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Preface

The Global Journal of Management and Business Research (GJMBR) is pleased to present this issue, bringing together a curated collection of high-quality research papers that explore diverse facets of management science, business strategy, and economic theory.

This issue features research spanning topics including administration & management, economics & commerce, finance, accounting & auditing, marketing, real estate, tourism management, and interdisciplinary business studies. Each paper has undergone a rigorous double-blind peer-review process to ensure analytical rigor and originality.

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to the authors for entrusting their research with us, to the reviewers for their thorough and constructive evaluations, and to our readers for their continued engagement with the scholarly discourse.

We hope that the research presented herein inspires further inquiry and contributes meaningfully to the advancement of knowledge in management and business.

The Chief Editor
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Table of Contents

GLOBAL JOURNAL
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Energy Transition and Sustainable Development in GCC Countries: Strategic Pathways and Policy Implications

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Abstract

Purpose- This paper aims to highlight the importance of energy transition in shaping the future development of Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. The region's heavy reliance on non-renewable energy sources-primarily oil and natural gas-poses significant risks to long-term economic stability and development sustainability. In addition, the paper examines the environmental impact of fossil fuel consumption, including greenhouse gas emissions, air pollution, and ecosystem degradation. It examines the increasing threat of climate change as a global and regional challenge. By exploring these dimensions, the paper promotes a strategic shift toward renewable energy adoption and sustainable energy alternatives across the GCC. Design/Methodology/Approach- This paper uses both descriptive and analytical methodologies to analyse the role of energy transition in advancing sustainable development. Drawing on data published by international organisations and national governments, the paper critically assesses the strategic benefits of enhancing renewable energy capacity. It explores how transitioning to cleaner energy sources contributes to environmental sustainability, economic resilience, and social equity, while identifying key policy measures and institutional frameworks that facilitate this transformation. Findings- The existing literature on Energy offers extensive insights into the dynamics of energy transition and the crucial role that renewable Energy plays in shaping long-term sustainability. Building on this foundation, our findings underscore the positive impact of Energy transition on environmental management practices. Specifically, the shift toward green energy sources contributes to reducing ecological degradation, enhancing resource efficiency, and mitigating climate-related risks-thereby reinforcing the broader imperative of safeguarding planetary health. Originality/Value- The originality of this paper stems from its focused analysis of the energy transition and its implications for the long-term sustainability of Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. It provides a timely and comprehensive examination of recent governmental initiatives across the region aimed at accelerating the shift toward renewable energy sources and enhancing environmental protection. Furthermore, the paper engages with contemporary debates surrounding the urgent environmental imperative for clean Energy, situating the GCC's transition within broader global discourses on climate resilience and sustainable development.

climate change mitigation | economic resilience | environmental sustainability | institutional capacity | policy frameworks | sustainable development

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Keywords: *climate change mitigation, economic resilience, environmental sustainability, institutional capacity, policy frameworks, sustainable development*

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1. INTRODUCTION

The energy transition is essential for a sustainable future in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries, including Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, and Bahrain. For decades, economic development in these countries has been shaped by revenues from conventional energy sources, mainly oil and gas, promoting economic growth and improving living standards. Income from energy production and export has constituted the bulk share of government expenditure on development initiatives, highlighting the sector's central role in national economies. Public investment has catalysed growth across multiple sectors, stimulating job creation and enabling significant infrastructure development. As a consequence, the contribution of the public sector has enabled governments to exert considerable influence over all dimensions of human development.

However, fossil fuels are finite resources, and continued reliance on them poses significant threats to environmental health, climate stability, and long-term sustainability. Energy remains a cornerstone of economic progress and a critical enabler of capacity-building for a resilient future. In 2024 alone, global energy demand rose by 2.2% with electricity demand increasing by 4.3%, outpacing global GDP growth. More than 80% of this demand came from emerging economies, emphasizing how energy access directly fuels development. At the same time, renewables accounted for 38% of new energy supply, highlighting their growing role in building resilient, future-ready economies.

Participation in the 21st-century global economy, shaped by innovative technologies and the Fourth Industrial Revolution, will increasingly depend on the adoption of renewable energy sources and the deployment of smart infrastructure. It is therefore vital for GCC countries to accelerate their energy transition efforts to harness emerging technologies and mitigate the risk of economic and technological stagnation. Although renewable investments are accelerating, the region must overcome regulatory fragmentation, inconsistent policy incentives, and the absence of unified regional energy markets to fully unlock the potential of clean energy.

Goal 7 of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) emphasizes universal access to affordable, reliable, and sustainable energy. Achieving this goal not only ensures energy availability but also catalyses progress across other Sustainable Development Goals, including poverty alleviation, reduction of inequalities, education, health, and environmental protection. Estimates suggest that meeting SDG 7 will require annual global investments in energy transition ranging between USD 4.2 and 4.5 trillion (IEA, 2025). This highlights the initiatives undertaken by GCC countries to diversify their energy portfolios, reduce dependence on fossil fuels, and advance sustainable development. The energy transition presents strategic opportunities, particularly for nations with limited conventional energy reserves, to meet domestic energy demands and support inclusive growth. The declining cost of renewable technologies in recent years has further incentivised investment in clean energy solutions. Additionally, the paper explores the potential impact of energy transition on sustainable development in the Gulf region and its role in enhancing these countries' capacity to engage competitively in the global economy of the 21st century.

The purpose of this paper is to address a critical gap in the existing literature on energy transition, particularly within the context of the GCC. By offering new analytical insights and evidence, the study contributes to a deeper understanding of the region's transition dynamics and challenges. The findings aim to support policymakers in designing effective strategies, while also enriching the knowledge base available to students and researchers working on energy transition and sustainable development.

2. ENERGY TRANSITION: A PATH TO SUSTAINABILITY

Energy is a key driver of development, shaping economic, social, political, and environmental dimensions. Historically, the advancement of human civilisations has been closely tied to the ability to harness diverse energy sources—enhancing human capabilities and enabling the generation of income and wealth. Energy has empowered societies to innovate, create new products, eradicate poverty, boost productivity, and even venture beyond our planet. In today's context, isn't easy to envision how nations can effectively confront environmental challenges or make meaningful progress toward sustainable development without a reliable and sufficient energy supply. Investing in the energy transition opens the door to diverse opportunities — driving economic growth, reducing environmental pollution, strengthening energy security, building human capabilities, and attracting foreign direct investment. The recent thrust in energy transition is driven by the urgent need to protect the planet, reduce reliance on fossil fuels, diversify energy sources, and promote long-term sustainability.

Energy transition refers to the systemic shift from fossil fuels—such as oil, gas, and coal—toward renewable energy sources to ensure energy security and promote sustainable development. It encompasses a transformation in how energy is produced, distributed, and consumed. It is defined as the "shift from relying on fossil fuels to using clean, renewable energy sources like wind, solar, hydropower, and biomass. This transition is essential for reducing greenhouse gas emissions, combating climate change, building energy security into the system globally, and creating a sustainable energy system. It involves not only generating electricity from renewables, but also transforming other sectors, like transportation and heating, to use clean energy. The ultimate goal is to build an energy system that is environmentally friendly, reliable, resilient and fair for all. It represents a fundamental transformation in how we power our homes, businesses, and societies." (University of Cambridge, 2025). Diversifying the energy mix helps mitigate geopolitical risks and supply disruptions, and this shift is driven by policy reform, technological innovation, and environmental stewardship. In the case of the Gulf countries, the energy transition is a strategic foundation for diversifying economic structures and building the infrastructure of an innovative, knowledge-driven economy. It generates strong forward and backward linkages by creating demand for outputs across multiple industries while also serving as a key input for most productive sectors. This stimulates domestic markets for manufacturing, capital equipment, construction, and related services. Consequently, investment in energy transition positions these countries to advance the three core priorities of a modern energy system: sustained economic development and growth, reliable energy access and security, and long-term environmental sustainability (World Economic Forum, 2020b).

Importantly, energy transition is not solely about environmental protection or mitigating future supply risks—it represents a transformative shift in how humanity generates and utilises power. In recent years, technological advancements in energy systems have significantly improved our ability to extract energy from natural resources. Looking ahead, continued innovation holds the potential to reshape our world, offering a cleaner environment and a healthier planet. Recent advancements in digital technologies are making energy systems more intelligent, connected, reliable, efficient, and sustainable. These technologies can accelerate the deployment of transformative solutions across sectors, driven by innovative and resilient energy infrastructure. Across all market activities, digital tools enhance energy efficiency and reduce operational costs. If countries strategically invest in appropriate technologies, they can unlock substantial benefits. Technologies that leverage local resources can mitigate economic disruption, reduce global dependence, and strengthen sustainable capacity. (Al-Roubaie, 2018)

Governments in the Gulf region must formulate effective strategies for a sustainable future that address current challenges and offer solutions to reduce dependence on fossil fuels while minimising exposure to market vulnerabilities. Such a strategy should support a long-term transition toward a sustainable energy supply that can meet future demand for affordable, reliable, and low-carbon energy. Public policy also has a critical role in building institutional and human capacity to support emerging models enabled by technological innovation, improved access to energy information, and global collaboration. Leveraging the opportunities created by smart technological innovation, digital services, social networks, and globalisation will be essential for accelerating this transition. (IEA, 2017)

Energy transition strengthens national adaptability, mitigates market vulnerabilities, and underpins sustainable development. The urgency to move away from fossil fuels should catalyse increased investment in renewable energy derived from inexhaustible natural resources. Strategic efforts must promote the adoption of innovative technologies, expand access to financing, and strengthen international partnerships to meet the rising demand for clean energy. Building capacity for renewable energy requires coordinated collaboration between the public and private sectors. The private sector contributes through capital investment and technological innovation, while governments play a vital role in creating enabling environments and offering incentives to attract both domestic and foreign firms. Such conditions are essential for launching and scaling new renewable energy projects. Currently, fossil fuels account for approximately 80% of global energy consumption. In contrast,

renewable energy sources comprised about 18% of the total energy mix in 2023. Within the electricity sector, the share of renewables is projected to rise from 30% in 2023 to 46% by 2030, with most of this growth driven by solar and wind technologies (IEA, *2024*).

Despite this progress, the benefits of renewable energy remain unevenly distributed. More than 2 billion people still rely on polluting and hazardous energy sources—such as firewood, charcoal, and other traditional fuels—for daily cooking needs. In sub-Saharan Africa, least-developed countries have an average installed renewable energy capacity of only 40 watts per capita, compared to 1,100 watts per capita in developed nations (World Bank Group, 2025). Key barriers to equitable access include insufficient financing and inadequate infrastructure. Urgent reforms to the global financial system are needed to ensure that developing countries receive fair and adequate support to expand clean energy access and achieve sustainability goals.

Energy availability is strongly correlated with economic growth and rising living standards, as it fuels market activity and drives productivity. Investment in energy transition infrastructure fosters localised knowledge creation, technological innovation, job generation, and industrialization. As the World Economic Forum notes: "Delivering a sustainable, secure and equitable energy future in a multi-speed world requires more than coordination—it calls for careful navigation of complex trade-offs and a rethinking of how policies, markets and institutions interact. Key structural shifts are needed to facilitate adaptation to diverse starting points, resource endowments and transition capacities." (World Economic Forum 2025, P. 43).

Energy demand is shaped by a range of interrelated factors, including population growth, economic expansion, urbanisation, rising living standards, environmental pressures, policy frameworks, and technological innovation. These forces influence both the supply and demand for green energy, affecting a country's capacity to produce and adopt environmentally sustainable solutions. Green energy—sourced from renewables such as solar, wind, hydro, and wave power—offers a cleaner alternative to fossil fuels by addressing climate change, reducing pollution and waste, and fostering innovation across sectors. According to IEA, renewables accounted for the largest share of the growth in total energy supply (38%), followed by gas (28%), oil (11%) and nuclear (8%) in 2024. (IEA, 2025)

Energy transition plays a pivotal role in enhancing energy security, mitigating climate change, and improving the efficiency of Earth's natural resources. With the global population currently at 8 billion and projected to reach 10 billion by 2050, transitioning to sustainable energy sources is essential for meeting basic human needs and supporting continued economic growth. Sustainable energy practices are critical to protecting biodiversity and preserving the planet's capacity to support life. Nearly 55% of global GDP—estimated at US$58 trillion—is derived from activities linked to the natural environment and its services, rising from US$44 trillion in 2020. The planet's deteriorating health represents a profound threat to human survival, undermining the very foundation of our future sustainability. (PWC, 2023)

A significant challenge facing many countries is securing energy to meet domestic demand while ensuring universal access to affordable and sustainable energy and minimising its contribution to climate change. For developing nations, energy is critical for increasing production, generating income, and advancing human development. It also plays a vital role in reducing the adverse health impacts associated with the use of fuelwood, coal, and agricultural waste. In these contexts, access to clean and affordable energy is a prerequisite for building the capabilities needed to reengineer development and sustain future growth. The energy transition enables countries to enhance energy security by shifting from traditional fossil fuels to more reliable and environmentally friendly sources. Energy resources are generally classified into two categories: renewable and non-renewable. Renewable energy is derived from natural sources that replenish continuously, ensuring an indefinite supply. Familiar sources include solar, wind, hydro, hydrogen, and biomass. These energy forms offer several advantages, including mitigating climate change, producing minimal pollution, and delivering reliable and affordable power.

Transitioning to cleaner energy sources is indispensable for meeting basic human needs and fostering inclusive economic growth. The energy demand is shaped by multiple factors, including population growth, urbanisation, rising living standards, environmental degradation, government policy, and technological advancement. These forces collectively influence a country's capacity to produce and sustain clean energy. Renewable energy offers environmentally friendly solutions by addressing climate change, reducing waste and pollution, and encouraging innovation. According to recent research by the London Stock Exchange Group (LSEG), the amount of investment required to effectively address climate change is unprecedented. Their analysis estimates that achieving global climate goals—particularly those aligned with a net-zero pathway—will demand cumulative investments ranging from US$109 trillion to US$275 trillion by 2050. LSEG's 2024 and 2025 green economy reports emphasise that this investment surge is essential not only for mitigating climate risks but also for unlocking new economic opportunities. The green economy already generates more than US$5 trillion in annual global revenues, and the projected investment flows will accelerate its growth and structural transformation. (Dai, 2025) Investing in the energy transition is far more complex than simply scaling up renewable energy or deploying new low-carbon technologies. As Daniel Yergin argues, the transition demands a fundamental restructuring of the energy systems that support the world's US$100 trillion economy. This includes transforming the physical infrastructure, supply chains, market structures, and geopolitical relationships that have been built over more than a century around fossil fuels. Yergin highlights that the global economy is deeply intertwined with existing energy foundations—oil, gas, and coal—which currently supply around 80% of the world's energy. Shifting away from this entrenched system requires substantial amount of investment in new infrastructure, new approaches to energy security and greater cooperation between developed and developing countries. (Yergin, 2022)

Global investment in the energy transition reached an unprecedented $2.4 trillion in 2024, representing a 20% increase over the 2022–2023 average. The most rapid expansion occurred in electric vehicles, where spending rose 33% to $763 billion, and in solar power, which grew 49% compared to previous benchmarks. Overall renewable-energy investment also strengthened, climbing from an average of $662 billion in 2022–2023 to $807 billion in 2024. In the United States, the transition is especially notable: 92% of new electricity-generation capacity expected this year and next is projected to come from clean energy sources. (Neufeld, 2025)

The energy transition plays a crucial role in improving the well-being of current generations while safeguarding the ability of future generations to meet their own energy needs. However, many developing countries remain heavily reliant on traditional energy sources—such as biomass, agricultural waste, and fossil fuels—that undermine environmental quality, threaten public health, and weaken long-term economic resilience. This dependence is

often reinforced by structural challenges, including limited access to affordable financing, inadequate technological infrastructure, and insufficient institutional capacity to adopt and scale modern energy solutions. As a result, progress toward cleaner and more sustainable energy systems in these regions remains slow, despite the significant social and economic benefits that such a transition could unlock.

Designing reliable and affordable energy model that is tailored to local environmental, economic, and social conditions is fundamental to minimising pollution, reducing resource waste, and supporting long-term sustainability. Such design is especially important in regions where climatic variability, geographic constraints, and socio-economic disparities shape energy demand and supply options. At the same time, the intensifying global debate over climate change, energy security, environmental degradation, energy poverty, and the pressures of economic growth has heightened expectations for an energy model capable of delivering clean, accessible, and dependable power for all. Governments, international organisations, and communities are increasingly recognise that energy is not merely a technical sector; it is a foundational driver of human development, social equity, and national resilience.

The success of the energy transition in sustaining future growth and protecting ecosystems depends on the policies and strategies adopted both locally and globally. In an interconnected world, international collaboration is essential not only for an inclusive transition but also for addressing shared global challenges. Energy transition is key to promoting sustainable energy systems and building resilient economies grounded in equity and justice. As the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA) notes, "Renewables can provide a more secure alternative to fossil fuels by increasing the diversity of energy sources through local generation, thus contributing to system flexibility and improving resistance to shocks." (IRENA, 2020, P.59)

Currently, 1.1 billion people—14% of the global population—lack access to electricity. Additionally, 2.8 billion people, primarily in developing countries, rely on traditional energy sources such as biomass and inefficient technologies, which harm human health, contribute to climate change, and degrade ecosystems. Without clean and affordable energy, it will be impossible to mitigate pollution and achieve sustainable development. Recent advancements in renewable energy technologies have significantly reduced costs affordability, especially for developing countries where technical, financial, and managerial capacities are often insufficient. These cost reductions have opened new opportunities to invest in clean energy, reduce uncertainty about future energy needs, and protect the environment.

3. SUSTAINABLE ENERGY

Sustainable energy encompasses natural sources that cannot be depleted over time and can meet human needs without risking exhaustion. It offers a pathway to reduce dependence on finite resources and meet global energy demands indefinitely. Sustainable energy is defined by three key characteristics: renewable - originates from sources like sunlight and wind that naturally replenish, clean - produces minimal pollutants and greenhouse gases, making it safer for both the environment and human health, and impact – causes little or no harm to ecosystems, habitats, and communities, thereby preserving biodiversity and natural landscapes. (AQ Energy, 2024)

Despite these advancements, millions of people —primarily in developing countries—still face unreliable and unaffordable energy sources. In these countries, limited access to clean energy worsens inequality, poverty, public health challenges, and deforestation. Globally, electricity as a clean and reliable energy source is projected to increase from 30% in 2023 to 46% by 2030, with solar and wind driving most of this growth (IEA, 2024, p.14). A successful energy transition must ensure equitable access to safe, affordable energy, enabling inclusive development and progress toward the Sustainable Development Goals. Countries with limited energy supply should leverage existing solar and wind resources to build renewable electricity capacity. By 2030, renewables are projected to supply half of global electricity demand. Electricity is a cornerstone of development and a powerful tool for poverty alleviation. The rapid evolution of the worldwide energy transition—propelled by innovation, climate action, and sustainability imperatives—demands supporting environments that foster investment in energy research, technology transfer, effective regulatory frameworks, digital competencies, and robust public-private partnerships. Countries with limited energy supply should capitalise on their solar and wind potential to expand renewable electricity generation.

For many countries—especially those with limited technical and financial resources—building capacity for renewable energy remains a significant hurdle, i.e. the transition is not without challenges. Traditional energy sectors may face job losses, requiring workers to acquire new skills and undergo continuous training to meet evolving market demands. Battery storage technologies are emerging as critical solutions, enabling the storage of renewable energy to address shortages and meet fluctuating demand. These innovations pave the way for sustainability and enhance the potential for smart cities and global energy self-sufficiency. In contrast, conventional energy models generate waste and pollution, contributing to climate change. In short, achieving a successful transition, energy policies must be mainstreamed into economic, industrial, labour, educational and social policies (IRENA, 2020).

Access to global markets and international collaboration is essential for facilitating knowledge exchange, attracting foreign direct investment, and encouraging multinational enterprises to establish operations, particularly in developing regions. Public-private cooperation plays a pivotal role in risk-sharing, joint research and development, entrepreneurship promotion, and driving sustainable transformation. Similarly, regional collaboration is vital for exchanging expertise, understanding market dynamics, and evaluating the developmental impact of energy transition across borders. Joint initiatives can support the creation of intelligent energy systems that ensure future energy security, stimulate cross-border economic growth, and create employment opportunities. Globally, the energy sector is projected to employ 100 million people by 2050, including 7.3 million in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region. Of these, 42 million jobs are expected to be in renewable energy, with MENA accounting for 2.1 million—roughly 5% of global employment in renewables. In contrast, employment in conventional energy sectors is anticipated to decline, with the MENA region facing a 25% reduction in fossil fuel-related jobs by 2050. (IRENA, 2020)

A viable business model for the future must be rooted in a transitional energy system that protects the environment, guarantees affordable energy access, and promotes inclusive economic development. Such a model enhances national capabilities, fosters entrepreneurial ecosystems, sustains long-term growth, and advances equity. The energy transition also catalyzes the emergence of new industries in manufacturing, research and development, digital technologies, and innovative urban infrastructure—marking the shift toward a post-oil economy. However, a successful business model for the future must be anchored in a transitional energy system that safeguards the environment, ensures affordable access to energy, and promotes inclusive economic growth. Such a model enhances

human capabilities, stimulates entrepreneurship, sustains long-term development, and promotes equity. The energy transition also catalyses the emergence of new industries across manufacturing, research and development, digital technologies, and smart cities—ushering in a post-oil era.

To be effective, an energy transition model must be built on three strategic pillars: international collaboration, integrated policy frameworks, and inclusive innovation ecosystems (IRENA, 2024). Implementing these pillars will reinforce the foundational dimensions of sustainable development: economic viability, social equity, and environmental protection. In this context, the energy sector must be integrated with the broader socio-economic system, recognising the interdependence between energy and economic development. Energy is a key driver of productivity, job creation, poverty alleviation, and the diffusion of innovation. Investments in renewable energy strengthen cross-sectoral linkages, drive technological advancement, and expand overall market activity. These linkages attract both domestic and international firms to invest in productive ventures, increasing demand for inputs across the energy sector and the broader economy. As emphasised by *IRENA*: "Energy is an integral part of the economy, interacting with every other economic sector, affecting relative wages and generating income to be spent in other sectors. Thus, labour impacts of the transition reach beyond the energy sector." (IRENA, 2020, P.148).

Over the past three decades, renewable energy technologies have become significantly more efficient, affordable, and reliable—enabling many countries to produce clean energy at lower costs. This transformation offers new opportunities for nations with limited energy resources to adopt advanced technologies and build capacity for sustainable development through accessible and cost-effective means. Many developing countries possess abundant, perishable natural resources that can be harnessed continuously at minimal cost. By leveraging these assets, they can accelerate their energy transition, reduce dependency on fossil fuels, and unlock pathways to inclusive and resilient growth.

4. ENERGY TRANSITION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Energy derived from conventional sources—including oil, gas, and coal—has shaped the economic trajectory of nations since the onset of the Industrial Revolution, generating both positive and negative externalities. Fossil fuels have long powered the rise of modern civilisations, fueling industrial growth, technological innovation, higher living standards, and rapid urbanisation. However, they are also responsible for many of today's environmental crises, contributing to approximately 70% of global greenhouse gas emissions and being linked to one in five deaths worldwide (Living Planet Report, 2024). In light of these consequences, investing in renewable energy is imperative to mitigate the harmful effects of fossil fuels on human societies and reduce the risk of environmental degradation. Achieving this objective requires coordinated international efforts to reimagine the global energy system and scale up investment in renewable energy production. Such efforts are essential to securing a sustainable energy supply and reversing the adverse impacts of fossil fuels on biodiversity.

