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Les Déterminants Institutionnels de l'Adoption du Numérique en Afrique

By Kouhomou Clémence Zite, Pilag Kakeu Charles Bertin, Tsakou Georges Nazel & Patrick Bambo Ange Libongi

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Résumé- L'adoption des technologies de l'information et de la communication (TIC) est un processus complexe à la croisée des chemins entre les gouvernements, les citoyens et les acteurs économiques. Bien que la plupart des travaux mettent en évidence le rôle prépondérant des systèmes politiques sur l'adoption de ces outils et sur la nature des interactions, les débats restent néanmoins ouverts. Ainsi, l'objectif de cet article est de réexaminer les déterminants de l'adoption du numérique en Afrique, en mettant un accent particulier sur les facteurs institutionnels en utilisant un panel de 54 pays pour la période 2015 à 2016. La mise en oeuvre d'une régression linéaire par la méthode des MCO nous permet de trouver que les pays respectueux des libertés fondamentales (libertés civiles et droits politiques), ont tendance à améliorer leurs taux d'adoption des outils numériques, comparativement aux pays où le système politique est « fort ». Cet article conclut que la réduction de la fracture numérique entre les pays passe par l'amélioration de la qualité des institutions, qui permet en retour aux acteurs économiques et aux citoyens de bénéficier des gains de productivité et des économies d'échelle.

Mots clés: fracture numérique, internet, institution, numérique.

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Les Déterminants Institutionnels de l'Adoption du Numérique en Afrique

Kouhomou Clémence Zite [α], Pilag Kakeu Charles Bertin [σ], Tsakou Georges Nazel [ρ]
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Mots clés: fracture numérique, internet, institution, numérique.

I. Introduction

Depuis la fin des années 1990, l'« économie numérique » a pris une place de choix dans les économies capitalistes modernes. Des gouvernements vont jusqu'à placer la question du numérique en droite ligne des priorités nationales. Ceci en raison des multiples implications stratégiques des outils numériques sur tous les secteurs de l'économie (finance, santé, éducation, commerce, presse, musique, etc.), et leurs caractères révolutionnaires sur l'environnement des entreprises (amélioration de la productivité).

En effet, au niveau microéconomique, le numérique est devenu un outil essentiel pour le maintien des relations humaines au-delà des mesures de distanciation sociale imposées par le contexte actuel. Par exemple, le réseau Internet et l'utilisation des smartphones facilitent les relations professionnelles, associatives et familiales. En outre, l'usage des technologies de l'information et de la communication (TIC) n'est pas sans incidence sur l'amélioration de la productivité du capital humain. Il contribue à l'enrichissement du travail des employés en leurs donnant accès à des informations et à des usages ayant une forte valeur individuelle au niveau social (Pénard et Suire, 2009).

Au niveau macroéconomique, les technologies numériques entrainent des gains de productivité et une croissance plus soutenue (Cohen et Debonneuil, 2000; Gordon 2001; Jorgenson et Stiroh, 2000). Les gains de productivité sont générés au niveau de toutes les chaînes de valeur favorisant la manipulation, la création et la diffusion de l'information. Le numérique joue aussi un rôle majeur dans l'intégration des marchés mondiaux et mieux encore dans la production et la distribution de biens de consommation à travers le e-commerce. En Afrique, où il existe de fortes potentialités de croissance, les pouvoirs publics sont de plus en plus conscient de la nécessité de développer l'économie numérique dans une optique stratégique, d'en accroître les avantages et de répondre aux grands défis, tels que réduire le chômage et les inégalités, et sortir les populations de la pauvreté.

Cependant, le numérique n'est guère un grand *« égalisateur » favorisant l'accès pour tous, et en tout point de l'espace* (Le Guel et al., 2005). En effet, l'observation empirique de l'usage des nouvelles technologies montre l'existence d'une fracture dans le monde. Alors que certaines nations, certains individus, augmentent leurs performances plus rapidement, d'autres restent largement en retrait (Andrès et al., 2010). Cette fracture numérique semble particulièrement forte entre pays développés et pays en voie de développement, s'ajoutant ainsi à la liste des inégalités existantes entre le Nord et le Sud. Entre les pays en voie de développement également, notamment ceux d'Afrique, on souligne des disparités importantes. Par exemple, les pays du Maghreb et les pays d'Afrique Subsaharienne anglophone apparaissent les mieux dotés par rapport aux pays d'Afrique Sub Saharienne francophone (UIT, 2015).

Pourtant, il existe une vaste littérature qui explore les différences de diffusion des technologies entre les pays en mettant en évidence un éventail de facteurs socioéconomiques, politiques et culturels. C'est le cas des travaux de Madden et al. (2004); Beilock et Dimitrova (2003), qui montrent une corrélation positive entre le nombre des abonnés mobiles et le niveau de revenu par tête. Pour ces auteurs, le niveau de revenu

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est un facteur important de l'accès au réseau. D'autres travaux explorent également les déterminants de la diffusion de l'Internet et montrent que le degré de concurrence dans la fourniture de l'Internet contribue positivement à sa diffusion et le rôle des infrastructures (Oyelaran-Oyeyinka et Lal, 2005 ; Andrès et al., 2010). En outre, certaines études ont soulevé le rôle des régimes politiques dans la diffusion de l'Internet. On suppose souvent que l'Internet menacerait la survie des régimes autoritaires, et par conséquent, ces régimes auront tendance à contrôler son usage, ce qui conduirai à réduire son taux de pénétration par rapport aux régimes démocratiques (Bobrow, 1973 ; O'Sullivan et al. 1983). En revanche, d'autres études ont plutôt tendance à identifier un avantage de la démocratie dans la diffusion de l'Internet (Evans, 1995 ; Goldsmith et Wu, 2006 ; Milner, 2006 ; Stier, 2017). Cette situation montre que l'adoption des technologies de l'information et de la communication (TIC) est un processus complexe qui nécessite un grand nombre d'hypothèses contradictoires et parfois fragiles.

En Afrique, parent pauvre de l'Internet, des études n'ont pas encore fait l'objet d'une discussion approfondie mettant en évidence le rôle des facteurs institutionnels sur l'explication de la fracture numérique. Les seuls travaux sur le continent à la limite de nos connaissances sont ceux de Conte (2000), de Safoulanitou, (2014), de Tamokwoé, (2013), et de Oyelaran-Oyeyinka et Lal, (2005) qui mettent en évidence le rôle des facteurs socioculturels et des facteurs socioéconomiques ainsi que l'importance vitale de l'infrastructure des télécommunications dans l'adoption des TICs. Par conséquent, notre étude vise à enrichir les débats sur le plan conceptuel en proposant de nouveaux déterminants de la fracture numérique, notamment les determinants institutionnels. En outre, les études antérieures ont dû faire face à des difficultés économétriques qui ont rendu difficile l'interprétation des résultats. Ainsi, cet article vise à combler ce gap de la littérature en estimant le rôle des de l'adoption du numérique en Afrique.

Notre cadre théorique prend appui sur l'économie institutionnelle. Selon North, « *Les institutions sont les contraintes établies par les hommes qui structurent les interactions humaines. Elles se composent des contraintes formelles (comme les règles, les lois, les constitutions), de contraintes informelles (comme les normes de comportement, des conventions, des codes de conduite imposés) et des caractéristiques de leur application* » (North, 1994). Partant de cette définition, on se souvient que le développement des moyens de communication de masse tels que le système postal, le télégramme, le journal, le téléphone, la télévision et maintenant l'Internet s'est produit non seulement dans un contexte économique ou réglementaire mais aussi politique. Par exemple, l'examen de la littérature montre que, l'initiative de créer

et de diffuser l'Internet est une œuvre du Président Eisenhower en 1958, qui fut d'abord la propriété exclusive du Département de la Défense des USA pendant un moment avant d'être rendue publique vers les années 1970. Par ailleurs, dans le cas de la politique des télécommunications, les fournisseurs de services Internet dépendent d'un contexte institutionnel apaisant, d'une réglementation fiable, du financement de l'Etat ainsi que de la fourniture de biens publics tels que la sécurité publique et la préservation des droits de propriété afin de poursuivre leurs activités commerciaux (Evans, 1995 ; Goldsmith & Wu, 2006 ; Milner, 2006). Par conséquent, nous soutenons que pendant la diffusion mondiale des nouveaux outils du numérique, à une époque où plus de la moitié de la population mondiale utilise déjà le web, le système politique qui prévaut dans une société donnée exerce une influence exogène sur le développement de l'Internet (Norris, 2001; Guillén et Suàrez, 2005). Afin de tester cette hypothèse en Afrique, nous avons adopté les données des 54 pays africains extraites des différents rapports de l'union internationale des télécommunications (UIT), de la banque mondiale (*World Devolpment Indicator* (WDI)), et de Freedom House. La période de l'étude est de 2015 à 2016. La méthode d'estimation est celle des moindres carrés ordinaires (MCO).

Ainsi, à la suite de cette section introductive, dans la seconde section, nous présentons la revue de la littérature. Dans la troisième section, nous présenterons la méthodologie et la description des variables. Les résultats de l'analyse sont présentés dans la quatrième section et en fin la conclusion dans la cinquième section.

II. Revue de la Littérature

Il existe une vaste littérature qui explore les différences de diffusion des technologies entre les pays. La majorité des travaux empiriques sur la diffusion technologique se concentrent sur l'identification des variables qui peuvent expliquer les différences du processus de cette diffusion. Par exemple, Gort et Klepper (1982) retracent l'histoire de la diffusion de 46 innovations technologiques et les mettent en corrélation avec plusieurs indicateurs économiques. Caselli et Coleman (2001) analysent le cas de l'adoption des ordinateurs personnels et fournissent une analyse transnationale complète qui tente d'identifier ses principaux déterminants. Les études de Pohjola (2003) ont observé l'investissement dans les technologies de l'information et de la communication dans 49 pays au cours de la période 1993-2000. Plus récemment, Adrès et al. (2010) analysent le processus de diffusion de l'Internet dans le monde en utilisant un panel de 214 pays au cours de la période 1990-2004.

En outre, il existe de nombreuses études empiriques sur les déterminants de l'utilisation de

l'Internet. Chinn et Fairlie (2007) utilisent des données de panel provenant de 161 pays pour les années 1999 à 2001 afin d'identifier les déterminants des disparités entre pays dans le l'utilisation des ordinateurs personnels et de l'Internet. Bien que les différences de revenus jouent un rôle majeur dans l'explication de la fracture numérique, ils montrent qu'il existe d'autres déterminants importants, tels que la qualité de la réglementation et le niveau des infrastructures. Dans la même foulée d'idées, Estache et al. (2002) analysent les déterminants des différences d'utilisation de l'Internet entre les pays et utilisent leurs résultats pour fournir des recommandations politiques pour la région de l'Amérique Latine. Chong et Micco (2003) étudient le bien-fondé de l'Internet en Amérique Latine et font valoir que, malgré leur retard, l'adoption d'une nouvelle génération d'appareils numériques contribue à réduire les coûts d'adoption et pourrait facilement permettre aux pays d'Amérique Latine de rattraper les leaders technologiques. Ils constatent également que la capacité d'innovation contribue à expliquer le degré d'adoption de l'Internet. Dans un cadre similaire, Beilock et Dimitrova (2003) constatent que le revenu par habitant est l'un des facteurs les plus importants de ces différences. Leurs résultats suggèrent également que cet effet est non linéaire, les différences d'utilisation de Internet étant plus sensible à des niveaux plus faibles.

Par ailleurs, Guillén et Suàrez (2005) se concentrent sur les facteurs économiques, politiques et sociologiques liés à l'utilisation de l'Internet. Les auteurs soutiennent que la fracture numérique mondiale, telle que mesurée par les différences transnationales d'utilisation de l'Internet, est le résultat des caractéristiques économiques, réglementaires et sociopolitiques et de leur évolution dans le temps. Ils prévoient que l'utilisation de l'Internet augmentera avec la concurrence dans le secteur des télécommunications et la démocratie.

En effet, comme l'a souligné Bobrow (1973), les politiciens et les régimes politiques peuvent façonner divers aspects du processus de communication de masse, notamment le contenu des messages, le personnel des médias et la disponibilité de la production médiatique (O'Sullivan et al., 1983). Notre argument est que les régimes politiques démocratiques permettent une croissance plus rapide de l'Internet que les régimes autoritaires ou totalitaires. En effet, les analyses de la qualité du système politique sur l'utilisation de l'Internet commencent par observer que les médias diffèrent selon le type de communication de masse, comme l'affirment les spécialistes de la communication (Lorimer, 2002). Tout d'abord, la communication de masse centralisée implique la diffusion des informations ou de divertissements à de larges audiences de manière à ce qu'il soit relativement facile pour l'expéditeur de contrôler et/ou de supprimer les contenus. Des médias aussi divers que la radio, la télévision, les journaux, les magazines, les sites, les blogs, les livres, la musique enregistrée et la publicité ont tendance à permettre ce type de communication, cependant, les récents progrès technologiques ont réduit la capacité de censurer l'expéditeur. Deuxièmement, la communication de masse décentralisée des informations et des divertissements est possible avec des médias comme le téléphone, le courrier électronique ou le web, en permettant à l'utilisateur de prendre des initiatives et de choisir les informations qu'il souhaite recevoir. Troisièmement, la communication de masse est l'échange qui a lieu entre des individus ou des groupes, de leur propre initiative, par des canaux accessibles au public, parfois réglementés par l'Etat comme le téléphone, le système de courrier, la radio et le courrier électronique, les salons de discussion et autres moyens de communication (Lorimer, 2002).

Les médias qui permettent une communication de masse décentralisée (c'est-à-dire que l'utilisateur exerce un pouvoir discrétionnaire sur l'accès à l'information) ou une communication publique de masse (c'est-à-dire les échanges entre des individus et des groupes sont possibles) compromettent l'efficacité des régimes totalitaires en permettant aux citoyens de sécuriser leurs propres informations, et de communiquer entre eux et éventuellement d'interagir politiquement (Bobrow 1973 ; Norris, 2001). Par exemple, l'Internet aurait joué un grand rôle dans le printemps Arabe, en permettant aux citoyens de se faire entendre et d'échapper aux censures étatiques.

Ces deux types de médias posent une menace pour le monopole de la production, du stockage, de la diffusion et communication que les régimes autoritaires et totalitaires cherchent à établir et à maintenir. Dans les pays démocratiques, bien que les groupes de médias en soient venus à façonner l'information disponible sur Internet (McChesney, 2000; Mosco et Foster, 2001), les utilisateurs ont encore beaucoup plus d'autonomie que dans les pays autoritaires ou totalitaires. En plus, dans les pays démocratiques, la libre circulation de l'information se présente comme un moyen de redonner à l'individu des capacités d'action, en favorisant la liberté d'expression, la diffusion des connaissances, la libre entreprise, la création et l'innovation (Loveluck, 2015).

Par ailleurs, la diffusion de l'Internet est élevée lorsque les gouvernements et les acteurs économiques fournissent une infrastructure suffisante et que les citoyens sont capables et désireux d'utiliser ces services (Stier, 2017). En effet, les pouvoirs publics ont plus d'une raison d'encourager l'utilisation de l'internet. Premièrement, l'utilisation généralisée des technologies numériques stimule les performances économiques d'un pays à travers les innovations telles que le e-banking et le e-commerce. Deuxièmement, l'utilisation du numérique entraine la réduction des coûts de

transaction, notamment à travers l'action rapide à l'information. En plus, l'économie de l'Internet stimule elle-même de nouvelles innovations et crée des boucles de rétroaction positives, grâce aux économies d'échelle. Pourtant, tout ceci n'est possible que dans un pays où les citoyens sont rassurés de la confidentialité de leurs informations et du respect de leurs droits et libertés fondamentaux.

III.   Méthodologie

a) Données

Dans sa conception la plus large, le numérique n'est pas aisément chiffrable. Dans la littérature, il est associé aux nombres d'abonnés mobiles (Madden et al., 2004; Beilock et Dimitrova, 2003). Cependant, cet indicateur peut avoir des insuffisances. Pour preuve, l'estimation du nombre d'utilisateurs actifs de téléphonie mobile varie fortement selon les opérateurs (Conte, 2000).

Dans le cadre de cette étude, nous utilisons le taux de pénétration de l'Internet par pays comme métrique de l'adoption du numérique. Le choix d'un tel instrument est simple. Le taux de pénétration de l'Internet fait référence à des estimations nationales du nombre d'utilisateur de l'Internet dans chaque pays. Les utilisateurs de l'Internet sont des individus qui ont utilisé l'Internet par le biais d'un ordinateur, d'un téléphone mobile, d'une tablette numérique, d'une console de jeux ou d'une TV numérique etc. Cette variable a été collectée à partir des rapports de l'Union Internationale des Télécommunications (UIT, 2015). La distribution est présentée dans le tableau 1. En ce qui concerne les variables explicatives nous avons distingué les variables d'intérêt des variables de contrôles. Les variables d'intérêt qui sont *Civil_liberty et Political_right* ont été collectées à partir des rapports annuels de l'organisation *Freedom in the World*. Cet organisme évalue le degré de libertés politiques et civiles de chaque pays sur une échelle allant de 1 (le plus libre) à 7 (le moins libre). En effet, jusqu'en 2003, les États où la moyenne des libertés politiques et civiles allait de 1,0 à 2,5 étaient considérés comme « libres ». Les Etats ayant des valeurs comprises entre 3,0 et 5,5 étaient considérés comme « partiellement libres » et ceux dont la valeur se situait entre 5,5 et 7,0 comme étant « non libres ». Depuis 2003, la portée du « partiellement libre » varie de 3,0 à 5,0, « non libre » de 5,5 à 7,0.

Tableau 1: Description des variables de l'étude

Variables	Description	Source
TPI_	Taux de pénétration d'Internet en % de la population	UIT, 2016
Civil_liberty	Libertés civiles	Freedom House
Political_right	Libertés politiques	Freedom house
Letteraty_rate	% de la population sachant lire et écrire	Rapports UNESCO
GDP_percapita	Revenu par habitant	WDI, 2016
Langage_	Dummy, 1 si le pays est anglophone et 0 si non	construction des auteurs

Source: construction des auteurs

Nous avons distingué trois variables de contrôles choisies sur la base de la littérature précédente. Les données relatives aux taux d'alphabétisation *(Literaty_rate),* collectées à partir des rapports de l'UNESCO (rapport 2011 du PNUD). La variable *GDP_percapita* représente les estimations de la Banque mondiale (WDI) de la variation du PIB réel. Et enfin, la variable *Langage,* une variable binaire qui prend la valeur 1 si le pays est d'obédience anglophone et 0 si autre.

b) Spécification économétrique

L'objectif de la recherche empirique est de déterminer les variables qui contribuent à expliquer le taux de pénétration de l'Internet en Afrique. A présent que nous connaissons l'ensemble des variables qui interviendront dans notre étude, nous pouvons envisager la construction du modèle empirique suivant:

$$\log TPI\_ = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Civil\_liberty + \beta_2 Political\_right + \beta_3 Letteraty\_rate + \beta_4 \log GDP\_percapita + \beta_5 Language\_ + \varepsilon$$

Où les i représentent les paramètres à estimer et i le vecteur du terme d'erreur. La variable dépendante étant quantitative, nous avons choisi d'estimer par la méthode des moindres carrés ordinaires. Ce choix s'explique principalement par le fait que ce type de modèle est assez simple à appliquer. La régression par les moindres carrés ordinaires est couramment utilisée dans ce champ de recherche, notamment pour déterminer comment l'Internet affecte la démocratie (Kedzie, 1997; Best et Wade, 2009).

IV. RÉSULTATS

a) Quelques statistiques descriptives

L'observation de la distribution de l'Internet montre des disparités régionales très accentuées (tableau 2). Le Maghreb (Algérie, 42% ; Tunisie 50% ; Maroc 58%), et la plupart des pays d'Afrique Subsaharienne anglophone (Ghana 35% ; Nigéria 47,7% ; Kenya 89,4%) apparaissent les mieux dotés par rapport à l'Afrique francophone (RCA 4.8%, Tchad 5%, Benin 12%). Cette tendance peut être imputable au niveau de développement des pays, notamment sur le plan des infrastructures. Pour qu'une couche importante de la population profite de la connexion au réseau, les infrastructures urbaines et de télécommunication doivent connaître une *« nette amélioration »*. Face à l'augmentation des besoins en capacité de réseau et en fréquences à assigner à l'utilisation de l'Internet, les infrastructures fixes sont primordiales pour faciliter le trafic et favoriser une utilisation plus rationnelle des fréquences disponibles. Par conséquent, les responsables des politiques publiques dans les pays en Afrique Sub saharienne devraient expérimenter de nouveaux systèmes d'attribution de licences afin d'accroître l'efficience de l'utilisation de l'Internet. La structure des données confirme également la présomption selon laquelle, le développement des réseaux de télécommunication est associé aux libertés fondamentales. On voit bien que les pays les plus démocratiques comme le Ghana, l'Afrique du Sud, le Sénégal sont mieux dotés.

Les statistiques descriptives des différentes variables sont présentées dans le tableau 3. La structure des données, explique qu'un peu plus de 27% en moyenne de la population africaine est connectée à l'Internet (tableau 3). Mais, ce qui convient de relever est que, l'écart type reste assez important. Malgré la baisse des coûts mondiaux de télécommunication, et la prolifération des serveurs, l'accès à l'Internet reste relativement faible dans la plupart des pays d'Afrique francophone (89,4% de la population connectées au Kenya, 62% à Maurice, contre 1,3% en Erythrée, 4,8% en RCA et 5% au Tchad).

