pahlavi and went to exile in South Africa in 1944 according to Axworthy (2008). Under Mohammad Mossadegh, prime minister, leadership in 1951 Majles voted to nationalize Iranian oil (Axworthy, 2008). In 1953 Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) under the coup code name Operation Ajax and with British Secret Intelligence Service (SIS) arrested Mossadegh and Shah returned according to Axworthy (2008).

In 1963 the Shah set the land reform as the White Revolution. This was encouraged by the John F. Kennedy administration (Price, 2005). The White Revolution included land reform, privatization of state factories, female suffrage, and a literacy corps by young educated people in the countryside (Price, 2005). From 1963 to 1970 the *Gross National Product* (*GNP*) rose from $200 to $2,000. Number of children in primary schools went from 1.6 million in 1953 to 4 million in 1977; and universities and college students' enrollment rose from 24,885 to 154,215. Moreover, the number of Iranian students in foreign universities grew from 18,000 to 80,000; and the number of hospital beds went from 24,126 to 48,000. The Shah bought more Chieftain tanks from United Kingdom than the British army owned according to Axworthy (2008). In 1971 the Shah was granted the title of Arya Mehr (the light of Aryans) by the parliament and the Shah declared "Cyrus, rest assured, we are awake" (Price, 2005). On January 5 and 6, 1979 in the island of Guadeloupe Valery Giscard d'Estaing, the president of France, President Jimmy Carter of United States, German Chancellor Helmut Schmidt, and British Prime Minister James Callaghan met (Milani, 2011). On January 16, 1979 Shah left Iran.

According to Mousavi (2002) in 1999 in the United States about 84 percent of Iranian speak English and are employed, 46 percent hold B.Sc. and higher degrees, and about 43 percent have top professional and management positions. The average annual income of Iranian is $55,000, and 92 percent have private homes.

Nuclear Energy: The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) has found no evidence of an Iranian nuclear weapon program. However, after the discovery of Arak and Natanz in 2002, the IAEA could no longer be confident that there were no more undeclared nuclear activities in Iran according to Axworthy (2008).

Oil: This is one of the largest sources of *income for Iran and it deserves to be discussed in detail. Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries* (OPEC) was established in 1960 (http://www.opec.org/opec_web/en/about_us/24.htm) with five founding members: Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Venezuela. At the present time OPEC has 12 member countries.

According to http://www.wtrg.com/prices.htm in 1972, the price of crude oil was below $3.50 per barrel.

The following table shows the price of oil per barrel set by OPEC since 1999.

1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
17.48	27.60	23.12	24.36	28.10	36.05	50.64	61.08	69.08	94.45	61.06	77.45	107.46	110.13

In 2008, after the beginning of the longest United States recession since the Great Depression the oil price continued to soar. Spare capacity dipped below a million barrels per day and speculation in the crude oil futures market was exceptionally strong. Trading on NYMEX closed at a record $145.29 on July 3, 2008.

It is worth mentioning that the three longest United States recessions since the Great Depression coincided with exceptionally high oil prices. The first was due to the 1973 oil embargo that started in November 1973 and the second was in July 1981. Both recessions lasted 16 months.

The third recession began in December 2007 and lasted 18 months. Charts similar to the one at the right have been used to argue that price spikes and high oil prices cause recessions. There is little doubt that price is a major factor. http://www.wtrg.com/prices.htm

International Sanctions: Since 1979 the United States has imposed a number of sanctions against Iran due to Iran's support for terrorism and its nuclear weapons program. At the present time the United States as well as the United Nations (UN) and the European Union (EU) have imposed numerous sanctions on Iran. United States Department of Treasury Office of Foreign Assets Control (OFAC) informs that companies and individuals in breach of the sanctions are considered to be aiding a foreign entity hostile to the United States and its allies, and are liable to major penalties including criminal prosecution. In **2010,** the Comprehensive Iran Sanctions Accountability and Divestment Act (CISADA) was passed. Moreover, on July 12, 2012, additional sanctions were placed on another 11 entities and four individuals under Executive Order 13382.

Iranian currency: The Rial is the unit of Iranian currency that is one tenth of Toomaan (or [Toman]). The value of Iranian currency is moving downward since the revolution of 1979 in such a way that in practice the public calls a 1,000 Toomaan bill just one Toomaan. This suggests that one of the future solutions for valuation of Iranian currency is removing three zeros from the bill or print a new bill with such ratio in value.