The concept of sustainable development, as defined in Our Common Future by the World Commission on Environment and Development, is "a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development and institutional change are all in harmony and enhance both current and future potentials to meet human needs and aspirations" (United Nations, 1987, p. 46). At its core, sustainable development seeks to balance essential human needs—such as food, water, energy, and shelter—with the preservation of the natural environment. Energy plays a pivotal role in enhancing human capabilities to safeguard ecosystems and contribute to long-term sustainability. Human activity has already significantly altered 75% of terrestrial and 66% of marine environments (World Economic Forum, 2020a).

Human needs are primarily met through natural resources, many of which are non-renewable and require careful, efficient use to ensure continued availability. Simultaneously, the natural environment offers abundant renewable sources that can be cultivated to enhance the ecosystem's carrying capacity and support human survival. Sustainable energy refers to inexhaustible resources found in nature—such as solar, wind, hydro, biomass, and geothermal—that can be used repeatedly without risk of depletion. In contrast, fossil fuels are finite; once consumed, they are irretrievably lost.

Sustainable energy systems not only foster economic transformation and ensure energy security but also safeguard the environment. According to the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), global GDP is projected to grow from $125 trillion in 2020 to approximately $270 trillion by 2045, with India and China accounting for 37% of global income. Concurrently, global energy demand is expected to rise from 275.4 million barrels of oil equivalent per day (mboe/d) in 2020 to 352 mboe/d by 2045. Meeting this surge in demand while sustaining development will depend heavily on the availability and scalability of renewable energy sources. The contribution of renewables to global energy demand is projected to increase from 6.8 mboe/d in 2020 to 36.6 mboe/d by 2045, positioning them as the most significant contributor to the future energy mix. (OPEC, 2021)

To secure future energy supplies and preserve ecosystems, energy systems must evolve to become more diverse, sustainable, and accessible—particularly for populations in low-income countries. Clean and reliable energy should be universally available, and emerging business models must address waste reduction at both local and global levels to promote equitable resource distribution. For example, while 30–40% of all food produced is wasted, millions continue to suffer from hunger. If current consumption patterns persist, by 2050 the planet would require the equivalent of 7.42 Earths to sustain lifestyles like those in Argentina, 6.83 for Australia, 5.55 for the United States, 2.94 for South Africa, 0.90 for Indonesia, and 0.85 for India (*Living Planet Report*, 2024). The global food system alone accounts for 82% of agricultural land use, 90% of deforestation, 70% of freshwater withdrawals, and 86% of species at risk of extinction (Living Planet Report, 2024). To ensure food security, annual investment must rise to between US$390 billion and US$455 billion. These initiatives will succeed only if the natural environment is protected from degradation and climate change through investment in green energy and the adoption of environmentally friendly technologies. The energy transition must align with environmental protection—especially in developing countries—to enhance human capabilities, reduce pollution, minimise waste, and preserve ecosystems.

Over the past few decades, substantial investment has been directed toward the energy transition. Global renewable energy capacity has doubled, and the costs of solar and wind energy have declined by up to 85%. Nevertheless, rising energy demand will require annual investment in renewables to triple—from an estimated US$1.5 trillion in 2022 to US$4.5 trillion by 2030. This increase is critical to curbing environmental degradation, protecting ecosystems from further deterioration, and ensuring that the planet's carrying

capacity continues to support sustainable and affordable access to basic needs.

In the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) region, governments have announced a collective investment of US$100 billion in renewable energy projects by 2030, aiming to diversify energy sources and reduce dependence on fossil fuels. Despite their vast renewable energy potential, only 0.6% of electricity in the GCC is currently generated from renewables (Carbon Credits, 2025). The energy transition offers these countries a pathway to achieving future policy goals, including reducing dependence on fossil fuel, ensuring secure and reliable energy, expanding inclusive access to electricity, and promoting sustainable development. Recent advances in technological innovation and declining costs are making the energy transition increasingly cost-effective, enabling climate-risk mitigation and supporting long-term sustainability.

5. GCC: STRATEGIC INITIATIVES FOR ENERGY TRANSITION

The Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries play a pivotal role in the global energy market, producing approximately 30 million barrels of oil per day and holding over 30% of the world's proven oil reserves. Historically, oil revenues have transformed these nations into modern economies with high living standards and robust socio-economic development. Today, the GCC states possess abundant renewable resources—particularly solar, bioenergy, hydrogen, and wind—that can be harnessed through cost-effective technologies to support energy transition and reduce dependence on fossil fuels. In addition to these natural advantages, they have the financial and technical capacity to develop nuclear energy through the establishment of nuclear power plants. Strategic investment in energy transition enables these countries to meet future energy demands while maintaining their status as major global energy producers. Among them, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) leads the region, accounting for approximately 60% of total renewable energy capacity and over two-thirds of regional investment in renewable energy initiatives.

Despite their energy wealth, heavy reliance on oil revenues poses long-term risks to energy security and sustainable development. Continued production and consumption of fossil fuels will inevitably deplete reserves, underscoring the urgency of diversifying energy portfolios. Regional governments have begun to embrace alternative energy technologies and reinvest oil income into renewable energy initiatives. Encouragingly, several Gulf states have launched ambitious plans to expand their energy mix, adopt innovative technologies, and reduce carbon emissions. Sustaining growth will require meeting the needs of growing populations, creating employment opportunities, reducing inequality, and fostering economic resilience.

The Gulf region's ability to harness innovative technologies—propelled by the Fourth Industrial Revolution—depends on its capacity to invest in innovation, research and development, institutional reform, and human capital. Currently, most GCC countries are consumers rather than producers of emerging technologies. Localising technology is essential to improving efficiency and enhancing domestic capabilities, enabling nations to benefit from the energy transition and support sustainable development fully. (Al-Roubaie, 2017) Technological advancements have already improved the efficiency of the global energy system by 7%, measured by the total energy required to meet end-use demand (Energy Institute, 2025).

To accelerate progress, GCC countries must jointly develop a transition model driven by a transformative agenda that promotes public-private partnerships, regional collaboration, knowledge creation, and investment in R&D. The natural environment should be central to this agenda—reducing dependence on fossil fuels, enhancing energy security, promoting regional development, and sustaining economic growth. For success, transformative decisions must be inclusive and collectively agreed upon, ensuring that all citizens benefit from the new energy paradigm. This requires well-crafted policies that offer incentives, funding, digital infrastructure, innovative technology adoption, and skilled workers. Human capital plays a decisive role in shaping the energy transition. Educational institutions must be actively involved in training, reskilling, research, and industry collaboration. Building a skilled workforce is essential for scaling renewable energy and securing a sustainable future. With shared environmental and natural characteristics, GCC countries can leverage comparative advantages in energy production, distribution, and use. As the World Economic Forum emphasises, "Policy-makers and private sector actors must work together and seize the opportunities to build the foundation for a resilient energy transition—one that not only ensures long-term sustainability but also delivers inclusive growth and long-term prosperity" *(*World Economic Forum *2021, P.43).*

The potential for renewable energy in the Gulf is vast. Strategic investment in renewables positions these countries to become future leaders in the production and export of clean energy. Harnessing energy from natural sources not only capitalises on the region's resource abundance but also benefits from the sharp decline in the costs of solar and wind technologies. Between 2010 and 2019, the cost of solar energy fell by 85%, while wind power declined by 55%. These reductions make renewable energy more affordable and accessible, supporting a sustainable future. Moreover, clean energy investments have become both economically viable and environmentally essential. Policy intervention will be critical to facilitate energy transition, ensuring that affordable and sustainable technologies are acquired and adapted to build intelligent energy systems.

For GCC countries, investing in energy transition science is especially urgent, given their reliance on non-renewable energy sources. Over the past several decades, economic growth in the region has been driven by revenues from fossil fuel production and exports. In 2023, oil and gas revenues accounted for 34% of GDP in Saudi Arabia, 30% in the UAE, 38% in Oman, 35% in Kuwait, 39% in Qatar, and 26% in Bahrain—making these economies heavily dependent on external sources to finance development. Transitioning to renewable energy is therefore not just a strategic choice; it is a necessity for economic stability and long-term sustainability. (Gulf Investment Corporation 2024)

Across the region, governments must invest in renewable energy to reduce economic dependence on fossil fuels. Strategic initiatives should lay the foundation for an efficient transition to clean energy. In recent years, Gulf governments have increasingly partnered with private firms to diversify energy portfolios and achieve sustainability goals. They can also leverage existing technologies from other regions to develop domestic capabilities in solar panels, wind turbines, and energy storage systems—reducing reliance on conventional energy and supporting long-term sustainability. The UAE and Oman have set net-zero targets for 2050, while Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, and Kuwait have committed to achieving net-zero emissions by 2060.

GCC countries view energy transition both as a challenge to their oil-based economies and as an opportunity to secure future energy supplies and stimulate economic growth. Their dependence on oil revenues remains substantial: approximately 56% in Saudi Arabia, 61.8% in Bahrain, 68% in Oman, 50% in the UAE, and 87%

in Kuwait (KAMCO Invest 2024). This fiscal reliance underscores the vulnerability of these economies to global oil price fluctuations and market volatility, which can disrupt budgetary planning, public investment, and long-term development strategies. Instability in international oil prices and uncertainty surrounding future energy demand underscore the urgency of diversifying energy sources. Reducing economic vulnerability and ensuring supply security require proactive policy interventions, strategic investment, and regional cooperation. (Al-Sarihi, 2025)

Recognising this risk, GCC governments are increasingly positioning energy transition as a strategic imperative—not only to diversify their energy mix but also to future-proof their economies. The shift toward renewables offers a pathway to reduce fiscal exposure, enhance energy security, and unlock new sectors for innovation and employment. It also aligns with broader national visions—such as Saudi Arabia's Vision 2030 (Peninsula, 2025) and the UAE's Energy Strategy 2050—which emphasise sustainability, technological advancement, and economic diversification. (TDRA, 2025)

Moreover, the energy transition presents an opportunity to reconfigure the region's development model by investing oil revenues into high-impact sectors such as clean energy infrastructure, green hydrogen, smart grids, and energy storage systems. These investments can catalyse industrial transformation, attract foreign direct investment, and foster regional leadership in emerging energy markets. By leveraging their financial capacity, natural resource endowments, and strategic geographic location, GCC countries can become global hubs for renewable energy innovation and export.

However, the success of this transition ultimately hinges on each country's ability to implement coherent policy frameworks, strengthen domestic capabilities, and cultivate the human capital needed to sustain long-term progress. It will also require inclusive governance mechanisms that ensure the benefits of energy transition are equitably distributed across society—particularly among youth, women, and marginalised communities. In this context, energy transition is not merely a technical shift but a socio-economic transformation that must be managed with foresight, resilience, and regional cooperation.

Financially, all Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) nations possess the capacity to accelerate investment in clean energy, thereby ensuring future energy availability, affordability, and resilience. The success of the energy transition hinges on these economies' ability to reduce reliance on conventional sources—primarily oil and gas—and embrace renewable alternatives such as solar, wind, hydro, wave, and hydrogen energy. Unlike non-renewable resources, which are depleted faster than they can be naturally replenished, renewable energy comes from sources that regenerate over time, providing a sustainable pathway to long-term energy security. Fossil fuels, formed over millions of years, are finite and increasingly vulnerable to geopolitical and market disruptions. Their substitution with clean, inexhaustible alternatives is both an environmental necessity and an economic imperative.

Governments across the Gulf are adopting a dual energy strategy: leveraging the current fossil fuel-driven economy while simultaneously expanding investments in clean energy technologies. This approach enables them to maintain competitiveness in global energy markets while gradually building domestic capacity for renewable energy production. It also reflects a pragmatic recognition of the need to balance short-term economic stability with long-term sustainability goals. (Al-Roubaie, 2019a)

Expanding clean energy infrastructure not only mitigates environmental risks but also opens new avenues for industrial diversification, job creation, and technological innovation. By leveraging their financial strength, natural resource endowments, and strategic geographic position, GCC countries are well-placed to emerge as global leaders in renewable energy production and export—so long as they continue investing in institutional reform, human capital development, and inclusive innovation ecosystems. Their ability to diversify energy portfolios, scale clean-energy infrastructure, and attract international partnerships will further determine the pace of this transformation. Moreover, sustained commitment to research, local manufacturing, and technology transfer will be essential for building long-term competitiveness in the global green economy.

5.1. Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia is rapidly transforming its energy landscape through bold investments in renewable energy, aligning with Vision 2030 and its Net Zero 2060 pledge. The Kingdom aims to generate 50% of its electricity from renewables by 2030, reducing reliance on fossil fuels and curbing carbon emissions. Central to this effort is the Saudi Green Initiative, which aims to add 58.7 GW of renewable capacity, including solar, wind, and green hydrogen projects. (Climate Scorecard, 2025)

Flagship developments include the Sakaka Solar Plant (300 MW) and the Dumat Al Jandal Wind Farm (400 MW), both operational and contributing to the national grid. NEOM, the futuristic city in northwest Saudi Arabia, is set to become a global hub for clean energy, with plans for a $5 billion green hydrogen facility powered entirely by renewables. Additionally, the Renewable Energy Project Development Office (REPDO) is overseeing competitive tenders for solar and wind farms nationwide, attracting global investors and developers. Saudi Arabia is also investing in grid modernisation, energy storage, and smart metering to support the integration of intermittent renewables. These efforts reflect a strategic shift toward sustainability, economic diversification, and regional leadership in the global energy transition.

Artificial intelligence (AI) is a strategic pillar in Saudi Arabia's energy transition. The $500 billion NEOM project is designed to operate entirely on intelligent energy systems powered by renewables. AI plays a central role in producing, distributing, monitoring, and managing infrastructure, enabling digitally driven services across transportation, healthcare, security, and other sectors. As an intelligent system, AI analyses real-time data to optimize infrastructure performance and predict malfunctions before they occur, reducing operational risks. Across economic sectors, AI facilitates predictive maintenance, identifies consumption patterns, and enhances energy efficiency—strengthening system reliability, balancing supply and demand, minimising waste, and lowering costs.

5.2. United Arab Emirates

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) has emerged as a regional pioneer in renewable energy development, driven by its updated UAE Energy Strategy 2050 and a commitment to achieving net-zero emissions by mid-century. Central to this vision is the Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum Solar Park in Dubai, the world's largest single-site solar park, which aims to reach 5,000 MW capacity by 2030. As of early 2025, commissioned projects at the park already deliver 2,860 MW through photovoltaic and concentrated solar power technologies, with the sixth phase underway. The park also hosts the region's first solar-powered green hydrogen pilot, positioning the UAE at the forefront of hydrogen innovation. (Government of Dubai, 2023)

Nationally, the UAE plans to triple its renewable energy share and increase installed clean energy capacity from 14.2 GW to 19.8 GW by 2030. These efforts are backed by AED 150–200 billion in planned investments, targeting a 30% clean energy mix and the creation of

50,000 green jobs. Wind energy, smart grids, and solar-integrated urban planning further diversify the energy portfolio, while entities like DEWA and Masdar lead implementation through public-private partnerships and international collaborations. The UAE's approach blends infrastructure with policy reform, technological innovation, and global diplomacy.

5.3. Oman

Oman has made significant strides in advancing renewable energy as part of its national strategy to diversify its energy mix and achieve net-zero emissions by 2050. Anchored in Oman Vision 2040, the country is accelerating its transition from a gas-dominated system to one powered increasingly by solar and wind technologies. The Authority for Public Services Regulation (APSR) and Nama Power and Water Procurement Company (PWP) are spearheading this transformation through ambitious projects and regulatory reforms.

By 2025, Oman had already commissioned central solar installations like Ibri II and Manah I & II, each with a capacity of 500 MW. Looking ahead, APSR plans to implement six large-scale renewable projects by 2027, including the Ibri III Solar Plant (500 MW), Duqm Wind Farm (250 MW), and Mahout I Wind Project (up to 400 MW). Additionally, 29 solar projects generating 1,000 MW and multiple wind farms are scheduled for rollout by 2029, culminating in a landmark 3,000 MW solar initiative by 2030. (PV Magazine 2025). To support these developments, Oman has introduced technical guidelines for small-scale solar PV systems and electric vehicle charging infrastructure, promoting decentralised clean energy adoption. The country also launched strategic studies on energy storage and demand response, ensuring grid reliability and economic feasibility as renewable penetration increases.

5.4. Kuwait

Kuwait has significantly accelerated its renewable energy agenda in alignment with its Vision 2035 and global sustainability commitments. The Ministry of Electricity, Water and Renewable Energy (MEWRE) is spearheading over 15 strategic projects under the 2025/26 development plan, including the expansion of the Subiya and Nuwaiseeb power plants and integration with the Shagaya Solar Power Plant. Notably, Kuwait aims to increase its renewable energy share from 15% to 30% by 2030 and reach 50% by 2050, as announced by the Kuwait Institute for Scientific Research (KISR). The Shagaya Renewable Energy Park, now entering its second and third phases, is central to this transition, targeting an additional 5,000 megawatts of clean energy capacity. (Arab Times, September 2025)

International collaboration also plays a pivotal role. Kuwait's ministerial committee, chaired by His Highness the Prime Minister, is actively implementing agreements with China to advance renewable infrastructure, low-carbon recycling, and environmental resilience. The Kuwait Fund for Arab Economic Development complements these efforts by financing regional green projects, including hydropower in Nepal and wind energy in Jordan. Moreover, Kuwait Sustainable Energy Week (KSEW) 2025 will convene global experts and stakeholders to foster innovation and policy dialogue, reinforcing Kuwait's role as a regional leader in clean energy transformation.

5.5. Qatar

Qatar has increasingly positioned itself as a regional leader in renewable energy innovation, aligning its national development strategy with global decarbonisation goals. Central to this effort is the Al Kharsaah Solar Power Plant, Qatar's first large-scale photovoltaic facility, which began full operations in 2022. With a capacity of 800 MW, it supplies up to 10% of the country's peak electricity demand, significantly reducing reliance on natural gas for domestic power generation. The project, developed through a public-private partnership involving QatarEnergy and international firms, exemplifies Qatar's commitment to diversifying its energy mix while leveraging its financial and technological capabilities. (TotalEnergies, 2025)

Beyond infrastructure, Qatar is investing in research and policy frameworks to support long-term sustainability. The Qatar National Research Fund (QNRF) has launched multiple initiatives to advance solar efficiency, energy storage, and smart grid technologies. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Environment and Climate Change is working to integrate renewable energy targets into broader climate adaptation strategies, including green building codes and low-carbon urban planning. Qatar also plays a diplomatic role in global energy transition dialogues, hosting forums such as the Qatar Sustainability Week and contributing to the UNFCCC process. These efforts reflect a strategic pivot: using its hydrocarbon wealth to finance a future built on clean energy, innovation, and regional cooperation.

5.6. Bahrain

Bahrain is steadily advancing its renewable energy agenda as part of its broader commitment to sustainability and carbon neutrality. By 2025, the Kingdom aims to generate 5% of its electricity from renewable sources, with a long-term target of 20% by 2035. Solar energy is the cornerstone of Bahrain's strategy, leveraging its abundant sunlight through key projects such as the 5 MW Bapco Solar Plant in Sitra, the 3 MW Bahrain International Airport installation, and the 2 MW Riffa Views residential solar system. A larger 44 MW solar initiative is also underway, signaling a significant shift in the national energy mix.

To support this transition, Bahrain has introduced net metering policies, tax incentives for solar equipment, and financing programs through Tamkeen and national banks. Public infrastructure is being upgraded with rooftop solar systems on schools, parks, and government buildings. At the same time, the Bahrain World Trade Centre stands as a pioneering example of wind energy integration, supplying 15% of its power through embedded turbines. (Bahrain Solar News, 2025). The Sustainable Energy Authority is developing a renewable energy certificate system and exploring electric vehicle integration, further aligning Bahrain's energy landscape with global decarbonization trends. These efforts reflect Bahrain's strategic vision to reduce fossil fuel dependency, enhance energy efficiency, and foster a resilient, low-carbon economy.

6. ISLAMIC FINANCE AND RENEWABLE ENERGY

The rapid expansion of Islamic financial products and services over recent decades has played a vital role in advancing green investment. This growth is driven not only by Islamic values that emphasise environmental protection, but also by broader imperatives for economic growth and sustainable development. Rooted in principles of equity, shared prosperity, and justice, Islamic finance promotes fair access to resources so that all living beings may benefit from God's bounty. Islam prohibits such practices as excessive consumption, pollution, environmental degradation, and monopolistic control to ensure that natural resources remain accessible to all species. In other words, practices that deplete shared resources, damage ecosystems, or concentrate control in the hands of a few violate the Shariah compliance by undermining social justice, ecological balance, and the rights of future generations. By discouraging over-consumption, pollution, and monopolistic behavior, Islamic

ethics promotes a sustainable and equitable distribution of resources, ensuring that all creatures—human and non-human—can benefit from the resources of our planet Earth. Investment in Islamic finance is fundamentally human-centred, aiming to generate benefits that extend to the entire society. Moreover, because it must comply with Shariah principles, investment activity is required to follow strict ethical guidelines.

Islamic financial instruments—including murābaḥah, ijārah, mushārakah, and sukūk—provide flexible, asset-backed mechanisms capable of financing green projects while remaining fully compliant with Islamic law. Among these instruments, green sukūk have advanced as a particularly powerful tool for mobilising capital toward sustainable infrastructure. Countries across the Middle East and Southeast Asia have already issued green sukūk to finance solar parks, energy-efficient buildings, and low-carbon transportation systems, demonstrating the sector's capacity to accelerate the renewable-energy transition. In GCC countries—where economic diversification and sustainability are national priorities—the synergy between Islamic banking and renewable energy is especially important. Islamic finance can help bridge funding gaps, attract global investors seeking ethical portfolios, and support national visions centred on green growth. As renewable technologies become increasingly cost-competitive, the role of Islamic banking in supporting environmental protection and green investments will continue to expand.

The ethical foundations of the Islamic financial system further reinforce its alignment with environmental protection. The concept of public interest (maṣlaḥah) and the objectives of Islamic law emphasise the protection of life, resources, and future generations. This creates a moral imperative for Islamic financial institutions to support initiatives that reduce pollution, conserve natural resources, and promote long-term ecological balance. Consequently, investments in the energy transition are not only financially viable within Islamic banking, but also deeply aligned with its core values.

The relationship between Islamic finance and the energy transition reflects a broader paradigm shift in contemporary development thinking. It moves beyond conventional growth models by embedding environmental protection and social justice into financial decision-making. Grounded in Shariah principles that emphasise equity, shared prosperity, and the ethical use of resources, Islamic finance provides a normative framework well suited to advancing sustainable energy systems. Through instruments such as green sukūk, profit-and-loss-sharing arrangements, and asset-backed structures, Islamic banking can facilitate large-scale investments in renewable energy while ensuring distributive fairness. This synergy positions Islamic finance as a transformative agent capable of shaping a more sustainable, equitable, and ethically coherent energy future (Al Roubaie & Sarea, 2019b).