Tableau 2: Statistiques descriptives sur le taux de pénétration le l'Internet par pays

	States	Network Access*	States	Network Access*	
1	Alegria	45.2	Madagascar	5.1	28
2	Angola	22.3	Malawi	9.6	29
3	Benin	12	Mali	11.8	30
4	Botswana	39.4	Mauritania	18	31
5	Burkina Fasso	14	Mauritius	62.7	32
6	Burundi	5.2	Morocco	58.3	33
7	Cabo Verde	48.2	Mozambique	17.5	34
8	Cameroon	25	Namibia	31	35
9	Chad	5	Niger	4.3	36
10	Comoros	7.3	Nigeria	47.7	37
11	CDR	6.2	RCA	4.8	38
12	Congo, Rep,	8.2	Rwanda	30.6	39
13	Cote d'ivoire	26.5	Sao Tome	50.4	40
14	Djibuti	19.8	Senegal	25.7	41
15	Egypt,	39.2	Seychelles	56.5	42
16	Equatorial Guinea	23.8	Sierra Leonne	11.8	43
17	Eritrea	1.3	Somalia	7.9	44
18	Ethiopia	15.4	South Africa	54	45
19	Gabon	48.1	South Sudan	16.6	46
20	Gambia,	18.8	Sudan	28	47
21	Ghana	34.7	Swaziland	33	48
22	Guinea	9.8	Tanzania	13	49
23	Guinea-Bisseau	4.3	Togo	11.3	50
24	Kenya	89.4	Tunisia	50.9	51

25	Lesotho	27.4	Uganda	45.6	52
26	Liberia	8.4	Zambia	30.1	53
27	Libya	43.7	Zimbabwe	41.4	54

Source: UIT (2015)

Le tableau 3 présente des statistiques particulièrement intéressantes sur le niveau de vie. Il en ressort que le PIB par tête est d'environ 4 440 avec un écart type considérable (786,8286). Cette forte variation du niveau de vie rend compte des disparités de développement entre les pays africains. Lorsqu'on regarde les données relatives au taux d'alphabétisation, un peu plus de 65% de la population africaine savent lire et écrire (tableau 3). Or, il est évident que les technologies de l'information et de la communication seraient plus exigeantes en qualification que les technologies des générations précédentes. L'adoption des TICs, implique non seulement l'augmentation de la demande des ingénieurs et des techniciens spécialisés, mais aussi des compétences numériques, un minimum de capacité cognitive de la part des usagers. Ce faible taux d'alphabétisation peut expliquer le retard de l'Afrique dans la société de l'information, face à l'Europe ou l'Amérique où le taux d'alphabétisation semble beaucoup plus élevé.

Tableau 3: Statistiques descriptives de l'ensemble des variables

Variables	Observation	Mean	Std. Err.
TPI _	54	27.69583	4.247678
Facteurs géopolitiques			
Political_right	54	4.431818	.2860346
Civil_liberty	54	3.583333	.2077891
Facteurs socioculturels			
Letteraty_rate	54	65.59583	3.999187
Langage_	54	.4583333	.1038946
Facteurs économiques			
GDP_percapita*	54	4439.774	786.8286
Bandwidth	54	53.38421	38.60074

*Note: *en parité du pouvoir d'achat (prix courant en dollar américain)*
Sources: à partir des données de l'UIT, WDI, Freedom House et UNESCO

Tableau 4: Analyse bivariée (Corrélations)

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Corrélation de Pearson	1					
	Sig. (bilatérale)						
2	Corrélation de Pearson	,284*	1				
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,043					
3	Corrélation de Pearson	,458**	,251	1			
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,001	,075				
4	Corrélation de Pearson	-,233	,076	-,191	1		
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,090	,594	,166			
5	Corrélation de Pearson	-,337*	,081	-,206	,912**	1	
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,053	,573	,135	,000		
6	Corrélation de Pearson	,386**	-,045	,336*	-,256	-,245	1
	Sig. (bilatérale)	,004	,754	,013	,062	,074	

* La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.05 (bilatéral), **. La corrélation est significative au niveau 0.01 (bilatéral).

Nous étudions maintenant comment les variables indépendantes sont inter corrélées au taux de pénétration d'Internet (tableau 4). De fait, la structure des données confirme une corrélation négative et statistiquement significative entre les libertés civiles et l'accès à Internet (corrélation de Pearson= -0,337 et p=0,003). Pour ce qui est des droits politiques, nous avons également une corrélation négative, mais pas significative (corrélation de Pearson= -,233 et p=0,090). D'autres résultats intéressants qui se dégagent de nos analyses concernent la forte corrélation binaire entre la pénétration d'Internet et le taux d'alphabétisation (corrélation de Pearson = 0,458 et p=0,001). Toutefois, puisque la corrélation ne signifie pas la causalité, la prochaine section présente les résultats économétriques, liés à la vérification empirique de la corrélation linéaire entre les facteurs institutionnels, socioculturels et économiques sur l'accès au réseau.

b) Résultats économétriques

Les estimations économétriques qui permettent d'isoler les effets économiques, socioculturels et sociopolitiques sur le développement de l'économie numérique en Afrique sont présentées dans le tableau 5. Il ressort que tous les coefficients ont les signes attendus pour une telle régression. Un deuxième constat qui se dégage des résultats est le fait que toutes les variables introduites dans le modèle sont significatives. Ce qui conforte ainsi les théories économiques développées dans la littérature. Notamment, le retard de l'Afrique dans la société de l'information est principalement expliqué par le faible taux d'alphabétisation, la langue d'accès à l'Internet, les libertés fondamentales (libertés civiles et droits politiques), et enfin le pouvoir d'achat des populations.

En effet, nous trouvons que la liberté politique constitue une variable pouvant améliorer le taux de couverture d'Internet dans les pays africains. En effet, avec une élasticité de 0,22, la liberté politique contribue au développement d'Internet dans les pays africains. Ce résultat est en accord avec les études antérieures. En effet, l'Internet fournit un volume de ressources sans précédent au service des personnes qui souhaitent accéder à l'information et au savoir; ceci en offrant de nouvelles opportunités d'expression et de participation à la vie politique où que l'on soit. Ceci implique que le libéralisme informationnel contribuerait à réduire le fossé numérique et à faciliter l'entrée des pays africains dans la société de l'information. Dans les pays du Maghreb par exemple, l'UNESCO s'est donnée pour objectif de promouvoir la liberté d'expression sur Internet en soutenant le dialogue entre les différentes parties prenantes d'Internet au niveau national et régional, en sensibilisant les autorités, le secteur privé et les organisations de la société civile à l'importance d'un Internet libre et ouvert pour tous les producteurs et utilisateurs. Une telle action est une mise en garde contre le risque d'une trop grande réglementation, de l'ingérence et de contrôle unilatéral d'Internet par la plupart des États africains, qui suspendent Internet en période électorale et en situation de crises politiques. Cette remarque nous permet de déboucher sur un autre résultat intéressant qu'est l'effet des libertés civiles sur le taux de couverture d'Internet. En effet, nous trouvons que les libertés civiles influencent négativement la croissance d'Internet. Ces résultats expliquent tout simplement que dans les pays où il y'a moins de libertés individuelles, les populations n'ont pas trop accès à Internet. Ainsi, le taux de pénétration d'Internet est faible, et plus particulièrement en Afrique, où couper l'Internet est devenu une pratique courante de certains dirigeants africains non démocratiques. Ces résultats sont conformes à la théorie économique selon laquelle les régimes totalitaires ou dictatoriale veulent restreindre la liberté d'expression des populations et des opposants en période électorale ou de crise politique.

Pour contrôler ces résultats, nous trouvons que le taux de scolarisation, qui représente la capacité cognitive des populations, influence significativement l'adoption du numérique. Les analyses révèlent une corrélation positive et statistiquement significative entre le niveau d'éducation et l'adoption de l'économie numérique. Avec une élasticité de 86%, l'indicateur du niveau d'éducation contribue à l'adoption du numérique toutes choses étant égales par ailleurs. Ce résultat explique que la réduction de la fracture numérique passe aussi par une amélioration du capital intellectuel (Hargittai, 2002; DiMaggio et al, 2004) et par ricochet des compétences numériques. Ces compétences numériques font référence entre autres aux facteurs comme la langue et qui soulève des préoccupations géostratégiques, et d'intelligence économique pour les pays africains. Toutefois, il est difficile de concevoir que la langue soit considérée comme une barrière à l'accès à l'Internet, notamment avec la prolifération des logiciels de traduction en ligne. Néanmoins, nos résultats montrent que la langue anglaise constitue un avantage comparatif pour les natifs anglophones en raison d'une grande quantité d'informations en langue anglaise sur le Web. En plus, les américains Google et Yahoo détiennent un quasi-monopole sur les moteurs de recherche. La plupart des interfaces et des logiciels en ligne ont un fort contenu en anglais. Par conséquent, pour faciliter l'adoption du numérique dans l'économie, les gouvernements doivent instituer des formations pour élever le niveau moyen d'éducation et améliorer les aptitudes en anglais.

Tableau 5: Régression des déterminants de l'adoption du numérique par les MCO

VARIABLES	Coeff	Stand. Err	P>|t|
Political_right	0.222*	0.116	0.062
Civil_liberty	-0.360**	0.146	0.017
Letteraty_rate (log)	0.869***	0.304	0.006
Langage_	0.416**	0.206	0.050
GDP_percapita (log)	0.0671*	0.0361	0.070
Constant	-0.776	1.232	0.532
Observations	54	54	
R-squared	0.438		

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Un autre facteur important fait référence aux conditions socioéconomiques des populations, et leurs capacités à pouvoir payer les services liés à l'Internet. Nos résultats montrent que, plus le revenu par tête est élevé plus la pénétration d'Internet est importante dans un pays. Ces résultats corroborent les travaux de Madden et al. (2004) et Beilock et Dimitrova (2003) qui mettent en avant un lien positif entre l'usage des TICs et le niveau de vie. Par ailleurs, ce résultat nous semble intéressant dans la mesure où pour certains pays africains, plus de la moitié de la population vit avec moins de deux dollars par jour.

V. CONCLUSION

Nous avons posé dans cet article la problématique des déterminants de l'adoption du numérique en mettant l'accent sur les déterminants institutionnels. En effet, la diffusion des TICs et de l'Internet en particulier, ont marqué les esprits ces dernières décennies par l'accélération de leur rythme et l'ampleur de leur généralisation. Cette situation à laquelle s'ajoute une concurrence fulgurante dans le développement mondial des chaines de valeur, apparait comme un défi que les pays en voie de développement se doivent de relever à défaut de se faire exclure de la mondialisation des économies. L'argument sous-jacent à notre démarche était que, les régimes politiques démocratiques permettent une croissance plus rapide de l'Internet que les régimes autoritaires ou totalitaires. Les données sont collectées à partir de plusieurs bases de données, notamment de l'UIT, du WDI, de Freedom House. La mise en œuvre d'une régression linéaire par la méthode des MCO nous a permis de déboucher sur des résultats suivants. Notamment, nous trouvons que la fracture numérique observée en Afrique et le retard sont principalement expliqués par les libertés fondamentales (libertés civiles et droits politiques). Cependant, le rôle des facteurs tels que le taux d'alphabétisation, la langue d'accès à l'internet, et le pouvoir d'achat des populations n'est pas indéniable comme cela a été montré dans les études antérieures. Ces résultats suggèrent que, les pouvoirs publics devraient faire des efforts concernant les libertés fondamentales (libertés politiques et libertés civiles), car

l'internet offre des opportunités d'innovation, de création d'entreprise et de lutte contre la pauvreté. Ils devraient aussi faire des efforts concernant l'amélioration du pouvoir d'achat des populations, afin que ces dernières améliorent leur consommation des données. Ceci passe par l'amélioration de la qualité du capital humain et des compétences technologiques. Quoi que cet article présente un intérêt, il aurait été intéressant d'appréhender le rôle des institutions sur l'adoption du numérique dans une perspective dynamique.

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Applying Gravity Model to Analyze Determinants of International Migration from Developing Countries

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Abstract- The rising numbers of immigrants from developing countries during the past decades is the most important economic issues facing the countries of the world. Understanding the underlying motives behind the phenomenon of international migration is a prerequisite for making informed political decisions. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the determinants of individuals 'migration from low- and middle-income developing countries to high income countries; (Canada, France, Germany, Britain, USA), using Unbalanced Panel Data For the period of (1995-2017). The study used the utility function through the push and pull factors of international migration, by applying standard analysis to the extended gravity model for a number of developing countries. using negative binomial regression; this is considered as the most appropriate to estimate the relationship between the number of immigrants as a dependent variable and other explanatory variables in this study. The results of the study showed that the level of per capita income is the most important economic determinant. In ddition to the presence of former immigrants from the same immigrant country in the destination countries.

Keywords: international migration, gravity model, developing countries, negative binomial.

GJHSS-E Classification: JEL Code: J61

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I. Introduction

Individuals make the decision to migrate from their homelands to other countries for various reasons; and migration continues to occur in our present times until it became one of the most prominent problems of the modern era, because there are still many causes that motivate people to leave their home lands and settle somewhere else, no matter that these causes might differ from the previous reasons. The scope of international migration has expanded to involve all societies, especially in developing countries. migration happens in several legal and illegal ways, and thus it may affect many economic and social aspects of the migrant and both of the country of origin and the destination country.

Since migration affects the demographics of the country of origin and the destination country, their development path, and their level of growth, there is an urgent need to study migration and understand its aspects and determinants through investigating the causes of this phenomenon, so that decision and policy makers can deal better with it, and find solutions to address the negative effects that it might cause.

This study aims to answer these questions: Are the immigration flows responding to the push and pull factors? What is the effectiveness of the determinants in increasing and decreasing the number of immigrants from developing countries?

II. Literature Review

International migration and individuals' moving across borders is one of the most important current issues of concern to policymakers, international organizations, and researchers around the world. This issue has been adequately interpreted through theories that focused on the determinants, causes, economic and social implications of migration.

"Ravenstein" was the first researcher to write in the field of migration explaining the motives for immigration in 1885; he listed these motives in laws later called the laws of Ravenstein. In 1966 "Lee" improved these laws by focusing on the size of migratory flows and their characteristics. According to Lee: migration depends on the homeland's economy to an extreme extent; Lee acknowledged the existence of push factors that lead to the migration of persons, which are associated with the country of origin, and "pull" factors that attract international migrants to a specific country, in addition to the presence of overlapping obstacles and personal factors connected with the immigration decision.

The theory of the neo-classics by Lewis (1954) & Ranis and Fei (1961) explained international and internal migration. According to this theory, migration occurs due to geographical and economic variations affecting the labor market, as countries with abundant employment have lower workers 'wages, while workers' wages increase in capital-intensive countries, which makes the individual think about moving in search of higher wages. This theory assumes that eliminating wage variations could end employment migration. On an individual level, Todaro (1967) believes that individuals plan to emigrate based on their expectations for the cash return, but they must consider the expenses of migration. An immigrant should consider the costs of the trip to another country, and should consider the

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consequent efforts that will encouner them in searching of a job and adapting to the new work and new language; not to mention the psychological fluctuations related to moving away from family and home (Massey et al., 2011).

Many researchers in studying international migration combined the theoretical frameworks and the applied frameworks in attempts to study this phenomenon, its determinants, as well as its effects on economic growth. many studies addressed the phenomenon of international migration by analyzing and researching its motives and effects. (Poot and Cochrance, 2004) conducted a study to measure the economic impact of international migration on New Zealand, they found that migrants affected the economy in both demand and supply; they recommended that future international migration researches should take into account that migratory flows have changed and are not only made for a living, but have become diverse in terms of the composition of migrants, such as skilled labor migration and student flows.

While in another study (Bertochi and Strozzii, 2006), investigated the determinants of mass immigration that occurred since the nineteenth century until World War I for fourteen countries (Belgium, Denmark, France, Britain, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain Sweden, Australia, Canada, and America); the results of this study assured that the variances of income and the level of development between countries in addition to the population structure play a prominent role in determining the rate of migration to the countries included in the study sample.

In an analytical study on the economic and non-economic determinants of the international migration of fourteen OECD countries, (Mayda, 2007), has reached annual data for the period from 1980 to 1995; that data indicated that one of the pull factors that attracted immigration is the increase in financial return. On the other hand, the study found that the impact of the "push" factors was not in the individual's share of the total income of the country of origin as expected, but the greatest impact was that of the distance between the country of origin and the destination country, as it had a significant negative impact on international migration. (Mayda, 2010) conducted an applied study on the impact of the economic, social, cultural and demographic determinants of migration on OECD countries, and on measuring the impact of migration on the average income in both sending countries and receiving countries; this study found that obtaining employment opportunities and increasing the average income in receiving countries as well as their less restrictive laws, significantly increase the international immigration rates.

Lewer and Van den Berg, 2008, used the gravity model to test the international migration, response to different pull forces. Panel Data covered migration data

for 16 OECD countries among all the sending countries of immigrants, for a ten-year period 2008- 1991; the results of the analysis of the geographical dimension were not very significant, which indicates the ease of moving across borders for immigrants; on the other hand, it was found that international migration depends on the stock of migrants in the receiving country.

Based on the Ageing population and the low birth rates on the European continent, (Ramos and Surinach, 2013) believe that the European Union countries need to import labor from neighboring countries; Ramos and Surinach also analyzed the relationship of bilateral migration with many different factors in the year 2011, by estimating the gravity model of 200 sending countries between 1960 and 2010, this analysis resulted in the size of the population having a positive and important relationship with migration, in addition to the existence of a common language and colonial relationship between receiving and sending countries.

Gonzalez and Mesanza, 2011 examined the factors affecting migration of graduate students according to the Erasmus program, they used a sample of Panel Data, from the bilateral flows of the countries participating in the program. Their study showed that the cost of living, the quality of the university, language, and climate were among the most important factors influencing student migration, which amounted to two million in 1987.

From the perspective of the sending countries, (Ullah, 2012), chose to study the determinants of labor migration from Bangladesh to 23 countries, during the period 2009-2012, and by using Panel Data, he concluded that economic, demographic and cultural factors had a major impact on labor migration. To call attention to the relationship between economic and political factors in the both origin and host countries, (Westmore, 2014) analyzed data on highly skilled migrants as well as low skilled ones between ninety-two sending and forty-four receiving countries; his findings indicated that high private wages given to skilled labor in the receiving country is linked with the increase in the number of immigrants; these results supported the impact of the differences in policies related to business and labor markets, as the more stringent policies constitute an incentive for highly skilled people to emigrate, while they do not constitute a significant incentive for people with low skills to do so. the study also showed that wage differences were the main driver of migration, especially for high skilled people.

As for international migration as an option for individuals driven by several factors at the micro and macro level, the study of (Porumbescu, 2015) added, that the decision to migrate is not only taken at the individual level, but is taken with the participation of all family members; most members work not only to maximize their income, but also to reduce risks that

occur as a result of the failure of local markets to allocate resources efficiently. Many economists focus their attention on market defects, such as high rate transactions in the markets as well as limited access to information and weak communication and transportation infrastructure; all this focus creates incentives to send family members away. (Pavkovic et al., 2018) used annual Panel Data for the period 1995- 2016, following the Poisson distribution and the "Negative Binomial Regression" model, to study the determinants of migration to 28 European Union countries; these determinants include demographic, economic, social and political variables. the study found that job opportunities and a good standard of living are the two factors that mostly influence the attraction of migrants, which supports the economic incentive for international migration.

III. The Methodology

The increased numbers of international migrants to developed countries has imposed itself over the past five decades on all those interested in this phenomenon, and the issue of migration and its impact on various activities in the receiving countries is still drawing intense attention. This obliged academics to work to formulate a model for migration, where international voluntary migration represents a choice for individuals based on specific motivations. (Smith, 2012) believes that it is easy to understand the migration motives on the personal level, but find it hard to study the effects at the country level. Therefore, the Newton Law of Gravity, which is often used to measure trade exchange between countries, has been expanded to include the study of international migration. This model assumes that every country has distinct characteristics (push and pull factors), in addition to the presence of bilateral impacts between countries (factors of distance and common language).

However, despite the great interest in the topic of international migration, we find that studies related to the determinants of migrations are few. Most studies on international migration came to study the relationship of migration with some economic variables without looking at the causes and motives of this migration, such as the studies on migrations to the United States of America, (Karemera et al. 2000) and (Greenwood and McDowell, 1999), and the study of international migration to the United Kingdom (Mitchell and Pain, 2003), and the migration to Germany, (Voglar and Rotte, 2000); (Fromentin, 2013) study was on the relationship between international migration and unemployment in France.

Several studies have adopted the theoretical framework in the migration model, whereby potential immigrants choose the country that presents the benefits they seek, and thus the immigration decision is a function of the push and pull factors according to the following: (Grogger and Hanson, 2011), (Ortega and Peri, 2013).

$$m_{ihf} = (w_{if} + t_{if}) - (w_{ih} + t_{ih}) - c_{ihf} \qquad (1)$$

Where w_{if} and w_{ih} refer to the wage of the individual (i) in the origin country (h), and the destination country (f).

t_{if} and t_{ih} indicates the benefits granted to the individual.

c_{ihf} is the cost of migration. Assume that

$$cov(w_{if}, w_{ih}) > 0, \quad cov(t_{if}, w_{if}) < 0,$$
$$cov(t_{if}, w_{ih}) < 0$$

The cost of migration can be illustrated as follows:

$$c_{ihf} = c_{hf}(x_{hf}) + z_{ihf} \qquad (2)$$

Where x_{hf} includes all direct and indirect costs, while z_{ihf} means the non-monetary costs that relate to the immigrant himself, such as moving away from family and friends.