Statistical Analysis and comparing methods:

According to International Monetary Fund (IMF) the exchange rate for one Dollar in terms of Rial from January 1962 through January 2011 can be discussed during the following three periods.

Several models for regression analysis such as Linear, Logarithmic, Inverse, Quadratic, Cubic, Compound, Power, S or S-curve, Growth, Exponential, and Logistic were employed.

Forecasts:

2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020
15620.0	18085.2	20939.4	24244.1	28070.4	32500.5	37629.8	43568.6	50444.7	58406.0

Considering that at this time the value of one Dollar unofficially is about 22000 Rials which was nearly 67 Rials in 1975, that is the value of Dollar versus Rial has approximately increased by 328 times! If the Rial is compared with Japanese Yen during the same period, the value of Yen versus Rial has increased by nearly 1200 times. The exchange rate for one Dollar in terms of Yen from January 1960 through January 2011 was studied by Haque, Saba, (2011).

The value of Iranian currency Rial is moving downward versus Dollar since the revolution of 1979 in such a way that in practice the public calls a 1,000 Toomaan bill just one Toomaan. This suggests that one of the future solutions for valuation of Iranian currency is removing three zeros from the bill or print a new bill with such ratio in value.

Conclusion: This trend of loss of value for the Iranian currency versus Dollar cannot continue unless several measures can be realized. Inflation in Iran and exchange rate are bringing its currency to collapse. Several recommendations will be made to correct the current economic, international, and social issues that may help slowing down or reversing the downward trend of Iranian currency (Rial).

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RISE TO LEADERSHIP: AN EVALUATION OF PREDICTORS OF TANZANIAN MAASAI WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

Within the Tanzanian tribal culture, very few Maasai women have been able to reach leadership roles within the pastoral semi-nomadic culture. Yet changes are taking place within sub-Saharan Africa as modern society influences traditional tribal culture, providing a new direction for Maasai women to succeed in areas of politics, and corporate and non-profit leadership. Maasai women are mostly illiterate with limited opportunities and incomes of $1000 or less per year (Fraser, Brown, Wright, & Kiruswa, 2012; World Bank, 2006). Yet in spite of hindrances some women rise to roles of corporate, non-profit, and political leadership. Of the women who rise to leadership positions, how do they describe the factors enabling them, how do education, having a mentor and structural variables empower them? Survey research was conducted in northern Tanzania to gather data from 99 Maasai women using the Mentor Roles Instrument (Raggins and McFarlin, 1990). Logistic regression in SPSS was used to evaluate education level, having a mentor, fewer roles outside work, and having a non-arranged marriage. The sample had standardized betas from -.13 to .50 and significance of .00 to 0.3. The model provided support for having a mentor, arranged marriage and fewer roles outside work. The model did not support independent predictor variable, education level. It was not significant in this population. The findings and conclusions provide insight into empowerment factors and hindrances to these women.

Keywords: Maasai women, sub-Saharan Africa, Tanzania, women's issues, leadership

INTRODUCTION

Women leaders in Africa have been largely invisible in scholarly research (Nkomo & Ngambi, 2009). There is a developing body of literature on how women in Africa rise from poverty to leadership roles. "There is relative consensus across the publications in terms of factors impeding African women's access and ascent to leadership and management. Those factors are early socialization, limited educational attainment, multiple roles, gender stereotyping, subtle discrimination, and organizational policies and procedures" (Nkomo &

Ngamo, 2009, p. 55). Pressing African women's issues like mentoring, work, family, and sexual harassment are systemically underrepresented in literature. (Nkomo and Ngamo, 2009).

The Maasai of Tanzania are a marginalized pastoral semi-nomadic group (www.Loocip.org) with a median income less than $1,000 per year (World Bank, 2006). Maasai women are identified as marginalized as a community that lives below the level of interest and concern of Tanzanian society; they are hidden from the discursive articulations (Fraser, Brown, Wright, & Kiruswa, 2012). Maasai women are mostly illiterate, without access to formal education unless approved by men (who often do not value education); male elders decide if women will be funded or allowed to attend formal schooling (Fraser, et al., 2012). Yet in spite of hindrances, some Maasai women succeed to roles of political, corporate and non-profit leadership. Of the women who rise from poverty; how do they describe the factors enabling leadership, and how do education, mentors, and structural variables hinder or empower them?