Global sukuk issuance continued its upward trajectory in 2025, with total issuances rising by 12.7% to reach $264.8 billion, according to S&P Global. The GCC region accounted for 45% of this global volume, driven primarily by Saudi Arabia and the UAE, the two leading issuers in the region. Globally, Saudi Arabia ranked second after Malaysia, issuing approximately $72.5 billion, largely to finance development projects aligned with Vision 2030. The UAE followed with $22.1 billion in issuances during the same year. Looking ahead, global sukuk issuance is projected to reach $270–$280 billion in 2026. Sustainable sukuk represented a growing segment of the market, amounting to $21.1 billion in 2025, reflecting rising demand for green and environmentally focused investments across the GCC. Regional financial institutions, including the Islamic Development Bank, remain central to the expansion of sustainable sukuk. (The Arab Today, January 26; Khaleej Times, January 28, 2026)

Recent analyses by Greenpeace MENA and the Global Ethical Finance Initiative (GEFI) highlight the significant—yet underutilised—potential of Islamic finance in accelerating the global transition to renewable energy. Their report, Islamic Finance and Renewable Energy, argues that the sector's core principles—ethical investment, environmental stewardship, and social responsibility—naturally align with the objectives of sustainable energy development. By mobilising even a small share of its assets, Islamic finance could become a transformative force in closing the global climate-finance gap. The study emphasises that Islamic financial instruments such as sukūk, muḍārabah, and wakālah are well suited for long-term infrastructure investments, including solar, wind, and green-hydrogen projects. These instruments can attract both institutional and retail investors by offering transparent, asset-backed structures that avoid excessive uncertainty and speculation. (Greenpeace MENA, 2024)

Islamic finance currently manages approximately $4.5 trillion in assets. According to the Greenpeace MENA report, allocating just 5% of these assets to renewable-energy projects could unlock $400 billion in climate-aligned financing by 2030. As the report notes, "the mobilisation of Islamic finance for renewable energy not only yields significant benefits for Muslim countries but also contributes to global sustainability efforts to tackle the climate crisis. Islamic finance has the capacity to set a precedent for other ethical finance models and catalyse international collaboration in renewable energy initiatives. Furthermore, the report underscores the need for Islamic financial institutions to acknowledge the considerable investment potential within the renewable energy sector, which not only promises competitive financial returns but also generates positive social and environmental outcomes." (Greenpeace MENA, 2024, P. 6). The report highlights Islamic finance as a strategic solution for countries aiming to expand clean energy initiatives, while adhering to Shariah-compliant investment frameworks. In addition to financing, it highlights the broader developmental benefits of aligning Islamic finance with renewable energy, including reducing pollution, enhancing energy security, supporting biodiversity, and enabling climate-resilient economic growth particularly in regions with large Muslim populations and high renewable - energy potential, such as the Middle East, North Africa, and Southeast Asia (Greenpeace MENA, 2025).

7. CONCLUSION

Building institutional and technical capacity for energy transition enables GCC countries to minimise the adverse effects of cyclical fluctuations in global energy prices. Their heavy dependence on international energy markets has exposed them to price volatility, which directly impacts government spending, employment levels, and household incomes. Strategic investment in clean energy can reduce economic vulnerability, stabilise national economies, and lay the foundation for long-term sustainable development.

Historically, economic development in GCC economies has been shaped by public sector employment and state-led investments, largely financed through fossil fuel revenues. As these revenues decline, it is imperative for GCC nations to diversify their energy sources, reduce dependency on global oil markets, and enhance economic resilience. Energy transition offers a viable pathway—not only by replacing finite resources but also by stimulating industrial growth, generating employment, and supporting inclusive development. It strengthens energy security by diversifying the energy mix and reducing exposure to external shocks.

The GCC remains among the most fossil fuel-dependent regions globally, with electricity generation still dominated by oil and gas. These fuels continue to finance infrastructure and public services, yet they contribute significantly to environmental degradation, biodiversity loss, and climate change—particularly through extraction, shipping, and transport activities. A successful strategy for sustainable development must prioritise energy efficiency, clean transition pathways, and the adoption of environmentally friendly technologies. This transformation will be driven by investments in solar, wind, and green and blue hydrogen.

Governments must enact forward-looking policies that support this shift, build capacity for intelligent energy systems, and promote the emergence of intelligent, sustainable societies. Human capital development, institutional reform, and digital infrastructure will be critical to scaling renewable energy and ensuring inclusive growth. Recent growth in Islamic banking services and products could strengthen GCC countries' initiatives to build capacity for a green economy, particularly through investments in clean and sustainable energy resources. The Islamic financial system is grounded in ethical principles that align with the teachings of Islam. These principles not only promote justice and the fair distribution of income and wealth, but also prohibit the excessive exploitation of natural resources and the mismanagement of the environment. In doing so, they help protect biodiversity and support long-term sustainability.

When renewable energy technologies are tailored to the Gulf's unique climate, infrastructure, and development priorities, they can significantly enhance climate resilience, reduce dependence on fossil fuels, and protect fragile ecosystems. Such deployment approach also supports long-term economic diversification by building local expertise, promoting knowledge localisation, stimulating green industries, and fostering innovation ecosystems. Through international collaboration and adaptive technology transfer, the Gulf can position itself as a global leader in sustainable energy while securing a more prosperous and environmentally-friendly future.

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Beyond Silos: A Strategic Framework for the Integrated Nexus of Technology and Business Systems

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Abstract

This research paper explores the persistent "Digital Paradox"—the phenomenon wherein significant investments in digital technologies fail to yield commensurate strategic value for organisations. Recognising that digital and business strategies are becoming inseparable, the study develops the Integrated Strategic Nexus (ISN) framework to guide the unification of technology and business management within contemporary enterprises. Employing a rigorous qualitative mixed-methods approach, the study integrates a PRISMA-compliant systematic literature review (SLR) with multiple case studies of five multinational firms, incorporating 35 semi-structured interviews with C-suite executives. Thematic analysis using NVivo 14 software underpins the findings. Results demonstrate that "Strategic Osmosis"—the seamless absorption of technology into core business strategy—enables organisations to achieve higher integration maturity, reflected in superior strategic realisation rates, innovation velocity, and financial performance. This paper contributes original value by synthesising the Resource-Based View (RBV) with emergent digital business strategy literature to propose a robust diagnostic tool for assessing integration depth. Practical implications include a call for the reconfiguration of corporate governance, with particular emphasis on repositioning technology leaders as strategic architects. The ISN framework is validated through empirical and theoretical triangulation, offering a roadmap for organisations seeking to maximise the strategic value of digital investments.

case study | corporate strategy | digital paradox | digital transformation | integrated strategic nexus | organizational agility | qualitative methods

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Beyond Silos: A Strategic Framework for the Integrated Nexus of Technology and Business Systems

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Abstract

This research paper explores the persistent "Digital Paradox"—the phenomenon wherein significant investments in digital technologies fail to yield commensurate strategic value for organisations. Recognising that digital and business strategies are becoming inseparable, the study develops the Integrated Strategic Nexus (ISN) framework to guide the unification of technology and business management within contemporary enterprises. Employing a rigorous qualitative mixed-methods approach, the study integrates a PRISMA-compliant systematic literature review (SLR) with multiple case studies of five multinational firms, incorporating 35 semi-structured interviews with C-suite executives. Thematic analysis using NVivo 14 software underpins the findings. Results demonstrate that "Strategic Osmosis"—the seamless absorption of technology into core business strategy—enables organisations to achieve higher integration maturity, reflected in superior strategic realisation rates, innovation velocity, and financial performance. This paper contributes original value by synthesising the Resource-Based View (RBV) with emergent digital business strategy literature to propose a robust diagnostic tool for assessing integration depth. Practical implications include a call for the reconfiguration of corporate governance, with particular emphasis on repositioning technology leaders as strategic architects. The ISN framework is validated through empirical and theoretical triangulation, offering a roadmap for organisations seeking to maximise the strategic value of digital investments.

Keywords: *case study, corporate strategy, digital paradox, digital transformation, integrated strategic nexus, organizational agility, qualitative methods, resource based view, strategic governance, technology-business integration*

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1. Introduction

The contemporary business environment is characterised by volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity a condition increasingly described as "permanent turbulence" (Sebastian et al., 2017). Against this backdrop, the traditional dichotomy between technology and business management is dissolving. Historically, Information Technology (IT) was relegated to a peripheral support function, often managed in isolation from the broader strategic agenda (Bharadwaj et al., 2013). This compartmentalisation, or "siloing," resulted in limited strategic alignment and suboptimal returns on digital investments.

Recent scholarship, however, emphasises the criticality of integrating digital and business strategies. Bharadwaj et al. (2013) contend that digital business strategy is increasingly indistinguishable from overall corporate strategy, with competitive advantage emerging at the intersection of technology capabilities and innovative business models. Despite this recognised imperative, many enterprises continue to experience "Governance Drift," wherein technology initiatives are decoupled from business outcomes (Westerman et al., 2014). This drift manifests not as a technical deficit, but as a failure of leadership and integration, often exacerbated by debates over centralisation versus decentralisation of IT governance.

The literature reveals intense debate regarding the optimal locus of IT decision-making: centralisation is touted for its efficiency and standardisation, whereas decentralisation is linked to agility and innovation (Sebastian et al., 2017; Westerman et al., 2014). However, such binary approaches have proven insufficient in addressing the core challenge the need for a governance model that unifies technology and business imperatives in real time. The present study intervenes by proposing that the solution lies not in choosing between centralisation and decentralisation, but in pursuing "governance integration", a holistic alignment of technical and business domains.

This research sets out to bridge the persistent gap between digital investment and strategic value realisation a phenomenon encapsulated in the so-called "Digital Paradox." By developing and empirically validating the Integrated Strategic Nexus (ISN) framework, the paper aims to provide both scholars and practitioners with a comprehensive model for achieving deep, sustained integration between technology and business management. The ISN framework is explicitly designed to reposition technology from a cost center to a strategic asset, thereby unlocking new sources of value and competitive differentiation.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The Evolution of Digital-Business Integration

The relationship between technology and business strategy has evolved markedly over the past decade. Early approaches positioned IT as an operational enabler, distanced from the core drivers of value creation (Bharadwaj et al., 2013). However, the proliferation of digital technologies cloud computing, artificial intelligence, open source

software, and generative AI has rendered this separation untenable. Modern enterprises must now orchestrate technology and business functions as mutually reinforcing elements of a unified strategic agenda (Westerman et al., 2014; Sebastian et al., 2017; Linåker & Muto, 2025).

The literature identifies multiple frameworks for conceptualising digital-business integration. The Resource-Based View (RBV) posits that sustainable competitive advantage arises from the unique configuration and integration of organisational resources including technological assets, human capital, and business processes (Bharadwaj et al., 2013).

Recent work extends this perspective to digital resources, emphasising the importance of dynamic capabilities, agility, adaptability, and learning, as mediators of Value (Sebastian et al. 2027).

Research on open source software (OSS) adoption in the public sector further illuminates the interplay between technology policy, governance, and strategic outcomes. Linåker and Muto (2025) demonstrate that OSS is a strategic enabler of digital transformation, supporting interoperability, sovereignty, and transparency. However, they also find that the successful realisation of these benefits depends on clear policy frameworks and institutional support structures, such as Open Source Program Offices (OSPOs). This underscores the centrality of governance integration in translating technological potential into strategic impact.

Similarly, the emergence of generative AI (GenAI) presents new challenges and opportunities for requirements engineering (RE) and broader business processes (Cheng et al., 2025). While GenAI offers transformative potential for automating and optimising RE activities, its adoption is constrained by issues of reproducibility, interpretability, and trust. These challenges highlight the need for integrated governance frameworks that address both technical and organisational dimensions.

2.2. Governance Integration: From Theory to Practice

Governance integration is increasingly recognised as the linchpin of successful digital transformation. Westerman et al. (2014) argue that the failure to realise value from digital investments is rarely due to technical shortcomings; rather, it results from a lack of alignment between technology initiatives and business strategy. They advocate for a "Digital Mastery" approach, wherein organisations develop both digital capabilities and strong leadership to integrate technology with business objectives.

Sebastian et al. (2017) extend this argument, demonstrating that large, established firms must fundamentally transform their operating models to achieve digital maturity. This transformation requires the dissolution of traditional silos, the reconfiguration of governance structures, and the elevation of technology leaders such as Chief Information Officers (CIOs) and Chief Technology Officers (CTOs) to the status of core strategic architects.

Emergent frameworks for AI governance further reinforce the importance of layered, integrative approaches. Agarwal and Nene (2025) propose a five-layer model that bridges regulatory mandates, technical standards, assessment methodologies, and certification processes. Their case studies on AI fairness and incident reporting reveal that effective governance depends on the alignment of high-level principles with actionable implementation tools. This layered approach is directly relevant to the integration of technology and business systems, as both domains require structured pathways from strategy to execution.

2.3. Practical Challenges and Gaps

Despite significant advances in the literature, several challenges remain. First, there is often a lack of clarity regarding the mechanisms by which regulatory and strategic mandates are translated into operational practices (Agarwal & Nene, 2025). This gap contributes to inconsistencies in compliance, risk management, and value realisation.

Second, the integration of emerging technologies such as generative AI and OSS into business processes is often hampered by fragmented governance and limited benchmarking (Cheng et al., 2025; Linåker & Muto, 2025). Both studies highlight the need for holistic evaluation frameworks and robust metrics to assess integration depth and maturity.

Finally, the literature points to the persistent challenge of aligning diverse stakeholders, business leaders, technology professionals, regulators, and end-users, within a unified governance structure (Westerman et al., 2014; Sebastian et al., 2017). Overcoming these challenges requires not only new frameworks but also empirical validation and context-sensitive adaptation.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

To address the complexity of technology-business integration and generate actionable insights, this study employs a qualitative mixed-methods approach in three sequential phases:

1. Systematic Literature Review (SLR) A PRISMA-compliant systematic literature review (SLR) was conducted to synthesise the theoretical and empirical foundations of technology-business convergence. Following the protocols outlined by Tranfield, Denyer, and Smart (2003), the review encompassed 120 peer-reviewed articles published between 2013 and 2026, sourced from leading academic databases such as Scopus, Web of Science, and IEEE Xplore. The inclusion criteria prioritised works addressing digital strategy integration, IT governance, open source adoption, requirements engineering, and AI governance. The review process involved:

- Defining research questions and inclusion/exclusion criteria.
- Conducting a comprehensive search using relevant keywords and Boolean operators.
- Screening titles and abstracts for relevance.
- Assessing full texts for methodological rigor and thematic fit.
- Coding and synthesising findings using thematic analysis.

2. Multiple-Case Study Analysis Building on the SLR, the study employed a multiple-case study design to empirically investigate integration practices in five multinational firms identified as "Digital Masters" (Westerman et al., 2014). These organisations, drawn from the logistics, manufacturing, and financial sectors, were selected for their demonstrated digital maturity and strong leadership capabilities.

Data collection involved 35 semi-structured interviews with C-suite executives, including CIOs, CTOs, Chief Digital Officers, and board members. The interview protocol was designed to elicit detailed narratives on strategic participation, resource flexibility, alignment conflict resolution, and key performance indicator (KPI) integration. Interviewees were selected based on their direct involvement in strategic technology decision-making.

Table 1. Comparative Strategic and Financial Performance Metrics

Performance Indicator	Siloed Organisations (n=2)	Integrated Nexus (n=3)	Variance (%)	Statistical Significance (p)
Strategy Realisation Rate	38.2%	80.4%	+110.5%	$p < 0.01$
Innovation Velocity (Days)	410	155	-62.2%	$p < 0.05$
Mean Return on Equity (ROE)	9.6%	18.8%	+95.8%	$p < 0.05$
Project Abandonment Rate	46.0%	12.0%	-73.9%	$p < 0.01$
Agility Score (1-10 Scale)	3.4	8.9	+161.8%	$p < 0.01$

In addition to interviews, internal strategy documents, governance policies, and performance reports were analysed to triangulate findings.

3. Thematic Analysis and Data Synthesis Qualitative data from interviews and documents were transcribed and imported into NVivo 14 software for coding and analysis. Thematic analysis followed the six-step framework proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006):

- Familiarisation with data through repeated reading.
- Generation of initial codes reflecting key concepts and practices.
- Search for overarching themes, including "integration maturity," "strategic osmosis," and "value leakage."
- Review and refinement of themes to ensure coherence and relevance.
- Definition and naming of themes.
- Synthesis of findings to inform the development of the ISN framework.

Quantitative performance data (e.g., strategy realisation rates, innovation velocity, return on equity) were extracted from company reports and benchmarked across case organisations. Statistical significance was assessed using appropriate tests (e.g., t-tests) to validate observed differences between siloed and integrated firms.

4. Results and Analysis

4.1. The Integrated Strategic Nexus (ISN) Framework

Analysis of the case studies and literature synthesis led to the development of the Integrated Strategic Nexus (ISN) framework. The ISN conceptualises the integration of technology infrastructure, business strategy, and organisational culture as overlapping gears within a dynamic feedback loop. At the point of intersection—the "Nexus"—value is generated through real-time data sharing, joint decision-making, and continuous alignment of technical and business objectives.

Visual Description: The ISN framework is represented by three interlocking gears labeled "Technology Infrastructure," "Business Strategy," and "Organisational Culture." The central intersection the Nexus serves as the locus of value creation, where information flows seamlessly and decisions are co-owned by technical and business leaders.

4.2. Comparative Performance Metrics

Table 1.1 presents average strategic and financial performance indicators for siloed versus integrated organisations, based on data from the five case study firms.

Analysis of Table 1.1:

The data reveal a pronounced performance gap between siloed and integrated organisations. Notably, the strategy realisation rate in integrated firms more than doubles that of siloed counterparts (80.4% vs. 38.2%, $p < 0.01$). Qualitative coding indicates that this is attributable to the phenomenon of "Strategic Osmosis," wherein technical teams are not only informed of the "what" but are deeply engaged with the "why" of each initiative. This shared understanding fosters alignment, accountability, and accelerated execution.

Integrated firms also demonstrate substantially faster innovation cycles, with average time-to-market for new products reduced by 62.2% (155 days vs. 410 days, $p < 0.05$). This is linked to the adoption of "agile budgeting" practices, enabling rapid resource reallocation in response to market shifts—a capability often absent in siloed organisations.

Financial performance, as measured by return on equity (ROE), is nearly twice as high in integrated firms (18.8% vs. 9.6%, $p < 0.05$). Project abandonment rates—a proxy for value leakage—are dramatically lower in integrated environments (12% vs. 46%, $p < 0.01$), reflecting more effective prioritisation and alignment.

The agility score, derived from a composite assessment of decision-making speed, adaptability, and organisational learning, is significantly higher in integrated firms (8.9 vs. 3.4, $p < 0.01$), underscoring the link between governance integration and dynamic capability.

4.3. Thematic Insights

Strategic Osmosis and Integration Maturity The concept of "Strategic Osmosis" emerged as a central theme across high-performing organisations. In these firms, technology leaders are embedded in the earliest stages of strategic planning, contributing to vision-setting, resource allocation, and risk assessment. This contrasts with siloed organisations, where technology input is often solicited late in the process, resulting in misalignment and reactive execution.

Integration maturity is characterised by the presence of formal mechanisms for joint decision-making, shared KPIs that encompass both financial and non-financial metrics, and institutionalised feedback loops between business and technical functions. High-maturity organisations exhibit:

- Early and continuous involvement of CIOs/CTOs in strategic planning cycles.
- Formalised processes for dynamic budget reallocation in response to external shocks.
- Multi-dimensional KPIs that track not only financial outcomes but also innovation, customer experience, and operational resilience.

Value Leakage in Siloed Organisations Siloed firms are plagued by "value leakage"—the dissipation of resources on projects that are technologically sound but strategically irrelevant. High project abandonment rates (46%) reflect a failure to align technical execution

with evolving business priorities. Interviews reveal frustration among both business and technology leaders, who cite a lack of visibility, misaligned incentives, and bureaucratic inertia as persistent obstacles.

Agile Budgeting and Resource Flexibility Integrated firms excel in agile budgeting an approach that enables rapid reallocation of digital resources in response to market disruptions or strategic pivots. This capability is underpinned by real-time data sharing, cross-functional governance bodies, and a culture of experimentation. The result is a marked acceleration in innovation velocity and a reduction in time-to-market for new offerings.

KPI Integration and Board Oversight High-maturity organisations employ integrated KPI dashboards that provide the board with a holistic view of technology-business integration. Non-financial metrics—such as innovation pipeline health, customer satisfaction, and system resilience—are monitored alongside traditional financial indicators. This supports proactive governance and early identification of misalignment.

5. Discussion

5.1. Interpreting the Digital Paradox

The findings substantiate the argument that the "Digital Paradox" is fundamentally a governance failure rather than a technical one. Treating technology as a support function leads to its management as a cost to be minimised, resulting in underinvestment, misalignment, and missed opportunities for value creation (Westerman et al., 2014). By contrast, positioning technology as a "Strategic Nexus" transforms it into a capability to be maximised, driving superior performance across multiple dimensions.

This shift requires a reimagining of corporate governance. The CIO/CTO must transition from operational management to strategic architecture, participating as a peer in the executive suite and shaping organisational vision, strategy, and execution (Sebastian et al., 2017). The ISN framework provides a roadmap for this transition, emphasising integration at the levels of structure, process, and culture.

5.2. Synthesising Theory and Practice

The empirical results align with and extend the theoretical insights of the RBV and digital business strategy literature. Integration maturity emerges as a dynamic capability one that enables organisations to sense, seize, and reconfigure resources in response to changing environments (Bharadwaj et al., 2013; Sebastian et al., 2017). The ISN framework operationalises this capability by specifying the mechanisms strategic osmosis, agile budgeting, integrated KPIs that underpin successful integration.

The analysis also resonates with recent scholarship on AI and OSS governance. For example, Agarwal and Nene's (2025) five-layer framework for AI governance highlights the importance of aligning regulatory mandates with practical implementation tools. Similarly, Linåker and Muto (2025) demonstrate that OSS adoption in government requires not only policy incentives but also robust support structures and capacity-building mechanisms. These insights reinforce the argument that integration is not a one-time event but a continuous process of alignment, adaptation, and learning.

5.3. Addressing Contemporary Challenges

The rise of generative AI, open source ecosystems, and rapidly evolving regulatory landscapes introduces new complexities to technology-business integration. Cheng et al. (2025) identify reproducibility, hallucinations, and interpretability as core challenges in GenAI-enabled requirements engineering, with strong interdependencies that demand holistic solutions. The ISN framework is adaptable to these challenges, providing a structure for coordinating technical robustness, methodological maturity, and governance integration.

Moreover, the public sector's adoption of OSS as documented by Linåker and Muto (2025) offers valuable lessons for private enterprises. The establishment of Open Source Program Offices (OSPOs), clear policy frameworks, and collaborative governance models are shown to enhance strategic alignment and value realisation. These practices can be leveraged in commercial contexts to foster innovation, interoperability, and resilience.

5.4. Implications for Corporate Governance

The practical implications of the ISN framework are significant. Organisations seeking to maximise the strategic value of digital investives should:

- Elevate technology leaders to strategic roles, integrating them fully into executive decision-making bodies.
- Institutionalise joint governance structures—such as digital steering committees and cross-functional task forces—to ensure continuous alignment.
- Develop integrated KPI systems that track both financial and non-financial indicators of integration maturity.
- Foster a culture of experimentation, learning, and agility, supported by real-time data sharing and transparent communication.
- Regularly assess integration depth using diagnostic tools grounded in the RBV and digital strategy literature.