(Borjas, 1987) assumes that an individual's wages depend on his skill level si, and thus the wages of the individual in either the country of origin or the host country are as follows:

$$W_{if} = \alpha_f + \beta_f s_1, \qquad W_{ih} = \alpha_h + \beta_h s \qquad (3)$$

By subtracting equations (3), (2), (1) we produce the following equation:

$$m_{ifh} = (\alpha_f - \alpha_h) + (\beta_f - \beta_h) + (t_{if} - t_{ih}) - c_{hf}(x_{hf}) - z_{ihf} \qquad (4)$$

As long as the individual is looking to maximize his benefit, he will choose migration if (m_{ifh}) is greater than zero.

Thus, we can include a set of variables related to the push and pull factors in equation (4), so the study can examine the effect of these factors on the individual's decision to migrate.

Numerous literatures on international migration has relied on random utility maximization models by combining various factors into the gravity model, which has become common in statistical analysis, especially with regard to measuring bilateral flows between two geographical regions. This model was based mainly on the law of gravity between objects developed by the "Newton" and named (Newton's law) in 1687, which states that the attraction forces between two bodies are directly proportional to their size and inversely proportional to the distance between them. This model is no longer confined to the science of physics but has become used in many sciences, especially the study of economic phenomena, related to the movement of goods, services, capital and individuals. The spatial interaction has been likened to the law of gravity. One of the first researchers who used this model is (Tinbergen, 1962).

The basic form is as follows: (Burger et al. 2009)

$$GF_{ij} = g \, (m_i \, m_j \, / d_{ij}) \, , \quad i{\neq}j \qquad (5)$$

Where:

g is the Constant of the equation

m_i is the size of the sending country

m_j is the size of the receiving country

d_{ij} is the distance between the two countries

GF_{ij} is the power generated by gravity between the two countries

As this model became dominant in applied studies in the field of international migration, it was enhanced to include variables that indicate factors of push and pull to understand the determinants of migration.

$$Immig_{i,j,t} = c_0 + c_1 \; Gdpcap_{i,t} + c_2 \; ur_{i,t} + c_3 \; Polscore_{i,t} + c_4 \; Pop_{i,t} + c_5 \; Edu_{i,t} + c_6 \; Pov_{i,t} + c_7 \; Gini_{i,t} +$$

$$c_8 \; Gdpcap_{j,t} + c_9 \; Polscore_{j,t} + c_{10} \; Pop_{j,t} + c_{11} \; Emig_{i,j,t} + c_{12} \; Dis_{i,j,t} + c_{13} \; Dcomlang_{i,j,t} + e_{i,j,t} \qquad (*)$$

The dependent variable is immig$_{ij}$, which expresses the number of migrants between the sending and receiving countries, while the other variables act as independent variables, and the symbols in the form indicate:

i is the sending country, j is the receiving country, t denotes time, e to the error term, pop is the number of population in each country, dis is the distance between the two countries, gdpcap is per capita income in each country, ur is an unemployment rate, edu is the average years of education, gini is the inequality index of income distribution, polscor, is the political stability index, pov is the poverty index, dcomlang is an dummy variable equal to one if the two countries speak the same language, Emig is the stock of immigrants from the sending country in the receiving country, and c_0 to c_{13} denote the parameters to be estimated. The unbalance panel data were used, which is distinguished in that it combines the cross-section data and time series data, which contributes to increasing degrees of freedom, which in turn increases the efficiency of the estimate and raises the explanatory power of the regression (Gujarati, 2003).

V. Estimation Strategy

To avoid the problems facing estimating the gravity model in commercial exchange and spatial mobility, by giving the dependent variable the logarithmic form, the search for an alternative and more appropriate estimation technique for the gravity model has become necessary. a number of researchers directed attention to the quality of using the count data estimator in estimating the gravity model. (Silva and Teneyro, 2006) (Wooldridge, 2012).

IV. Econometric Model

Even though studies differ in determining the factors of gravity explained by the phenomenon of migration flow between countries according to the nature of the study and the views of researchers, but never the less they shared the use of basic variables in the traditional model such as: the population of sending countries and receiving countries and the distance between countries.

For the purpose of the study we added other variables to the gravity model; as many studies that were conducted to explain the factors affecting international migration and its determinants supported the addition of demographic, economic, political and social variables; Thus, the form of the regression equation to study the determinants of international migration will be as follows:

a) Poisson Maximum Likelihood Estimator (PML)

This method of estimation is applied when the dependent variable takes a valid positive value (0,1,2,3…..).

This variable may take many small values including zero, and when being estimated the dependent variable is not in the logarithmic form. the count data form follows the following equation.

$$E \, (Y/X_1, X_2, \ldots ..., X_k) = exp(\beta_0, \beta_1 X_1, \ldots ....., \beta_k X_k) \quad (6)$$

Equation (6) is a nonlinear equation where the exponential function is a nonlinear function.

Greene (2002) considered that this method is the best method to accommodate the heterogeneity of cross-sectional data over time, as this estimation is characterized by equal variance with the mean of the data that follows the Poisson distribution, since this distribution is assumed to have a conditional mean, in the sense that the dependent variable is required for the factors of push and pull factors. for the purposes of the assessment, it is written:

$$E \, (y) = u \, , \quad Var \, (y) = u \qquad (7)$$

b) Maximum Likelihood Negative Binomial (NBM L)

This method is an example of a Poisson estimator, when the dependent variable follows count data, which takes positive integer values, with repeated numbers from zero and small values, and the variance exceeds the mean of E (Y) <Var (Y), the negative binomial distribution occurs ; As the depended variable of this study, NBML estimator is appropriate, and the parameter estimation follows the maximal Likelihood method (Ismail and Jemain, 2007).

VI. Data and Sources Used in the Study

Do migration flows respond to push and pull factors? What are the determinants that affect increasing or reducing the number of migrants?

To answer these questions, the study assumed that there are several factors behind the increase in the number of migrants heading to other countries for the purpose of residency, and there are different determinants of the decision to make international migration, which translates into a flow of individuals and groups to another country. To investigate the impact of these various factors, a number of 94 countries in the developing world were chosen as sending countries, classified into three groups: The Low-Income, 21 countries, the (Lower- Middle-Income) 40 countries, and the (Upper-Middle-Income) 33 countries, while 5 receiving countries from High-Income countries were selected. (See Appendix).

This study assumes that there are many factors that motivate individuals to migrate from their countries, and other factors that attract them to certain countries. The study merged data related to international migration with macroeconomic data for the sample sending and receiving countries as follows:

- We note in this study that international migration data do not cover the entire period of time, in addition to the presence of serious fluctuations on migratory flows data during the study period. it must be noted also that international migration data covers only legal migration (Inflows of Foreign Population by Nationality), and even though there are many sources for the data, but they were taken according to the same classification.

  The United Nations (UN SD, 2017) defined the stock of migrants as the number of international migrants residing in a country other than where they were born on a given date, (Stock of Foreign-Born Population by Country of Birth).

- As for the education index, the average number of years of education received by individuals over the age of 25 years was adapted and transferred from academic achievement levels, using official periods for each level.

- The study adopted the poverty index based on the percentage of the population living below the international poverty line ($ 1.9) per day according to the World Development Indicators.

- Despite the multiple sources of the Gini Index in income distribution, the study adopted the sources that follow the same method in calculating the indicator, namely the extent of the deviation of income distribution between individuals in the economy, with Lorenz curved line for the cumulative percentages of the total income received against the cumulative number for individuals starting from the poorest individual, expressed by the space between the curve and the hypothetical line of absolute equality, therefore zero is representative of absolute equality, and 100 indicates complete inequality. the written data on this indicator has been extrapolated for some of the unavailable years, based on data of other years from the same country.

- The Political Stability Index and the absence of violence are expressed in a percentage, with zero indicating the lowest degree of political stability, and the 100 for the highest rank in political stability.

- The unemployment index in the sending country shows the ratio of the unemployed to the population.

- The GeoDist database provides information developed specifically for applied research to estimate the gravitational equation in particular, because it contains bilateral data linking the pairs of countries, which allowed the study to adopt the variable of distance between sending and receiving countries used in the first model, which is the distance between the capitals of countries in kilometres.

- In this study, the language that is commonly used in both countries is expressed as a Dummy variable, which is equal to one in case the two countries speak the same language, otherwise it is equal to zero.

The study adopted various sources to create a database for the study sample for a number of developing countries as immigration origin countries and for a limited number of destination countries. This data covers a number of (23) years for the time period 1995 to 2017. The symbol (i) is given to denote the origin country, whereas the symbol (j) indicates the destination country for all variables of the equation (*) The following table (1) shows the variables used in the model and their sources:

Table 1: Variables used in the model and their sources

Symbol	The Sources
Immigij	OECD. Stat (International migration database) + United Nations Division,2015 + United States Census + office of National Statistics.
Gdpcapi *Gdpcapj*	World Development Indicators (WDI) + Gapminder Indicator(http://www.gapminder.org)
Urj	ILOSTAT database, 9/ 2018.
Popi *Popj*	World Development Indicators (WDI).
Ginii	GINI index (World Bank estimate) + World Development Indicators (WDI) + Fred Economic research (FRED).
Povi	Human Development Reports (HDR) + World development Indicator (WDI) + Knoemia corporation (US).
Edui	Human Development Reports (HDR).
Polscorei *Polscorej*	The Worldwide Governance Indicators, 2018 Update
Emmigij	OECD. Stat (International migration database) + United Nations Division,2017 + United States Census + office of National Statistics.
Disij	CEPII GeoDist database
Dcomlangij	Dummy Variable, (http://www.cepii.fr/anglaisgraph/bdd/distances.htm).

VII.   Variables Description

Table (2) displays a statistical description of the variables used in the study, showing the mean and standard deviation of the variables, with the largest and smallest values of the variables in the presence of missing values for some countries; in addition to that the table shows the number of observations during the study period of 1995 to 2017. The standard deviation measures the deviation of the data set in relation to the arithmetic mean, and indicates the fluctuation in the values that the variable takes during the study period. Looking at this scale, the standard deviation of the dependent variable (Immig ij) shows the fluctuation in the values during the study period as it is affected by the extreme values, as it reached a large number (12530) because there were no flows of immigrants between countries in some years, while in contrast there were flows of very large numbers in other years, as in the case of immigration from Mexico and Cuba to the United States of America. the largest flows recorded during the study period were from Syria to Germany in the year 2015 where it reached 309699 immigrants (OECD. Stat). these results indicate a large dispersion about the arithmetic mean of the dependent variable. Study data for the dependent variable contain zero observations in some years for the sample country pairs.

Table 2: Variables description
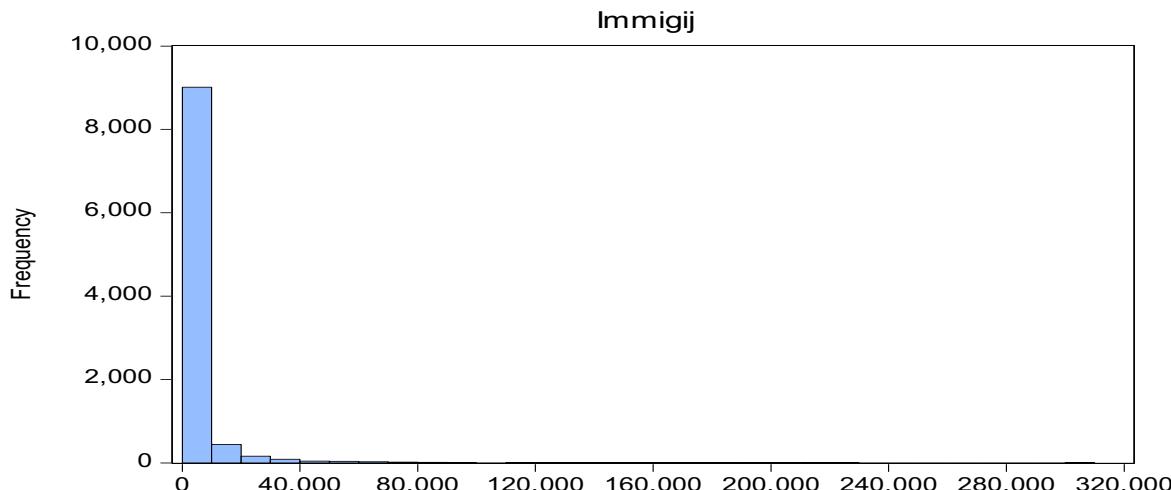
Variable	Mean	St Dev.	Min	Max	Obs.
Immig I,j	3780.223	12530.05	0	309699	9860
Gdpcap I	7263.654	7406.055	373.4353	57421.55	10810
ur I	8.2128	5.967	0.160	44.157	10810
Polscore I	33.031	20.265	0	90.476	10325
Pop I	50543180	1.80E+08	1066.223	1.39E+09	10810
Edu I	6.422	2.928	0.700	13.4	10605
Pov I	21.767	22.699	0	86	9800

Gini I	41.415	7.229	23.600	63	10375
Gdpcap j	39607.88	5649.694	28682.34	54225.45	10810
Polscore j	71.492	13.201	37.378	95.238	10340
Pop j	1.07E+08	96778453	29354000	3.26E+08	10810
Emmig I,j	116237.4	601045.3	15	11746539	7478
Dis I,j	7301.881	3384.371	436.077	16595.08	10810

*Source: Eviews version 9 output.

Figure (1) shows the distribution of the dependent variable's value as it appeared in the study database, which takes non-negative integers, including zero and small values in an indication that there is no flow of immigrants in a specific time period; the distribution is largely concentrated on the left side of the figure, While it seems clear that the data slant to the right, indicating that small values represent the majority and a few high values, as shown by the statistical description in table (2) that the variance is greater than average. Figure (1) shows that the dependent variable does not follow the normal distribution, because the normal distribution is for variables that take all the values. (Wooldridge, 2016).

Figure 1

* Histogram of Dependent Variable, Eviews output.

VIII. Estimation Results

Before starting to estimate the model, the study's expectations are reviewed for the parameters to be estimated; the study expects a positive relationship between the flow of immigrants and pull factors, on the other side a negative relationship is expected between the dependent variable and push factors according to previous studies and in line with the theories related to migration, which is presented in table (3).

Table 3: The sign expectations for the parameters

The Variable	*Limmig$_{ij}$*	*lGdpcap$_i$*	*ur$_i$*	*Polscore$_i$*	*lPop$_i$*	*Edu$_i$*	*Pov$_i$*
Expected Sign	*Dep. Var*	-	+	-	+	+	+
The Variable	*Gini$_i$*	*lGdpcap$_j$*	*lPop $_j$*	*Polscore$_j$*	*lEmmig$_{ij}$*	*lDis$_{ij}$*	*Docmlang$_{ij}$*
Expected Sign	+	+	-	+	+	-	+

* By author based on economic theories.

The study estimated the equation (*) in a non-linear method, using (NBML), where the dependent variable (immig$_{ij}$) is at the level instead of taking the logarithm, which allows zero occurrences in the dependent variable, and repeating small values with the existing of other extreme value, which results in the negative binomial distribution of dependent variable data. Many applied studies found that the use of this model is characterized by the smallness of standard errors compared to other methods.

Parameters are estimated using data on the flow of migrants from different developing countries (i) to the five countries (j) used in the study sample as receiving countries, during the period 1995-2017.

Where they indicate:

Developing Countries.　　i = 1, ..., 94

High-Income-Countries.　j = 1,..........., 5

The results of the gravity model estimation are summarized in Table (4), and the results are presented according to the different model specifications and the relationships of independent variables with each other.

The estimated values of the coefficients are expressed in IRR, which indicates the percentage change in the rate of occurrence of the dependent variable due to the increase in the explanatory variable by one unit. The IRR value appears directly in the table, and is calculated as follows: (Croux, NA)

$$IRR = (e^{\beta_i} - 1) \%$$ 　　if 　　$\beta_i > 0$ IF

$$IRR = (1 - e^{\beta_i}) \%$$ 　　if 　　$\beta_i < 0$ IF

Looking at the results in Table (4), and from the Wald chi-square test, p value appeared, as in Table (4), we can see that the models are statistically significant.

The results of the NBML estimate showed variables that have a great relationship with the dependent variable ($Immig_{ij}$) with a high statistical significance in all estimated regression equations, such as: per capita income in developing countries, individual's income in receiving countries, immigration stock, and distance between countries, which is consistent with several previous studies in the field of international migration and it is also consistent with the study's expectations.

- The estimate shows an inverse relationship with statistical significance between the per capita income in developing countries ($Lgdpcapi$) and the influx of immigrants, as this result indicates weak per capita income in these countries, which encourages migration. the results support the

economic drive behind international migration, and the desire to have a higher income.

- Per capita income in receiving countries ($Lgdpcapj$) maintains its immense importance for immigrants, and is the strongest economic factors attracting international migration ever. the results of the estimate were consistent with economic theories and expectations of this study and the results of other applied studies in this field. The results indicate that there is a direct significant relationship between the individual's income in the receiving countries and the number of immigrants from developing countries, where the results indicate that increasing the individual's income in the receiving countries (% 1) leads to the possibility of migration in developing countries by a rate of (1.33).

Table 4: Assessment result

Dep. Variable	immig i j	
InDep. Variables	*Developing Countries*	
	IRR	*Prob.*
lgdpcap i	-0.1401	(0.0000)
ur i	-0.0073	(0.0005)
Polscore i	-0.0036	(0.0000)
lpop i	0.0650	(0.0000)
Edu i	0.0050	(0.3752)
Pov i	-0.0009	(0.2711)
Gini i	-0.0089	(0.0000)
lgdpcap j	1.3349	(0.0000)
Polscore j	0.0070	(0.0000)
lpop j	0.0682	(0.0123)
lemmig i,j	1.0938	(0.0000)

$ldis_{i,j}$	-0.2716	(0.0000)
$Docmlang_{i,j}$	-0.0582	(0.0717)
Constant	-7.0389 (0.0000)	
R- squared	0.523	
Log likelihood	-48941.20	
Wald Chi Seq. (P-value)	25892.160 (0.0000)	
Total Unbalanced Panel Obs.	6051	

Significant level is shown in parentheses.

- The importance of distance was also estimated, and the results confirm the primary role of the distance variable in explaining migration flows, as the results revealed an inverse relationship with statistical significance between the flow of migrants and the distance between sending and receiving countries among developing countries, which is consistent with economic theories and Newton's gravity theory, as it turned out that the greater the geographical distance between sending and receiving countries, the more this reflects negatively on the possibility of migration of individuals from developing countries. many individuals refrain from immigration in order to avoid the material cost, in reference to the costs of movement.

- The results of the estimate in relation to the income distribution inequality index was negative. the estimate in the table that shows that the parameter signal does not agree with the study's expectations despite the statistical significance, in addition to the low value of the parameter. high ratios in the Gini index indicate a rise in the number of poor people. A feature of mostly low-income countries, which does not enable individuals to migrate.

- Maximizing the benefit to the individual is one of the main causes of migration, results that support individual migration in desire to obtain high income have emerged, but the Poverty Index has produced an interesting but possible result in the case of developing countries. the relationship between a high poverty index and the increases of poor people' numbers in these countries, so these people cannot migrate because of the cost associated with migration. This result supports the belief that adopts the concept of restricting poverty, so we find that the relationship between the poverty index and the numbers of migrants is an inverse relationship, and without statistical significance, as the increase of the poverty index by one unit reduces the possibility of migration by a rate of (0.001).

- Results of the estimation of the dummy variable which expresses the commonly used language in the sending and receiving countries. The variable expressing the language ($Dcomlang_{ij}$) did not come in line with the study's expectations for the relationship between it and the dependent variable according to the estimates listed in the table (4). The study found that the probability of migration is less among the countries that speak a common language, and this contrasts with many applied studies that investigated determinants of international migration and contrasts the expectations of the study, but it is consistent with (Sprenger, 2013)study, who found that the common language had a negative impact on international migration between 21 developed countries from the European Union and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.

- Stock of immigrant's variable ($Lemmig_{ij}$) indicates the importance of the presence of former immigrants in the receiving country from the same country of the new immigrant, as this variable indicates a positive relationship with high statistical significance, and it is considered one of the important variables in increasing the number of immigrants significantly according to the results of the estimate. The results indicate that the increase in the stock of migrants (1%) leads to the possibility of migration from developing countries by (0.01) unit, indicating that the presence of former migrants in the receiving country from the migrant country, provides the newcomer with moral support and reduces the psychological cost of the migrant.

- Concerning the variable that expresses political stability ($polscore_i$), the results came to highlight the expected reverse relationship between the index of political stability in sending countries and international migration with high statistical indications. an increase in the index of political stability in developing countries leads to a decrease in the incidence of migration by (0.003). the estimates indicated that there is a direct significance relationship between the political stability index ($polscore_j$) in the receiving countries and the migration of individuals to it, as the increase in the political stability index by one unit leads to the possibility of migration by (0.007).

- There is a direct and statistically significant relationship between the population of the sending country ($Lpop_i$) and the number of people

immigrating from it. The results show that an increase in the population in the total of developing countries by (1%) leads to a possible increase in the occurrence of migration at a rate of (0.06) which is consistent with the study expectations. population density often indicates low income and lack of job opportunities, but the population of the receiving country ($Lpop_j$) came contrary to the study's expectations; the estimates indicated that there is a direct relationship with statistical significance between the population of the receiving country and the migration of individuals to it, perhaps this is due to the sample countries that were chosen as receiving countries, where each of them is characterized by population density.