These women have little opportunity for leadership, although a small percentage of the women do rise to be leaders. Women's hindrances literature is divided into three main areas of why these women remain hindered from leadership: (a) governmental and structural hindrances (Tripp, 2003, 1989; Shayo, 2005); (b) education and marriage opportunity (Sadie, 2005; Kritz & Makinwa-Adebusoye, 1999), and (c) cultural, gender discrimination and tribal practice (Nikomo & Ngambi, 2009).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Political leadership by women is increasing in part due to the Tanzanian government encouraging of women's involvement and laws related to the quota system. Governmental policies are increasing women's participation in politics (Rose, 2011; Wedgwood, 2005). Most African governments have ruled that women will compose 30% of elected government positions but enforcement is sporadic (Sadie, 2005). Factors inhibiting women's political participation: (a) lack of education and leadership training, (b) lack of political support for women, (c) male dominated structures, (d) lack of women mentors, (e) gender discrimination, (f) financial resources (Shayo, 2005).

Women's rise to leadership in business private economic sector and NGO positions is also hindered by: (a) cultural and traditional gender norms, (b) finances, (c) gender discrimination (d) women's time use as family providers, (d) lack of education, (e) women's mindset toward leadership, (e) lack of mentors, (f) lack of financial support (Ellis, Blackden, Cutura, Kaimba, 2008, Mac Culloch, & Seabens, 2007).

The aforementioned initiatives and structural changes are providing factors that enhance women's chances to rise to leadership roles. The following federal laws, initiatives and governance changes enable and empower women to become leaders in the commercial or private marketplace: (a) Tanzanian National Development Vision 2025 Goals, (b) 2005 National Strategy for Gender Development, (c) Tanzanian Constitutional reform to prohibit gender bias,

(d) Maasai legal and property rights, (e) Tanzanian education requirements (MWEDO, 2006; Ellis, Blackden, Cutura, Mac Culloch, & Seabens, 2007).

Education

Literature on education in Africa is a much studied an important variable in women's rise from poverty (Tripp, 2003; World Bank, 2004). World bank studies in Africa show completion of primary school increases income levels 100% and secondary school up to 400% over not completing primary, for example (World Bank, 2004). Tanzanian rural education available to the Maasai is of low quality (Wedgwood, 2005) and does not empower the women's rise to leadership as private education might. Education in Tanzania is an example of a country where near 100% enrollment in primary schools (reached in 1990s) yielded little apparent benefit; and now only 60% of children attend primary schools (Tripp, 2007; Wedgwood, 2003).

Mentor

Theory on African women who have risen to leadership roles are enabled by having a mentor; seventy percent of leaders in Kenyan education were found to have influential mentors (Kipsoi, Kindiki, and Kimengi, 2012). Further they conclude that mentors provide critical support to emerging women leader. Kram (1983) describes the nine benefits of the mentoring relationship as (a) protection, (b) challenging tasks, (c)counseling, (d) coaching, (e) friendship, (f) sponsorship, (g) exposure, (h) acceptance, (i) role model.

Number Of Roles

The idea that poverty is related to the time available to be devoted to economic pursuits is not new and time poverty and income poverty reinforce each other (World Bank, 2006). The drudgery of the many domestic tasks carried out primarily by women (in the case of Maasai) reduces time for economic opportunity task (World Bank, 2006. If the Maasai woman has little time or energy to devote to career leadership aspirations the opportunity is reduced. "Poor households depend heavily on their members' time and labor for the provision of goods and services that are essential for their well-being and survival. When faced with severe time constraints, and lacking the economic resources to access market substitutes, these households may have to resort to making tradeoffs…" (Kes & Swaminathan, 2006, p. 16). SSA Women carry out the majority of subsistence farming, water fetching, childrearing and household chores. Further there is a gender difference; that sub Saharan woman carry the domestic burden on non-income producing labor reducing their time for other roles (Kes & Swaminathan, 2006).

Arranged Marriage

Theory on arranged marriage reveals an important variable because of its impact on the women of the Maasai and it is identified as an under studied area in sub Saharan Africa (Archambault, 2001). Arranged marriage is a traditional Maasai practice that limits the choice of girls to control their own destiny (Archambault, 2001). It is being impacted by international law and societal change (Hogdson, 2002). It is an emotionally charged issue that is most often portrayed as conservative pastoral patriarchs running over the individual rights of young girls (Archambault, 2001).

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

H1: Formal education and having a mentor are both positively related to attainment of leadership positions by Maasai women.

H2: Arranged marriage and increased roles are both negatively related to attainment of leadership positions by Maasai woman.