Failure to pursue these measures risks perpetuating value leakage, strategic drift, and underperformance in an increasingly digital and competitive landscape.

6. Conclusion

This research demonstrates that the integration of technology and business management is no longer an optional endeavor but a prerequisite for organisational survival and success. The "Digital Paradox"— wherein digital investments fail to yield strategic value is fundamentally a governance issue, rooted in the persistence of silos and the marginalisation of technology leaders.

The Integrated Strategic Nexus (ISN) framework, developed and empirically validated through a rigorous mixed-methods approach, provides a comprehensive roadmap for achieving deep, sustained integration. Organisations that embrace the ISN principles realise substantial gains in strategy realisation rates, innovation velocity, financial performance, and organisational agility.

The study's contributions are both theoretical and practical. By synthesising the Resource-Based View with contemporary digital strategy and governance literature, the paper offers a novel diagnostic tool for measuring integration maturity. The empirical findings underscore the importance of strategic osmosis, agile budgeting, and integrated KPIs as enablers of superior performance.

Future research should explore the application of the ISN framework in diverse contexts, including small and medium-sized enterprises, non-profit organisations, and public sector agencies. Additionally, the evolving landscape of AI, OSS, and regulatory frameworks warrants ongoing investigation to ensure that governance models remain adaptive and effective.

In sum, moving "beyond silos" is not merely a conceptual aspiration but an actionable imperative for organisations seeking to thrive in the digital age.

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Role of Quality Assurance in Improving Quality of Higher Education in Sierra Leone: A Literature Review

Article Record

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Abstract

Quality assurance (QA) has emerged as a critical mechanism for ensuring the effectiveness and competitiveness of higher education institutions (HEIs) worldwide. In Sierra Leone, HEIs face significant challenges in maintaining educational standards, including accreditation gaps, low board examination passing rates, and limited global integration. This study explores the role of QA mechanisms (both internal and external) in enhancing the quality of higher education in Sierra Leone. Drawing insights from international literature and empirical evidence from regional studies, the research highlights the relationship between QA practices, institutional performance, and global competitiveness. Findings indicate that while internal QA mechanisms, such as admission policies, curricular reviews, and faculty recruitment, are implemented, they alone do not guarantee high performance in board examinations or international recognition. Conversely, compliance with external QA standards, including accreditation and international benchmarks, strongly correlates with institutional readiness to meet global standards. The study concludes that QA is indispensable for improving higher education quality, emphasizing the need for Sierra Leonean HEIs to strengthen both internal and external QA processes while promoting internationalization.

accreditation | higher education | institutional performance | internationalization | quality assurance | sierra leone

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Abstract

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Keywords: *accreditation, higher education, institutional performance, internationalization, quality assurance, sierra leone*

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1. Introduction

Higher education institutions (HEIs) play a central role in national development by producing skilled graduates, fostering research, and contributing to socio-economic growth. In Sierra Leone, like many developing countries, HEIs face the dual challenge of improving internal quality while meeting international standards to compete globally (Dill, 2000; Legarda, 2012). Quality assurance (QA) has thus become a strategic tool to ensure educational effectiveness, institutional accountability, and graduate employability.

QA encompasses internal mechanisms, such as institutional self-evaluation, faculty recruitment, and curricular monitoring, as well as external mechanisms, including accreditation by national and international bodies (Brennan & Shah, 2000; Torres, 2011). This study examines the role of QA in improving the quality of higher education in Sierra Leone, drawing comparisons with international best practices and regional examples.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Quality Assurance in Higher Education

QA in higher education ensures that institutions meet defined standards of academic excellence and operational efficiency. Internal QA mechanisms include admission policies, curriculum design, faculty recruitment, and evaluation of teaching and learning (Biglete et al., 2000; Alvesson & Willmott, 2012). External QA mechanisms involve accreditation by national and international agencies, adherence to ISO standards, and participation in global benchmarking exercises (Dill, 2003; Torres, 2011).

Studies indicate that compliance with external QA mechanisms significantly correlates with institutional performance and international competitiveness (Brennan, 1997; Billing, 2004). Conversely, internal QA alone does not guarantee high performance in board examinations or research output, highlighting the need for a balanced approach (Biglete et al., 2000).

2.2. Accreditation and Institutional Performance

Accreditation serves as an external validation of quality in higher education. Research from the Philippines, for instance, revealed that programs with external accreditation consistently achieved higher board examination passing rates compared to non-accredited programs (IJSMS, 2023). Teacher education and nursing programs often lead in accreditation levels, indicating that specialization and compliance with external QA standards improve academic outcomes.

In Sierra Leone, accreditation is overseen by the National Accreditation Board (NAB), which ensures HEIs comply with national standards. However, many programs remain unaccredited or under candidate status, limiting graduates' employability and institutional competitiveness (PRC, 1998; IJSMS, 2023).

2.3. QA and Global Competitiveness

Globalization has heightened the demand for HEIs to produce internationally competent graduates and research outputs. Internationalization includes cross-border education, global research partnerships, and adherence to international standards (ISO) (Daniel et al., 2006; Legarda, 2012).

Evidence suggests that HEIs that actively participate in international QA, accreditation, and collaborative research are better positioned to address global challenges (Anderson et al., 2005; Torres,

2011). In Sierra Leone, limited international engagement constrains the ability of HEIs to compete globally.

2.4. QA and Innovation in Higher Education

QA mechanisms also support institutional innovation, including distance learning, extension education, and cross-border education programs (Schatzi, 2007). Studies in South Central Mindanao revealed that distance education and extension education programs were closely ready for implementation, whereas cross-border education remained slightly close to reality (IJSMS, 2023). Such innovations can expand access, improve learning outcomes, and enhance global competitiveness if linked with robust QA practices.

3. Methodology

This study adopts a descriptive and analytical approach, synthesizing findings from regional case studies, international literature, and reports from HEIs. Data on accreditation status, board examination passing rates, graduation rates, and QA mechanisms were extracted from published studies and official institutional reports. Comparative analysis was employed to identify lessons applicable to Sierra Leone's higher education context.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Implementation of Internal and External QA Mechanisms

Findings indicate that Sierra Leonean HEIs, like those in the Philippines, implement internal QA mechanisms, including admission policies, faculty recruitment, and curriculum review. However, internal QA showed no significant correlation with board examination performance ($r = -0.19$, $p > 0.05$) (IJSMS, 2023).

External QA mechanisms, such as accreditation, exhibited a slight positive correlation with board performance ($r = 0.29$, $p > 0.05$), demonstrating that compliance with national and international standards enhances institutional performance.

4.2. Accreditation and Program Performance

The study found that in similar regional contexts, accredited programs in teacher education and nursing achieved higher passing rates and graduation outcomes compared to non-accredited programs (IJSMS, 2023). This highlights the importance of external QA in ensuring academic quality and graduate employability.

4.3. QA and Global Innovation

QA mechanisms are essential for implementing innovations in higher education. Distance learning, extension education, and cross-border education require structured QA frameworks to maintain standards (Schatzi, 2007; Daniel et al., 2006). HEIs that link QA practices to innovation are better prepared to address globalization and internationalization challenges.

4.4. Implications for Sierra Leone

The evidence underscores that HEIs in Sierra Leone should strengthen both internal and external QA mechanisms. Internal QA ensures institutional accountability and operational efficiency, while external QA through accreditation, international standards, and benchmarking enhances global recognition and competitiveness.

5. Conclusion

Quality assurance plays a pivotal role in improving higher education in Sierra Leone. Internal QA mechanisms alone are insufficient to guarantee high academic outcomes or global competitiveness. Compliance with external QA standards, accreditation, and participation in internationalization initiatives strongly correlates with improved performance and institutional readiness. For Sierra Leone, integrating internal QA with robust external QA processes is essential to enhance quality, employability, and global recognition of graduates.

6. Recommendations

1. Higher Education Institutions should submit all programs for accreditation with National Accreditation Board or NAB and seek international certification where feasible.
2. Continuous review of admission, faculty recruitment, curriculum, and student assessment practices should be prioritized.
3. Encourage cross-border programs, global research partnerships, and adoption of international standards (ISO) to improve competitiveness.
4. Distance learning, extension education, and online programs should adhere to structured QA frameworks.
5. Conduct training for administrators and faculty on QA standards and best practices.
6. Implement systematic QA monitoring to ensure alignment with national and international benchmarks.

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Use of Legal Texts for Human Resources Management at the National Social Security Fund in the DRC

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drc | human resources | legal texts | management | national social security fund

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The analysis of the applicability of legal texts on Human Resource Management, conducted within the framework of this study, indicated the following: (i) Managers are aware of various legal texts that can be used in different structures; (ii) these legal texts focus particularly on the following activities: recruitment, selection, and hiring; remuneration; working time management; occupational health and safety; ethics, loyalty, and fidelity; discipline and departure management; layout and monitoring of work tools and premises; and file management; (iii) legal texts are often applied in cases of flagrant misconduct by the worker. Employers only consult legal texts when they are detrimental to the worker; (iv) many employees do not pay attention to legal texts and are sometimes surprised by the sanctions imposed; and (v) motivate men and women through individualized career management. to define, propose and implement with management and employees the organization of working time and to manage it.

Keywords: *drc, human resources, legal texts, management, national social security fund*

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1. Introduction

L'historique du droit de travail au Congo présente les mêmes caractéristiques que les autres territoires africains, à savoir l'influence marquante des organisations internationales dans l'amélioration de la législation du travail.

Les textes légaux ou juridiques sont considérés comme un instrument capable d'apporter la paix sociale grâce à l'affermissement des relations professionnelles, au rétablissement des droits fondamentaux du travailleur et de l'employeur que sont le droit au travail et la liberté d'entreprise.

Les textes légaux sécurisent les relations professionnelles de travail entre l'employeur, le salarié et la collectivité des salariés. Il regorge de nombreux domaines tels que le contrat de travail, la rémunération, la durée du travail, les congés, la discipline, le licenciement, l'emploi, la formation, la sécurité et la santé au travail, la négociation collective, la grève et la représentation du personnel.

L'importance des textes légaux est qu'ils encadrent l'exécution, la formation et la rupture du contrat de travail. Le droit du travail garantit aussi le respect des libertés syndicales ainsi que les normes de sécurité au travail sans oublier la protection des travailleurs vulnérables.

Les textes juridiques constituent le principal mode d'expression et de diffusion du droit dans une institution. C'est par eux que les juristes, mais aussi l'ensemble des citoyens appréhendent le droit. La qualité rédactionnelle de ces textes revêt donc une grande importance pour l'intelligibilité et l'effectivité du droit.

Le respect de la vie privée est garanti dans presque tous les pays du monde, dont la République Démocratique du Congo. Les textes juridiques internes et internationaux qui assurent la protection de la vie privée ont généralement été édictés à une époque où l'on ne pouvait tenir compte de l'avènement des inforoutes. Prendre en compte le contexte juridique des Ressources humaines et connaître les relations avec les partenaires sociaux, mais aussi les appliquer est un élan qui favorise la réussite des actions de l'organisation (entreprise).

La gestion des ressources humaines s'inscrit dans le cadre juridique du droit du travail. Elle résulte de décisions d'organisation et de négociations avec les partenaires sociaux.

C'est dans cette optique que nous avons voulu nous faire une idée sur la manière dont les textes légaux sur la Gestion des Ressources Humaines sont appliqués dans les entreprises dans notre pays.

Pour mieux comprendre et fournir des explications plausibles sur l'applicabilité les textes légaux sur la Gestion des Ressources Humaines, nous avons mené cette étude à l'aide d'un questionnement suivant : (i) les lois et les règlements relatifs au travail et à la sécurité sociale régissant essentiellement les relations entre les travailleurs et les employeurs sont-ils observés ? (ii) Y-a-t-il une politique d'information et de communication pouvant interpréter, appliquer et expliquer le droit social individuel et collectif, droit du travail et de la sécurité sociale à la Caisse Nationale de Sécurité Sociale en RDC ?

2. Revue de la littérature

2.1. Concept Légal

Le concept légal signifie être conforme à la loi. Ainsi quelque chose de légal est définie et autorisé par des textes de loi. Toute activité légale est régie par l'ensemble des règles juridiques en vigueur dans un pays.

Les aspects légaux de la GRH permettent à faire une analyse critique des règles juridiques concernant les activités opérationnelles de la gestion des ressources humaines. Il interroge notamment

la conformité des pratiques de GRH par rapport aux normes prééminentes, tout en visant à approfondir les connaissances en ce qui concerne les règles spéciales.

Il s'intéresse plus particulièrement à ces activités : recrutement, sélection et embauche; rémunération; gestion du temps de travail; santé et sécurité au travail; éthique, loyauté et fidélité; discipline et gestion des départs; aménagement et surveillance des instruments et des lieux du travail; gestion des dossiers. Ce corpus des règles juridiques est scruté, tant sous l'angle des normes que sous celui des mécanismes de représentation des travailleurs, ainsi que des modes de régulation et de sanction des conflits.

2.2. Principe général des textes légaux de la GRH

Le principe général des textes légaux de la Gestion des Ressources Humaines est le suivant : lorsqu'il existe plusieurs textes sur un même sujet, c'est le texte le plus favorable au salarié qui s'applique. Ce principe continue à s'appliquer en droit du travail mais il connaît quelques exceptions.

2.3. Textes internationaux

L'OIT a pour principaux objectifs de promouvoir les droits au travail, d'encourager la création d'emplois décents, de développer la protection sociale et de renforcer le dialogue social dans le domaine du travail.

L'OIT (https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--fr/index.htm) contribue à l'amélioration de la situation économique et des conditions de travail qui permettent à tous les travailleurs, employeurs et gouvernements de participer à l'instauration d'une paix durable, de la prospérité et du progrès.

A l'origine de la création de l'OIT se trouvent des considérations d'ordre sécuritaire, humanitaire, politique et économique. Les fondateurs de l'OIT ont mesuré l'importance de la justice sociale pour assurer la paix alors que les travailleurs étaient exploités dans les nations industrielles de l'époque. Avec la prise de conscience de l'interdépendance économique du monde est apparue la nécessité de coopérer pour offrir des conditions de travail similaires aux travailleurs des pays en concurrence pour les mêmes marchés.

Illustrant ces idées, le Préambule de la Constitution de l'OIT affirme:

- Attendu qu'une paix universelle et durable ne peut être fondée que sur la base de la justice sociale ;
- Attendu qu'il existe des conditions de travail impliquant pour un grand nombre de personnes l'injustice, la misère et les privations, ce qui engendre un tel mécontentement que la paix et l'harmonie universelles sont mises en danger; et attendu qu'il est urgent d'améliorer ces conditions;
- Attendu aussi que la non-adoption par une nation quelconque d'un régime de travail réellement humain fait obstacle aux efforts des autres nations désireuses d'améliorer le sort des travailleurs dans leurs propres pays.

Les domaines d'amélioration listés dans le Préambule sont toujours d'actualité, notamment la réglementation de la durée du travail et du recrutement de main-d'œuvre, la prévention du chômage et la garantie d'un salaire assurant un niveau de vie convenable, la protection sociale des travailleurs, des enfants, des personnes âgées et des femmes. La Préambule reconnaît aussi un certain nombre de principes fondamentaux, par exemple les documents NORMLEX de l'OIT (http://www.ilo.ch/dyn/normlex/fr/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO:12100:P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:312245:NO et http://www.ilo.ch/dyn/normlex/fr/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO:12100:P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:312232:NO), et rappelle, entre autres choses, l'importance de l'enseignement technique et professionnel.

L'OIT s'emploie à répondre aux besoins des travailleuses et des travailleurs grâce à des normes du travail, des politiques et des programmes conçus et élaborés conjointement par les gouvernements, les travailleurs et les employeurs. La structure de l'OIT, au sein de laquelle les syndicats et les organisations patronales participent aux délibérations sur un pied d'égalité avec les gouvernements, incarne le dialogue social en action. Elle veille à ce que les points de vue des partenaires sociaux soient fidèlement reflétés dans les normes du travail, les politiques et les programmes de l'OIT.

L'OIT encourage ce tripartisme parmi ses mandants (https://www.ilo.org/public/english/dialogue/actemp/index.htm, https://www.ilo.org/actrav/lang--fr/index.htm et https://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/relm/country.htm) en facilitant le dialogue social entre syndicats et organisations d'employeurs pour formuler, et le cas échéant mettre en œuvre, une politique nationale en matière de questions sociales, économiques et dans d'autres domaines.

Les normes internationales du travail sont étayées par un système de contrôle unique au niveau international qui contribue à garantir que les États appliquent les conventions qu'ils ratifient. L'OIT examine régulièrement comment elles sont appliquées et signale les domaines dans lesquels il y aurait matière à amélioration. Si un problème se pose concernant l'application des normes, l'OIT cherche à aider les pays concernés par le biais du dialogue social et de l'assistance technique.

L'OIT a mis au point divers mécanismes de contrôle qui permettent de suivre, au-delà du moment de leur adoption par la Conférence internationale du Travail et de leur ratification par les États, l'effet donné aux conventions et recommandations en droit et dans la pratique.

2.4. Textes nationaux

Les textes nationaux doivent être conformes aux textes internationaux.

2.5. La Constitution

Tous les textes nationaux doivent être conformes à la Constitution de la République ainsi qu'au bloc de constitutionnalité.

2.6. Lois, ordonnances et décrets (Code du travail)

2.7. Les conventions et accords collectifs

La règle qui détermine quel est le texte applicable est différent en fonction du niveau des textes comparés.

2.8. Convention collective et accord d'entreprise

Le principe est que l'accord d'entreprise s'applique en priorité par rapport à l'accord ou la convention collective de branche. Cela signifie que même si l'accord d'entreprise prévoit des règles différentes, voire plus désavantageuses, que la convention collective de branche, ce sera lui qui s'appliquera au salarié et non la convention collective de branche.

Ces règles sont les mêmes pour la hiérarchie entre convention collective de branche et accord de groupe ou accord d'établissement.

2.9. Accord de groupe et accord d'entreprise

L'accord de groupe s'applique en priorité par rapport à l'accord d'entreprise ou l'accord d'établissement si l'accord de groupe l'indique dans son accord. Si rien n'est indiqué dans l'accord de groupe alors l'accord le plus avantageux pour le salarié s'applique.

2.10. Accord d'entreprise et accord d'établissement

L'accord d'entreprise s'applique en priorité par rapport à l'accord d'établissement si l'accord d'entreprise l'indique dans son accord. Si rien n'est indiqué dans l'accord d'entreprise alors l'accord le plus avantageux pour le salarié s'applique.

2.11. Les usages et les engagements unilatéraux

Les usages et les engagements unilatéraux doivent respecter les textes situés en haut. Ils peuvent être plus avantageux pour le salarié. Dans ce cas, ce sont les textes les plus avantageux qui s'appliquent.

2.12. Le règlement intérieur de l'entreprise

Le règlement intérieur doit respecter les textes situés en haut. Il peut être plus avantageux pour le salarié. Dans ce cas, c'est le texte le plus avantageux pour le salarié qui s'applique.

2.13. Le contrat de travail

Le contrat de travail doit respecter les textes situés en haut. Il peut prévoir des mesures plus avantageuses pour le salarié. Dans ce cas, c'est le contrat de travail qui s'applique.

3. Gestion des Ressources Humaines dans le Code de Travail

Au sens du présent Code, on entend par :

3.1. Définitions Fondamentales

a) Travailleur : Toute personne physique en âge de contracter, quels que soient son sexe, son état civil et sa nationalité, qui s'est engagée à mettre son activité professionnelle, moyennant rémunération, sous la direction et l'autorité d'une personne physique ou morale, publique ou privée, dans les liens d'un contrat de travail. Pour la détermination de la qualité de travailleur, il ne sera tenu compte ni du statut juridique de l'employeur ni de celui de l'employé.

b) Employeur : Toute personne physique ou morale, de droit public ou privé, qui utilise les services d'un ou de plusieurs travailleurs en vertu d'un contrat de travail.

c) Contrat de travail : Toute convention, écrite ou verbale, par laquelle une personne, le travailleur, s'engage à fournir à une autre personne, l'employeur, un travail manuel ou autre sous la direction et l'autorité directe ou indirecte de celui-ci et moyennant rémunération.

d) Entreprise : Toute organisation économique, sociale, culturelle, communautaire, philanthropique, de forme juridique déterminée, propriété individuelle ou collective, poursuivant ou non un but lucratif pouvant comprendre un ou plusieurs établissements.

e) Etablissement : Un centre d'activité individualisé dans l'espace ayant au point de vue technique son objet propre et utilisant les services d'un ou de plusieurs travailleurs qui exécutent une tâche sous une direction unique. Un établissement donné relève toujours d'une entreprise. Un établissement unique et indépendant constitue à la fois une entreprise et un établissement.

f) Recrutement : Toute opération effectuée dans le but de s'assurer ou de procurer à autrui la main-d'œuvre de personnes n'offrant pas spontanément leurs services.

g) Contrat d'apprentissage : Le contrat par lequel une personne physique ou morale, le maître d'apprentissage, s'oblige à donner ou à faire donner une formation professionnelle méthodique et complète à une autre personne, l'apprenti, et par lequel ce dernier s'oblige en retour à se conformer aux instructions qu'il recevra et à exécuter les ouvrages qui lui seront confiés en vue de son apprentissage.

3.2. Rémunération

La rémunération est la somme représentative de l'ensemble des gains susceptibles d'être évalués en espèces et fixés par accord ou par les dispositions légales et réglementaires qui sont dus en vertu d'un contrat de travail, par un employeur à un travailleur. Elle comprend notamment :

- le salaire ou traitement ;
- les commissions ;
- l'indemnité de vie chère ;
- les primes ;
- la participation aux bénéfices ;
- les sommes versées à titre de gratification ou de mois complémentaires ;
- les sommes versées pour prestations supplémentaires ;
- la valeur des avantages en nature ;
- l'allocation de congé ou l'indemnité compensatoire de congé ;
- les sommes payées par l'employeur pendant l'incapacité de travail et pendant la période précédant et suivant l'accouchement.

Ne sont pas éléments de la rémunération :

- les soins de santé ;
- l'indemnité de logement ou le logement en nature ;
- les allocations familiales légales ;
- l'indemnité de transport ;
- les frais de voyage ainsi que les avantages accordés exclusivement en vue de faciliter au travailleur l'accomplissement de ses fonctions.

3.3. Conditions et Temps de Travail

Jour ouvrable : Chaque jour de la semaine à l'exception des jours de repos hebdomadaires et des jours fériés légaux.

Temps de services : Le total des durées des prestations de travail fournies chez le dernier employeur et chez les employeurs substitués pendant le dernier contrat et les contrats de travail précédents ; des congés y compris le congé de maternité ; de l'incapacité de travail, en cas d'accident ou de maladie jusqu'à concurrence de six mois ininterrompus et sans limitation en cas d'accident du travail ou de maladie professionnelle ; des voyages se situant entre deux périodes de services.