- The results of the estimation in relation to the rate of unemployment in the sending country (Ur_i) came contrary to expectations, as there was a statistically significant reversal relationship between the unemployment rate in the sending countries and the increase of immigrants from them. The results indicated that increasing the unemployment rate by a unit (1) leads to a decrease in the rate of migration occurrence of the developing countries by (0.01). this can mean that the increase in unemployment means lack of money to carry out migration.
- The study found that there is a direct relationship between the average years of education in developing countries (Edu_i) and international migration, which is in line with the study's expectations that individuals with high level of education emigrate to obtain better job opportunities and higher income that encourages innovation.

IX. Conclusion

In this paper, I examine the determinants of migration flows from the selected developing countries to five high income countries for the period 1995-2017. To estimate the gravity model for migration flows, I use the NBML estimator. This estimator is appropriate, where the descriptive statistics show that the variance is greater than mean for dependent variable, and has a large percentage of zero values. Using the dataset, I try to study the determinants of immigration flows. The immigration flow data enabled me to account for both country of destination and country of origin effects. To sum up, the estimations results support hypotheses that there are positive relationship between international migration and pull factors; income, political instability and emigration in destination country, on the other hand one can conclude that there is enough evidence to support study expectation about negative relationship between the international migration and push factors; income and distance between developing countries and destination countries. Results show, the main reasons

of migration flows are high per capita income, former migrants in destination countries, low migration costs combined with their low per capita income in origin countries. Perhaps the interesting result of this study is that unemployment rate in developing countries did not show the expected positive result. To reduce the migrant's number from developing countries, governments should improve the macroeconomic setting. Regarding future directions for research, indicators on quality of governance or other institutional determinants could be included as additional explanatory variables in order to assess the future evolution of international migration from developing countries. This study is a modest addition to the literature of international migration. while this paper looks at the determinants of international migration, it provides a framework to analyze the impact of migration, on developing countries economies.

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Appendix

Developing Countries			High Countries
Low-Income-Countries	Lower-Middle-Income-Countries	Upper-Middel-Income-countries	
Afghanistan	Angola	Albania	Canada
Benin	Armenia	Algeria	France
Burkina Faso	Bangladesh	Argentina	Germany
Burundi	Bolivia	Azerbaijan	UK
Central African Rep	Cabo Verde	Belarus	USA
Ethiopia	Cambodia	Bulgaria	
Gambia	Cameroon	China	
Guinea	Cote d'Ivoire	Colombia	
Guinea-Bissau	Egypt	Costa Rica	
Haiti	El Salvador	Croatia	
Madagascar	Georgia	Cuba	
Malawi	Ghana	Dominican Rep.	
Mali	Guatemala	Ecuador	
Mozambique	Honduras	Fiji	
Nepal	India	Guyana	
Rwanda	Indonesia	Iran	
Senegal	Jordan	Iraq	
Sierra Leone	Kenya	Jamaica	
Tanzania	Kyrgyzstan	Kazakhstan	
Uganda	Lao	Lebanon	
Zimbabwe	Lesotho	Libya	
	Mauritania	Malaysia	
	Mongolia	Mexico	
	Morocco	Namibia	
	Myanmar	Panama	
	Nicaragua	Paraguay	
	Nigeria	Peru	
	Pakistan	Romania	
	Philippines	Russian Federation	
	Rep Moldova	South Africa	
	Sri Lanka	Thailand	
	Sudan	Turkey	
	Switzerland	Venezuela	
	Syrian Arab Rep.		
	Tunisia		
	Ukraine		
	Uzbekistan		
	Viet Nam		
	Yemen		
	Zambia		

Transitioning to Decent Work and Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa: Implications for the Attainment of Sustainable Development Goal 8

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Abstract- The phenomenon of indecent workplaces poses serious existential threats to profits, plants, and people including the attainment of sustainable development goal (SDG) in Sub-Saharan Africa. This chapter discusses the imperative of transition to decent work and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa – a move that is expected to lead to the attainment of SDG 8. Using a mixed research method with preference for secondary data, the paper provides richer findings on the subject of inquiry. It was found that the per capita GDPs of Sub-Saharan Africa a period of 10 years (2000-2019) are very low when compared with the minimum per capita GDP of $3996 for the Upper-Middle Income countries. Also, the continent manifested a low tendency towards decent work because of worsening unemployment rates and higher vulnerable employment in the labour force. With regards to practical and managerial implications, the study validates the United Nations' targets on economic growth and decent work, which explicates that to sustain per capita economic growth, the least developed countries must have at least 7 percent gross domestic product growth per annum including providing decent work for all women and men.

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

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Abstract- The phenomenon of indecent workplaces poses serious existential threats to profits, plants, and people including the attainment of sustainable development goal (SDG) in Sub-Saharan Africa. This chapter discusses the imperative of transition to decent work and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa – a move that is expected to lead to the attainment of SDG 8. Using a mixed research method with preference for secondary data, the paper provides richer findings on the subject of inquiry. It was found that the per capita GDPs of Sub-Saharan Africa a period of 10 years (2000-2019) are very low when compared with the minimum per capita GDP of $3996 for the Upper-Middle Income countries. Also, the continent manifested a low tendency towards decent work because of worsening unemployment rates and higher vulnerable employment in the labour force. With regards to practical and managerial implications, the study validates the United Nations' targets on economic growth and decent work, which explicates that to sustain per capita economic growth, the least developed countries must have at least 7 percent gross domestic product growth per annum including providing decent work for all women and men. Secondly, the study underscores the importance of an ethical climate for the adoption, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of the level of compliance with the ILO's decent work indicators. The paper concludes recommending economic diversification as a measure to boost economic growth, while for decent work it was recommended that the continent should reduce unemployment rate, bridge gender disparity, promote enhance self-employment, improve access to enterprise skills and employability mentoring, and step-up compliance by the public and private sectors to the decent work indicators developed by the ILO.

I. Introduction

The phenomenon of indecent work has emerged as a front-burner issue before the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the governments of member countries, when viewed in terms of the number of conventions and guidelines on labour standards and fair employment that has been adopted and endorsed over the years. Regrettably, the level of compliance with the ideals of decent work is very low. The low compliance level by the employers and governments to the guidelines on decent work poses serious existential threats to profits, plants, and people (3Ps) including the attainment of the sustainable development goal

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(SDG) if not systematically redressed. A reliable report indicated that the global economy faces extreme, poverty, slower growth, climate change, widening inequalities, unemployment, and growing indecent work, but the situation is worse in Sub-Saharan Africa where more than 204 million people are unemployed in 2015, and the worsening unemployment situation provided breeding grounds for forced labour, slavery and human trafficking (UNDP, 2020).

Additionally, the report of World Bank (2019b) identified extreme poverty, growing public debt/debt risk, slow growth of the labour market, rising labour force, and gender disparities as the critical inhibiting factors holding back economic growth and sustainable development in Sub-Saharan Africa.

In the midst of the economic crisis explicated above, the youth population is the hardest hit, as young men and women driven by hunger, hopelessness, and haplessness are forced to accept non-standard employment with poor conditions of service in the developing countries (Shehu and Nilsson, 2014). Similarly, Sparreboom and Staneva (2014) reported that the vulnerable young people are the worst hit by the global economic crisis, when viewed from five areas, namely: (i) the young people have a higher unemployment rate, (ii) young people take up lower-quality jobs, (iii) they suffer greater labour market inequalities, (iv) the young people have longer and more insecure school to-work transitions, and (v) the young people have more increased detachment from the labour market.

To sustainably redress the institutional challenges to economic development in the world, the International Labour Organisation had long identified a decent work as an ideal that is central to sustainable poverty reduction and an effective means for achieving equitable, inclusive and sustainable development (ILO, 2013). Similarly, the United Nations conceived the sustainable development goals (SDGs), specifically, Goal 8 is dedicated to a transition to decent work and economic growth. To forestall ambiguity in understanding, the ILO explained that work qualifies to be described as decent when three objectives engrained and ensured the authorities: the need for jobs, the honouring of core labour standards, and the

pursuit of further improvements in job quality (Fields, 2003).

The decent work agenda as featured consistently as part of international guidelines on employment and labour standards for many years. It was mentioned in the UN Charter of 1945 (MacNaughton & Frey, 2018). The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights Charter emphasized decent work including economic, social, and cultural rights (Association of Human Rights (2011). Also, ILO's 1998 Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work articulated the need to promote principles and rights to decent work in four categories, namely: (i) freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining, (ii) the elimination of forced or compulsory labour, (iii) the abolition of child labour and (iv) the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation (ILO, 2020). In 1999, the ILO adopted a new industrial relations strategy that is premised on four strategic objectives: (a) full employment, (b) improved levels of socio-economic security, (c) universal respect for fundamental principles and rights at work, and (d) the strengthening of social dialogue (Fields, 2003). The millennium development goals (MDGs) incorporated decent work as a new target of MDGs in 2007. The 1999 UN Global Compact also integrated four core labour standards of ILO as part of its nine-point principles (UN Global Compact, 2014). Furthermore, the ILO at the international Tripartite Meeting of Experts in 2008 adopted the Decent Work Indicators with ten substantive elements (ILO, 2013). The European Union similarly engrained the ILO's four core labour standards into its revised OECD Guidelines for multinational enterprises: Global instruments for corporate responsibility ((Fields, 2003; OECD, 2000).

As laudable as the past efforts on the adoption of ILO's labour standards on decent work are, the phenomenon of unfair labour practices continues in the global workplaces because there is a disconnection between the norms espoused under the Decent Work Agenda and the tangible implications of interventions the African, Caribbean, and Pacific (ACP) countries (Langan, 2014). The ineffective implementation of the various guidelines on decent work is an indication that beyond the development of guidelines and standards on decent work at organizational, national and international levels, there is a need for a strong ethical climate for the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of these guidelines. Moreover, the absence of the ethical climate is further worsened by the avoidable constraints posed by inadequate labour administration, especially inadequate staff with sufficient expertise to enforce the guidelines on decent work and labour standards in the informal economy (Fapohunda, 2012).

Based on the foregoing, there exists a knowledge gap to be filled with regards to the state of decent work' in Sub-Saharan Africa, and what strategies could be put in place to achieve decent work the stimulates economic growth by the year 2030 in the continent. This paper discusses the imperative of transition to decent work and economic growth (SDG 8) in Sub-Saharan Africa. Specifically, the study intends to answers to the following questions: (a) What is the state of decent work in Sub-Saharan Africa? (b) What is the state of economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa?

There are seven sections in this chapter contribution. Section 1 provides a concise introductory background on the macro-economic challenges hindering decent work agenda. Section 2 presents the adopted methods and analysis. Section 3 critically discusses the concept of decent work and its measurements in the literature. Section 4 narratively explores the Spatio-Temporal analysis of international guidelines on decent work from 1945 to 2016. Section 5 discusses economic growth. Section 6 presents the results/findings of the study. Section 7 discusses the conclusions, practical/managerial implications, and policy recommendations.

II. METHODS AND ANALYSIS

This paper adopts a mixed research method with a preference for secondary data (qualitative and quantitative). The required qualitative data were extracted from the selection of scholarly works on decent work and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa. To ensure academic rigour and objectivity in the selection of these scholarly works, a sample of 50 relevant scholarly works on decent work were purposively selected for the Google Scholar database. However, the quantitative secondary data on the gross domestic product (GDP), percentage of unemployed males and females in the labour force, and percentage of males and females in vulnerable employment were sourced from the World Bank Database spanning 10 years (2000 – 2019). The qualitative information from scholarly works was analyzed using a critical literature review (CLR). The CLR is the systematic and objective analysis and evaluation of scholarly articles on a specific subject matter for the purpose of developing new insights, richer findings, and enriched understanding about the subject of inquiry (Saunders and Rojon 2011; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). The quantitative data were however analyzed descriptively using tables and percentages. The meaningful findings that emerged from both methods. To ensure some degree of academic rigour and objectivity in the selection of scholarly works, a sample of 50 relevant scholarly works on decent work were purposively selected, analyzed and evaluated on the basis of which findings and

prescriptions were made on the imperative of transition to decent work and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa.

III. DEFINITION OF DECENT WORK AND MEASUREMENTS

The term decent work is better explained than defined. A number of definitions abound in the industrial relations and personnel management literature on this front-burner concept. Decent work refers to an adequate opportunity for employees to work, equitable remuneration in cash and kind, including safety in the workplace and healthy working conditions. The first two components of decent work (adequate opportunity and remuneration) are social security components, while the two others (safety at workplace and healthy workplace) are the social relations component of decent work (Ghai, 2003).

Decent work measurements have been widely discussed in the literature for several decades. At a point in time, the decent work measurements focus on workplace outcomes, specifically: what kinds of work people are assigned, how remuneration is determined including security of the work, and what rights workers enjoy in their workplace (Fields, 2003). The International Labour Organization (ILO) after an international Tripartite Meeting of Experts on the Measurement of Decent Work in 2008 adopted a framework of Decent Work Indicators with ten substantive elements as veritable measurements that include: (i) full and productive employment, (ii) rights at work, social protection, and the promotion of social dialogue): employment opportunities; adequate earnings and productive work; decent working time; combining work, family and personal life; work that should be abolished; stability and security of work; equal opportunity and treatment in employment; safe work environment; social security; and, social dialogue, employers' and workers' representation (ILO, 2013).

As laudable as the framework on decent work indicators/measurements are, it requires an ethical climate for its implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. An ethical climate incorporates an organization's working environment, ethical consequences of organizational issues, policies, procedures and practices (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander, 2008; Moore, 2012).) and extends to the application of organizational policies and procedures and execution of ethical standards to reward ethical activities and sanction unethical conduct (Schwepker, 2001; Martin and Cullen, 2006). Related to the point above, the UN Global Compact principles 3, 4, 5 and 6 also emphasized the need for decent work globally. Specifically, the 3rd the principle stated that businesses operating across the glove should uphold the freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; the 4th principle emphasized the need for corporate leaders to eliminate all forms of forced and compulsory labour; the 5th principle emphasized the need for effective abolition of child labour; and 6th principle recommended the need to eliminate discrimination in respect of employment and occupation (UN Global Compact, 2014, p.6).

IV. SPATIO-TEMPORAL ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL GUIDELINES ON DECENT WORK

Having understood the definition of decent work, this section examines how decent work agenda has consistently been discussed, endorsed, and adopted over-the-years by the international community. As far back as 1945 post-world war period, the need for a decent work was consistently pursued. Specifically, the UN Charter of 1945 articulated the ideals of decent work through the promotion of "higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress and development" including respect for, and recognition of human and basic rights of workers (MacNaughton & Frey, 2018; Association of Human rights, 2019). The 1945 Charter was mere pronouncement with very low compliance in the world of work and among member nations of the UN.

In 1948, the imperative of decent work was relaunched and firmly enshrined as part of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights Charter. The new Charter guarantees protection of the person, and provides classical freedom and rights such as freedom of expression, as well as economic, social, and cultural rights. The rights apply to all people irrespectively of their race, gender, and nationality, as all people are born free and equal (Association of Human Rights (2011). The Declaration elicits cooperation of governments and businesses as critical segments of the society for enforcement. The businesses are particularly vested with the responsibility to promote respect of the human rights of their employees with regards to decent work particularly on issues of core labour standards, management of security forces, and indigenous peoples' rights (OECD, 2001).

Another important progress on the promotion of decent work was the adoption in 1998 the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work. The Declaration elicits from the member states to respect and promote principles and rights to decent work in four categories, namely: (i) freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining, (ii) the elimination of forced or compulsory labour, (iii) the abolition of child labour and (iv) the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation (ILO, 2020).

Furthermore, the ILO in 1999 adopted a new industrial relations goal christened "Decent Work for All". The decent work agenda is the creation of not just jobs, but jobs of acceptable quality. The actualization of this laudable the objective is premised on four strategic objectives: (a) full employment, (b) improved levels of socio-economic security, (c) universal respect for fundamental principles and rights at work, and (d) the strengthening of social dialogue (Fields, 2003). From public health perspective, scholars emphasized that promoting fair employment and decent work as parts of the daily living conditions impact positively on human health (MacNaughton & Frey, 2018).

Beyond the agenda of the United Nations on decent work, the European Union member countries reinforced extant policies and standards on decent work by incorporating ILO's four core labour standards into its revised OECD Guidelines for multinational enterprises: Global instruments for corporate responsibility ((Fields, 2003; OECD, 2000). The OECD Guidelines are essentially nine recommendations on codes of conduct covering nine areas of business conduct that the governments elicit voluntary compliance from the multinational enterprises (OECD, 2001).

The millennium development goals (MDGs) adopted in 2000 also recognized decent work as a worthwhile agenda. According to ILO (2020b), the UN incorporated decent work as a new target of MDGs in 2007. The UN believed that decent work ideals of full and productive employment for men, women and young people represent one of the potent means for fighting poverty foundationally (MDG 1). For MDG 2, it is believed that achieving universal primary education is premised on (a) children having access to education as well as freedom from child labour, and (b) supporting the rights of teachers and fostering labour conditions that would motivate them to provide quality education. With regards to achieving gender equality (MDG 3), there is a need to have decent work policies that promote equal opportunities for women to access employment, social protection, and training. Similarly, decent work agenda support MDGs 4 and 5 fundamentally because of compliance by employers with international labour standards, the promotion of social protection such as maternity leave and the ability to reach women in the workplace all play a crucial role in reducing child mortality (MDG 4) and in improving maternal health (MDG 5). Decent work incorporates the need for employers and governments to promote HIV/AIDS prevention policies and raising awareness in the workplace for the purpose of combating HIV/AIDS (MDG 6). Decent work agenda aligns with the call to adapt to climate change, as decent work and labour standards have a strong link to environmental sustainability (MDG 7). Adopting the ideas of decent work by all strategic actors can help forge a global partnership for development (MDG 8) that would accelerate the progress toward better living and working conditions for all.

Furthermore, the International Labour Organisation reviewed the state of "Decent Work for All" in order to improve the wellness of employees across the globe. Consequently, at the international Tripartite Meeting of Experts on the Measurement of Decent Work in 2008, the Decent Work Indicators was adopted. The Decent Work Indicators has the following ten substantive elements: (i) full and productive employment, (ii) rights at work, social protection and the promotion of social dialogue): employment opportunities; adequate earnings and productive work; decent working time; combining work, family and personal life; work that should be abolished; stability and security of work; equal opportunity and treatment in employment; safe work environment; social security; and, social dialogue, employers' and workers' representation (ILO, 2013).

Related to the point above, the United Nations integrated four core labour standards of ILO into the nine-point Global Compact that was launched in January 1999. The UN Global Compact is a blueprint for promoting the shared values and principles of the United Nations regarding issues of human rights, labour (including decent work) and the environment among business groups, individual companies, organized labour, and non-governmental organizations (Fields, 2003). The 3, 4, 5 and 6 principles of the UN Global Compact promote the need for decent work globally. Specifically, the 3rd principle stated that businesses operating across the glove should uphold the freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; 4th principle emphasized the need for corporate leaders to eliminate of all forms of forced and compulsory labour; 5th principle emphasized the need for effective abolition of child labour; and 6th principle recommended the need to eliminate discrimination in respect of employment and occupation (UN Global Compact, 2014, p.6).

At the expiration of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the United Nations adopted the sustainable development goals (SDGs) in September 2015, as a new development blueprint that builds on the success of MDGs across the globe. It was officially launched on 1 January 2016 with the recommendation to member countries to take ownership of the SDGs and establish national frameworks for the achievement of the 17 Goals (United Nations, 2018). The SDGs is an all-inclusive sustainable development blueprint to be implemented and tracked for the next fifteen by the international community at the national and international levels (Raimi, Adelopo and Yusuf, 2019). Table 1 below provides a tabular summary of the Spatio-temporal trends of the decent work agenda.

Table 1: Spatio-Temporary Trends of Decent Work Agenda

SN	Name of Decent Work Agenda	Year	Extent of Affirmation
1	UN Charter	1945	Voluntary compliance
2	Universal Declaration of Human Rights Charter	1948	Voluntary compliance
3	ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work	1998	Voluntary compliance
4	Decent Work for All	1999	Voluntary compliance
5	Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)	2000	Voluntary compliance
6	Revised OECD Guidelines for multinational enterprises: Global instruments for corporate responsibility	2001	Voluntary compliance
7	ILO's Decent Work Indicators	2008	Voluntary compliance
8	The UN Global Compact	2014	Voluntary compliance
9	Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)	2015	Voluntary compliance

Source: Author's compilations

Structurally, the SDGs are seventeen (17) interconnected social, economic, and environmental goals to be achieved by 2030. These goals as shown in Table 2 below are necessary to reinvent a better and more sustainable future for all in the face of daunting global challenges facing the developed and developing countries (United Nations, 2018). Specifically, Goal 8 focuses on Decent Work and Economic Growth.

Table 2: The 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

SN	Goal Description	Practical Policies for Goal Actualization
Goal 1	No poverty	Economic growth must be inclusive to provide sustainable jobs and promote equality.
Goal 2	Zero Hunger	The food and agriculture sector offers key solutions for development, and is central for hunger and poverty eradication.
Goal 3	Good Health and Wellbeing	Ensuring healthy lives and promoting the well-being for all at all ages is essential to sustainable development.
Goal 4	Quality Education	Obtaining a quality education is the foundation to improving people's lives and sustainable development.
Goal 5	Gender Equality	Gender equality is not only a fundamental human right, but a necessary foundation for a peaceful, prosperous and sustainable world.
Goal 6	Clean Water and Sanitation	Clean, accessible water for all is an essential part of the world we want to live in.
Goal 8	Decent Work and Economic Growth	Sustainable economic growth will require societies to create the conditions that allow people to have quality jobs.
Goal 10	Reduced Inequality	To reduce inequalities, policies should be universal in principle, paying attention to the needs of disadvantaged and marginalized populations.
Goal 12	Responsible Production and Consumption	Responsible Production and Consumption.
Goal 13	Climate Action	Climate change is a global challenge that affects everyone, everywhere.
Goal 14	Life Below Water	Careful management of this essential global resource is a key feature of a sustainable future.
Goal 15	Life on Land	Sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, halt and reverse land degradation, halt biodiversity loss..
Goal 16	Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions	Access to justice for all, and building effective, accountable institutions at all levels.
Goal 17	Partnerships for the Goals	Revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development.