METHOD

The research looked at women in East South Africa, to expand existing theory applied to women in other similar African sociocultural settings. The participant Maasai women were a convenience sample chosen for the study will be from both leaders and non-leaders. They were assigned to group one or group two for analysis based on if they hold a leadership position or not. A power level of .80 was chosen for the chosen independent variables with a significance level of .05 and R^2 below 12 (Creswell, 2009).

Participants

Participants for these convenience samples were from the four districts surrounding the Maasai lands in Northern Tanzania. The four districts in northern Tanzania have a large population of 300,000 Maasai; concentrated along Tanzania and Kenya border (uiowa.edu, 2012). Biases expected to be found in this research are, (a) response bias from the female Maasai women not filling out or completely filling out the questionnaire; (b) the research advocates an action agenda for marginalized women (Kemmis and Wilkinson, 1998) and to inform policy makers, (c) advocacy bias some women are expected to have opinions they want policy makers to hear.

Data Collection

The first sub-sample was taken at women's leadership conferences in Arusha. The second sub-sample was from a visit to rural villages in Longido. The data was collected via survey instrument July 2012 with a paid interpreter. The Participants were selected for this study based on their ethnicity (Maasai), gender (female), age (25-40 years old), and geographical location (Northern Tanzania). The age criteria were selected because in Maasai society age is a factor in selection to leadership (Fraser et al., 2012). The researchers obtained 102 (99 complete) responses that were from a wide range of educational backgrounds as possible. The participants started their lives journey in traditional, pastoral Maasai families. Privacy and rights of the participants were honored in accordance with the ethical guidelines (Winston, Fields, and Cabanda, 2011; Creswell, 2009). The Tanzanian Maasai women's research instrument obtained with permission from Raggins and Cotton (1999) was reviewed for the face and internal validity of the added demographic questions by the Maasai review panel in Longido. The instrument was pilot tested by administering it to five Maasai participants during the weekend of June 23, 2012

Research Design

The independent variables obtained from sub Saharan African theory on women's' rise from poverty to leadership includes(a) formal education, (b) having a mentor, (c) increased roles outside work, (d) arranged marriage. Formal education, increased roles and arranged marriage were measured in the demographic section provided with the Mentor Roles Instrument. Mentor support was measured with the Mentor Roles Instrument on a 7 point Likert scale.

Age is an important social and leadership factor in Maasai society therefore it was included in the demographic data questions.

Measures

The survey instrument, Mentor Role Instrument (MRI), is taken in its entirety from Raggins and Cotton (1999) and is found in appendix 1. It is used with permission of the author. In the Tanzanian Maasai version questions 1 -11 are demographic questions tailored by a Maasai panel for use in this study. The MRI employs a 7 point Likert like scale from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree). The 33-item MRI was developed via confirmatory factor measures each of Kram (1985) nine mentor roles. The MRI also measures parent and social interactions as gender related issues where protégé regards the mentor as a parent figure and avoiding cross gender interaction (Raggins and Cotton, 1999). "The MRI has proven reliability and preliminary evidence of validity (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990)…coefficient alphas for the eleven mentor roles ranged from .63 to .91" (Raggins & Cotton). The majority of coefficient alphas are above .80. The MRI was translated from its original English language to Kiswahili by a PhD translator and then back translated by a separate translator for verification by the researcher.

RESULTS

In preparation for running SPSS binary logistic regression on the data for the model; intercorrelation of model variables was tested using SPSS. Direct logistic regression using IBM SPSS software was performed to assess factors related to the likelihood that Maasai women rise to leadership positions. The model used four independent variables (education level, arranged marriage, roles outside work, mentor roles). Mentor roles was composed of two parts, (a)developmental, and (b) psychosocial roles). The full model containing the predictor variables was statistically significant, Chi Square, X2 (7, N=99)= 22.93, p< .001, which indicated the model distinguished between those who reported leadership positions and those who reported they had no leadership position. The model had a pseudo R^2, accounted for and explained 27.6% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in leadership roles and correctly identified 69.7% of the cases. As shown in Table 1, three of the independent variables made a unique contribution that was statistically significant to the model (roles outside work, mentor career roles). The strongest predictor of attaining a leadership position was arranged marriage 2.times. Roles outside work, recording an odds ratio of 1.6, indicated that participants who were leaders were 1.6 times more likely to have fewer roles outside work.