Famille de travailleur : Le conjoint ; les enfants tels que définis par le Code de la famille ; les enfants que le travailleur a adoptés ; les enfants dont le travailleur a la tutelle ou la paternité juridique ; les enfants pour lesquels il est débiteur d'aliments conformément aux dispositions du Code de la Famille. Un enfant entre en ligne de compte s'il est célibataire et : jusqu'à sa majorité en règle générale ; jusqu'à l'âge de 25 ans révolus, s'il étudie dans un établissement de plein exercice ; sans limite d'âge, lorsqu'il est incapable d'exercer une activité lucrative en raison de son état physique ou mental et que le travailleur l'entretient.

3.4. Le cadre juridique

Les ressources humaines sont régies par le droit du travail qui interviennent dans tous les domaines qu'elles gèrent : du recrutement au départ des salariés en passant par la rémunération, la formation ou encore les relations avec les supérieurs hiérarchiques, etc. Il repose sur un ensemble de textes issus de la loi, de conventions et d'accords collectifs, ou de l'entreprise. Afin de rester en conformité avec les obligations légales et réglementaires, l'organisation doit constamment se tenir informée des changements de lois et règlements, c'est-à-dire faire une veille juridique.

3.5. Le Code du travail

Il constitue le minimum social en-dessous duquel aucune organisation ne peut descendre. Il est divisé en trois parties : Lois, Règlements, Décrets, chacune étant divisée en neuf livres. Tout article du code est précédé de la lettre L, R ou D qui renvoie à chacune de ces parties.

3.6. Les conventions et accords collectifs

Il s'agit d'accords négociés au niveau de l'entreprise ou de la branche professionnelle, entre organisations syndicales d'employeurs et de salariés. Ils portent sur les conditions de travail et d'emploi et les garanties sociales.

3.7. Le règlement intérieur

C'est le seul acte établi unilatéralement par l'employeur. Il précise les règles qui s'appliquent au sein de l'entreprise en matière de discipline, de sanctions, d'hygiène et sécurité. Il s'impose à tout le personnel de l'entreprise. Pour cela, il doit être affiché sur le lieu de l'embauche, sur les différents lieux de travail, dans les locaux accessoires (vestiaires, parcs de stationnement, accès secondaires). L'employeur peut le modifier de sa propre initiative ou sur demande de l'Inspecteur du travail.

3.8. La jurisprudence et Documentation

La jurisprudence est constituée des décisions rendues par les juridictions ; elles permettent d'interpréter la loi et de l'appliquer à des cas particuliers. La documentation juridique et sociale, éditée sous forme papier ou électronique, est d'un accès facile. Elle est mise à jour au fur et à mesure de l'évolution du droit.

3.9. Les partenaires sociaux

3.9.1. Les partenaires internes

Le personnel : Le service des ressources humaines est en relation permanente avec l'ensemble du personnel (établissement des contrats de travail, de la paye, d'attestations ; communication par voie d'affichage, du journal d'entreprise ou de l'intranet ; réunions d'information ; œuvres sociales).

Les représentants du personnel : Les salariés sont représentés par des partenaires sociaux élus : délégués du personnel, comité d'entreprise, comité d'hygiène et de sécurité, délégués syndicaux. L'employeur a deux obligations : organiser les élections et réunir régulièrement les représentants du personnel. Le nombre de représentants à élire est fonction de l'effectif de l'organisation. Délégués du personnel et membres du comité d'entreprise sont élus pour deux ans. Les réunions des délégués du personnel ont lieu une fois par mois. Les réunions du comité d'entreprise ont lieu une fois par mois dans les entreprises dont l'effectif est supérieur ou égal à 150 salariés.

3.9.2. Les partenaires externes

La réglementation du travail a mis en place des institutions partenaires des organisations. Exemples : l'Inspection du travail qui surveille si la loi est correctement appliquée dans les sociétés ; la Médecine du travail chargée de surveiller la santé des travailleurs ; la Direction du Travail et de l'Emploi chargée de collecter certains documents à caractère réglementaire. Les entreprises peuvent aussi recourir aux services de partenaires conseillers (cabinets de recrutement, d'audit social, avocats).

4. Présentation du cadre d'étude

4.1. Présentation de la Caisse Nationale de Sécurité Sociale en RDC

4.1.1. Création de la CNSS

La Caisse Sociale de Sécurité Sociale, CNSS en sigle, a été créée par le décret-loi du 29 Juin 1961 organique de la sécurité sociale, redevenu par le décret numéro 09/53 du 3 décembre 2009 un établissement public à caractère technique et social doté de la personnalité juridique et de l'autonomie financière. Elle est placée sous la garantie de l'état et sa tutelle technique et financière est exercée par le ministère ayant à sa charge la prévoyance sociale dans ses attributions.

4.1.2. Objet social

L'objet social de la CNSS est l'organisation et la gestion du régime général de la sécurité sociale en République Démocratique du Congo.

4.2. Gestion de la CNSS

4.2.1. Les structures organiques de la CNSS

Les organes statutaires de la CNSS : le décret numéro 09/53 du 3 décembre 2009 fixant les statuts d'un établissement public durant Institut National de Sécurité Sociale qui est devenu aujourd'hui la CNSS. Ces organes sont :

Le conseil d'administration : c'est l'organe triparti de conception, d'orientation, de contrôle et de décision de la CNSS. Présidé par un président du conseil d'administration, cet organe est composé de cinq (5) membres notamment deux représentants de l'Etat, un représentant des organisations professionnelles des employeurs, un représentant des organisations professionnelles des travailleurs et un directeur central. Le président du conseil d'administration s'appelle Madame Shimbi ai.

Direction générale : Simon FUTI, le directeur Général ai, c'est l'organe de la gestion de la CNSS, elle est composée d'un directeur général assisté par un directeur adjoint qui s'appelle Me Charles MUNDIAYI KAZADI. Sa mission est d'assurer la gestion courante, d'exécuter le budget, d'élaborer les états financiers et de diriger l'ensemble de services de la CNSS.

Le collège des commissaires aux comptes : il est composé de deux membres et assure le contrôle des opérations financières de la CNSS.

4.2.2. Organisation administrative de la CNSS

La CNSS est structuré de la manière suivante :

- Le directeur général
- Le directeur adjoint

Les directions centrales sont :

- Direction des ressources humaines (DRH)
- Direction juridique (DEO)
- Direction technique(DT)
- Direction auditeur interne (DAI)
- Direction de l'action sociale et sanitaire(DASS)
- Direction de recouvrement(DR)
- Direction de gestion immobilière (DGI)
- Direction de formation(DF)
- Le secrétariat des organes statutaires (SOS)

Les directions provinciales sont situées à :

- Bandundu ;
- Bas-Congo 1 (Matadi) ;
- Bas-Congo 2 (Boma) ;
- Kikwit ;
- l'Equateur ;
- la province orientale ;
- Mbanza-Ngungu ;
- Maniema ;
- Sud-Kivu ;
- Katanga 1 (Lubumbashi) ;
- Katanga 2 (Likasi) ;
- Katanga 3 (Kolwezi) ;
- Kasaï oriental (Mbuji Mayi) ;
- Kasaï occidental (Kananga).

La ville de Kinshasa compte 8 directions urbaines qui sont :

- Direction urbaine Kinshasa nord (Gombe)
- Direction urbaine Kinshasa sud(Limete)
- Direction urbaine Kinshasa Est(Ndjili)
- Direction urbaine Kinshasa Ouest(Kintambo)
- Direction urbaine Kinshasa Centre (Bongolo)
- Direction urbaine Kinshasa sud-Est (Mont-Ngafula)
- Direction urbaine Kinshasa Centre-Ouest (Kasa-Vubu)
- Direction urbaine Kinshasa nord-Ouest (Kinkole)

Il existe aussi les bureaux de district dont :

- Kamina ;
- Kalemie ;
- Bunia ;
- d'Isiro ;
- Lisala ;
- Gemena ;
- Thsikapa ;
- Lodja ;
- Butembo.

4.3. Organisation administrative de la urbaine Kinshasa sud-Est

La structure urbaine de Kinshasa sud-Est comprend :

- Direction urbaine
- Sous-direction technique
- Sous-direction administrative et finance

Services spécialisés :

Service financier : Responsable, trésorier, caisse principale, autres caisses, caisse compte fonctionnement, caisse compte cotisation.

Service employeurs et salariés : Responsable de services, responsable de compte courant, responsable de la production, responsable de compteurs.

Service technique : Responsable, responsable de la section pension, responsable de la section paiement social, responsable de la maladie professionnelle et accident de travail.

Service secrétariat : Responsable, secrétariat de sous-directeur administratif et financier, secrétaire du sous-directeur technique, les préposés.

Service contrôle : Coordonnateur, coordonnateur adjoint chargé de la technique et d'administration, les contrôleurs.

Service d'archive : Responsable et ses agents.

Service informatique : Responsable et ses agents.

5. Confrontation de la théorie et la pratique

5.1. Description raisonnée de la question étudiée

Pour nous permettre de vérifier les hypothèses émises et d'atteindre les objectifs fixés au préalable, il a paru indispensable de descendre sur terrain, notamment à la Caisse Nationale de Sécurité Sociale/Mont-Ngafula, en vue de recueillir les renseignements souhaités auprès des agents de cette institution. Ainsi, nous avons préparé une grille d'entretien constituée de six questions.

Voici ci-dessous les questions d'entretien dont nous nous sommes servies :

1. **Question 1 :** Connaissez-vous les différents documents juridiques qui peuvent être utilisés dans une entreprise ou institution donnée ?
    - *Réponse :* Oui. Code de travail, Règlement d'Ordre intérieur, Convention collective…
2. **Question 2 :** Avez-vous une idée sur le concept « textes légaux de la GRH» ?
    - *Réponse :* Les textes légaux sont les documents juridiques relatifs à la gestion du personnel dans une entreprise.
3. **Question 3 :** Avez-vous déjà appliqué les documents légaux ou juridiques pour vos travailleurs ?
    - *Réponse :* Oui. Sans référence à ces documents, c'est difficile de gérer le personnel.
4. **Question 4 :** Quelles sont les raisons qui peuvent conduire à l'application des textes juridiques dans une entreprise ?
    - *Réponse :* Dans la plupart des cas, ces textes sont appliqués quand on veut sanctionner un agent ou pour des mesures disciplinaires à l'endroit d'un travailleur récalcitrant.
5. **Question 5 :** Vos agents ont-ils connaissances de ces documents juridiques ?
    - *Réponse :* Un grand nombre ne s'y intéresse pas du tout et parfois ils sont surpris quand les sanctions tombent devant eux. Ils ont peut-être une connaissance partielle.
6. **Question 6 :** Quel est l'impact de ces documents juridiques sur le rendement de l'agent ?
    - *Réponse :* Les documents juridiques aident les agents à être prudents par crainte de sanction et ils permettent aussi aux gestionnaires de ne pas avoir de problèmes avec l'Etat.

5.2. Leçon tirée et Conclusion

La lecture minutieuse des réponses données par la personne ressource interrogée a indiqué ce qui suit :

Le Gestionnaire est au courant de différents textes légaux qui peuvent être utilisés dans de diverses structures, tels que : OIT, Code de travail, Règlement d'Ordre intérieur, Convention collective… La personne source contactée n'est pas du tout ignorante des textes juridiques. Elle les définit comme étant des « documents juridiques relatifs à la gestion du personnel dans une entreprise », ce qui est proche de la définition donnée par le dictionnaire Juridique qui les explique comme les documents qui permettent de faire une analyse critique des règles juridiques concernant les activités opérationnelles de la gestion des ressources humaines.

Selon le Gestionnaire, sans référence à ces documents, c'est difficile de gérer le personnel. Ce qui est pratiquement conforme à ce que stipule le dictionnaire juridique : Les textes juridiques s'intéressent plus particulièrement à ces activités : recrutement, sélection et embauche ; rémunération ; gestion du temps de travail ; santé et sécurité au travail ; éthique, loyauté et fidélité ; discipline et gestion des départs ; aménagement et surveillance des instruments et des lieux du travail ; gestion des dossiers.

Ce qui est plus remarquable est que les textes légaux sont souvent appliqués en cas de flagrance de la part de l'ouvrier. L'employeur ne consulte pas trop les textes juridiques seulement s'ils vont aux désavantages de l'ouvrier. L'employeur en personne nous a confirmé que dans la plupart des cas, ces textes sont appliqués quand on veut sanctionner un agent ou pour des mesures disciplinaires à l'endroit d'un travailleur récalcitrant.

Il semblerait qu'un grand nombre d'agents ne prêtent pas attention aux textes juridiques et parfois ils sont étonnés des sanctions infligées. Ils ont peut-être une connaissance partielle des textes légaux. Nous estimons que pour permettre de dresser un portrait des textes légaux dans les entreprises de notre pays, l'on doit assurer le respect des obligations légales et réglementaires et optimiser l'ensemble des facteurs d'hygiène, de sécurité et de conditions de travail des salariés dans le cadre des impératifs économiques de l'entreprise ; élaborer, proposer puis mettre en œuvre la politique d'information et de communication ; interpréter, appliquer et expliquer le droit social individuel et collectif (droit du travail et de la sécurité sociale) ; élaborer et proposer la politique de formation, puis mettre en œuvre les actions et contrôler leur application.

Les documents juridiques aident les agents à être prudents par crainte d'être sanctionnés et ils permettent aussi aux gestionnaires de ne pas avoir de problèmes avec l'Etat. C'est aussi, dans ce cadre, stimuler les Hommes et les Femmes par une gestion des carrières individualisée ; définir, proposer et mettre en place avec la direction et les salariés l'aménagement du temps de travail et le gérer.

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Workplace Incivility Behaviour and Organizational Productivity (A Study of Selected Manufacturing Firms in Rivers State)

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organizational productivity | workplace incivility | nigeria | employee behavior | profitability

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Keywords: *organizational productivity, workplace incivility, nigeria, employee behavior, profitability*

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Workplace incivility refers to discourteous, disrespectful, and inappropriate behaviours that violate accepted norms of mutual respect within an organization. These behaviours are generally low in intensity and may have unclear intent to harm, yet they often create negative experiences for employees. Incivility differs from direct aggression because it is usually subtle and indirect, but it can still disrupt workplace relationships and performance. Researchers have noted that workplace incivility includes actions such as rude remarks, dismissive attitudes, intentional neglect, and lack of consideration for others. Although such behaviours may appear minor, they can gradually escalate and result in more serious interpersonal conflicts if left unmanaged.

Several studies have shown that workplace incivility can develop into a cycle where one uncivil act leads to another, thereby increasing tension and stress among employees. Stress caused by incivility may trigger further negative behaviours, leading to a continuous pattern that affects both individuals and the organization. While workplace incivility is often classified as a low-level form of counterproductive work behaviour, it should not be regarded as insignificant. Evidence suggests that repeated exposure to uncivil conduct can reduce employee morale, commitment, and psychological well-being, which may eventually lead to absenteeism, withdrawal, or turnover.

Organizational productivity refers to an organization's ability to effectively utilize its human and material resources to achieve set goals and maintain competitive advantage. Productive organizations are those that can adapt to internal and external changes while sustaining profitability and growth. Manufacturing firms, in particular, depend heavily on employee cooperation, discipline, and ethical conduct to achieve optimal performance. When workplace incivility becomes prevalent, it can weaken organizational values, disrupt teamwork, and reduce overall efficiency.

Organizations possess distinct identities shaped by their values, culture, and management practices, which influence employee behaviour. A workplace environment that tolerates corruption, violence, or unethical conduct may encourage uncivil behaviours, thereby undermining productivity. Conversely, organizations that promote respect, fairness, and accountability are more likely to enhance employee performance and achieve sustainable productivity. This study therefore examines the relationship between workplace incivility behaviour and organizational productivity in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Workplace incivility behaviour has become an increasing concern in modern organizations and continues to pose serious challenges to organizational productivity. Many organizations experience various forms of incivility such as corruption, unethical practices, intimidation, and workplace violence, which negatively affect employee performance and organizational outcomes. Despite growing awareness of these behaviours, many organizations have not developed effective mechanisms to manage or prevent their occurrence.

The persistence of workplace incivility has resulted in significant costs to organizations, including reduced employee morale, loss of productive time, increased absenteeism, and declining profitability. When employees are exposed to uncivil work environments, their commitment and motivation are often weakened, leading to poor performance and inefficiency. In manufacturing firms, where

productivity depends largely on coordinated effort and discipline, such behaviours can have serious consequences on output and market competitiveness.

In many manufacturing firms, management has been unable to implement adequate policies or control systems to effectively curb corruption and workplace violence. Poor communication channels, weak ethical enforcement, and ineffective supervision have further contributed to the persistence of these problems. As a result, organizations continue to experience challenges relating to profitability and market share.

Given these challenges, there is a need to empirically examine the extent to which workplace incivility behaviour affects organizational productivity. This study therefore seeks to investigate the relationship between workplace incivility behaviour and organizational productivity in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State, with particular emphasis on corruption, workplace violence, profitability, and market share.

1.3. Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study is to examine relationship between workplace uncivility behaviour and organizational productivity in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State. The specific objectivities are to:

- Examine the relationship between corruption and profitability in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State
- Evaluate the relationship between corruption and market share of the organization in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State
- Determine the relationship between violence and profitability in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State
- Ascertain the relationship between violence and market share in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State

1.4. Significance of the Study

The management of selected manufacturing firms will have in-dept knowledge in regards to workplace incivility and study will contribute positively to the practitioner managers it will help them to improve on policies relating to workplace incivility to increase organizational productivity in other for the organization to achieve its specific goals.

Both private and public firms will have an in-depth knowledge on the study as a means to eradicate workplace incivility and increase organizational productivity in their respective organizations.

Researcher and students in their academic pursuit shall also be beneficially for further research work on the said topic.

1.5. Research Question

The following research question is postulated to guide the study:

- Does corruption influence profitability of the organization in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State?
- How does corruption affect market share in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State?
- How does violence in the workplace influence organizational profitability
- What is the relationship between violence and market share in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State?

1.6. Research Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis will be tested at 0.05 level of its significance:

- **Ho_1:** There is no significant alternative between corruption influence profitability of the organization
- **Ho_2:** There is a significant alternative between corruption in the workplace and market share of the organization
- **Ho_3:** There is no significant alternative between violence in the workplace influence organizational profitability
- **Ho_4:** There is no significant relationship between violence in the workplace and market share

1.7. Scope of the Study

The primary concerned of this study is to examine the effects workplace incivility and organizational productivity in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State. The study is delimited to three key areas in the selected organizations: content scope, geographical scope and unit of analysis.

1.8. Limitation of the Study

The Limitations of the study are as follows:

Time allowed for the study: This poses a major limitation to the study as all related activities are constricted and streamlined by the time afforded the study. Hence, both desk and field work are compressed into time-based schedules which are structured in accordance with the time allowed for the study.

The availability of funds: The availability of funds was also a major limitation on the research activities of the study. These activities are structured in line with the finance or funding available to the researcher which come from personal income and support from family and friends

The unavailability of material, data and reports: The unavailability of required materials, data and reports which ought to augured and substantiate literature on the study variables also poses a major limitation to the research. Hence, most theoretical and secondary data sourced for the study are drawn from other publications and authenticated websites which address issues related to workplace civility behaviours and organizational productivity.

1.9. Definition of Terms

The following definition of operational terms shall be discussed below:

Corruption: May be defines as an act of dishonesty especially using bribery or an immoral or wicked act. Generally speaking, corruption is difficult to define.

Market Share: Market share is the percent of total sales in an industry generated by a particular company. Market share is calculated by taking the company's sales over the period and dividing it by the total sales of the industry over the same period. This metric is used to give a general idea of the size of a company in relation to its market and its competitors.

Profitability: This is the ability of the firms to make profits from all the business transacted (activities) embarked upon by the organization or company. Profitability is the metric used to determine the scope of a company's profit in relation to the size of the business. Profitability is a measurement of efficiency and ultimately it success or failure.

Violence: Using or involving physical force intended to hurt, damage, or kill someone or something.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Conceptual Framework

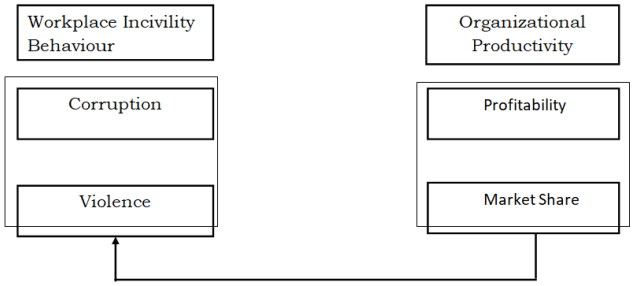

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

Source: Researcher's Desk, 2021.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

2.2.1. Instrumentality Theory

This theory expresses that rewards or punishments serve as the means for guaranteeing that individuals behave or act in desired ways. 'Instrumentality' is the believe that in the event that we do one thing it will prompt another. It assumes that an individual will be motivated to work rewards and punishments are tied directly to his or her performance, hence the awards are dependent upon effective performance. Instrumentality theory has its roots in Taylorism, i.e. the scientific management methods of Taylor (2007).

Taylor noted that it is incomprehensible, through any long period of time, to get labour to work substantially harder than the average men around them unless they are guaranteed a large and permanent increase in their pay. Motivation utilizing this approach has been, and still is, generally embraced and can be successful in a few conditions. However, it is based exclusively on a system of external control and fails to perceive various other human needs.

2.2.2. Content Theory

This theory focuses on the substance of motivation. It expresses that motivation is basically about making a move to fulfilled needs and distinguishes the primary needs that impact behaviour. Maslow (2010) discussed Needs theory, and in his two-factor model, Herzberg (2002) recorded needs which he termed 'satisfiers'. These theories are explained as follows: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs in which Maslow (2010) recommended that there are five noteworthy need categories which apply to individuals, beginning from the fundamental physiological needs and leading through a hierarchy of safety, social and esteem needs to the need for self-fulfilment, the most elevated need of all. Maslow's hierarchy is as follows:

Physiological: The need for oxygen, food, water and sex.

Safety: The need for protection against danger and the deprivation of physiological needs.

Social: The need for love, affection and acceptance as belonging to a group.

Esteem: The need to have a stable, firmly based, high evaluation of oneself (self-esteem) and to have the respect of others (prestige).

Self-fulfilment (self-actualization): The need to develop potentialities and skills, to become what one believes one is capable of becoming. Maslow's theory of motivation states that when a lower need is satisfied, the next highest becomes dormant and the individual's attention is turned to satisfying this higher need.

The lower need still exist, regardless of whether temporarily dormant as motivators, and people constantly come back to already fulfilled needs. One of the implications of Maslow's theory is that the higher-order needs for esteem and self-fulfilment give the best impetus to motivation - they grow in strength when they are fulfilled, while the lower needs decline in strength on fulfilment.

In any case, the employments individuals do will not really fulfilled their needs, particularly when they are routine or de-skilled. The basis of this theory is the belief that an unsatisfied need creates pressure and a condition of disequilibrium. To re-establish the balance, a goal that will fulfill the need is identified and behaviour is subsequently motivated by unsatisfied needs.

2.3. The Concept of Workplace Incivility

Workplace incivility refers to negative behaviours in the workplace that demonstrate a lack of respect and consideration for other employees. These behaviours are often subtle and may not involve direct confrontation, yet they violate accepted standards of professional conduct. Examples of workplace incivility include rude comments, gossip, deliberate exclusion, insensitive jokes, and disrespectful gestures. Although such actions may appear minor, they can create discomfort and emotional distress for employees.