Source: United Nations (2018)

V. Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa

The term economic growth has been defined as the measure of the change of GDP from one year to the next. In most development literature, economic growth is functionally measured by GDP in US dollars at constant prices (Lam and Shiu, 2010). Moreover, economic growth is a catalyst to social-economic development, as rising per capita incomes that trailed increased GDP reduces poverty, that is, a 10% increase in economic growth will lead to a 20–30% decrease in poverty (Adam, 2004). The above statement is reinforced by Goal 8 of SDGs on Decent Work and Economic Growth, which presupposes that sustainable economic growth requires the creation of enabling conditions that allow people to have quality jobs (United Nations, 2018). Let us examine the phenomena of decent work and

economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa on the basis of macro-economic data sourced from the World Bank database.

To determine the situations of decent work and economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa, the study descriptively analyzed the World Bank data on per capita GDP, percentage of unemployed males and females in the labour force and percentage of males and females in vulnerable employment for a period of 10 years (2000 – 2019)

- The decision rule on Economic growth: If % the per capita GDP of Sub-Saharan Africa ≤ $3996 (Lower Limit of Upper-Middle Income PCI), Then, the continent is not experiencing economic growth.

- The decision rule on Decent Work: (a) If % of unemployed male and female in the labour force is consistently high overtime, then the continent is far from decent work, and (b) If % of male and female in vulnerable employment in the labour force is consistently high over time, then the continent is far from decent work. Besides, the comparative analyses of per capita GDPs, percentage of unemployed (male and female) and percentages of male and female in vulnerable employment in the labour force of Sub-Sharan Africa and the United States will further, enrich the findings from the descriptive analysis.

Table 3: Economic Indicators of Sub-Saharan Africa

Economic Growth Indicators	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
GDP per capita	1578.202	1604.07	1624.069	1659.561	1690.419	1691.95	1667.476	1664.705	1659.952	NA
Unemployment (% Male labour force)	5.539461	5.491927	5.458376	5.361103	5.290692	5.28224	5.653738	5.826455	5.721839	5.780123
Unemployment (% Female labour force)	6.42055	6.272387	6.144605	6.058049	6.26939	6.298841	6.707304	6.800493	6.662423	6.654986
Vulnerable employment (% of male)	69.24477	68.83567	68.51916	68.21472	67.898	67.6885	67.59369	67.42651	67.24392	67.07131
Vulnerable employment (% of female)	83.43207	82.92991	82.54292	82.16677	81.79667	81.52795	81.39199	81.22195	81.12603	81.09011

Source: World Bank Data (2019)

Table 4: Economic Indicators of the United States

Economic Growth Indicators	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
GDP per capita	48466.82	48862.42	49596.42	50161.08	51015.14	52099.27	52534.37	53356.24	54579.02	NA
Unemployment (% Male labour force)	10.51	9.369	8.222	7.633	6.26	5.367	4.938	4.396	3.946	3.738
Unemployment (% Female labour force)	8.612	8.459	7.89	7.071	6.059	5.177	4.788	4.308	3.837	3.616
Vulnerable employment (% of male)	4.756	4.544	4.43	4.268	4.213	4.283	4.277	4.08	4.071	4.069
Vulnerable employment (% of female)	3.542	3.505	3.567	3.566	3.448	3.401	3.349	3.429	3.377	3.36

Source: World Bank Data (2019)

VI. RESULTS/FINDINGS ON ECONOMIC GROWTH AND DECENT WORK

The findings of the study indicate that Sub-Saharan Africa suffers setbacks in both economic growth and decent work. From Tables 3 and 4 above, each per capita GDP of Sub-Saharan Africa from 2000-2019 is very low when compared with the minimum per capita GDP of $3996 for the Upper-Middle Income countries. The low per capita GDP for the 10-year period is a strong indication that the continent is not experiencing economic growth. For three different years, the per capita GDPs of Sub-Saharan Africa were $1578 (2010), $1690 (2014) and $1659 (2018) less than $3996.

Comparatively, the United States for the three periods had $48,466 (2010), $51015 (2014), and $ 54579 (2018) higher than $3996.

With regard to decent work, Tables 3 and 4 showed worrisome trends. For 2010, the number of unemployed males in the labour force was 10.51%, while the number of unemployed females was 6.4%. In 2014, the number of unemployed male and female was 5.29% and 6.27 respectively (an indication of a slight drop). By 2019, the number of unemployed male and female were 5.78% and 6.65 respectively (a further indication that the unemployment rates have worsened) with respect to male and female in the continent. Similarly, the numbers of males and females in vulnerable employment on the continent are very alarming. In 2010, the percentage of males in vulnerable employment was 69.2, while the percentage of females in vulnerable employment was 83.4%. For 2014, the percentage of males in vulnerable employment was 67.8%, while that of females in vulnerable employment was 81.7% (a drop relative to 2010). By 2019, the percentage of males in vulnerable employment was 67.07%, while that of females in vulnerable employment was 81.09% (a slight drop relative to 2014).

Overall, Sub-Saharan Africa has very high percentages of males and females in vulnerable employment, when compared with the United States. In 2000, the percentage of male in vulnerable employment in the US was 4.75% of the labour force, while the female was 3.5%. For 2014, the percentage of males in vulnerable employment in the US was 4.2% of the labour force, while the percentage of females was 3.4%. By 2019, the percentage of males in vulnerable employment in the US was 4.06% of the labour force, while the percentage of females was 3.36%. Overall, the US has very low percentages of male and female in vulnerable employment, when compared with the Sub-Sharan Africa as a whole. The multiplier effect of decent work is expected to trigger economic growth, and systematically lead to the attainment of SDG 8.

The above findings on decent work are supported by findings from the literature reviewed. Evidence from low-income economies such as Bangladesh, Benin, Cambodia, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Nepal, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, and Uganda revealed that the employment opportunities offered to the young people (aged 15–29) fall short of decent work and that the young people take up these jobs in order to make a living in the absence of an adequate social safety net in their countries (Sparreboom and Staneva, 2014). Beyond this global findings, let us examine the state of decent work on a county-by-country basis in some Sub-Saharan African countries.

In South Africa's tourism industry, it was reported that the work conditions of South African tourist guides are precarious and far from being decent. Also, the tourist guides have limited career experience in tour guiding, as they take up the vulnerable temporary short-term employment for the purpose of sustaining personal lifestyle rather than economic motivations. Besides, the treatments given to these tourist guides by their employers do not comply with the existing labour regulations (De Beer, Rogerson & Rogerson, 2014).

For over a decade, Jauch & Traub-Merz 2006) reported that workers and trade unions in the clothing and textile industry in Africa contend with abusive labour practices such as low wages, lack of benefits, and poor working conditions and environmental standards, which violates the basic workers' rights as specified by ILO. Worse still, the textile industry undermined the rights of workers and their trade unions to negotiations and collective bargaining through the threat of relocation. The hopelessness caused by unemployment in the continent has also forced the reserve army of unemployed people to be recruited for jobs with poor working conditions.

VII. Conclusion, Implications and Policy Recommendations

This paper set out to discuss the imperative of transition to decent work and economic growth (SDG 8) in Sub-Saharan Africa. Leveraging a mixed research method, the paper provided answers to two questions, namely: (a) What is the state of decent work in Sub-Saharan Africa? (b) What is the state of economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa? The first finding indicated that the per capita GDPs of Sub-Saharan Africa from 2000-2019 (a period of 10 years) is very low when compared with the minimum per capita GDP of $3996 for the Upper-Middle Income countries. The second finding indicated that Sub-Saharan Africa showed worrisome trends on decent work because of a combination of worsening unemployment rates and higher vulnerable employment in the labour force.

The study has a number of practical and managerial implications. Firstly, the study support and validate the United Nations' targets on economic growth and decent work, which explicates that to sustain per capita economic growth, the least developed countries must have at least 7 percent gross domestic product growth per annum including providing decent work for all women and men, young people and persons with disabilities, while ensuring equal pay for work of equal value (United Nations, 2018). Secondly, the study underscores the importance of an ethical climate at international, national and organizational levels for the adoption, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of the level of compliance with the ILO's decent work indicators.

In conclusion, the study revealed that Sub-Saharan Africa is far from the SDGs targets on economic growth and decent work. To achieve these targets, the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa needs to develop realistic strategies that could help create decent work and stimulate economic growth before the year 2030. The multiplier effect of decent work is expected to trigger economic growth, and lead to the attainment of SDG 8.

Flowing from the practical and managerial implications above, the following recommendations are proposed:

i. It is recommended that Sub-Saharan African should swiftly embrace economic diversification as a catalyst for boosting their GDPs and by extension the per capital GDPS. This the recommendation needs to be strengthened with clearly defined long-term economic diversification strategies that will help the continent diversify faster the economic resources of the 54 countries in the Sub-Sharan Africa.

ii. To boost decent work and economic growth, it recommended that the continent reduce the unemployment rate, bridge gender disparity, promote enhance self-employment, improve access to enterprise skills and employability mentoring, and compliance by the public and private sectors to the decent work indicators developed by the ILO.

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Crédit Bancaire Et Croissance Économique En Afrique Sub-Saharienne: Le Rôle De La Qualité Des Institutions

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Abstract- Summary: The objective of this paper is to assess the effect of the quality of institutions in the relationship between bank credit and economic growth in the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. To achieve this, econometric estimates were made using the Generalized Moment Method (MMG) in a dynamic panel of 36 countries in the area over the period from 2000 to 2018. The results obtained show that corruption and political instability have a negative effect on the level of bank credit granted to the private sector. The weakness of the legal framework has a negative effect on the level of bank credit granted to the private sector, thus limiting economic growth. This low level of democracy in these countries therefore has the effect of amplifying this pro-cyclical behavior of gross domestic product per capita. The independence of the central bank, an effective legal framework, political stability and a low level of corruption greatly reduce credit constraints and stimulate lending. The quality of institutions has optimal potential for promoting economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Keywords: institutional governance, cyclical monetary policy, economic growth, MMG.

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Crédit Bancaire Et Croissance Économique En Afrique Sub-Saharienne: Le Rôle De La Qualité Des Institutions

Nana Kuindja Rodrigue

Résumé- L'objectif de ce papier est d'évaluer l'effet de la qualité des institutions dans la relation qui existe entre le crédit bancaire et la croissance économique dans les pays de l'Afrique Sub-Saharienne. Pour y arriver, des estimations économétriques ont été faîtes en utilisant la Méthode des Moments Généralisés (MMG) en panel dynamique de 36 pays de la zone sur la période allant de 2000 à 2018. Les résultats obtenus montrent que la corruption et l'instabilité politique ont un effet négatif sur le niveau du crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé. La faiblesse du cadre juridique a un effet négatif sur le niveau du crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé limitant ainsi la croissance économique. Ce faible niveau de démocratie dans ces pays a donc pour effet d'amplifier ce comportement pro-cyclique du produit intérieur brut par tête. L'indépendance de la banque centrale, un cadre juridique efficace, la stabilité politique et un faible niveau de corruption réduisent fortement les contraintes de crédit et stimulent les prêts. La qualité des institutions a un potentiel optimal pour la promotion d'une croissance économique dans l'Afrique Subsaharienne.

Mots clés: *gouvernance des institutions, cyclicité de la politique monétaire, croissance économique, MMG.*

Abstract- *Summary:* The objective of this paper is to assess the effect of the quality of institutions in the relationship between bank credit and economic growth in the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. To achieve this, econometric estimates were made using the Generalized Moment Method (MMG) in a dynamic panel of 36 countries in the area over the period from 2000 to 2018. The results obtained show that corruption and political instability have a negative effect on the level of bank credit granted to the private sector. The weakness of the legal framework has a negative effect on the level of bank credit granted to the private sector, thus limiting economic growth. This low level of democracy in these countries therefore has the effect of amplifying this pro-cyclical behavior of gross domestic product per capita. The independence of the central bank, an effective legal framework, political stability and a low level of corruption greatly reduce credit constraints and stimulate lending. The quality of institutions has optimal potential for promoting economic growth in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Keywords: *institutional governance, cyclical monetary policy, economic growth, MMG.*

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I. Introduction

Les institutions représentent un moyen par lequel les agents au départ ignorants des actions et anticipations des autres obtiennent l'information leur permettant de se coordonner. Elles permettent selon Lachman (1970) d'économiser connaissance et information en favorisant un fonctionnement harmonieux des marchés. De manière précise, la littérature emprunte généralement la définition des institutions à North (1980), qui selon lui, les institutions sont les règles du jeu dans une société ou plus formellement, ce sont les contraintes humainement conçues qui déterminent les interactions humaines. Par conséquent, les institutions structurent les incitations dans les échanges humains aussi bien dans le domaine politique, économique et social (Duncan, 2014). Par ailleurs, les institutions ont pour nature de réduire l'incertitude dans la vie de tous les jours. On distingue les institutions formelles des institutions informelles. Les institutions formelles sont l'ensemble des contrats, des règles politiques, juridiques et économiques écrites, explicites et dont l'exécution devrait être assurée par une entité, généralement l'État ou ses administrations (Calderon et *al.,* 2016). En revanche, les institutions informelles ne sont pas écrites ; elles sont des règles implicites dont l'exécution est assurée de façon endogène par les individus appartenant à un même groupe ou à une communauté. Les institutions informelles sont un ensemble de coutumes, de conventions, de normes ou de codes de conduite dans la société (Lane, 2003). Quelle que soit la forme des institutions (formelles ou informelles), elles définissent également ce que les membres d'une société sont autorisés ou pas à faire et quelque fois sous quelles conditions certains membres de la société sont autorisés à entreprendre certaines activités (Calderon et *al.,* 2003, 2004).

De façon générale, les travaux sur les institutions portent essentiellement sur les institutions formelles du fait des difficultés de mesure des institutions informelles. Les institutions formelles se regroupent sous deux catégories à savoir : les institutions économiques et politiques. Les institutions économiques définissent les règles régissant les interactions humaines dans le domaine économique alors que les institutions politiques définissent les règles

dans le domaine politique (Acemoglu, Johson et Robinson, 2005a). Dans un pays, il peut exister plusieurs types d'institutions économiques. Rodrick (2005) distingue : les institutions de création de marché (les institutions de droit de propriété) ; les institutions de régulation du marché (les institutions monétaires et budgétaires) et les institutions de légitimation du marché (les institutions de protection et d'assurance sociale). Selon Gozgor (2018), la problématique des institutions a conduit à opposer dans la littérature deux courants : le courant orthodoxe (consiste à considérer les sociétés fictives avec des institutions préfabriquées et le courant hétérodoxe (consiste à partir des sociétés existantes ou ayant existé et de caractériser leurs institutions).

Les travaux de la nouvelle économie institutionnelle au début de la décennie quatre vingt dix sous l'égide de North (1980) ont mis en exergue le rôle des institutions dans le processus de développement économique. Ils montrent en particulier que l'existence de bonnes institutions stimule le développement et la croissance économique (Calderon et *al.,* 2003). La qualité des institutions est généralement appréhendée par le concept de gouvernance. En effet, l'adoption au début des années quatre vingt dix par la banque mondiale du concept de « bonne gouvernance » est caractéristique du poids de la nouvelle économie institutionnelle dans les politiques de développement proposées par ces institutions. Force est de reconnaître que la « gouvernance » tant utilisée par les experts de la banque mondiale véhicule un message lourd de conséquences au niveau des Etats. La bonne gouvernance est définie comme la capacité de l'Etat à fournir les institutions qui favorisent la croissance économique et la réduction de la pauvreté (Banque mondiale, 1992).

L'un des instruments utilisés par la Banque mondiale pour imposer un modèle de gouvernance tout en se défendant de le faire, ce sont les indicateurs de gouvernance (six indicateurs). La bonne gouvernance, malgré les ambiguïtés qu'elle recèle demeure une notion clé qui nous permet de mettre l'accent sur les défaillances des économies des pays du tiers-monde. A cet égard, la perpétuation des comportements rentiers chez l'élite de ces pays rend le développement irréalisable voire impossible. Dans cette optique, la promotion des pratiques de « bonne gouvernance » dans ces pays est d'une importance capitale. La mal gouvernance qui sévit dans les pays en développement explique l'échec des stratégies économico-politiques qui ont été mises en place. Ces pratiques de mal gouvernance affecte la qualité des institutions d'où leurs faiblesses traduites par l'incapacité de celles-ci à remplir les missions qui leur sont dévolues (Jappelli et *al.,* 2005 ; Gozgor, 2018).

Dans les pays d'Afrique Subsaharienne, la mal gouvernance se traduit par un niveau de corruption élevé traduisant ainsi la faiblesse des institutions. A titre illustratif, le rapport de transparency international (2017) fait état d'un niveau de corruption élevé d'où le faible score de l'index de perception de la corruption (CPI) de ces pays et leur position dans les profondeurs du classement. Cameroun CPI (25) 153e, Gabon CPI (32) 117e, République centrafricaine CPI (23) 156e, République démocratique du Congo CPI (21) 161e, Tchad CPI (20) 165e, Guinée équatoriale CPI (17) et 171e. Le débat sur les effets de la corruption est particulièrement fervent. Il débute avec Leff (1964) et Huntington (1968) ; ces auteurs suggèrent que la corruption peut accroître la croissance économique à travers deux mécanismes. Premièrement, les pratiques de corruption telles que « l'argent rapide » permettent aux individus d'éviter les tracasseries bureaucratiques. Deuxièmement, les employés du gouvernement qui reçoivent des pots de vin vont travailler plus dures. Cependant, Schleifer et Vishy (1993) affirment que la corruption tend à réduire la croissance économique, Rose-Ackermann (1978) mettent en garde de la difficulté de limiter la corruption au niveau auquel il peut être économiquement désirable. Selon Mauro (1995), la corruption réduit l'investissement à travers l'accès au crédit bancaire et de ce fait la croissance économique.

La crise des années quatre vingt a mis en exergue une certaine défaillance des institutions de régulation d'où le vaste programme de restructuration engagé dans le secteur bancaire en Afrique Subsaharienne au début de la décennie quatre vingt dix pour se doter d'instruments et d'institutions de bonne qualité. Les réformes dans le secteur bancaire ont porté sur une approche gradualiste qui repose sur l'idée que les réformes s'appuient sur les changements appropriés des structures institutionnelles à la fois d'ordre macroéconomique et microéconomique. Toutefois, ces réformes ont le plus porté d'une part sur la refonte des instruments de la politique monétaire traduite par la libéralisation du contrôle des taux d'intérêt et la programmation monétaire. D'autre part, le changement du cadre institutionnel se traduit par la création d'une institution communautaire (COBAC) et la redéfinition des conditions d'exercice de l'activité bancaire sous l'obtention d'un agrément. En dépit de ces réformes, les banques de la sous-région n'arrivent pas à assurer leur rôle d'intermédiation dont le taux a varié entre 72,4% et 90,2% entre 2014 et 2016 (Banque de France, 2016). Ces banques ont souvent été pointées du doigt du fait de la qualité approximative des services offerts pourtant elles reçoivent de leurs clients des commissions, des agios et les intérêts importants. Par conséquent, elles ne contribuent pas à la croissance économique (Hugon, 2007).

Les banques expliquent ces accusations par des facteurs institutionnels, l'environnement économique, juridique et règlementaire qui limitent leurs activités justifiant ainsi leur forte aversion à la prise de risque (Adam-madji, 1997) d'où l'insuffisance de crédit auquel sont confrontés les pays de la sous-région. Cette situation est généralement assimilée à la problématique du rationnement de crédit. Cependant, il en découle un clivage entre économistes et banquiers sur cette question, car ces derniers estiment qu'il n'y a pas de rationnement de crédit en Afrique Subsaharienne. Car l'expression « rationnement » renvoie à une décision administrative de freiner le crédit. Il s'agit davantage d'une insuffisance de crédit (Calvin, 2008). En effet, du fait du caractère embryonnaire des marchés financiers les économies et plus précisément les petites et moyennes entreprises sont fortement dépendantes du financement bancaire. Les banques en tant qu'intermédiaires financiers jouent un rôle prépondérant dans l'allocation des ressources. Ainsi, le développement économique des pays est fortement tributaire du crédit bancaire. Une insuffisance du crédit est dommageable pour les perspectives de croissance économique de ces pays.

L'insuffisance de crédit ou le sous-financement peut être appréhendé à travers le volume du crédit du secteur bancaire à l'économie. En Afrique Subsaharienne, les crédits à l'économie sont passés de 5,4% en 2016 contre 9,7% en 2015 reflétant pour l'essentiel un ralentissement des crédits à court terme et un recul des crédits à long terme, liés à la baisse de l'investissement dans un contexte économique peu favorable (Banque de France, 2016). En outre, le crédit accordé au secteur privé est l'un des plus faibles et représente en moyenne 9,56% du taux normalement observé qui est de 18,61%. Cependant, la plupart de ces banques disposent de réserves excédentaires ou libres. La théorie de l'intermédiation financière implique que les banques en situation de surliquidité devraient être frappées par « une frénésie de l'octroi des prêts » et donc une baisse de l'aversion pour le risque (CEA[1],2011). Cependant, le fait stylisé observé est le paradoxe de la surliquidité bancaire et de l'insuffisance de crédit dans les pays d'Afrique Subsaharienne (Doumbia, 2011).