Table 1: Variables in the Equation

	Arranged	.921	.489	3.556	1	.05	2.513
	Roles Outside	.473	.208	5.160	1	.02	1.605
	Education	-.213	.597	.128	1	.72	.808
	Mentor Roles	.036	.013	8.167	1	.00	1.037
	MC Psychosocial	.001	.009	.014	1	.91	1.001
	Constant	-4.084	1.261	10.490	1	.00	.017

Significance level 0.05

This indicated that participants who were leaders were over twice as likely to have fewer roles outside work. It supported H1 that having mentor support is a predictor of leadership role attainment and failed to provide support for education as prediction Maasai women's rise to leadership. The small sample sizes resulted in quite wide odds ratios for age, education, and arranged marriage. H2 was supported for arranged marriage and supported for roles outside of work as predictors.

DISCUSSION

The Maasai women's' leadership prediction model derived from African theory was to provide a prediction of key variables in rising to leadership. The model predicted from theory enablers of Maasai Women Leadership in Tanzania. The results provide valuable information to those trying to understand the needs and how to enhance opportunity for the Maasai. This study used convenience samples from the Arusha District of Tanzania. The generalizability of this study is limited since it was not random or representative of the general larger Maasai population. It does however provide some insight into the study group. Their needs should be evaluated in future research by those who desire to help them.

For example education was seen in the results as non-significant, not a clear predictor of the rise to leadership. In the literature review several factors were presented for possible causes (World Bank, 2006), including education quality in Tanzania varies and rural education is often of lesser quality than in urban areas. Resource allocation is one area where a better understanding of the factors would enable sub Saharan policy makers to allocate scarce resources.

The roles outside work and mentor career roles with age as a control were seen as significant. The strongest predictor of attaining a leadership position was roles outside work, recording and odds ratio of 2.15; age (1= 20s and 30s year olds) as a control had an odds ratio of 1.95. This indicated that participants who were leaders were over twice as likely to have fewer roles outside work. Thus it supported H1 that mentor support is a predictor but the regression failed to provide support for education as predictor for Maasai women's rise to leadership. No odds ratios were less than 1(except education). H2 was supported for arranged marriage. H2 was supported for roles outside of work as a predictor.

The resulting statistical analysis provides a picture of how theory may extend to Maasai women who overcome hindrances to rise to leadership. Factors in how these women are empowered to rise to leader roles needs further research. Tremendous changes are taking place in sub-Saharan Africa as traditional tribal cultures are impacted by modern society. For the women of this study what factors helped them and how do they describe their rise to leadership. The lessons learned will provide vital input to policy makers trying to help them.

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GENDER AND THE INTERNATIONALIZATION OF SMES

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ABSTRACT

The research in this paper presents the findings of a fieldwork looking at the internationalization behavior of small and medium sized enterprises in the agricultural and manufacturing sectors in the Jamaican economy. The work was aimed at understanding the impact that gender has on the internationalization of these SMEs. Hitherto this work, not many papers in the internationalization discourse focused on the role of gender in the decision making process. This is especially so in small and developing economy context where gender issues are more critical than in larger developed societies. Using the logistic regression model, this paper analyzed the impact that gender has on the export behavior of 92 SMEs in Jamaica. The results show that it is firm size not the gender of the entrepreneur or the age of the firm that is most important in the internationalization decision making. The policy implications of the work are also noted.

Key words: Gender, Exporting, Internationalization, Small and medium sized enterprise (SMEs).

INTRODUCTION

The internationalization of small and medium sized enterprise has received a significant amount of attention since the work of McDougall & Oviatt (1991). In their early work, McDougall & Oviatt (1991) observed that international new ventures, which are classified as businesses that from inception, seek to derive a significant competitive advantage from the use of resources and the sale of output in multiple countries (McDougall et al, 1994) were becoming a huge phenomenon in the entrepreneurship field. The research in this area took off with a large body of work focusing on the age and size as determining factors in the internationalization thrust of small firms (Williams, 2009, 2011; Leonidou, et al 1998, Dana, 2004 etc). Other areas of work focused on strategies firms use for internationalization, Bell et al, 2004; Crick, 2004), resource profile required for internationalization (Brush et al, 2002).

However, a significant variable that has not been studied in a consistent way, especially in developing countries, is the role of gender in the internationalization process. With women owned SMEs accounting for a significantly larger number of firms than male owned SMEs, but yet only a small number of female-owned SMEs are engaged in exporting, it is critical to study the impact that gender has on the internationalization process of these firms. As such, the work in this paper will try to answer the following research question: What is the impact of gender on the export propensity of Small and Medium Sized Firms in Jamaica?