Workplace incivility can take different forms, including verbal and non-verbal behaviours. Verbal incivility may involve shouting, insults, threats, or humiliating remarks, while non-verbal or physical forms may include intimidation, harassment, or inappropriate physical contact. These behaviours often cause employees to feel unsafe, demoralized, and psychologically strained. When workers experience constant incivility, their focus and commitment to their duties may decline, leading to reduced performance.

An uncivil work environment negatively affects employee well-being and organizational effectiveness. Employees who are mentally stressed or emotionally disturbed are less likely to perform efficiently or contribute positively to organizational goals. As organizations prioritize profitability and productivity, persistent incivility among workers can undermine these objectives by reducing cooperation, increasing absenteeism, and lowering morale.

Studies have shown that workplace incivility is a common occurrence in many organizations and is associated with negative outcomes such as job dissatisfaction, intention to quit, poor mental health, and work-family conflict. When uncivil behaviour is ignored or tolerated by management, it may encourage further misconduct and strengthen negative behavioural patterns. Employees may respond by withdrawing effort, avoiding interaction, or engaging in counterproductive behaviours.

This study focuses on examining workplace incivility as it relates to employee behaviour and organizational outcomes. Specifically, it considers how uncivil actions such as corruption and violence influence employee attitudes, performance, and organizational productivity, including profitability and market share.

2.4. Dimensions of Workplace Incivility Behaviour

Workplace incivility manifests in various forms that negatively influence employee behaviour and organizational performance. In this study, workplace incivility is examined through two major dimensions: corruption and workplace violence. These behaviours represent serious violations of ethical and professional standards within organizations and can significantly undermine productivity.

2.4.1. Corruption

Corruption generally refers to dishonest or unethical behaviour involving the misuse of authority for personal gain. The term originates from the Latin word corruptus, meaning to destroy or spoil. In organizational settings, corruption may take the form of bribery,

favoritism, fraud, manipulation of records, or abuse of organizational resources. Such practices weaken trust, distort decision-making processes, and reduce organizational efficiency.

Corruption is often difficult to define precisely because it appears in various forms and degrees across different contexts. However, it is commonly associated with actions that prioritize personal or group interests over organizational goals. In the workplace, corrupt practices may benefit individuals or specific groups while harming the organization as a whole. These actions can lead to financial losses, reduced profitability, and damaged organizational reputation.

When corruption becomes prevalent in an organization, it can discourage honest employees, weaken ethical standards, and create a culture of unfairness. Employees may lose motivation when they perceive that success is determined by unethical behaviour rather than merit. Over time, corruption can significantly reduce organizational productivity and market competitiveness.

2.4.2. Workplace Violence

Workplace violence refers to behaviours that involve the use or threat of physical or psychological force against individuals within the work environment. Such behaviours may result in physical injury, emotional trauma, or psychological distress. Workplace violence is a complex phenomenon and may be interpreted differently depending on cultural and organizational contexts.

Workplace violence includes a wide range of actions such as verbal abuse, threats, intimidation, harassment, bullying, physical assault, and sexual misconduct. These behaviours may occur during work hours, within organizational premises, or in situations directly related to work activities. Even non-physical acts such as verbal insults or threats can have serious psychological effects on employees.

The presence of violence in the workplace creates fear, insecurity, and tension among workers. Employees exposed to violent environments may experience stress, anxiety, and reduced job satisfaction, which can negatively affect their performance. In manufacturing firms, where teamwork and coordination are essential, workplace violence can disrupt operations and reduce overall productivity. Addressing workplace violence is therefore critical to maintaining a safe, healthy, and productive organizational environment.

2.5. Organizational Productivity

Organizational productivity refers to the extent to which an organization efficiently utilizes its available resources to achieve desired goals and outcomes. These resources include human effort, capital, technology, materials, and time. Productivity is often used as a key indicator of organizational performance and effectiveness, as it reflects how well inputs are transformed into valuable outputs.

Productivity can be assessed using various measures depending on the nature and objectives of the organization. Common indicators include profitability, market share, output level, cost efficiency, and growth rate. In business organizations, productivity is closely linked to the ability to remain competitive, satisfy customers, and sustain long-term success. Organizations that achieve high productivity are better positioned to respond to environmental changes and market pressures.

Employee performance plays a crucial role in determining organizational productivity. When employees are motivated, skilled, and committed to organizational goals, productivity tends to increase. Conversely, factors such as poor working conditions, unethical practices, and negative workplace behaviours can reduce employee effectiveness and overall organizational output.

In manufacturing firms, productivity is particularly important due to the capital-intensive nature of operations and the need for coordination among workers. Delays, inefficiencies, or disruptions caused by workplace incivility can significantly affect production processes and output levels. Incivility may reduce cooperation, increase error rates, and slow decision-making, thereby affecting profitability and market share.

Organizational productivity is therefore not only influenced by technical and financial factors but also by behavioural and social conditions within the workplace. Creating a respectful, ethical, and supportive work environment can enhance employee performance and contribute to improved productivity. This study focuses on profitability and market share as key measures of organizational productivity in examining the effects of workplace incivility behaviour.

2.6. Measures of Organizational Productivity

2.6.1. Profitability

The concept of organizational profitability has generated much interest in the field of strategic management. Organizational profitability has been considered as a major source of generation and development of sustainable competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). This view suggests that company's profitability of developing and deploying unique, inimitable and valuable profitability will gain a sustained competitive advantage (Barney, 2001; Moran and Ghoshal, 1999). However, it has a huge variety of names in the literature: core competence, collective skills, complex routines, best practices, or organizational capabilities. There has been a great debate in the literature on capability and its importance in acquiring competitive advantage since the issues of volatile markets, environmental uncertainty and change have come to the fore. In this context, the focus has shifted to the ability to change and then to develop new organizational capabilities as a critical prerequisite in order to develop sustainable competitive advantages (Teece et al., 1997). However, the salient concepts in this debate are 'dynamic capabilities' or 'dynamic core competencies', both called for a profound dynamization of organizational capabilities (Teece et al., 1997; Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; Zollo and Winter, 2002).

Recent developments of the resource based view recognize the importance of dynamic capabilities for improving organization performance particularly in complex or changing environments (Macher and Mowery, 2009; Verona and Ravasi, 2003). According to the dynamic capabilities view, organizations are considered as collections of difficult-to-imitate resources leading to the development of competitive advantage and contributing to performance differences between companies (Hoopes et al., 2003). The work of Teece et al, (1990) is probably the first contribution that developed the notion of dynamic capabilities. They wrote "our view of the company is somewhat richer than the standard resource-based view, it is not only the bundle of resources that matter, but the mechanisms by which companies learn and accumulate new skills and capabilities, and the forces that limit the rate and direction of this process" (p.11).

2.6.2. Market Share

In recent years, a growing number of business practitioners and theorists have postulated that one way for a company to increase its return is by increasing its market share, and studies appear to have confirmed this relationship. But the authors of this article refuse to accept the blanket inference that "more" is necessarily always going to mean "better" (Hoopes et al., 2003). A large market share, they point out, can spell more trouble as well as more profit for a company; a given project promising higher returns than others will

surely entail greater risks as well. Given this direct link between profit and risk, it behooves companies to manage their market shares with the same diligence as they would manage any other facet of their businesses (Hoopes et al., 2003). This concept of managing market shares leads to some intriguing possibilities. Although most companies can profit by attempting to increase their market shares, some may conclude that they are at (or possibly beyond) the point at which expected costs and risks outweigh expected gains. The authors suggest various strategies that these companies might consider in attempting to manage their market shares (Macher and Mowery, 2009; Verona and Ravasi, 2003).

Capturing a dominant share of a market is likely to mean enjoying the highest profits of any of the companies serving that market. It can also mean winning the leadership, power, and glory that go with such dominance. But high market share can also mean headaches. Companies possessing it are tempting targets for actual and potential competitors, consumer organizations, and government agencies. IBM, Gillette, Eastman Kodak, Procter & Gamble, Xerox, General Motors, Campbell's, Coca-Cola, Kellogg, and Caterpillar are cases in point. Their market shares have been their blessing and their curse: their curses because they must make their decisions and manage their operations with much more care than do their competitors. These companies cannot aggressively seek larger shares because further gains may break the dam and let the waters of antitrust action pour in. In some cases, these companies may even have to give up some share in order to stem the tide (Macher and Mowery, 2009; Verona and Ravasi, 2003).

The company that acquires a very high market share exposes itself to a number of risks that its smaller competitors do not encounter. Competitors, consumers, and governmental authorities are more likely to take certain actions against high-share companies than against small-share ones. Smaller competitors, for example, can direct certain types of attack against larger organizations, attacks that would not work as well against companies of equal or smaller size (Verona and Ravasi, 2003).

2.7. Empirical Review

Several empirical studies have examined the relationship between workplace incivility and organizational outcomes, particularly employee performance and productivity. These studies provide evidence that uncivil behaviour in the workplace negatively affects both individuals and organizations.

A study conducted by Andersson and Pearson examined workplace incivility as a form of low-intensity deviant behaviour and found that repeated exposure to incivility often leads to negative emotional reactions among employees. The study revealed that uncivil acts, though subtle, can escalate over time and result in retaliatory behaviours, reduced cooperation, and declining job performance. The findings suggest that workplace incivility can gradually undermine organizational effectiveness if not properly managed.

Cortina and colleagues investigated the prevalence and consequences of workplace incivility among employees in different organizational settings. Their study revealed that employees who experienced incivility reported higher levels of job dissatisfaction, stress, and intention to leave their organizations. The researchers concluded that workplace incivility contributes to a hostile work environment and negatively affects employee well-being and productivity.

Pearson and Porath examined the impact of rude and disrespectful behaviour on employee performance and organizational outcomes. The study found that employees who were targets of incivility were more likely to reduce work effort, avoid collaboration, and make more errors. The authors noted that workplace incivility not only affects individual performance but also leads to financial losses for organizations due to reduced productivity and increased turnover.

A study by Lim and Teo focused on the relationship between workplace incivility and counterproductive work behaviour. The findings indicated that employees who experienced incivility were more likely to engage in withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and reduced commitment. The study emphasized the role of organizational culture and leadership in preventing uncivil behaviour and promoting positive employee conduct.

In Nigeria, studies on workplace behaviour have shown that corruption and workplace violence remain significant challenges in many organizations. Research has indicated that unethical practices and violent behaviour in the workplace reduce employee morale and weaken organizational performance. Manufacturing firms, in particular, are vulnerable to productivity losses when such behaviours are prevalent due to the need for teamwork and operational discipline.

Overall, existing empirical studies suggest that workplace incivility has a significant negative relationship with organizational productivity. However, there is limited empirical evidence focusing specifically on manufacturing firms in Rivers State. This gap highlights the need for the present study to examine the relationship between workplace incivility behaviour and organizational productivity, with emphasis on corruption, workplace violence, profitability, and market share.

2.7.1. Impact on Organizations

Although the impact of incivility on individuals can be debilitating, incivility is also reported to have far-reaching effects on organizations. In fact, rude and discourteous behavior at work can have far more detrimental effects on an organization than many managers may anticipate. A study by Pearson et al. (2000) revealed that more than one third of the workers they surveyed indicated that they intentionally reduced their work efforts, stopped doing tasks and activities beyond their job descriptions, and ceased voluntary efforts. Some stopped helping new-comers, and others stopped offering assistance to colleagues. As a result, organization performance and profit were adversely affected. The incivility targets may also make less contribution to the organization by withdrawing from task forces, committees, and efforts to generate or inspire innovation. Almost 50% contemplated quitting and 12% of the targets actually quit.

Management and supervisory incivility effects can be profound with regards to organizations. Tepper (2000) found that subordinates of abusive supervisors had higher turnover rates and less favorable attitudes toward their jobs and the organization in general. As Hornstein (1996) confirmed:

> "Disrespectful abuse by bosses is clearly more than a breach of good manners. It is an assault on individual well-being and organizational productivity. Intimidation, one of the key components of abuse, erodes subordinates' faith in them. Intimidated workers relinquish autonomy and work hard to avoid being hit by their boss's other shoe when it drops, forgoing self-direction in favor self-protection. Instead of exercising self-control, they yield, gripped by passivity and restraint, to the boss's control. Subordinates learn quickly to survive by advancing with extreme caution, reducing their

> exposure to bosses' wrath by employing as little independent judgment and discretion as possible. (pp. 79-80)

Incivility can also reach into critical social networking and social capital that are essential for organizational performance and success (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Social capital refers to resources available in and through personal and business networks (Baker, 2000). When employees have negative experience with incivility at work, they are likely to withdraw and depart from social networks and consequently impact social capital. Although not yet empirically explored, Gonthier (2002) contended that incivility can impact outside stakeholders such as customers and clients. Workers who are victims of incivility sometimes take out their frustrations on customers or clients and/or may also voice discontent to those customers and clients about the incivility.

2.7.2. Co-worker Beliefs

Another element that can influence workplace incivility is the coworker beliefs or group norms. Strong cultures that monitor behavior for consistency with the organizational culture will insist on subordination of personal beliefs to organizational beliefs (Schein, 1992). In such a case, individual beliefs must be consistent with organizational values or sanctions will be forthcoming (Schein, 1992). However, if the culture does not clearly convey behavioral expectations, incivility may prevail because of personal beliefs. In fact, researchers (e.g., Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Fiske, 2000) noted that the need for belonging and acceptance by in-group members is a powerful motivator for human behavior. It is then not surprising that people often "adapt their cognitions, emotions and behaviors to fit better into the social world of work" (Cortina, 2008, p. 62). Hence, "when coworkers convey expectations for or model biased behavior, an employee is more likely to follow suit" (Cortina, 2008, pp. 62-63).

2.7.3. Mental Disorders

Incivility may be the result of mental disorders, aberrant behavior outside the norms prescribed by the organization, society, or both. These are behaviors that are deviant or abnormal (Davison & Neale, 1986). Davison and Neale (1986) defined abnormal as when an individual's behavior creates great distress and torment to himself or herself. Violations of social norms or behavior such as incivility that threaten or make individuals anxious by observing it are also defined as abnormal behavior. However, various forms of unusual behavior can be considered normal, depending on the prevailing culture (Davison & Neale, 1986), suggesting that screaming at a coworker might not be abnormal in an organization depending on the circumstances. In fact, abnormality, for example, behaviors that make other people feel uncomfortable or threatened, is viewed "as an interaction between individuals and the social and cultural context" (Zimbardo, Weber, & Johnson, 2003, p. 493). Miller (2003) pointed out that the personality disorder is particularly disruptive in the workplace.

It is worth noting that stress is not listed among mental disorders because people respond differently to stress based on personality and perceptions and the way they have learned to respond to stress (Zimbardo et al., 2003). Nevertheless, Hornstein (1996) stated that the changing nature of work and management has significantly increased the stress on the managerial team, which could alter and make the work environment less civil. He further suggested that pressure on supervisors could push them to mistreat subordinates.

2.7.4. Moral Maturity

Prevalence of workplace incivility may be partially understood using Kohlberg's theory of moral maturity development (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977). All morality exists in a system of rules with the essence of morality being the respect one acquires for those rules (Piaget, 1965). Organizations may have well-defined behavioral rules but have and hire employees who ignore them. Kohlberg's theory includes six stages of moral maturity: (1) punishment and obedience; (2) reciprocity; (3) behavior that pleases others; (4) doing one's duty, respect for authority, and social order for its own sake; (5) individual rights as determined by the entire society; and (6) right being defined by decisions of conscience. Stages 1 and 2 are preconvention levels. Stages 3 and 4 are conventional levels. Stages 5 and 6 are post conventional or principled levels. If an organization's objective is to minimize incivility, then people who are hired need to be at least at the conventional levels Stages 3 or 4. Those hired at stages below the conventional level of 3 may readily engage in uncivil acts because of their propensity to lack respect for rules, which typically include norms for mutual respect among workers in organizations. The pre-conventional levels of moral maturity are marked by the lack of "respect for an underlying moral order" and/or lack of concern for "loyalty, gratitude, or justice" (Kohlberg & Hersh, 1977, p. 55).

2.7.5. Psychological Contract

The psychological contract, defined as an implied set of unwritten expectations in a relationship (Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, & Solley, 1962), may serve as another means for targets of incivility to determine if the experience is uncivil. However, the psychological contract may not stand alone. Organizational culture and management philosophy may attempt to influence the perception on, meaning of, and reaction to a coworker's behavior (Schein, 1965, 1992).

The psychological contract is perceptual, unwritten, and hence not necessarily shared by the other party to the exchange. Consequently, employees and employers may hold different views on the content of the contract and the degree to which each party has fulfilled the mutual obligations of the exchange (Levinson et al., 1962; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Schein, 1965). Two employees hired into the same positions at the same time may develop idiosyncratic interpretations of their psychological contracts (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

As mentioned earlier, workers were found to have had expectations related to interactional justice (Bies, 2001). In Bies's (2001) study, the participants were concerned about four issues: (a) derogatory judgments made about themselves by others, (b) deception relating to one's words versus actions, (c) invasion of privacy related to legitimacy of disclosing personal information about one person to another, and (d) disrespect, the signs and symbols relating to the intrinsic value and worth of the individual.

2.7.6. Characteristics of Incivility

Civility means being mindful of the dignity of the human being (Gonthier, 2002). Behaviors such as not returning phone calls and e-mails, shouting at someone, habitually interrupting others, not keeping appointments, and belittling people who think differently are considered uncivil. Johnson and Indvik (2001) noted that obnoxious behavior has become endemic in the workplace. Although at the low end of the continuum of workplace abuse, incivility may relentlessly grind down collegial work relationships. Johnson and Indvik identified 11 most common uncivil behaviors: (a) condescending and demeaning comments, (b) overruling decisions without offering a reason, (c) disrupting meetings, (d) giving public reprimands, (e) talking about someone behind his or her back, (f)

giving others the silent treatment, (g) ignoring people, (h) not giving credit where credit is due, (i) sexually harassing employees, (j) giving dirty looks or negative eye contact, and (k) insulting and yelling at others. Similarly, Pearson et al. (2000) highlighted five types of behavior as uncivil: (a) receiving a nasty or demeaning note, (b) being treated like a child, (c) being berated for action in which one played no part, (d) being excluded from a meeting, and (e) having one's credibility undermined in front of others.

Davenport et al. (2002) argued that incivility, or mobbing in their terminology, may be mundane, for example, changing rules and regulations frequently, adding additional controls and oversight, not keeping promises, not offering help, and minimizing contact. Gonthier (2002) pointed to intrusive cell phone conversations and rude e-mails. As mentioned earlier, Pearson et al. (2000) indicated that a distinguishing feature of incivility is its ambiguity. Unlike acts of aggression (vandalism, threats, or sabotage) or acts of violence (physical assault or homicide) in which the harm is obvious, the intent to harm or injure is not obvious. An instigator may harm the target and yet not be cognizant of the underlying intent, denying or burying the intent by ignoring the effect. The instigator may claim that the target has misinterpreted the behavior or is hypersensitive. It is worth nothing that incivility and sexual harassment have similar characteristics. For example, they both caused lost time, reduced productivity, and increased turnover. However, they are also different. Incivility is less likely to be reported than sexual harassment because similar protective mechanisms do not exist for those reporting uncivil behavior (Pearson & Porath, 2005). Due to the absence of protective mechanisms, organizations are less likely to be aware of incivility. Consequently, incivility is more likely to spread than sexual harassment and incivility becomes more difficult to curtail.

2.7.7. Trends

Ample evidence shows that workplace incivility is on the rise because of the changing nature of work at the turn of the new millennium (Farkas & Johnson, 2002; Pearson et al., 2000; Putnam, 2000). Gonthier (2002) stated that stability in the workplace had been replaced with downsizing, reengineering, budget cuts, temporary workers, and disrespectful and demeaning treatment. The workplace has become highly transient, and this has profoundly affected our values. Pearson and Porath (2004) reasoned that corporate schemes to rearrange, recast, or reduce the workplace often make long-standing norms and values irrelevant. The resulting work and information overload and time pressure allow less time for the "niceties" of business life (p. 407). Organizations that focus on individual, short-term contributions and outcomes may foster uncivility as the individual's contribution to the organization and group becomes less emphasized over time. It seems that "people come to the business world with little or no sense of what is right or wrong" (Pearson & Porath, 2004, p. 407). A "siege mentality," producing more with fewer resources, was found to be a contributing factor to supervisor-subordinate incivility (Hornstein, 1996, p. 26).

2.8. Causes of Workplace Uncivility

Evidently, whether it is an emerging or existing phenomenon, incivility has permeated today's workplace (Cortina et al., 2001; Davenport et al., 2002; Gonthier, 2002; Hornstein, 1996; Pearson & Porath, 2004). This section discusses three additional contributing factors besides those included in the conceptual framework.

Worker Demographics: Workplace incivility relates to demographics. As Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak (2000) stated, "There is a problem in the workplace—a problem not derived from downsizing, right sizing, change, technology, foreign competition, pointy-haired bosses, bad breath, cubicle envy, or greed. It is a problem of values, ambitions, views, mindsets, demographics and generations in conflict." (pp. 9-10). These researchers further noted that the workplace of today is awash with the conflicting voices and views of the most age- and value-diverse workforce since this country's industrial revolution.

Workplace Informality: Gonthier (2002) argued that when the workplace "went casual," the lines between what is and is not appropriate became blurred. "Many people became confused and ultimately concluded that anything goes" (p. 7). As work environments have become informal, some long-standing cues about respect and politeness may also have vanished consequently. Without the trappings of formality it can be more difficult for some employees to discern acceptable behavior from unacceptable behavior (Pearson et al., 2000). Informality in the organization and hot temperaments also facilitate the formation and escalation of such spirals that can permeate an organization. In fact, the probability of the occurrence and/or escalation of incivility are enhanced in an informal environment (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Power and Social Status: Ample research evidence supports that power and social status affect the nature and movement of incivility at work. Pearson and Porath (2005) found that those with greater power have more ways to be uncivil and get away with it. To make matters worse, top-down incivility can start a self-reinforcing cycle. If incivility is committed downward, hierarchical differences can make the incident seem inconsequential. Cortina et al. (2001) concluded that the less powerful and influential employees tend to be targets. In their study of federal court employees, secretaries and attorneys were found to experience less incivility than other federal court employees. In each case, those employees worked for federal judges. Incivility is an "equal opportunity offence" in that both men and women are likely to be targets (Pearson & Porath, 2005, p. 11). Instigators are generally described as people who tend to be rude to their peers, disrespectful of their subordinates, and hard to get along with in general (Pearson et al., 2000). Both male and female instigators showed a slight preference for same sex targets; however, men are twice as likely to be the instigator. Instigators slightly prefer targets of their own sex, are older, and have more tenure in the organization. Male targets are more likely to engage in direct, overt retribution against their instigators to try to "get even." Women tend to try to avoid the instigator. They are less likely to "spread the word" about the instigator as men will (Pearson et al., 2000, p. 127). Although few instigators had initiated workplace violence, 25% of them were known to have threatened someone at work (Pearson et al., 2000). Lim and Cortina (2005) found in a study of 1,662 federal court employees that there is a greater chance of higher scale abuse, sexual harassment, taking place against a backdrop of generalized workplace disrespect. Based on the findings of the study, they pointed out that aggressors may instigate several forms of mistreatment, both sexual and in general, in efforts to debase women and reinforce or raise their own social advantage.