La surliquidité bancaire désigne une situation de déséquilibre profond et permanent entre les ressources et les emplois d'une banque. Plus précisément, elle traduit une situation où la trésorerie bancaire est en permanence excédentaire, celle-ci variant sous l'influence tant des facteurs autonomes (conjoncturels), qu'institutionnels (Avom et Eyeffa, 2007). Cela peut provenir par exemple de la contrainte imposée par la banque centrale aux banques

commerciales de se constituer des réserves obligatoires non rémunérées ou bien des variations positives des opérations extérieures. La surliquidité bancaire est généralement appréhendée par le concept de réserves libres ou excédentaires. Les réserves libres des banques en Afrique Subsaharienne atteignaient 2432,1 milliards de francs FCFA au 31 décembre 2014 ont continué à fortement reculer revenant de 1648,2 milliards de francs CFA en 2015 à 909,2 milliards de francs CFA à fin 2016 ; soit une réduction de 44,8% par an. Toutefois, cette baisse a été compensée en partie par celle de 50% des coefficients des réserves obligatoires (Banque de France, 2016). Cependant, cette baisse n'occulte pas la situation de surliquidité qui prévaut en Afrique Subsaharienne.

L'hypothèse principale est que la faible qualité de la gouvernance des institutions contribue à expliquer l'insuffisance de crédit prévalant dans la zone et/ou de sa volatilité de la croissance économique. La gouvernance des institutions sont des règles formelles et informelles qui régissent les interactions humaines. Elle définie l'exercice de l'autorité politique, économique et administrative dans le cadre de la gestion desdites institutions (PNUD, 1997). Le problème qui se pose est donc celui d'un niveau toujours persistant du niveau de crédit accordé au secteur privé qui se traduit par de faibles performances macro-économiques. On remarque que malgré la persistance de la BEAC en quête de son autonomie, l'effet d'entrainement en termes d'amélioration des conditions de vie reste problématique car une grande partie des États demeure dans la catégorie de pays à revenu intermédiaire. Peut-on alors penser que le niveau de croissance économique obtenu par ces pays, qui est supposé financer le développement et générer de la croissance dans leurs territoires, soit tributaire de cette gouvernance des institutions ?

L'objectif de cet article est donc d'une part d'évaluer l'effet de la gouvernance des institutions dans la relation qui existe entre le crédit bancaire et la croissance économique dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne, et d'autre part de mettre en évidence des propositions à partir desquelles les politiques de développement pourront s'appuyer. Cette problématique nous semble légitime, car à notre connaissance aucune étude n'a encore été faite sur le rôle de la gouvernance des institutions dans la relation entre le crédit bancaire et la croissance économique dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne. Le présent article vise donc à combler ce vide. La suite de l'article se présente de la manière suivante: La deuxième section présente la revue de la littérature. La troisième section, quant à elle, expose la démarche méthodologique. La quatrième section présente les résultats obtenus et leurs discussions. La cinquième section conclut l'étude.

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[1] Commission Economique des nations unies pour l'Afrique.

II. Revue de la Litterature

Les économistes ne s'accordent pas jusqu'aujourd'hui sur le rôle de la gouvernance des institutions dans la relation qui existe entre le crédit et la croissance économique dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne. Certains pensent que la gouvernance des institutions améliore l'effet positif du crédit bancaire sur la croissance économique. D'autres par contre, démontrent que le crédit bancaire combiné à la gouvernance des institutions n'est pas toujours source de croissance économique.

a) Institutions, crédit bancaire et croissance économique : une analyse théorique

Selon les tenants de la première thèse, c'est-à-dire ceux qui soutiennent l'idée selon laquelle le crédit bancaire combiné à la gouvernance des institutions a un effet positif la croissance économique dans les PED, la bonne gouvernance constitue un préalable nécessaire à la gestion de la réaction des autorités monétaires à travers la lutte contre la corruption et la fraude fiscale. La qualité de la gouvernance des institutions sera bonne dans les pays Subsaharien et la valorisation des dépenses publiques se fera aisément. La Porta et *al.,* (1997) en analysant le lien entre le système juridique et le marché financier, spécifie le degré d'application de la loi et le contenu de la loi. La qualité des institutions et le crédit bancaire est généralement analysée sur le prisme de la relation entre le cadre juridique et la finance (Calderon et *al.*, 2004). La meilleure qualité de l'application de la loi mesurée par une évaluation faite par les investisseurs et environnement dans lesquels ils opèrent a un effet significatif sur l'étendue des marchés du crédit. Dans le même sillage, Démirguc-Kunt et Maksimovic (1998) affirme qu'un système juridique efficace est important parce qu'une entreprise qui souhaite obtenir un financement de long terme doit être capable de s'engager de manière crédible dans la lutte du comportement opportuniste des initiés. Un système financier bien développé est important parce que les marchés financiers et les banques servent de source de financement ou de capital et de mécanismes pour garantir que les investisseurs aient accès à l'information à propos des activités des entreprises (Calderon et *al.*, 2016).

Ainsi, l'existence de marchés financiers développés et actifs ainsi qu'un système bancaire important devrait faciliter l'accès aux financements extérieurs de long terme aux entreprises. Les banquiers refusaient et refusent toujours de prêter car ils manquent d'informations pour évaluer le risque ou car les projets sont trop risqués, ceci du fait de l'inapplication et de l'inadéquation de la loi. Les procédures collectives se déroulent par l'intermédiaire des tribunaux. Elles regroupent la liquidation judiciaire et la faillite. La loi ne prévoit aucune procédure d'alerte et

l'actif net des entreprises industrielles lors de l'ouverture de la procédure de liquidation judiciaire est négatif dans 30% des cas. Selon les interlocuteurs concernés par les procédures collectives, la plupart des liquidations n'aboutissent pas toujours au redressement des entreprises en raison du comportement des liquidateurs qui effectuent un pillage quasi-systématique des actifs de l'entreprise.

Selon l'organisation Transparency International dans son rapport de 2016 sur l'état de la corruption, dans de nombreux pays en Afrique subsaharienne, les populations ne parviennent pas à satisfaire leurs besoins élémentaires du fait d'un niveau de corruption encore très élevé. La région en 2017 présente un score de 32 contre 44,19 en Amérique, 44,39 en Asie et 66,35 en Europe. L'Afrique subsaharienne reste donc en avance sur le niveau de corruption par rapport aux autres régions dans le monde avec le score le plus faible mais qui représente le niveau le plus élevé de corruption. Il est crucial de protéger les droits des créanciers pour la performance optimale des marchés du crédit. Cependant, Zazzaro (2005) tient compte des asymétries d'information concernant le talent entrepreneurial de l'emprunteur et montre théoriquement que les améliorations de l'application de la loi réduisent l'incitation de la Banque à filtrer les emprunteurs de manière adéquate et les banques pourraient évaluer les emprunteurs à tort. En conséquence, un accès au crédit pourrait être plus difficile (plus facile) pour les emprunteurs de bon type (de mauvais type), et donc une meilleure application de la loi affecte l'allocation du crédit et augmente le taux de défaut.

En outre, Manove et al (2001) mettent en exergue que si l'effet de la paresse existe, l'effet moyen de l'exécution judiciaire sur l'allocation de crédit est ambigu. Les coûts de financements sont plus élevés dans les pays avec les systèmes juridiques inefficaces (Demirguc-kunt et Maksimovic, 2002 ; Leaven et Majnoni, 2005 ; Francesca et Di giorgio, 2004). Magda et *al.,* (2005), insistent sur le fait qu'il n'existe pas de relation concluante entre les institutions et les taux d'intérêt ; cependant ils concèdent que la relation dépend de la concurrence bancaire et du type de réformes juridiques entrepris. En effet, l'efficacité judiciaire peut être le meilleur critère permettant de capter la qualité des institutions. En outre, la qualité du système juridique dépend de la capacité des tribunaux à faire appliquer les contrats. Demirguc-kunt et *al.,* (2004) et Leaven et *al.,* (2005) concluent que les marges nettes d'intérêt sont plus étroites dans les pays ayant les meilleures institutions.

Un autre aspect de la relation entre les institutions, le droit et les finances a été analysé sur l'angle de la protection des droits de propriété, de l'application des droits contractuels. En effet, Acemoglu et *al.,* (2005), Fernandes et Kraay (2007) soutiennent que l'interaction entre l'Etat et les entreprises et / ou les

particuliers est une relation verticale alors que les interactions entre les entreprises privées sont une relation horizontale. Ils expliquent qu'un pays peut avoir de faibles institutions de droit de propriété avec de solides institutions de droit contractuels parce que ces derniers reflètent la mesure dans laquelle les tribunaux permettent aux parties privées de se contracter entre elles. Dans le même sens, Acemoglu et johnson (2005) soulignent la notion que les particuliers ou les investisseurs développent des ensembles informels d'institutions pour contourner le système juridique lorsqu'ils traitent les uns avec les autres alors qu'ils n'ont aucun recours face à un Etat prédateur. Ainsi, Beck et *al.,* (2003) postulent que dans les pays où les systèmes juridiques appliquent des droits de propriété privée, soutiennent des arrangements contractuels privés et protègent les droits légaux des investisseurs, les épargnants sont plus disposés à financer des entreprises et les marchés financiers prospèrent. Djankov et *al.,* (2007) trouvent que la protection des créanciers par l'intermédiaire du système juridique et des institutions de partage de l'information est associée à des ratios plus élevés de crédits privés au PIB. Miller (2000) explique que les registres d'information sur le crédit font référence à 28% des données d'informations sur les emprunteurs dans un système financier. 40% à 76% agents de banques seront complexés d'avoir des informations erronées sur un client. Crockett et Cohen (2011) soutiennent qu'avec la diversité croissante du système financier, le rôle des banques et la nature des opérations bancaires sont également devenus plus variés et plus complexes.

Brown et Zehder (2007) concluent que l'introduction d'un registre augmente de façon importante le remboursement et le volume du crédit allongé par les prêteurs. Love et *al.,* (2003), Djankov et *al.,* (2007) conviennent que le crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé augmente lorsque les institutions de partage de l'information sont plus développées. Pagano et Jappelli (1993), Kallberg et Udell (2003) soutiennent que le partage de l'information réduit les coûts de sélection des prêteurs en leur permettant de prévoir les défauts de prêt. Padilla et Marco (2000) soulignent que les créanciers partagent souvent des informations sur les dossiers de crédit de leurs clients pour aider à repérer les risques incorrects. Selon Udell (1989), Adam (1991) ; Lardy (1998), les crédits octroyés par les pratiques de corruption sont typiquement des crédits dont le risque de défaillance de contrepartie est élevé et qui sont difficilement recouvrables. Ces crédits sont généralement accordés parce que le gestionnaire de crédits tirant profit des pots-de-vin ; n'évalue pas suffisamment la contrepartie. Les crédits bancaires obtenus à travers la corruption est un phénomène de plus en plus prédominant qui réduit l'efficacité du système bancaire dans l'allocation des ressources qui sont rares. La corruption joue ainsi un rôle non

négligeable dans le processus d'octroi des prêts à travers le monde (Barth et *al.,* 2009 ; Beck et *al.,* 2006). La corruption a des conséquences désastreuses sur l'allocation du capital (Beck et *al.,* 2006). Il est important d'avoir des mécanismes en place pour mettre fin aux pratiques de prêts corrompus (Barth et *al.,* 2009 ; Beck et *al.,* 2006 ; Houston et *al.,* 2011).

b) *Enseignements empirique de la relation entre Institutions, crédit bancaire et croissance économique*

Calderon et *al.,* (2004, 2016) montre que les institutions politiques affectent la cyclicité de la politique monétaire. De façon spécifique, Calderon et *al.,* (2016) insistent sur le fait que ce sont les pays démocratiques, qui ont la stabilité du gouvernement et qui sont moins corrompus qui mettent en œuvre des politiques monétaires anticycliques. Jappelli et *al.,* (2005) insistent sur le fait que le coût de l'exécution des contrats est un facteur déterminant de la performance du marché du crédit. Leur analyse fait référence au marché du crédit dans un modèle de débiteurs opportunistes et de tribunaux inefficaces. Selon le modèle, l'amélioration de l'efficacité judiciaire réduit les contraintes de crédit et accroît les prêts avec un effet ambigu sur les taux d'intérêt qui dépend de la concurrence bancaire et du type de réformes judiciaires. Dans le même sillage, Castelar et Cabral (2001), Cristini et *al.,* (2011) ont analysé comment les variations locales dans l'efficacité du système juridique affectent le développement des marchés du crédit. Ils observent moins de prêts et plus de crédits non performants dans les provinces ou états caractérisés par une mauvaise application des lois. Méador et Mark (1982) a trouvé que les taux d'intérêt hypothécaires étaient généralement plus haut dans les états où le processus de saisie immobilier était plus long et plus couteux.

Fabbri et Padula (2001) mettent en exergue que les ménages se trouvant dans les districts dans lesquels le système judiciaire est moins efficace reçoivent moins de crédits, même après le contrôle des caractéristiques ou des capacités de remboursement des ménages. Horioka (2009) analyse l'effet du degré d'application de la loi sur les contraintes du crédit, le niveau du crédit et la probabilité de défaut en utilisant un modèle logit. Démirguc-kunt et *al.,* (1999) utilisent les données bancaires et montrent que les différences de marge d'intérêt et de rentabilité des banques reflètent divers déterminants, y compris les caractéristiques bancaires, les conditions macroéconomiques, les impôts, les règlementations, la structure financière et les indicateurs juridiques et institutionnels. Leurs résultats impliquent également que la rentabilité supérieure des banques des pays subsaharien est compatible avec les environnements à risque plus élevé. Akins et *al.,* (2016) examinent qu'une reconnaissance des prêts non recouvrés entravent la corruption liée aux prêts

bancaires parce qu'elles augmentent la probabilité que des prêts à problèmes soient découverts plus tôt. Chen et *al.,* (2013) mettent en exergue que la corruption plutôt que la performance des entreprises déterminent en grande partie dans quelle mesure les entreprises privées ont accès au crédit bancaire.

Kaufman et Wei (2000) ; Méon et Sekkat (2005) insistent sur le fait selon lequel bien que la corruption puisse avoir des avantages lorsque la qualité de la gouvernance est faible, elle peut aussi générer des coûts additionnels dans les mêmes circonstances. Méon et Sekkat (2005) soulignent que la corruption agit comme un « grain de sable dans les rouages » de la croissance économique et de l'investissement. Dans le même sillage, Cieslik et Goczek (2018) étudient les effets de la corruption en utilisant un modèle de croissance endogène en économie ouverte avec une parfaite mobilité des capitaux sur le plan international. Ils testent empiriquement les prédictions de la théorie en utilisant un échantillon de 142 pays pour la période 1994-2014 et la méthode des moments généralisés (GMM). Les théories du second best ont également été invalidées dans le cadre du commerce international (Lavallée, 2006 ; Duc et *al.,* 2008). Gozgor (2018) examine les déterminants des crédits domestiques dans un panel de 61 économies en développement de la période de 1984 à 2016. Il utilise la méthode d'estimation par effets-fixes puis il utilise la méthode des moments généralisés dans un panel, par ailleurs le modèle est dynamique. Il trouve que le revenu et l'offre de monnaie sont positivement liés aux crédits bancaires et qu'il y a des effets négatifs du solde courant de la balance commerciale et de la différence des taux sur les crédits intérieurs. Par ailleurs, une analyse des sous-composantes du risque politique global indique que de meilleures conditions socioéconomiques et la faible corruption affecte positivement les crédits intérieurs.

III. Approche Methodologique D'analyse des Facteurs de Qualite Des Institutions Du Credit Bancaire

Nous présentons ici le modèle, la stratégie d'estimation, la technique d'estimation, les données, l'échantillon et la période d'étude.

a) Le modèle économétrique

Le modèle utilisé dans le cadre de ce travail est inspiré de celui de Gozgor (2018), lui-même inspiré de celui de (Kaie et Stépanyan, 2011 ; Guo et Stepanyan, 2015 ; Lane et MC Quada, 2014 ; Magud et *al.,* 2014, Gozgor, 2014) :

$$Domecredbank_{i,t} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 PoliticalRisk_{i,t} + \alpha_2 X + V_t + V_i + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

$Domecredbank_{i,t}$, est le crédit intérieur accordé par les banques au secteur privé. Il est constitué du crédit intérieur accordé par les banques au secteur privé et du crédit accordé au secteur au secteur privé.

$PoliticalRisk_{i,t}$, est le risque politique général et se constitue de douze sous-composantes.

X est un vecteur de contrôle composé de quatre variables :

Le produit intérieur brut (PIB), représente les effets du niveau de revenu sur les crédits intérieurs. On devrait attendre un effet positif du PIB sur les crédits intérieurs parce que lorsque le revenu augmente la demande de crédits devrait aussi augmenter (Magud et *al.,* 2014). L'offre de monnaie est définie par la masse monétaire en pourcentage du PIB. Il devrait avoir une relation positive entre l'offre de monnaie et les crédits intérieurs de sorte qu'un accroissement de l'offre de monnaie implique une politique monétaire expansionniste et ainsi une croissance rapide des crédits domestiques (Guo et Stepanyan, 2011). La différence de taux d'intérêt est définie comme la différence entre le taux d'intérêt intérieur en pourcentage et le taux d'intérêt sur les prêts pratiqués aux USA en pourcentage. Selon les articles précédents, une différence de taux d'intérêt élevée devrait réduire le niveau de crédits intérieurs (Gozgor, 2014 ; Magud et *al.,* 2014). Le solde courant de la balance commerciale en pourcentage du PIB devrait être négativement lié aux crédits intérieurs (Davis et *al.,* 2016 ; Gozgor, 2014 ; Lane and MC Quade, 2014).

$V_t, V_i, \varepsilon_{i,t}$ représentent respectivement la période (l'année) à effet fixe, l'échantillon ou le pays à effet fixe et le terme de l'erreur. La principale hypothèse ici est qu'un haut niveau du risque politique a un effet négatif sur les crédits intérieurs accordés au secteur privé.

b) La stratégie d'estimation

La stratégie d'estimation va se dérouler en deux temps. D'une part, nous évaluons l'effet des institutions politiques sur l'accès au crédit bancaire en Afrique subsaharienne en mettant en interaction les variables institutionnelles politiques avec le cycle économique à travers un vecteur. Notre modèle dynamique est le suivant :

$$CRBSP_{i,t} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 CRBSP_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 GOUV_{i,t} + \beta_3 X_{i,t} + V_t + V_i + \varepsilon_{i,t}$$

Où $CRBSP_{i,t}$ est le niveau du crédit accordé au secteur privé par les banques en pourcentage du PIB du pays i à la période t.

$CRBSP_{i,t-1}$ est le niveau de crédit accordé au secteur privé par les banques en pourcentage du PIB à la période antérieure. La variable dépendante retardée est incluse afin de permettre l'ajustement partiel du crédit bancaire à sa valeur de long terme ;

$GOUV_{i,t}$ est la qualité de la gouvernance dans un pays i à la période t.

$X_{i,t}$ *est* le vecteur de contrôle du pays i à la période t.

$V_t, V_i, \varepsilon_{i,t}$ représentent respectivement la période (l'année) à effet fixe, l'échantillon ou le pays à effet fixe et le terme de l'erreur.

β_0 est le terme constant.

i (= 1,2,3, … , N) est le nombre de pays et t (= 1, 2, 3, … , T) est le nombre de périodes.

c) Les variables spécifiées

Les variables de notre modèle sont constituées essentiellement des variables de gouvernance, du crédit bancaire, et de croissance économique. Les données de la qualité des institutions sont comprises entre approximativement -2,5 (mauvaise) à 2,5 (bonne) qualité de la gouvernance obtenue par chaque pays. Sur la base des travaux empiriques antérieurs (Ongo et Song, 2017) et en raison de la disponibilité des données sur la mesure de la qualité de la gouvernance, nous retenons des indicateurs de la WDI (2018) de la Banque mondiale. On distingue ainsi : *La stabilité politique* qui mesure la perception de la probabilité d'une déstabilisation par des moyens non constitutionnels ou violents. *L'État de droit* mesure le degré de confiance qu'ont les citoyens et la manière dont ils se conforment à la protection des droits de propriété, au respect des contrats, des compétences des tribunaux et de la police, la perception de la criminalité et de la violence. *La corruption* mesure l'utilisation des pouvoirs à des fins d'enrichissement personnel y compris la grande et la petite corruption ainsi que « la prise d'otage » de l'État par les élites recherchant leurs intérêts.