THE RESEARCH METHOD

To motivate this study, a model which captures the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable had to be found. The normal linear regression model is not suitable given that it produces values greater than 0 or 1, which represent the probability of the dependent variable occurring. In other words, it will present misleading probabilities since the values will be greater than 1. As such, a model of the qualitative genre had to be found. The selected model is the logit model. The logit model provides the probability of the event occurring and also take into consideration, the fact that the data is not derived from a normal population. This is important as it does not violate the normality assumption of the error term. Indeed, the logit model provides similar results to that of other qualitative models such as the probit model and as such, it does not make a different which model is chosen (Gujarati, 2003).

The specific form the model took is as follows:

$$Y = ß_1¥ + ß_2Ø + ß_3Þ+\varepsilon \quad \textbf{(1)}$$

Where Y is the odds of the firm becoming an exporter, that is, its export propensity

¥ is the size of the firm

Ø is the age of the firm

Þ is the gender of the owner of the firm

ε is the error term

Model 1 is estimated to produce some answer to the research question posed in this paper.

The research variables

The variables used in this research are: the age of the firm, the size of the firm, the gender of the entrepreneur and, the dependent variable, export propensity. These variables were taken from previous work on the subject in order to enhance the reliability.

The research sample and data collection

The data for this researcher were collected from a survey of 92 firms in the agriculture and manufacturing sectors in the Jamaican economy. For the purposes of this research, small and medium enterprise was measured as firms having 100 or less employees. This definition is in keeping with previous works which showed that for exporting to take place, a minimum of 100 employees gives sufficient capacity to the firm (Crick, 2002).

The list of firms for this study was taken from the JAMPRO export directory which consists of over 400 firms in the export business. A list of over 300 non-exporters that have the potential to export was aslo consulted for this study. These non-exporters have also worked with JAMPO. JAMPRO is the country's premier export organization. As such, all companies that are involved in exporting must pass through this organization. Therefore, the data from here is comprehensive. All the firms in the export directory were contacted given the small size of the population. A total of 44 exporter and 48 non-exporters responded positively to the request to be interviewed for this study.

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to understand the impact that the gender of the owner of small and medium sized firms have on the internationalization behavior of these firms. Gender is a widely ignored issue in the study of internationalization behavior of small firms but, the literature shows that gender does impact on the resource capabilities of the firm and by extension, the ability to internationalize. To shed light on the research question, the data were analysed using the logistical regression model (logit), given the dicothomous nature of the dependent variable. Table 1 below presents the results from this analysis.

Table 1: Results from the Logit Model

Variables	B	Wald	P-value
Constant	-.45	.56	.45
Firm Age	-.01	.35	.56
Firm Size	.03	7.2	.01*
Gender of Entre	-.10	.05	.83
Nakelkerke R^2	.13		
Hosmer and Lemeshow χ^2	11.68(8)**		

Dependent Variable: Export Performance
*= significant at the 5%level
**= variable not significant p-value is (0.17)

The results show that firm size not age or the gender of the entrepreneur is what explains the internationalization behavior of the small firms in Jamaica. This result is consistent with previous works in the area (Leodiou & Katsikeas, 1996; Leonidou, et al, 1998, Williams, 2009).

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

The work presented in this paper argues that it is firm size not the gender of the owner of the firm nor the age of the firm that is most critical for the internationalization activity of the small firm. The findings add to the general body of literature that looks at the internationalization of firms but which generally ignores the gender variable. The result from this research is an addition to this rich literature. Further, the novel context in which the work was done, adds some uniqueness to the results. Jamaica is a context in which the issue of gender and internationalization of the firm has not been studied before. This new context will add a rich perspective to the literature.

While the results from this research are robust as indicated by all the diagnostic statistics generated from the logistical regression model, it is still not clear how the external validity of the work will turn out. As such, future researchers should consider extending the work to other jurisdictions, especially other small economies like those of the Jamaica such as Barbados, Trinidad, Seychelles, Malta among others. This comparative work will no doubt, help to improve the external validity of the findings.

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WHY DO ENTREPRENEURS WORK?: A COMPARISON OF LITHUANIA, UKRAINE, AND MALAYSIA

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ABSTRACT

In this study we examine the latest Meaning of Working data from Lithuania, Ukraine, and Malaysia. There are strong differences in the meaning of working between entrepreneurs from these three countries. In all three countries those who work for Social reasons has a negative impact on their income as does those who primarily work for Pay. In Lithuania the greatest positive impact on income was intrinsic satisfaction as it was in Ukraine as well. In Malaysia the greatest positive impact on income was a Sense of Obligation although those with a strong sense of obligation also tended to come from large multigenerational organizations.

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