The impact of status is also commonly seen between superiors and subordinates (Hornstein, 1996). Hornstein (1996) found much evidence of supervisors and managers spitting, throwing things, smashing objects, being rude, lying, screaming obscenities, viciously ridiculing, calling the subordinates names, and even physically assaulting subordinates. He described these behaviors as "frequent" and "toxic" (p. 6). Lutgen-Sandvik (2003), expanding upon Leymann's (1990) four-phase linear model of workplace mobbing, identified a six-stage communicative cycle of the more powerful with the less powerful such as a supervisor-employee relationship.

Lutgen-Sandvik utilized muted group theory (Spender, 1984) as her foundation. Muted group theory posits that an abuser controls the substance and form of communication. The Lutgen-Sandvik model proposed that Stage 1 is the communicative cycle, which begins with the initial incident. The cycle advances to Stage 2, progressive discipline in the unsatisfactory performance review. Stage 3 is the cycle in which the abuser's communication becomes increasingly negative, personal, and bombastic. At the 4th stage, upper management may become aware. Not all targets experience this stage as not all targets take their complaint to upper management, or a system of upper management review may not exist. This is a critical stage as upper management may interrupt the cycle by giving "voice" (awareness of the complaint) to targets' experiences. However, management responses commonly address making changes in the target rather than the abuser. The 5th stage is isolation and silencing due to fear and intimidation, and the final 6th stage is expulsion and regeneration. The regeneration of the abuse cycle suggests that the problem does not reside in a specific problem but is an explicitly or implicitly supported norm of the organizational culture.

2.9. Summary of Empirical Review

This chapter reviewed relevant literature related to workplace incivility behaviour and organizational productivity. The review examined key concepts such as workplace incivility, its dimensions, and organizational productivity. Particular attention was given to corruption and workplace violence as major forms of workplace incivility, as well as profitability and market share as measures of organizational productivity.

The literature revealed that workplace incivility is a common phenomenon in many organizations and has negative consequences for both employees and organizational outcomes. Previous studies have shown that uncivil behaviours such as disrespect, unethical practices, and violence can reduce employee morale, increase stress, and weaken job commitment. These factors often result in reduced efficiency, poor performance, and lower productivity.

Empirical studies reviewed in this chapter indicate that workplace incivility is associated with negative outcomes including job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, reduced cooperation, and increased intention to leave the organization. In manufacturing firms, where coordination and discipline are essential, the presence of incivility can significantly disrupt operations and affect profitability and competitiveness.

Although several studies have examined the effects of workplace incivility on organizational performance, limited attention has been given to manufacturing firms in Rivers State. This gap in the literature justified the need for the present study, which seeks to examine the relationship between workplace incivility behaviour and organizational productivity in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State.

2.10. Social Systems and Social Interactions

One element that may directly affect human behaviors at work is social systems and social interactions. As a human system, organizations create the need for proximity and dependence of people on each other. Proximity and dependency, as conditions of social life, harbor the threats of human conflict, capricious antisocial behavior, human relationship instabilities, and uncertainty about the nature of the social structure with its concomitant roles (Scott, 1977). The cement that holds members of the organization together is psychological, anchored in attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, motivations, habits, and expectations of human beings. The social-psychological basis of social systems includes the role behaviors of members, the norms prescribing and sanctioning these behaviors, and the values in which these norms are embedded. When organizations change their focus from group social to individual behavior, individual productivity may displace civility. Pearson and Porath (2004) reported that more than 40% of people they surveyed suggested that time pressure fuels uncivil behavior and that civility takes too much time. Although productivity is certainly a critical organizational focus, so too is the social-psychological well-being of workers.

Social systems and social interactions satisfy not only the demand for organizational output and outcomes but also a fundamental need for dignity at work (Hodson, 2001). Coworkers help provide meaning in work through sharing of work-life experiences and through friendships. Hodson (2001) related dignity to being treated with respect by both the employer and coworker while satisfying a person's need to grow, but not without complexity. Coworkers can also make daily life at work a nightmare through gossip, cliques, interference, scope gloating, ostracism, and setting up roadblocks to another accomplishing his or her work. Significant abuse at work can come from both the employers and coworkers, Hodson noted.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between workplace uncivility behaviours and organizational productivity in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State. This chapter of the study implements the choice of methodology and design for empirically investigating the relationship between the two variables. The chapter therefore concerns itself with issues and subjects such as research design, population of the study, source of data, instrument for data collection, sampling techniques for the study, questionnaire design, method of data analysis, reliability, and validity.

Kervin (1992) describes the methodology as the choice of techniques and research processes as well as the reasons for those choices. It is considered as the plan which defines and structures the format through which the variables and their relationships are to be empirically examined and therefore forms a sensitive aspect of the study.

3.1. Research Design

The study utilized a simple descriptive design. Saunders et al. (2013) defined simple descriptive design as one in which a group of people (firms) or items is studied by collecting and analyzing data from only a few people or items considered to be representative of the entire population. The research design used for this study is the simple survey method. In this approach, a questionnaire was constructed and administered to respondents and analyzed against the research questions in chapter one. Hence, this study empirically delineates the nature of the relationship between workplace incivility behaviours and organizational productivity in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State.

3.2. Population of the Study

Blaxter (1998) described the population of a study as referring to the entire individuals, persons, group of persons, or things of interest the researcher wishes to investigate. The population, according to Kervin (1992) is defined by the feature or characteristic which defines its boundaries and which is of interest to the researcher.

The population of this study is designed to constitute all managers, senior and junior staff in selected manufacturing firms such as: Coke-cola PLC, First Aluminium Company Nig Ltd, Dangote Cement, Nigerian Bottling Company Limited, and Flour Mills Company Limited in Rivers State. However, for the purpose of time constraint,

the population of the study was made to be 134; the reason for this choice is that concrete and adequate information relating to the study under investigation resides among this set of people randomly selected.

3.3. Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

This is the procedure for identifying all elements of the target population. The target population of interest of the researcher is the managers, senior and junior staff of manufacturing firms such as: Coke-cola PLC, First Aluminium Company Nig Ltd, Dangote Cement, Nigerian Bottling Company Limited, and Flour Mills Company Limited in Rivers State.

Convenience sampling procedure was adopted for easy accessibility and courage of the sample size. The sampling size is 134. (Saunders et al., 2013). In determining the sample size for the study, the researcher adopted the Taro-Yamane's statistics formula as utilized by Baridam (2001). This is given as follows:

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

Where:

n = sample size

N = population of the study

e = tolerable error of 5% (0.05)

Therefore:

$$n = \frac{134}{1 + 134(0.05)^2}$$
$$n = \frac{134}{1 + 134(0.0025)}$$
$$n = \frac{134}{1 + 0.335}$$
$$n = \frac{134}{1.335}$$
$$n = 100.37 \approx 100$$

Thus, the sample size is determined to be 100.

3.4. Questionnaire Design

This is specifically for data collection, recording and measuring data or research variables. There are various research instruments, but only a questionnaire form and interview method were used in this study.

The questionnaire was divided into two separate parts: section A and section B. Section A sought information on the biographical data of staff working in the organization. The second part (section B) focuses on the subject. This consists of the questions related to how participative leadership style influences organizational progress. Thus the impact and benefits of this study is on manufacturing firms such as: Coke-cola PLC, First Aluminium Company Nig Ltd, Dangote Cement, Nigerian Bottling Company Limited, and Flour Mills Company Limited in Rivers State.

3.5. Source and Method of Data Collection

The instrument used in the data collected is the interview and questionnaire method which are seen as being more effective and stable for a research of this nature. The drafted instruments for data collection (questionnaire) were given and presented to the research supervisor who after going through made necessary correction, amendments and ratification that helped to ensure that the questionnaire actually measured what it is planned to measure.

Other sources of data collection were as follows:

Primary Data Collection: In order to get facts to the subject matter of this research, the researcher visited selected manufacturing firms such as: Coke-cola PLC, First Aluminium Company Nig Ltd, Dangote Cement, Nigerian Bottling Company Limited, and Flour Mills Company Limited in Rivers State. The questionnaire was filled by the managers and staff of these firms who provided the needed information.

Secondary Data Collection: The secondary data which includes textbooks, periodic journals and other relevant materials were also used. This was majorly used in the review of related literature in chapter two.

3.6. Data Analytical Method

The method used to analyze the data was the simple survey method stated in tables and expressed in percentage. The researcher in the course of this research work formulated hypotheses which were stated to give bearing for the research work.

In order to test the validity of the already stated hypotheses, the chi-square (X^2) statistical test was used due to the nature of the questionnaire designed for the purpose of the hypothesis testing. The chi-square test requires the following steps:

The simple computation formula is:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e} \tag{2}$$

Where:

f_o = observed frequency

f_e = expected frequency

3.7. Reliability and Validity

Reliability is the extent to which an experiment, test, or any measuring procedure yields the same result on repeated trials. Validity refers to the degree to which a study accurately reflects or assesses the specific concepts that the researcher is attempting to measure.

Research should be concerned with both external and internal validity. External validity refers to the extent to which the result of a study is generalizable or transferable. Internal validity refers to the extent to which the result of a study represents the truth in the population being studied.

The important role in research is reliability, which is critical for many parts of our lives including manufacturing, medicine, and sports.

4. DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1. Data Presentation

In this chapter, we carefully analyze and present the data collected for the study. The data are presented and analyzed with their appropriate titles to reflect the research questions. The researcher used questionnaires for this study; a total of 100 copies were administered, out of which 80 copies were fully retrieved.

4.1.1. Data Collection and Presentation

The table shows the total number of questionnaires:

A total number of 100 questionnaires were presented to the largest population sample out of which 80 copies were dully filled and returned. From the result above, 25% of the respondents are in human resource department of various firms. The findings also

Table 1. Questionnaire Distribution and Retrieval

Firm	No. Sent Out	Number Returned	Percentage
Coke–cola PLC	25	20	25%
First Aluminium Company Nig Ltd	25	20	25%
Dangote Cement	20	16	20%
Bottling Company Limited	15	12	15%
Flour Company Limited	15	12	15%
Total	**100**	**80**	**100%**

Source: Field Survey Study, 2021.

indicate that 20% and 15% of the respondents are in finance and marketing, production department respectively.

4.2. Data Analysis

Table 2. Showing the Levels of Employees

Respondents	Distributed	Returned	% of Response
Managers	25	20	25%
Supervisor	25	15	25%
Operational manager	20	15	20%
Senior	30	30	30%
Total	**100**	**80**	**100%**

Source: Field Survey Study, 2021

Table 3. Showing Position/Rank of Respondents

Level/Position	Number of Respondent	Percentage %
Top management	30	37.5%
Middle management	26	32.5%
Lower management	24	30%
Total	**80**	**100%**

Source: Field Survey Study 2021

The above table shows that 30 respondents representing 37.5% account for top management, 26 respondents representing 32.5% account for middle management while 24 respondents representing 30% account for lower management.

Table 4. Showing the Age of Respondents

Age	Number of Respondents	Percentage %
20-29	40	50%
30-39	36	45%
40 and above	4	5%
Total	**80**	**100**

Source: Field Survey Study, 2021

The table above shows that 50% of the respondents account for 20-29 years age group, 45% account for between the ages 30-39 year while 5% of the respondents account for between the ages of 40 years and above.

Table 5. Showing the Educational Qualification of Respondents

Education	Number of Respondents	Percentage %
FSLC	13	15%
SSCE	15	16%
NCE/ND	19	19%
B.SC/HND and above	40	50%
Total	**80**	**100%**

Source: Field Survey Study, 2021

The table above shows that 15% of the respondents account for FSLC, 16% account for O'Level (SSCE), 19% account for NCE/ND while 50% account for B.Sc and above.

Table 6. Extent to which corruption influence profitability

Description	No. of Respondents	Percentage %
Yes	55	69%
No	25	31%
Total	**80**	**100%**

Source: Field Survey Study, 2021.

Question One: Does corruption influence profitability of the organization in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State?

Table **??** shows that 55 respondents representing 69% say yes that corruption influences profitability of the organization while 25 respondents representing 31% are undecided.

Question Two: How does corruption affect market share in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State?

Table 7. Extent to which corruption affect market share

Description	No. of Respondents	Percentage %
Yes	72	90%
No	8	10%
Total	**80**	**100%**

Source: Field Survey Study, 2021.

Table **??** shows that 72 respondents representing 90% say yes that corruption affects market share while 8 respondents representing 10% of the total population under study said no.

Question Three: How does violence in the workplace influence organizational profitability?

Table 8. Extent to which violence affects organizational profitability

Description	No. of Respondents	Percentage %
Yes	55	63%
No	25	37%
Total	**80**	**100%**

Source: Field study, 2021.

Table **??** shows that 55 respondents representing 63% say yes that violence in the workplace affects organizational profitability while 25 respondents representing 37% said no.

Question Four: What is the relationship between violence and market share in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State?

Table 9. Relationship between violence and market share

Description	No. of Respondents	Percentage %
Yes	45	56%
No	35	44%
Total	**80**	**100%**

Source: Field Survey Study, 2021.

In Table **??**, 45 respondents representing 56% said yes while 35 respondents representing 44% said no regarding the relationship between violence and market share.

4.3. Testing of Hypothesis

The null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance using the chi-square (X^2) formula:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E} \tag{3}$$

Where: O = observed frequency E = expected frequency

4.3.1. Hypothesis One

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between corruption and organizational profitability.

Table 10. Observed frequencies for Hypothesis One

QUESTIONS	Q_1	Q_2	TOTAL
Yes	55	60	115
No	25	20	45
Total	**80**	**80**	**160**

Source: Field Study, 2021

Computation of Expected frequencies (E):

Yes (Q_1): $E = \frac{115\times80}{160} = 57.5$

Yes (Q_2): $E = \frac{115\times80}{160} = 57.5$

No (Q_1): $E = \frac{45\times80}{160} = 22.5$

No (Q_2): $E = \frac{45\times80}{160} = 22.5$

Table 11. Chi-square computation for Hypothesis One

OPTION	O	E	O-E	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^2/E$
Yes	55	57.5	-2.5	6.25	0.11
Yes	60	57.5	2.5	6.25	0.11
No	25	22.5	2.5	6.25	0.28
No	20	22.5	-2.5	6.25	0.28
Total					**0.78**

Decision Rule: Degrees of Freedom (DF) = $(R-1)(C-1) = (2-1)(2-1) = 1$. The critical value at 0.05 significance level is 3.84. Since the calculated X^2 value (0.78) is less than the critical value (3.84), the null hypothesis (Ho_1) is accepted. There is no significant relationship between corruption and organizational profitability.

4.3.2. Hypothesis Two

Ho_2: There is a significant alternative between corruption in the workplace and market share of the organization.

Table 12. Observed frequencies for Hypothesis Two

QUESTIONS	Q_2	Q_6	TOTAL
Yes	72	55	127
No	08	25	33
Total	**80**	**80**	**160**

Source: Field Study, 2021

Expected Frequencies (E):

Yes (Q_2): $E = \frac{127\times80}{160} = 63.5$

No (Q_2): $E = \frac{33\times80}{160} = 16.5$

Table 13. Chi-square computation for Hypothesis Two

OPTION	O	E	O-E	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^2/E$
Yes	72	63.5	8.5	72.25	1.14
Yes	55	63.5	-8.5	72.25	1.14
No	08	16.5	-8.5	72.25	4.38
No	25	16.5	8.5	72.25	4.38
Total					**11.04**

Decision Rule: DF = 1. The calculated X^2 value (11.04) is greater than the critical value (3.84). Therefore, the null hypothesis (Ho_2) is rejected. There is a significant relationship between corruption in the workplace and market share of the organization.

4.3.3. Hypothesis Three

Ho_3: There is no significant relationship between violence in the workplace and organizational profitability.

Table 14. Chi-square computation for Hypothesis Three

Option	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	$(Fo-Fe)^2$	$(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$
Agreed	30	26.7	3.3	10.89	0.41
Undecided	30	26.7	3.3	10.89	0.41
Disagreed	20	26.7	-6.7	44.89	1.68
Total	**80**				**2.50**

Decision Rule: The calculated chi-square is 2.50. Tabulated value for 2 DF at 0.05 significance level is 5.99. Since 2.50 < 5.99, H_0 is accepted. There is no significant relationship between violence in the workplace and organizational profitability.

4.3.4. Hypothesis Four

Ho_4: There is no significant relationship between violence in the workplace and market share.

Table 15. Chi-square computation for Hypothesis Four

Option	Fo	Fe	Fo-Fe	$(Fo-Fe)^2$	$(Fo-Fe)^2/Fe$
Agreed	40	26.7	13.3	176.89	6.63
Undecided	30	26.7	3.3	10.89	0.41
Disagreed	10	26.7	-16.7	278.89	10.45
Total	**80**				**17.49**

Decision Rule: The calculated chi-square is 17.49. Tabulated value for 2 DF at 0.05 significance level is 5.99. Since 17.49 > 5.99, H_0 is rejected. It is therefore concluded that there is a significant relationship between violence in the workplace and market share.

4.4. Discussion of Findings

The research findings reveal that 50% of the respondents account for 20-29 years age group, 45% account for between the ages of 30-39 year while 5% of the respondents account for between the ages of 40 years and above.

The findings show that 15% of the respondents account for FSLC, 16% account for O'Level, 19% account for NCE/ND while 50% account for B.Sc and above. The findings also reveal that 55 respondents representing 69% believe that corruption affects profitability of the organization. 72 respondents representing 90% indicate that corruption affects market share. 50 respondents representing 63% agree that violence in the workplace affects organizational profitability.

The statistical tests show that there is no significant relationship between corruption and organizational profitability (Ho_1 accepted). However, there is a significant relationship between corruption and market share (Ho_2 rejected). Regarding violence, the study finds no significant relationship with organizational profitability (Ho_3 accepted) but a significant relationship with market share (Ho_4 rejected).

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary of Findings

The main purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between workplace incivility behaviour and organizational productivity. This study has summarized, and made conclusions on the discussion of findings obtained from each of the chapters and also made analysis to give meaning to the study as it derived facts from results obtained in the study, as well made recommendations that can be implemented or used for future research for each of the research objectives.

5.2. Conclusions

From the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn:

Workplace incivility behaviour affects organizational productivity which occurs as a result of violence and corruptions in the workplace restrict organizational profitability and market share of the organization. Consequently, workplace ethics as a determinant factor to control workplace incivility in the organization is not established.

5.3. Recommendations

From the findings and conclusion of the study, the following recommendations are made:

1. The management of the organization should endeavour to implement organizational policies which would control the behaviour of the employee conduct of the organization.
2. Flexibility of protocols and exchange of information should be encouraged within the organization to restrict the issues of incivility conduct within the organizations.
3. Ethical code policies should be communicated to all employees at all levels in order to restrict corruptions and violence in the organization.
4. The management of selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State should establish procedures that will monitor the performance of their employees in their organization.
5. The management in selected manufacturing firms in Rivers State should ensure to use modern technological applications to monitor the performance of their employees.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EMPLOYEES

Workplace Uncivility (A Study of selected maritime firms in Port Harcourt, Rivers State)

Please specify your answer by placing a tick on the relevant answer provided.

Section A: Personal Demographic of Respondents

1. Name of organization: .....
2. Gender: Male Female

Instruction: Based on your opinion, please indicate the most appropriate response with the scale given below:

1. SA = Strongly Agree
2. A = Agree
3. U = Undecided
4. D = Disagree
5. SD = Strongly Disagree

Table 16. Questionnaire Items

S/N	ITEMS	SA	A	U	D	SD
Corruption and Profitability						
1	Corruption influences profitability of the organization.					
2	Corruption affects profitability of the organization.					
3	Employees of the selected firms engage in corrupt practices.					
Corruption and Market Share						
4	Corruption affects market share of the organization.					
6	Employee corrupt practices affect market share of the organization.					
7	Corruption causes organizational pitfalls.					
Workplace Violence and Profitability						
8	Violence in the organization influences organizational profitability.					
9	Violence affects organizational profitability.					
Workplace Violence and Market Share						
10	There is a relationship between violence and market share.					
11	Violence in the organization affects market share.					

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Financial Resources as an Inhibiting Factor of Open Innovation and Strategies to Overcome it

Article Record

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Abstract

Within Open Innovation (OI), projects are not created solely with the company's own resources, but also based on the participation of actors within the same innovation ecosystem who contribute to the requesting company. Many companies, due to the lack of these resources-especially financial ones-are those that most often opt for this type of partnership within organizational networks. During the innovation process, this factor may prevent projects from succeeding, and strategic actions become required. This study was qualitative in nature, based on interviews with twenty managers who work with OI, aiming to identify whether the financial factor is an inhibiting factor of OI, focusing on the development of innovative products, and to highlight the strategies that company managers used to overcome it. After a content analysis, supported by Atlas Ti, the research indicated that access to financial resources was an inhibiting factor of OI, and that the use of public funding, cost reduction, resources from investors, support from the state federation of industries and contractual negotiation were strategic actions adopted to prevent obstacles from hindering the continuity of projects.

financial resources | inhibiting factor | innovation ecosystem | open innovation | organizational networks | strategic actions

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Abstract

Within Open Innovation (OI), projects are not created solely with the company's own resources, but also based on the participation of actors within the same innovation ecosystem who contribute to the requesting company. Many companies, due to the lack of these resources-especially financial ones-are those that most often opt for this type of partnership within organizational networks. During the innovation process, this factor may prevent projects from succeeding, and strategic actions become required. This study was qualitative in nature, based on interviews with twenty managers who work with OI, aiming to identify whether the financial factor is an inhibiting factor of OI, focusing on the development of innovative products, and to highlight the strategies that company managers used to overcome it. After a content analysis, supported by Atlas Ti, the research indicated that access to financial resources was an inhibiting factor of OI, and that the use of public funding, cost reduction, resources from investors, support from the state federation of industries and contractual negotiation were strategic actions adopted to prevent obstacles from hindering the continuity of projects.

Keywords: *financial resources, inhibiting factor, innovation ecosystem, open innovation, organizational networks, strategic actions*

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1. Introdução

A inovação tecnológica de produtos, serviços ou processos representa a chave para a empresa que pretende se desenvolver e obter produtividade. Para Sambiase et al. (2013), a inovação possibilita a diferenciação da empresa perante seus concorrentes. Os autores também enfatizam que a inovação contribui para o acesso a novos conhecimentos e mercados e para o aumento das receitas da empresa e a realização de nuove parcerias que agregam valor em suas respectivas marcas.

A inovação pode ser entendida como a produção, adoção, assimilação e exploração de uma novidade com valor agregado nas esferas econômica e social por meio de produtos e serviços, novos ou aprimorados, conforme Medeiros et al. (2017).

No entanto, Faccin e Brand (2015) ressaltam que é muito difícil uma organização reunir recursos, o que inclui os financeiros, para se desenvolver sem utilizar relacionamentos fora do seu ambiente interno. Além disso, existem organizações que ainda preferem inovar sem estas interações. Chesbrough (2003) chama esta forma de inovar de inovação fechada, que é um método de gerenciar onde todos os processos relacionados à inovação ocorrem por meios próprios.