Les variables de contrôle sont au nombre de quatre impactant sur le niveau de crédit intérieur accordé au secteur privé, mais en raison de la disponibilité des données relatives à notre échantillon nous en utiliserons que deux : *Le PIB réel par tête :* Il mesure le taux de croissance du produit intérieur brut par tête (en dollars USD au prix constant par rapport à l'année 2000). *L'offre de monnaie en pourcentage du PIB :* un accroissement de l'offre de monnaie à un effet positif sur l'accroissement du niveau de crédit accordé au secteur privé (Guo et Stepanyan, 2011). Les variables du crédit prennent le crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé en pourcentage du PIB.

d) La technique d'estimation

La méthode d'estimation adoptée est la méthode des moments généralisés (GMM) pour les modèles de panel dynamiques. Cette méthode nous permet de résoudre l'éventuel problème d'endogénéités de l'ensemble des variables indépendantes du modèle. Elle présente en outre l'avantage d'engendrer des instruments internes sur la base des variables indépendantes endogènes du modèle. Nous utilisons l'estimateur de la méthode des moments généralisés en système (GMM-SYS) initié par Blundell et Bond (1998). C'est un estimateur qui associe dans un système unique le modèle en niveau et le modèle en différence première. Afin de tester la validité des instruments, nous réalisons le test de Hansen comme préconisé par Arellano et Bond (1991), Arellano et Bover (1995) et Blundell et Bond (1998). Nous réalisons également le test d'autocorrélation des erreurs d'Arellano et Bond (1991) qui teste la corrélation sérielle de premier ordre des erreurs en niveau en testant la corrélation sérielle de second ordre des erreurs en différence $\Delta y_{i,t} = \beta \Delta y_{i,t-1} + \varphi \Delta X_{i,t} + \Delta \varepsilon_{i,t}$.

e) Les données, l'échantillon et période d'étude

Les données sont tirées des statistiques de la Banque Mondiale WDI (2018), précisément le taux d'inflation (IPC) et le produit intérieur brut réel (PIB). Chaque pays de notre échantillon dispose de données sur au moins 10 ans. Le taux d'intérêt nominal est tiré de la base International Financial Statistics du FMI (2018) et du Global Financial Development Database (2018). Les données relatives à l'inflation sont incomplètes pour certains pays. Celles relatives au PIB et au taux d'intérêt sont disponibles pour l'ensemble de l'échantillon. Les données relatives aux régimes de change sont tirées de la base montée par Ilzetzki, Reinhart et Rogoff (2016) actualisée. Les données relatives aux variables institutionnelles politiques sont tirées de la base du Groupe Political Risk Services, précisément les données relatives à la démocratie et la corruption. Les données relatives à l'indépendance de la banque centrale sont extraites de la base de Garriga (2016), plus précisément le taux de rotation des gouverneurs. La période de l'analyse de ce travail s'étend de 2000 à 2018 et porte sur un panel de 36 pays de l'Afrique Sub-Saharienne. Le choix de la période d'étude et la taille de l'échantillon s'est fait en tenant compte de la disponibilité des variables.

IV. Résultats Et Discussions

La qualité des institutions joue un rôle primordial dans l'influence de l'accès au crédit bancaire et son impact sur la croissance économique. D'une part, la corruption, l'instabilité politique ont un effet négatif sur le niveau du crédit bancaire accordé au

secteur privé. D'autres part, la faiblesse du cadre juridique a un effet négatif sur le niveau du crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé.

a) Analyse de l'effet de la corruption et l'instabilité politique sur la relation entre le crédit bancaire et croissance économique en Afrique Subsaharienne

De manière globale, les résultats de cette recherche sont satisfaisants. Sur le plan économétrique, les tests de Wald nous amènent à confirmer la significativité globale et forte de nos modèles. En effet, les probabilités qui sont associées à ces tests sont plus petites que le seuil de 1% (Prob > chi2= 0,000) pour l'ensemble de nos régressions. De plus, les statistiques

de Hansen sont concluantes pour l'ensemble de nos modèles et nous permettent de confirmer la validité des instruments. Elle est de façon générale supérieure au seuil de 10% (Prob > chi2= 0,103 ; Prob > chi2= 0,272 et Prob > chi2= 0,104). Enfin, les tests d'autocorrélations des résidus (AR(1) et AR(2)) sont aussi satisfaisants dans la mesure où les AR(1) sont acceptés et les AR(2) rejetés. En effet, ces derniers sont respectivement p>z = 0,0117 et p>z = 0,452, p>z =0,0399 et p>z =0,220 et enfin p>z =0,0437 et p>z =0,120. Les tests AR(2) ne permettent donc pas de rejeter l'hypothèse nulle d'absence d'autocorrélation au second ordre des résidus (tableau 1).

Tableau 1: Rôle de la qualité des institutions sur la relation entre le crédit bancaire et la croissance économique
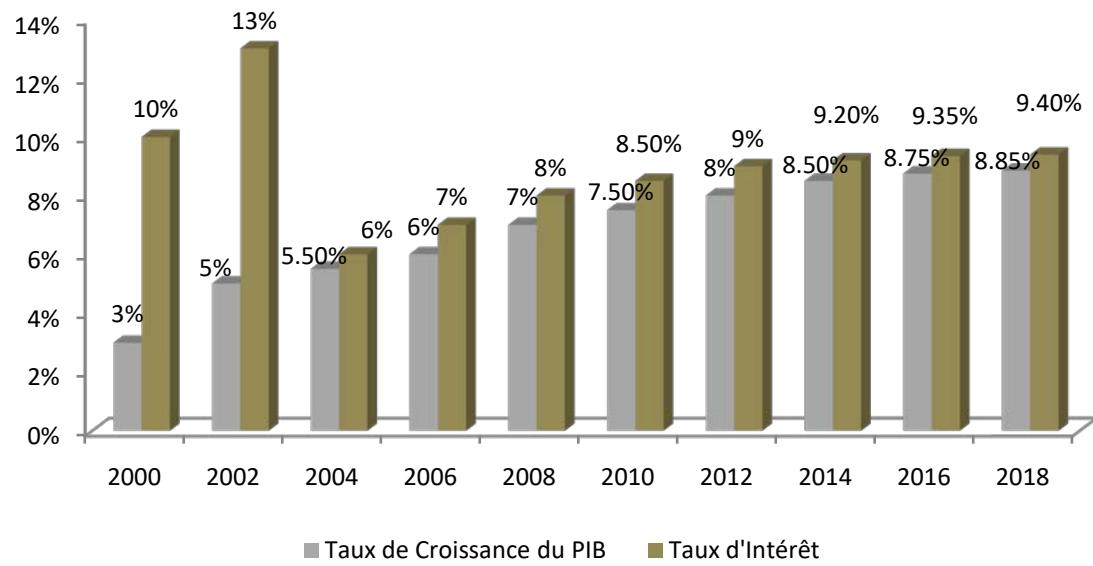
Variables	La moyenne des taux de croissance économique (TCROI)	
	Coefficients	Statistiques t
CRDPRV	-0,005142	(2,18)***
ETDRT	-0,0239851	(-1,13)**
STP	-0,026461	(-0,56)
CORR	-4,019083	(-8,91)***
LNPIB	1,689520	(2,31)**
OFIMEN	3,017425	(1,01)***
R²	0,9181	0,9282
χ²	129,93***	129,57***
Total pays	36	36
Prob>F	0,0000	0,0000
Observations	60	60

Note *: significativité à 1% ; **: significativité à 5% ; *** : significativité à 10%.
Source : Construit par l'auteur, à partir de Stata.

Sur le plan théorique, une importance de ce résultat réside en ce que l'accès au crédit bancaire dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne n'échappe pas au constat du rationnement du crédit qui est effectué dans les pays en développement d'une manière générale. Le signe négatif et significatif qui est associé au coefficient du cycle économique (-1,446) confirme que l'accès au crédit bancaire dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne est bel et bien pro-cyclique. Ainsi, une augmentation ou amélioration de l'activité économique de 1% se traduit par une diminution des taux d'intérêt de l'ordre de 1,446%. Inversement, la dégradation de l'activité économique dans les pays de cette région se traduira par un resserrement des conditions monétaires. Ce résultat vient confirmer les travaux précédant sur le paradoxe de la surliquidité bancaire dans les pays en développement en général. Il est conforme aux résultats trouvés par Calderon et *al*. (2004, 2016), Duncan (2014). Au niveau particulier de l'Afrique subsaharienne, nous pouvons dire à la limite de nos connaissances que ce résultat pourrait être l'un des pionniers, les autres travaux étant effectués sur des cas particuliers tel que l'Afrique du sud et le Nigéria. L'interprétation économique qui ressort de ce résultat est que dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne, le développement financier en tant que politique macroéconomique ne

constitue pas un outil de stabilisation de l'activité économique. Les différents coefficients montrent alors de façon plus claire et plus prononcée, une réaction positive des autorités monétaire vis-à-vis de l'inflation. Enfin, un élément reste non-négligeable, coefficient associé à la variable dépendante retardée et statistiquement différent de zéro. Il y a une certaine persistance des décisions monétaires passées, sur celles encours (graphique 1).
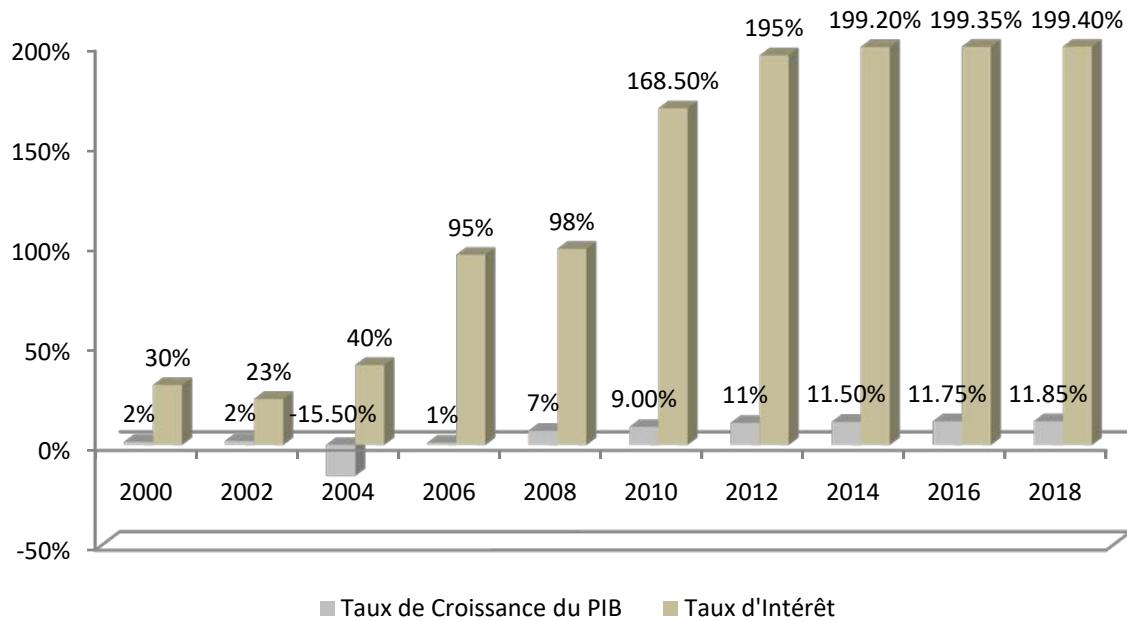
Graphique 1: Évolution des moyennes de taux de croissance économique et des taux d'intérêt pour les pays qui mettent en œuvre des politiques monétaires contra-cycliques

En outre, plus important encore et en relation avec l'objectif principal, les variables institutionnelles politiques à savoir le niveau de responsabilité démocratique et la corruption sont statistiquement significatives et différentes de zéro. Les coefficients sont positifs et significatifs en ce qui concerne chacune de ces variables en relation avec la bonne gouvernance. De manière précise, le niveau de responsabilité démocratique est significatif au seuil de 10% et la corruption l'est au seuil de 1%. L'implication économique de ces résultats est que ces deux institutions politiques accentuent l'accès au crédit bancaire dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne.

b) *Évaluation de l'effet de la faiblesse du cadre juridique sur la relation entre le crédit bancaire et croissance économique en Afrique Subsaharienne*

L'Afrique subsaharienne est la région au monde qui présente le niveau moyen le plus élevé de corruption. La région en 2017 présente un score de 32 contre 44,19 en Amérique, 44,39 en Asie et 66,35 en Europe, le score le plus faible représentant le niveau le plus élevé de corruption. Il en est de même pour l'état de la responsabilité démocratique dans les pays de cette région. Les niveaux de responsabilité démocratique selon l'ICRG sont distribués avec des scores allant de 0 (pour les autocraties) à 6 (pour les véritables démocraties). Sauf qu'on peut se rendre compte que la grande majorité des pays d'ASS obtient des scores oscillant en 1,5 et 3. Les pays d'ASS sont beaucoup plus rangés dans la catégorie des démocraties dominées (graphique 2).

Graphique 2: Évolution des moyennes de taux de croissance et des taux d'intérêt moyens pour les pays qui mettent en œuvre des politiques monétaires pro-cycliques

Ce faible niveau de démocratie dans ces pays a donc pour effet d'amplifier ce comportement de rationnement du crédit. Les gouvernements dans ces pays infère véritablement dans la mise en œuvre des politiques du principe « Too big to Fail », entrainant ainsi ce biais (tableau 2).

Tableau 2: Rôle du cadre juridique sur la relation entre le crédit bancaire et la croissance économique

Variables	La moyenne des taux de croissance économique (TCROI)	
	Coefficients	Statistiques t
CJQIV	-0,006742	(1,12)***
ETDRT	-0,073355	(-1,13)**
STP	-0,024021	(-0,56)
CORR	-2,010021	(-2,91)***
LNPIB	0,109220	(1,31)**
OFIMEN	2,011052	(1,01)***
R^2	0,5010	0,4082
χ^2	110,90***	101,57***
Total pays	36	36
Prob>F	0,0000	0,0000
Observations	60	60

*Note *: significativité à 1% ; **: significativité à 5% ; *** : significativité à 10%.*
Source: Construit par l'auteur, à partir de Stata.

En procédant à des régressions avec les variables institutionnelles prises individuellement, nous avons réalisé pratiquement trois régressions. Ainsi le test de Wald est concluant pour l'ensemble de ces estimations. Ce dernier indique que les modèles sont globalement significatifs (Prob > chi2= 0,000). En outre, nos instruments sont également valides. Le test de sur identification de Hansen qui a été privilégié pour cette analyse nous le confirme pour tous les modèles. La P-value est supérieur au seuil de 10% pour toutes les régressions, ne permettant pas ainsi de rejeter l'hypothèse nulle de la validité des instruments. Enfin,

les tests d'autocorrélations des résidus (AR(1) et AR(2)) sont également satisfaisants dans la mesure où l'AR (1) est accepté et l'AR (2) rejeté pour toutes nos régressions, ils ne permettent donc pas de rejeter l'hypothèse nulle d'absence d'autocorrélation au second ordre des résidus.

Sur le plan théorique, il faut déjà préciser que les résultats confirment notre deuxième hypothèse spécifique, c'est-à-dire que la faiblesse du cadre juridique a un effet négatif sur le niveau du crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne. En effet, un coefficient négatif

et significatif au seuil de 5% est associé à l'interaction entre la faible qualité du cadre institutionnel et le niveau du crédit bancaire, soit -2,01. Ce signe négatif signifie simplement que la corruption et l'instabilité politique ont un effet négatif sur le niveau du crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé, affectant ainsi la croissance économique. Ce résultat est conforme à celui trouvé par Duncan (2014). Aussi, ce tableau fait ressortir un coefficient négatif et très significatif associé à l'interaction entre le cycle économique et le paradoxe du développement financier, soit -0,07. L'interprétation économique de ce résultat n'est autre que celle qui a été faite plus haut, la faible qualité des institutions explique l'insuffisance de crédit prévalant dans les pays d'Afrique Subsaharienne. Par contre, les réformes financières viennent recadrer le comportement des banques en matière d'octroi de crédit. Ce résultat confirme les travaux Avom et Nana (2017) sur l'existence des barrières à l'entrée et son effet sur le comportement des banques dans la CEMAC.

V. CONCLUSION

Dans cet article, nous avons examiné l'effet de la qualité des institutions dans la relation qui existe entre le niveau faible des crédits bancaires et la croissance économique dans les pays de l'Afrique Sub-Saharienne. Pour y arriver, des estimations économétriques ont été faîtes en utilisant la Méthode des Moments Généralisés (MMG) en panel dynamique de 36 pays de la zone sur la période allant de 2000 à 2018. Les estimations empiriques ont été précédées des tests de dépendance des économies (Pesaran, 2004) et des tests de stationnarité de seconde génération (Pesaran, 2007). L'application du test de dépendance a montré l'existence de l'interdépendance entre les économies d'ASS. Le modèle à effet fixe a permis de corriger l'hétéroscédasticité et l'autocorrélation. Les résultats obtenus montrent que la corruption et l'instabilité politique ont un effet négatif sur le niveau du crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé. De même, la faiblesse du cadre juridique a un effet négatif sur le niveau du crédit bancaire accordé au secteur privé. De manière précise, le faible niveau de responsabilité démocratique et la corruption accentuent le comportement pro-cyclicité des banques dans les pays d'Afrique subsaharienne. La qualité de la gouvernance des institutions a un potentiel optimal pour la promotion d'une croissance économique dans l'Afrique Subsaharienne. L'originalité de cette étude réside sur l'application de la théorie des institutions (politiques et économiques). Les institutions économiques (notamment le régime de change, la liberté monétaire, la liberté financière et l'indépendance de la banque centrale) peuvent jouer un rôle primordial dans l'influence du comportement pro cyclique des banques.

L'introduction de l'indice ne pouvant pas constituer une barrière à l'entrée d'autres firmes (Avom et *al.,* 2017).

Plus précisément, notre étude mettait en exergue l'impact négatif de la faible qualité du cadre institutionnel sur le niveau du crédit bancaire (Diallo, 2009). La mal gouvernance qui sévit dans les pays d'Afrique Subsaharienne explique l'échec des stratégies économico-politiques qui ont été mises en place. Ces pratiques de mal gouvernance affecte la qualité des institutions, d'où leurs faiblesses traduites par l'incapacité de celles-ci à remplir les missions qui leur sont dévolues. Dans cette optique, la promotion des pratiques de « bonne gouvernance » dans ces pays est d'une importance capitale. Cette bonne gouvernance rend facile l'accès au crédit bancaire pour réduire les fluctuations conjoncturelles des économies. En définitive, la principale contribution de cette étude est d'avoir mis en évidence que la bonne gouvernance des institutions d'un pays donné influence la dynamique du développement financier par rapport à son cycle économique.

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Annexe

Liste des pays d l'Afrique Subsaharienne de l'échantillon

Afrique du Sud, Algérie, Angola, Bénin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroun, Capt Vert, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Érythrée, Éthiopie, Gabon, Gambie, Ghana, Guinée, Guinée Équatoriale, Guinée-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritanie, Île Maurice, Maroc, Mozambique, Namibie, Niger, Nigéria, République arabe d'Égypte, République Démocratique du Congo, République du Congo, Rwanda, Sao Tome et Principe, Sénégal, Seychelles, Sierra-Leone, Soudan, Swaziland, Tanzanie, Tchad, Togo, Tunisie, Ouganda, Zambie, Zimbabwé.

What are the Motivations for Undertaking Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Practices in the Middle-East? A Critical Literature Review

By Raimi, L. & Aljadani, A.

American University of Nigeria

Abstract- Corporate social responsibility (henceforth, CSR) as a practice that involves doing well and doing good to the society, cuts across countries, cultures and corporations. The CSR activities embarked upon by were mainly of philanthropic nature, that is, social actions not aimed at profitability or improved financial performance. Literature established that, the motivations for undertaking CSR differs across continents and corporations because of the influence history, cultural norms and philosophies. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss different motivations for undertaking CSR practices in the Middle-East with a view enriching the literature with emerging facts and richer understanding of social actions from non-Western hemisphere. The authors adopt a qualitative research method by extracting new understanding on the meanings, cultural context of CSR and motivations for CSR in the Middle-East using a critical literature review (CLR). The chapter found five (5) key motivations for CSR in the Middle-East, namely: religious, economic, social, environmental and globalisation factors.

Keywords: critical literature review, CSR, middle-east, motivations.

GJHSS-E Classification: FOR Code: 149999

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Keywords: critical literature review, CSR, middle-east, motivations.

I. Introduction

Corporate social responsibility (henceforth, CSR) as a practice that involves doing well and doing good to the society cuts across countries, cultures and corporations. Literature established that, the motivations for undertaking CSR initiative differs across global corporations because of historical contexts, cultural norms and managerial philosophies. Beyond boosting financial performance and legal compliance (Greenfield, 2004; Karam and Jamali, 2013), CSR is helping to fill social and environmental governance gaps in the operating environment, where companies conduct businesses across the globe (Haalboom, 2012). It is reported that large and small companies have adopted CSR as part of their corporate practices; they prepare periodic CSR reports, appoint CSR managers, create CSR departments and

appropriate funds for CSR projects because the concept has emerged as a core area of management like marketing, accounting and finance (Crane, Matten & Spence, 2013).

A number of scholars noted that mining and manufacturing companies in both the developed and developing nations give little attention to environmental issues, but strategically launched CSR programs/ projects as tools for environmental misconduct dressing and greenwashing to cover their corporate excesses and unethical practices (Dashwood, 2012; Hart and Coumans, 2013; Du, 2015). For instance, the British Tobacco Company invested massively on CSR programs, yet its tobacco products are environmentally-unfriendly and antithetical to the principle of wellness that social actions represent (Hirschhorn, 2004). Another criticism of tobacco company's CSR programs is that such programs actually help diffuse the negative impact of campaign against sale of tobacco launched by health professionals and environmentalists (Fooks et al., 2013). Worse still, several companies that flag CSR care less about the negative effects of their solid waste and effluents on the wellness of the host communities (Reeves & Knell, 2013). This rouge approach to CSR compliance is practically backfiring, as the consumers and civil society groups are becoming skeptical and doubtful about the genuineness of corporate philanthropy of companies in the face of growing incidences of corporate misconducts, executive scandals, irresponsible behaviour and violation of the law of host nations with impunity (Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013: Shamir, 2017).