Chesbrough (2006), porém, afirma que quando uma empresa adota uma abordagem fechada, quando não se abre para troca de conhecimentos, pode vir a perder uma série de oportunidades de novos projetos e tecnologias, deixando de lado os benefícios advindos dessa troca.

No atual cenário competitivo as organizações precisam adotar a Open Innovation (OI), conforme Chesbrough et al. (2018). Os autores definem a Open Innovation como uma forma de colaboração na qual os conhecimentos são fluxos compartilhados entre a organização e os atores externos, estando essa relação comprometida com os interesses de todos os envolvidos.

As alianças estratégicas entre organizações para que a OI aconteça, segundo Donato (2017), aponta a existência de benefícios mútuos nesta cooperação. Essas redes organizacionais propiciam ganhos oriundos desse compartilhamento de conhecimentos e representam vantagens significativas para os integrantes da rede.

Portanto, esses relacionamentos entre empresas caracterizam uma rede organizacional que Scopel et al. (2017) define como a articulação de atores diversos com interesses em comum. Esta colaboração permite a solução de problemas que seriam difíceis de serem resolvidos sem parcerias.

Por outro lado esta parceria ocorre dentro de um ecossistema de inovação que para Granstrand e Holgersson (2020) pode ser conceituado como uma integração de diversos atores, desenvolvendo atividades inovadoras, podendo ser complementares ou substitutas.

Existem diversos benefícios para quem pratica a OI. Segundo Pires et al. (2012) um deles é a utilização de tecnologias, pertencentes a atores externos envolvidos na inovação, que podem promover a geração de novas inovações. Também afirmam que a inovação aberta proporciona ganho para todos os atores conectados nesta parceria, bem como acelera o processo de inovação, reduz custos, tempo de comercialização e riscos inerentes ao próprio processo.

No entanto, muitas empresas não possuem recursos financeiros suficientes para desenvolver projetos de Open Innovation, como por exemplo as empresas de pequeno e médio porte (PMEs), conforme Piller e Diener (2010).

Ao longo do processo de inovação, mesmo com estas parcerias, fatores podem comprometer os objetivos dos atores envolvidos, gerando obstáculos para o sucesso dei projetos. Esta pesquisa teve

como objetivo identificar o fator financeiro como fator inibidor ou não para o desenvolvimento de projetos inovadores, sob o ponto de vista da empresa demandante, e evidenciar as ações estratégicas que foram adotadas para superá-lo.

O presente estudo tem como foco a Open Innovation (OI) e foi realizado com base em uma rede de contatos com profissionais de diversas empresas que desejam inovar. O objetivo era analisar se o fator financeiro foi inibidor ou não da OI e como as empresas conseguiram vencer este obstáculo.

O Manual de Oslo (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2018) indica que a inovação pode ocorrer em produtos e processos. No entanto, o foco desse estudo é o envolvimento das empresas em inovação aberta de produtos.

O estudo se justifica por preencher uma lacuna citada por Conejero et al. (2015) quando afirmam que há necessidade de compreender melhor de que forma as empresas podem capitalizar benefícios oriundos das redes organizacionais proporcionados pela Open Innovation, bem como a importância de se pesquisar a contribuição de todos os envolvidos dessas redes e não apenas sob a ótica da empresa focal.

Espera-se que este estudo possa proporcionar reflexões de cunho teórico e científico, permitindo que novas pesquisas aprofundem o tema OI, tendo como foco as empresas que desejam desenvolver projetos de Open Innovation e quais fatores podem dificultar este processo e estratégias para superá-los.

2. Referencial Teórico

2.1. Redes Organizacionais

Bastos e Matos (2019) afirmam que ocorreram mudanças nas empresas e em seus processos de produção, e também na forma de relacionamento com clientes e fornecedores que permitiram uma nova lógica fundamentada no intercâmbio de conhecimentos e em um estilo de cooperação em rede que favoreceram os projetos.

Por isto surge o conceito de rede, onde Kolosque et al. (2020) afirmam que rede são duas ou mais organizações envolvidas tendo como objetivo proporcionar o dinamismo dos diversos processos organizacionais que emergem dessa relação.

Dentro do contexto da Open Innovation (OI), as redes organizacionais colaborativas assumem um papel vital, conforme Santos et al. (2011), pois a empresa precisa buscar a inovação como forma de atuar em um mercado competitivo, obtendo um crescimento sustentável dos negócios.

Por isso Scopel et al. (2017) afirmam que as empresas nas redes acabam estabelecendo relações de cooperação e as Pequenas e Médias Empresas (PMEs) a veem como alternativa para resolver uma dificuldade ou ainda ampliar o alcance de suas ações.

E por causa desta competitividade, citada por Santos et al. (2011), que Scopel et al. (2017) afirmam que a empresa precisa ser capaz também de entregar produtos de valor a seus clientes. Neste sentido, muitas empresas estão praticando a OI por meio da utilização de desenvolvimento de uma rede de inovação colaborativa, em que há un fluxo aberto entre a empresa e o mercado, com transferência de recursos.

2.2. Open Innovation

Open Innovation possui relação com Redes, segundo Faccin e Brand (2015), pois adotar um modelo de Open Innovation exige não apenas abertura na entrada, mas na saída (de ideias, informações) das empresas porque estas precisam estar dispostas a compartilhar projetos e conhecimentos, existindo vários tipos de fluxos em uma rede, entre eles: financeiros, materiais e de informações.

A Open Innovation, segundo o Manual de Oslo (OECD, 2018), significa o fluxo de conhecimento relevante através das fronteiras organizacionais, resultando desse fluxo uma cooperação com vantagens para as partes envolvidas.

Chesbrough (2003) cunhou a expressão Open Innovation, referindo-se à abertura das fronteiras das organizações, no sentido de permitir o uso de ideias internas e externas nos processos de inovação por essas organizações. A Open Innovation tem como objetivo desenvolver produtos, serviços ou processos que aumentem a produtividade das organizações.

Os processos de inovação nem sempre são gerados internamente. Por isto, Chesbrough et al. (2018) acrescentam que a empresa não desenvolve OI apenas por si só, mas também com base em recursos e potenciais de outras entidades externas, que podem efetuar essa troca de conhecimentos para gerar inovação por meio dessa cooperação. A empresa pode realizar essas trocas fazendo alianças e acordos de cooperação.

As empresas fazem estas alianças e elas são importantes na medida em que são altos os custos desses projetos e também complexos, o que leva a empresa a buscar por parcerias propiciadas pela Open Innovation.

Caputo et al. (2016) diferenciam práticas de Open Innovation da seguinte forma:

1. inbound OI: a empresa utiliza uma ideia inovadora desenvolvida externamente.

2. outbound OI: a empresa desenvolve uma ideia inovadora e disponibiliza externamente.

O Manual de Oslo (OECD, 2018) cita que há empresas que se utilizam das duas formas citadas acima, ou seja, recombina conhecimentos internos e externos à empresa, sendo, portanto, un processo acoplado, e ainda afirma que o fluxo de entrada e saída pode ser usado para avaliar a posição das empresas nas redes de inovação.

No entanto, observa-se que a despeito das práticas adotadas (inbound ou outbound), podem ocorrer elementos que poderão ou não comprometer o alcance dos objetivos organizacionais e o sucesso dos projetos de OI. Um deles é o fator financeiro onde diversos autores fizeram essa abordagem, retratado no Quadro 1.

Conforme verifica-se no Quadro 1, os recursos financeiros são citados por diversos autores por ser um fator impeditivo para OI. Sem este elemento os envolvidos precisam buscar alternativas para que os projetos sejam desenvolvidos, conforme Aros et al. (2022), Cordeiro (2011), Groote e Backmann (2020), e Onetti (2019).

2.3. Ecossistema de Inovação

A Open Innovation ocorre dentro de un ecossistema de inovação com a participação de diversos atores. Ecossistema de inovação, conforme Russo-Spena et al. (2017) pode ser definido como a interação de atores com pensamento inovador em un ambiente comum, com a existência de recursos e conhecimentos compartilhados entre eles.

Nascimento (2020) define ecossistema de inovação como sendo a integração de empresas, centros de pesquisa, entidades governamentais e instituições de ensino, na busca por un desenvolvimento econômico sustentável.

O ecossistema de inovação como sendo un envolvimento de diversos elementos (atores), desenvolvendo atividades inovadoras, utilizando recursos físicos, financeiros e tecnológicos e que também pode incluir un sistema de atores com relações colaborativas e competitivas, é assim definido por Granstrand e Holgersson (2020).

FATOR	AUTOR (ES)
Recursos Financeiros	Aros et al. (2022) Cordeiro (2011) Faccin e Brand (2015) Groote e Backmann (2020) Lee et al. (2010) Radziwon e Bogers (2019) Marcolin et al. (2017) Medeiros et al. (2017) Onetti (2019)

Table 1. Fator Recursos Financeiros e Autores relacionados

Elaborado pelo autor (2026)

3. Procedimentos Metodológicos

Para investigar o fator financeiro como inibidor nos processos de Open Innovation, sob o ponto de vista do ator que necessita realizar inovação, e as ações estratégicas adotadas para superá-lo, a pesquisa teve como lócus as organizações que participaram de projetos de Open Innovation, com foco em produtos, onde foram entrevistados 20 gestores.

Os entrevistados não foram identificados. Optou-se por criar uma codificação para citá-los no item Resultados e Discussões.

Quanto aos procedimentos metodológicos, optou-se por uma pesquisa com abordagem exploratória, em relação aos seus objetivos, e com caráter qualitativo, quanto à sua natureza. A pesquisa exploratória foi escolhida, pois permitiu que se tivesse maior familiaridade sobre o assunto, conforme Gil (2002), e a pesquisa de campo foi subsidiada em entrevistas.

Sobre o fator "Recursos Financeiros" foi questionado se havia recursos financeiros federais ou se foi um obstáculo para desenvolver o projeto. Foi explicado para o entrevistado que para contribuir com o desenvolvimento de projetos inovadores, o aspecto financeiro é importante, sem o qual inviabiliza investimentos necessários, seja para iniciar ou para a continuidade do projeto. Por isto a necessidade do entrevistado de avaliar este fator como facilitador ou inibidor.

Após o término das entrevistas foi realizada a análise de conteúdo que permitiu identificar práticas de Open Innovation em sua relação com os elementos de investigação, a fim de encontrar respostas para a questão central da pesquisa.

Para contribuir com a análise de conteúdo, foi utilizado o Software Atlas TI (versão 6.2.25) disponibilizado nos laboratórios da Universidade Municipal de São Caetano do Sul. Para que o Atlas TI pudesse ser utilizado, foi necessário que previamente cada gravação fosse transcrita utilizando-se a ferramenta digitação por voz, disponibilizada no Google.

4. Resultados e Discussões

São apresentados os resultados e as discussões com base na análise das 20 entrevistas. O Quadro 2 apresenta a codificação e o perfil dos entrevistados.

Constata-se que a média de idade dos entrevistados é de 45 anos e uma média de 8 anos de experiência em projetos de inovação aberta. Setenta por cento são casados, 50% são administradores, e todos são gestores ou responsáveis pelos projetos.

O fator "Recursos Financeiros" será apresentado com seu respectivo gráfico gerado pelo Software Atlas TI (versão 6.2.25)., e é exposto como ele foi superado.

Sobre os tipos de graus, Pontes et al. (2006) citam que: a) o de grau alto pode causar um desvio significativo na programação das atividades, nos custos e no desempenho. Pode ser necessário que os atores busquem apoio de algum tipo de suporte não previsto para que o objetivo do projeto seja cumprido; b) o de grau médio tem potencial para causar algum desvio até mesmo com apoio de suporte adicional. No entanto, problemas potenciais podem ser superados; c) o de grau baixo tem um potencial pequeno para causar desvios na programação das atividades, nos custos, no desempenho ou na qualidade. Não requer grandes esforços para que a empresa demandante, intermediários e demais atores envolvidos possam superar as dificuldades.

No centro da figura tem-se a categoria central (fator questionado). À esquerda da categoria central tem-se os códigos apontando se o fator foi facilitador ou inibidor (alto, médio, baixo) e a quantidade de respostas dadas em cada caso. À direita da categoria central tem-se os códigos apontando como os entrevistados superaram o fator, quando este foi inibidor, e a quantidade de respostas dadas em cada caso.

A Figura 1 abaixo apresenta o resultado gráfico do fator "Recursos Financeiros" evidenciando a incidência de respostas dadas pelos entrevistados.

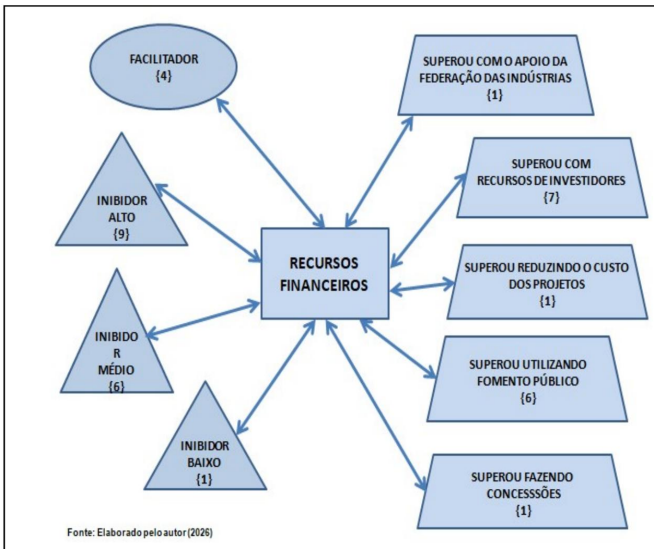

Figure 1. Resultado gráfico do fator Recursos Financeiros

Como resposta ao questionamento, a Figura 1 apresenta a categoria central (Recursos Financeiros). À esquerda da categoria são apresentados 4 códigos expondo que o fator foi facilitador (4 respostas), que fue inibidor alto (9 respostas), que fue inibidor médio (6 respostas) ou que foi inibidor baixo (1 resposta). O número entre colchetes é a quantidade de respostas dadas em cada caso.

ENTREVISTADO	PERFIL
Entrevistado 1	45 anos, casado, administrador, diretor, 5 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 2	54 anos, casado, administrador, consultor, 5 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 3	47 anos, casado, administrador, diretor, 4 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 4	39 anos, casada, administradora, diretora, 4 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 5	45 anos, casado, administrador, pró-reitor, 18 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 6	33 anos, solteiro, engenheiro, consultor, 2 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 7	55 anos, casada, engenheira, gerente, 23 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 8	41 anos, casado, administrador, gerente, 3 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 9	50 anos, casado, administrador, coordenador, 15 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 10	57 anos, casado, administrador, diretor, 7 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 11	36 anos, união estável, engenheiro, gerente, 13 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 12	57 anos, casado, físico, gerente, 12 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 13	41 anos, solteiro, analista de TI, diretor, 10 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 14	44 anos, solteira, socióloga, diretora, 4 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 15	51 anos, casado, administrador, coordenador, 2 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 16	33 anos, solteiro, administrador, analista, 5 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 17	37 anos, solteiro, engenheiro, diretor, 3 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 18	30 anos, casado, analista de TI, coordenador, 5 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 19	32 anos, solteiro, engenheiro, diretor, 4 anos de experiência em OI
Entrevistado 20	65 anos, casado, engenheiro, diretor, 13 anos de experiência em OI

Table 2. Codificação e perfil dos entrevistados

Elaborado pelo autor (2026)

Destaca-se que alguns entrevistados apontaram que foram utilizados os mecanismos públicos de fomento à inovação, que têm tradicionalmente priorizado estimular dispêndios em atividades de Pesquisa e Desenvolvimento (P&D).

Para isso, valeu-se de editais de chamadas públicas para projetos de pesquisa e inovação, promovidos por entidades que apoiam a pesquisa científica e tecnológica. O Entrevistado 6 relatou que:

> “Hoje no Brasil, na prática, a gente só tem uma fonte que é o FAPESP. Muda-se o governo, muda-se a política e não continuam os programas. Se a FAPESP não banca este investimento inicial não existe projeto.

Outro mecanismo é a Lei do Bem (Lei 11.196/2005) que permite que as empresas tenham o benefício da redução na alíquota de Imposto de Renda e na Contribuição Social, quando realizam projetos de inovação.

Sobre a utilização da Lei do Bem, o Entrevistado 1 comentou:

> “A empresa já tinha na cabeça a utilização da Lei do Bem como un fator que iria subsidiar o uso do recurso.

Para superar os obstáculos, outros entrevistados apontaram que se fez necessário reduzir os custos dos projetos, para que o mesmo pudesse ser aprovado pela empresa demandante.

Outro entrevistado relatou que foi obrigado a fazer concessões para diminuir seus ganhos. Sobre essas concessões o Entrevistado 17 relatou que:

> “A gente acabou dando uma proposta para eles e eles acabaram achando um pouco caro, aí a gente teve que dar uma revisada e depois dessa revisada, que tirou alguns ganhos nossos, eles acabaram aceitando a proposta.

Outra estratégia adotada foi relatada por outro entrevistado ao dizer que foi utilizado o apoio de investidores privados, que normalmente injetam recursos apenas quando visualizam o projeto em estágios mais avançados. E, por fim, outra ação foi a parceria com a federação das indústrias do estado que participou ativamente para que o projeto se viabilizasse.

Em síntese, a Figura 1 expressa, pelo depoimento dos entrevistados, que este fator inibiu os projetos de OI e que precisou ser superado, pois o recurso não estava disponível ou, mesmo existindo, não era suficiente.

Marcolin et al. (2017) confirmam esta dificuldade quando afirmam que, entre vários obstáculos para a inovação aberta, um deles é justamente a falta de recursos financeiros, e que no caso das PMEs torna-se mais agravante na medida que são poucas que conseguem caminhar sem auxílio financeiro externo, o que é confirmado por Radziwon e Bogers (2019).

Faccin e Brand (2015) reconhecem que é muito difícil uma organização reunir recursos, entre eles o financeiro, sem apoio externo, o que confirma as dificuldades relacionadas a esse fator. Cordeiro (2011) diz que os custos de novos processos e da pesquisa de novos produtos poderá se constituir em uma barreira à inovação.

Quando se confronta a pesquisa dos autores da literatura acadêmica sobre este fator com as entrevistas realizadas, o mesmo se confirmou como un fator inibidor.

Os fatores inibidores relacionados às questões financeiras como falta de recursos para investir, acesso a órgãos públicos financiadoras de projetos, e projetos onerosos para a empresa demandante foram superadas com redução de custos, apoio de investidores externos, utilização da Lei do Bem, fazendo concessões com diminuição dos

ganhos do desenvolvedor, e com apoio da federação das indústrias do estado.

Nas entrevistas ficou claro que o fator financeiro, especialmente no que se refere ao acesso a recursos, constitui o principal obstáculo para que pequenas e médias empresas (PMEs) adotem práticas de inovação aberta.

Diferentemente das grandes corporações, que dispõem de capital próprio mais robusto, acesso facilitado ao mercado de capitais e maior poder de negociação junto a instituições financeiras, as PMEs enfrentam limitações estruturais que restringem sua capacidade de investir em inovação.

A inovação aberta pressupõe a colaboração com outras empresas, universidades, startups, hubs de inovação, e centros de pesquisa. No entanto, essa colaboração exige investimento financeiro prévio. Mesmo quando há compartilhamento de riscos entre parceiros, a empresa precisa dispor de recursos para estruturar contratos, adaptar processos internos, investir em tecnologia e financiar etapas iniciais de desenvolvimento. Para as PMEs, esse capital inicial muitas vezes simplesmente não está disponível.

Um dos maiores entraves, citado nas entrevistas, está no acesso ao crédito. Pequenas e médias empresas costumam enfrentar taxas de juros mais elevadas, exigência de garantias reais e processos burocráticos complexos para obtenção de financiamento. Muitas não possuem ativos suficientes para oferecer como garantia, o que limita a aprovação de empréstimos. Além disso, projetos de inovação são considerados de alto risco pelas instituições financeiras, pois não apresentam garantias claras de retorno no curto prazo. Como resultado, bancos tendem a priorizar financiamentos voltados a capital de giro ou expansão produtiva tradicional, e não a projetos inovadores.

No Brasil, por exemplo, instituições como o BNDES e a FINEP oferecem linhas de financiamento voltadas à inovação. Entretanto, o acesso a esses recursos exige elaboração de projetos técnicos detalhados, comprovação de capacidade financeira, regularidade fiscal e, muitas vezes, contrapartida financeira da própria empresa. Para muitas PMEs, a complexidade do processo e os custos de preparação da documentação já representam uma barreira significativa.

Outro ponto crítico é a escassez de capital próprio. Pequenas e Médias Empresas operam, em geral, com margens mais apertadas e menor reserva de caixa. A prioridade costuma ser la manutenção das operações diárias, pagamento de fornecedores e salários. Destinar parte do capital para projetos de inovação aberta — que possuem retorno incerto e de longo prazo — torna-se uma decisão arriscada. Em contextos de instabilidade econômica, essa restrição se intensifica, pois a preservação da liquidez passa a ser prioridade absoluta.

A dificuldade de acesso a investidores também é um fator relevante. Enquanto startups com alto potencial tecnológico podem atrair fundos de venture capital, muitas PMEs tradicionais não apresentam perfil considerado "escalável" pelos investidores. Isso reduz as alternativas de captação de recursos privados. Sem investimento externo, a empresa depende quase exclusivamente de recursos próprios ou de crédito bancário, ambos limitados.

Além disso, a inovação aberta demanda investimentos indiretos que impactam o orçamento da empresa. É necessário dedicar tempo da equipe, contratar consultorias especializadas, realizar adaptações tecnológicas e, eventualmente, assumir custos compartilhados em projetos conjuntos. Para uma PME com estrutura enxuta, qualquer despesa adicional pode comprometer o equilíbrio financeiro.

A consequência dessa limitação financeira é a postura defensiva frente à inovação. Mesmo reconhecendo a importância estratégica de inovar para manter competitividade, muitas pequenas e médias empresas optam por adiar ou abandonar iniciativas de inovação aberta por receio de comprometer sua sustentabilidade financeira. A falta de acesso a recursos cria un ciclo vicioso: sem investir, a empresa não inova; sem inovar, perde competitividade; ao perder competitividade, reduz ainda mais sua capacidade de gerar recursos para investir.

5. Considerações Finais

O objetivo da pesquisa foi identificar o fator financeiro como inibidor ou não dos projetos de Open Innovation, sob o ponto de vista das empresas que precisam inovar, e como estes agiram para superá-lo. Neste sentido, a pesquisa constatou que de fato os recursos financeiros são um fator inibidor da OI.

A pesquisa concluiu que os obstáculos relacionados às questões financeiras foram superados com redução de custos, apoio de investidores externos, utilização da Lei do Bem, fazendo concessões com diminuição dos ganhos do desenvolvedor, e com apoio da federação das indústrias do estado.

Portanto, o fator financeiro — especialmente a dificuldade de acesso a crédito, financiamento público e capital de risco — representa o principal entrave para que algumas empresas implementem a inovação aberta. Sem mecanismos de financiamento mais acessíveis, menos burocráticos e adaptados à realidade dessas organizações, a participação destas empresas em ecossistemas colaborativos de inovação tende a permanecer limitada, restringindo seu potencial de crescimento e desenvolvimento tecnológico.

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Subject Index

Author Guidelines

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