From another perspective, companies are increasingly adopting CSR as a strategic tool for achieving dual benefits (economic value and societal value) in manner that impact on the ecosystems, poverty, inequality and human rights (Naccache, Leca & Kazmi, 2017). At inception, CSR was conceptualised as good neighbourliness and philanthropic attempt by corporations to play a more positive role in solving broad social problems facing the stakeholders in their operating environment (Carroll, 1999). Therefore, every company embed the ideals of doing good and solidarity in its business ethics (Roy, 2010; Tounés, Chakroun and Gribaa, 2011). Rangan, Chase, and Karim (2015) noted that global companies have made CSR a core-integral

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part of their business planning process. From the core business angle, Kotler and Lee (2005) classified CSR activities into six major social actions, namely:

1. Cause promotion (promote awareness and concern for social actions),
2. Cause-related marketing (contributing to social actions through sales),
3. Corporate social marketing (behavior change initiatives),
4. Corporate philanthropy (contributing directly to social wellness),
5. Community volunteering (company's employees donating time and talents assisting host communities), and
6. Socially responsible business practices (a discretionary practice of making investment into companies that support social actions).

Looking at research in the last decade, different motivations have been reported in studies across the continents. It is apt to report that, the motivations for CSR practices in developed countries have been well researched, but research on motivations for CSR in the Middle-East are scanty and poorly researched. There is therefore a critical need for integration of works on CSR motivations in the Middle-East.

Jamali and Sidani (2012) few years back noted that CSR in the Middle East has its "distinctive roots and unique expressions that do not always mirror the current understanding and practice in the West… CSR is alive and well in the Middle East, although it continues to have its unique flavor and connotations." (p.1). In the Middle-East, social actions are well entrenched in the Zakat, Sadaqat and Waqf, but these traditional philanthropic models need to be discussed and integrated into the contemporary CSR discourse. From the foregoing background, the purpose of this research is to investigate motivations for undertaking CSR practices in the Middle-East with a view enriching the literature with emerging facts using Critical Literature Review (CLR). Apart from the introduction, there are four parts to this paper. The second part focuses on the conceptual issues and theoretical framework of the study. The third part discusses empirical studies on motivational factors for CSR programs in the Middle-East and the focus of such CSR Programs. The fourth part presents the research methods, findings and discussion of thematic issues. The chapter concludes with implications and suggestion for further research.

II. Conceptual Issues and Theoretical Underpinning

a) Corporate Social Responsibility Discourse

CRS has been a widely-discussed topic for over 70 years among academics and practitioners without a universally acceptable definition because it is understood and applied differently by organisations (Freeman & Hasnaoui, 2011). Operationally, it is a nuance commonly used to describe business-society relationship, and it oscillates around issues such social philanthropy (Carroll, 1999; Raimi, 2015), attempt to elicit trust and legitimacy, curtailing the impact of industrial solid waste and effluents on the environment and sustainability issues (Crowther and Rayman-Bacchus, 2004; Haskins, 2009). According to USAID (2002), CSR "refers to transparent business practices that are based on ethical values, compliance with legal requirements, and respect for people, communities, and the environment. Thus, beyond making profits, companies are responsible for the totality of their impact on people and the planet." (p.2). However, Khan, Khan, Ahmed & Ali (2012) defined CSR as ways by which companies address various social issues in their operating environment where plants are located. It includes and extends to being employee-friendly, investor-friendly, environment-friendly, regards for ethics, respect for communities where the firm's plants are located and even investor friendly. The meaning of CSR extends to green policy, green marketing, climate change and social responsible investments (Chang and Chen, 2012; Griffin and Sun, 2013).

From a different perspective, it has been noted that decades ago, the core business responsibility is making money and augmenting shareholder value in terms of growth of business assets and net worth of investment – a self-centered perspective called corporate financial responsibility (CFR). As corporate understanding of obligation expands, the social and environmental responsibilities were added as two additional obligations of companies (USAID, 2002).

The environmental responsibility is so critical to business sustainability globally that it was incorporated as part of the ten (10) principles of the UN Global Compact, as 7, 8 and 9 principles. Specifically, Principle 7 admonishes businesses to adopt a precautionary approach to environmental challenges; Principle 8 required companies to promote greater environmental responsibility; and Principle 9 encourages companies to use environmentally-friendly technologies in their business operations (UN Global Compact, 2014).

CSR has also been viewed as focusing on triple bottom line (TBL). This is a definition that typifies CSR as a balance of three dimensions of corporate obligations, namely: economic, environmental and social responsibilities (Henriques, 2013; Savitz, 2013). Although the pioneering work of Carroll (1999) identified four types of corporate responsibilities with systematic understanding. The literature presently discusses CSR from the TBL perspective.

At a stage, notable international organisations such as the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD), European Union (EU), International Labor Organisation (ILO), and Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)

provided working definitions, while the United Nations developed the UN Global Compact for CSR, which provided policy direction and indices for governments and multinational corporations on the principles of sustainable development – the hallmark of CSR. The definitions provided by these world bodies are worthwhile. The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (1999) states: "Corporate Social Responsibility is the continuing commitment by business to contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the community and society at large" (2000:10). Whereas, European Commission (2002) defined CSR as "a corporate contribution to sustainable development"…whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns into their business operations and in their interactions with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis (European Commission, 2002, p 5). The international Labour Organisation (2006) defined CSR as "a way in which enterprises give consideration to the impact of their operations on society and affirm their principles and values both in their own internal methods and processes and in their interaction with other actors. CSR is a voluntary, enterprise-driven initiative and refers to activities that are considered to exceed compliance with the law." (p.1). A critical look at all these definitions revealed that, there is no one-style-fits-all definition for CSR.

With regards to ethics and norms, it has been widely argued that CSR is deeply rooted in ethics and morals, therefore the role of religion in CSR adoption and disclosure has been noted in a number of studies. Raimi, Patel, Yekini and Aljadani (2013) explained that, when CSR is understood from religious lenses by religious managers, the outcome would strengthen CSR compliance and reporting particular in industrial societies, where religions play direct and indirect role in corporate governance and people's lifestyle. Empirically, Du, Du, Zeng, Pei & Chang (2016) investigated the impact of religious atmosphere on CSR adoption and compliance among 4186 firms in the Chinese stock market. It was found that religious atmosphere is significantly positively associated with CSR, implying that religious atmosphere plays a crucial mediating role in strengthening CSR adoption and compliance in religious society. The next section provides a theoretical underpinning for the discourse.

b) *Culture Theory and CSR in the Middle-East*

For theoretical grounding, the culture theory provides the required underpinning. Specifically, the influence of culture framework as discussed by Geert Hofstede is relevant. From data collected from 88,000 respondents across 72 selected countries, Hofstede developed a concise culture framework with five dimensions in his cross-country study across countries investigated. These five cultural dimensions of culture are: (a) individualism, (b) masculinity, (c) power distance, (d) uncertainty avoidance, and (e) long-term orientation (Nakata, 2009). The culture theory has been creatively applied to CSR discourse in the literature. Another work by Katz, Swanson and Nelson (1999) developed a unique framework for applying Hofstede's five cultural dimensions to the CSR agenda. They classified social actions of companies in the society into five social spheres, and each of the social actions of companies was then linked to the Hofstede's five cultural dimensions as shown below: Table 1:

Table 1: Five social spheres of Katz et al and Hofstede's five cultural dimensions

SN	Five social spheres	Hofstede's five cultural dimensions
1	Consumer activism	Common in cultures with lower levels of power distance, lower levels of uncertainty avoidance, higher levels of individualism and lower levels of masculinity
2	Environmental activism	Common in cultures with lower levels of power distance, higher levels of uncertainty avoidance, lower levels of individualism and lower levels of masculinity
3	Employee activism	Common in cultures with lower levels of power distance, higher levels of uncertainty avoidance, lower levels of individualism and lower levels of masculinity
4	Governmental activism	Common in cultures with lower levels of power distance, lower levels of individualism and lower levels of masculinity
5	Community activism	Common in cultures with lower levels of power distance, lower levels of uncertainty avoidance, lower levels of individualism and lower levels of masculinity.

Source: Authors from Katz, Swanson and Nelson (1999)

Critical literature review of CSR in the Middle East from the cultural context revealed interesting facts. According to Ismail (2009), CSR is an age-long practice that had existed in the Muslim countries as a well-developed philanthropic models of Zakat and Sadaqat. Zakat is a form of religious tax enjoined on the rich as part of their social responsibility for supporting the poor (Roy, 2010; Gill, 2011). Another age long social action in the Middle-East is Waqf. The term Waqf is often defined as "valuable property and tangible assets set aside by the legal owners as gifts to Allah and His cause and for the benefit of humanity (Raimi, Patel and Adelopo, 2014). Waqf also means endowment established by the individuals to provide free relief services and solace to the vulnerable members of the society." (p.234). Taking up social actions through Waqf could be described as

surrendering and sacrificing one's personal property for public affairs and wellness; it is the Islamic alms-house that reflects social entrepreneurship in Muslim countries (Salarzehi, Armesh & Nikbin, 2010). Religious Waqf allocates property to mosques and religious schools as endowments. This allows for sustainability of the activities of the mosques and religious schools. However, the philanthropic Waqf is dedication of property to the society for humanitarian purposes with large scale benefits to the poor and marginalised public. This type of Waqf could be used to set up educational centres/school. Library, hospitals, animal care, care for the ecosystem, road and recreational facilities. Whereas, Family Waqf is dedication of property by parents for the upkeep of their children and dependants after death (Raimi et al, 2014; Salarzehi et al, 2010).

From the discussion so far, CSR is related to the socio-cultural values and religious beliefs in the Middle-East. Therefore, CSR finds acceptability from Muslim businesses and managers because it is situated within the framework of worship and rewardable social action approved by Islam (Raimi, et al, 2014). Besides, it also assumes a broader spiritual significance because it motivates man as an individual to interface with the larger society and fellowmen (Dusuki, 2008).

The growing number of scholarly articles on CSR and Islam provide a strong indication that CSR is theoretically and practically consistent with Islam (Taman, 2011). Structurally, Islam has a well-developed Code of Ethics that provide guidance for ethical and social behaviour of humans (Gill, 2011). CSR in Islam is holistic as it covers many domains namely: legal (Shari'ah), righteousness (Taqwa), human dignity, equality and rights, trust and responsibility. Another unique feature of social responsibility in Islam is that, its goal is not to satisfy the stakeholders and shareholders or gain reputation through social actions from the consumers and the public, rather social responsibility is premised on pleasing God by helping the community (Kirat, 2015b). The depth of CSR in Islam extends beyond the Western strategic or instrumental goals of flagging social actions to enhance goodwill or boost long-term financial performance of companies (Dusuki (2008).

From the viewpoints above, CSR is a voluntary duty like the charity (Sadaqah); it is an act of empathy carried out by socially responsive individuals and groups as an act of worship with the mind-set of pleasing Allah by giving back to the society. CSR and Islam connect because Islam gives preference to human wellness by instituting social security systems such as Zakat, Sadaqat and Waqf to bridge gaps and maintain socio-economic equilibrium between the rich and the power (Raimi et al, 2013; Dusuki, 2008). All forms of considerations for social, economic and environmental wellness of humans, minerals, plants and animals (broadly summarized as social, human and natural capital elements) are recognised personal and corporate responsibilities in Islam. In general, the tenets of Islam are consistent with modern business ethics including the 'Ten Principles' of responsible business codified in the UN Global Compact (Zinkin, 2007; Williams & Zinkin, 2010). It is instructive to state that CSR is not at variance with Islam and cultural contexts in the Middle-East.

Moreover, the influence of national culture is waning because of the wave of globalisation which promoted a global culture through cross-border mergers, acquisitions, joint-ventures and alliances among corporate organisations (Brannen and Peterson, 2009; Brannen, 2009). In other words, the world is more globalized and culturally integrated than it was several decades ago. Consequently, global trends, fashions, tastes and preferences spread among the diverse people in different countries like wild fire from East to West or West to East and back again (Brannen, 2009). The influence of regional culture of philanthropy and globalisation have combined to shape the adoption and focus of CSR in the Middle-East to align with strategic approach to social actions (Jamali, Sidani & El-Asmar, 2009; Kirat, 2015). Diab (2017) cautioned that CSR has advanced beyond the philanthropy model, and is swiftly undergoing integration into the core business strategy of globalisation-compliant companies. Unfortunately, some companies in the Middle East still view CSR as philanthropy enjoined by culture and religion, and consequently led failed to get CSR integrated as part of core business strategy. Empirically, what are the motivations for CSR in the Middle-East? The next section provides answers to this question.

III. Empirical Studies on Motivations and Focus of CSR in Middle-East

Every corporation in the Middle-East has different but related motivations for taking up CSR programmes. According to Diab (2017), there is a wide difference among Middle East countries with regards to CSR application and best practices. While, countries such as UAE and Oman have demonstrated commitment to CSR as well as sustainability issues through impactful and meaningful social actions and initiatives, whereas Lebanon flagged engaged in a number of PR activities flagging them as CSR.

First and foremost, Jamali and Mirshak (2007) examined the CSR approach and philosophical motivation of eight most active companies in Lebanon. They found that CSR activities in Lebanon are driven by passion for philanthropy. Another study by Jamali, Sidani & El-Asmar (2009), which examined the managerial perspectives towards CSR in three Middle Eastern countries of Syria, Lebanon and Jordan found that there are some commonalities in CSR orientations, but minor divergences. An indication that companies

from these three countries are driven by common motivations strongly influenced by regional culture and globalisation.

For United Arab Emirate (UAE), Rettab, Brik, & Mellahi, (2009) investigated that the link between CSR activities and organisational performance of 280 companies, and found that a positive relationship between CSR and three organisational performance metrics, namely: financial performance, employee commitment, and corporate reputation. The three metrics are positioned as motivations for CSR adoption by these companies.

Whereas, in Qatar, it was found that the motivation for CSR programs is largely philanthropy or PR reinvent to support the society. With regards to focus, these companies donate to sporting events, health, education and environment (Kirat, 2015). But, Shehadi & Jamjoom (2014) posited that the key motivations for CSR in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) is desire to tackle social and economic challenges especially creation of jobs and development of infrastructure because these developmental issues stimulate robust economic and political stability, and create virtuous circle of growth in MENA. Another comparative study on the orientation of companies towards CSR in Qatar and Germany found that apart from the economic obligations, the next responsibility favoured in Qatar is philanthropic obligation of a business. In Germany however, apart from economic obligation, the next is highly ethical standards (Schmidt & Cracau, 2015).

Furthermore, Western Zagros Limited, HSBC, Al Muhaidib Group and SEDCO Holding were reported to have reinvented their CSR activities to stimulate economic growth and redevelopment of local communities for long-term mutually beneficial relationships (Booz and Company, 2013; Adelopo, Raimi and Yekini, 2015). In Turkey, Ararat (2006) reported that the Turkish Businessmen and Industrialists' Association (TUSIAD), made CSR especially corporate philanthropy a front burner issue among Turkish private enterprises. TUSIAD as a matter of principle encouraged its member companies to give back to the society by donating a percentage of their net profits to foundations (Awqaf, plural of Waqf). The motivation for this very important social action is to elicit and gain legitimacy and social acceptance from the public. Similarly, Zain in Bahrain adopted CSR as a business practice to reposition the organisation as a responsible corporate citizen in order to elicit legitimacy in the region (Raimi, 2017).

With regards to the focus of CSR programs in the Middle-East, there are interesting revelations across companies. The empirical study of AlNaimi, Hossain & Momin (2012) found that most companies in Gulf focused CSR programs on human resources, product development, community involvement, while environmental issues and others (Diversity and Opportunity) were not reported in their annual reports. In Saudi Arabia, SEDCO Holding focused it CSR program on building the financial literacy capacity of the youth in the Kingdom. The program targets thousands of students. Similarly, Abdul Latif Jameel Group in Saudi Arabia set up Abdul Latif Jameel Community Initiatives (ALJCI), which implements it CSR with preference for job creation and empowerment program tagged Bab Rizq Jameel (The Beautiful Gateway to Prosperity). This CSR program is designed to identify job opportunities, providing skills and training to men and women and finally providing microfinance loans to participants to set up new their ventures (Shehadi & Jamjoom, 2014). Bur, Zain Bahrain, focused its CSR programs on community development and delivery of public goods to the citizens (Raimi, 2017).

Moreover, Kirat (2015a) examined the perceptions and practices of CSR in Qatar, and found that the focus of CSR includes health, sports, education and environment, while less attention was given to critical CSR dimensions such as human rights, labour rights, work conditions, anti-bribery and anti-corruption measures. Besides, Dubai-based IT company called Intigral - a joint venture company between Saudi Telecom Company (STC) and All Asia Networks (ASTRO) focused its CSR initiative on technical hands-on training and business mentorship designed to empower startups in the telecommunication industry developed their products and services for three months with the help of the agency's experts and network of mentors (Shehadi & Jamjoom, 2014).

IV. Methodology

This chapter contribution adopts a qualitative research method – an interpretivist research paradigm. In line with the best practice in qualitative research, the authors explore secondary materials to provide answer to the question: What are the motivations for undertaking CSR practices in the Middle-East? The sourced data were systematically analysed using critical review of literature (CLR). The CLR is a systematic analysis and evaluation of several research materials and sources on a specific topic, which when objectively appraised and analysed, using appropriate language would give new insights, more facts, richer findings and enriched understanding (*Saunders and Rojon 2011*; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Qualitative research method was preferred because understanding motivating factors for CSR programs and focus is better investigated leveraging qualitative research approach. This approach had been used De Vries & Huijsman (2011) and Sakyia (2013) in their exploratory qualitative studies.

V. Findings and Discussions of Thematic Issues

From the CLR of scholarly texts, the study found that CSR had long existed in the philosophies and cultural context of the Middle-East as philanthropy. However, the wave of globalisation has advanced CSR beyond philanthropy model in the Middle-East. With regards to the motivations for CSR in this region, a five-motivational factors emerged, viz: Religious, Economic, Social, Environmental and Globalisation. Each of the five motivational factors have specific elements assigned to them as shown represented in Table 2 below.

Religious factor, which has 3 specific elements focused on Zakat, Sadaqat and Waqf which as are acts of empathy and worship enjoined by Islam on socially responsive individuals and groups in the society. CSR connects with religion as it boosts human wellness and bridges gaps socio-economic imbalance between the rich and the power.

Economic factor that has 11 specific elements focused on positive image and reputation and ending with improving market value (emotional, social, and functional values); Social factors also have 11 specific factors, from good corporate citizenship to improving labour practices; Environmental factor that reflect 6 specific elements focused on environmentally-friendly production and ending with averting environmental crisis; and Globalisation factor has 8 specific elements that focused on meeting local and international protocols and conventions especially UN Compact principles on sustainability.

Table 2: Motivations for CSR Programs in the Middle-East

	Religious Factors		Social Factors
1.	Compulsory obligation - Zakat	1	Good corporate citizenship.
2.	Voluntary obligation - Sadaqat	2	Fulfill extant regulations
3.	Endowment - Waqf	3	Bridging governance gap.
		4	Improving labour practices
	Environmental Factors	5	Commitment & trust building
1	Environmentally-friendly production	6	Maintain secured relationships
2	Communicate green corporate image	7	Attempt to gain legitimacy
3	Quality improvement & innovations	8	Meet global best practices & values
4	Compliance with environmental policy	9	Meet expectations of host communities.
5	Environmental improvement	10	PR/Greenwashing
		11	Pure altruism/Philanthropy
	Economic Factors		**Political & Globalisation Factors**
1	Positive image and reputation.	1	Meet international protocols
2	Financial performance	2	Platform for multi-stakeholder dialogue.
3	Meeting the investors' expectations	4	Influence of globalization
4	Employee satisfaction	5	Climate change convention
5	Boost competitive advantages & sales.	6	UN Compact principles
6	Increase reliability of supply chains.	7	Political actions on environment
7	Reduction of cost in the long-run.	8.	Lobbying the policymakers
8	Management of business risk		
9	Long-term investment.		
10	Increasing consumer satisfaction.		
11	Satisfy enlightened self-interest		

Source: Extracts from CLR on Motivations for CSR Programs

With regards to the focus of CSR programs, the chapter identified 12 different CSR programs which represented the focus of companies in the Middle-East. From Table 3 below, some of CSR programs include: Employer-employee relations, Promoting athletics and Sports development, Skills Empowerment Programs and Support for Start-ups, Scholarship for Higher Education and Schools, Intervention support for cultural activities, Commitment to infrastructural projects Environmental Management & Control of pollution and host of other developmental programs.

Table 3: CSR Programs and Focus

SN	Focus of the CSR Programs
1	Employer-employee relations
2	Promoting athletics and Sports development
3	Skills Empowerment Programs and Support for Start-ups
4	Scholarship for Higher Education and Schools
5	Intervention support for cultural activities
7	Human rights/labour rights & work conditions
8	Intervention for health & wellness
9	Philanthropic Donations
10	Commitment to infrastructural projects
11	Environmental Management & Control of pollution
12	Sustainable economic development

Source: Extracts from CLR on CSR Programs

VI. Conclusions, Implications and Suggestion for Further Research

This chapter sets out to discuss the motivations for undertaking CSR practices in the Middle-East with a view to enriching the literature with emerging facts and richer understanding of social actions from the Middle-East perspective. Leveraging a critical literature review (CLR), the chapter found five (5) key motivations for CSR in the region, namely: religious, economic, social, environmental and globalisation factors. The key implication of these findings is that companies in the Middle-East have strategically planned CSR that connect with the five motivational factors to elicit positive impacts on business operations. The chapter contributes to the theoretical understanding of the motivations for CSR practices in the Middle-East by integrating culture theory. The first policy implication is that it is in the interest of companies in the Middle-East to have clarity on the motivation for CSR before investing in CSR programs. Another policy implication with regards to bridging governance gap is that the government and the companies in the region should work together to ensure that CSR programs target human capacity development, empowerment of disadvantaged members of the host communities, training of new start-ups and infrastructural development. The present qualitative findings are exploratory, an empirical study is suggested as this would provide new and richer insights.

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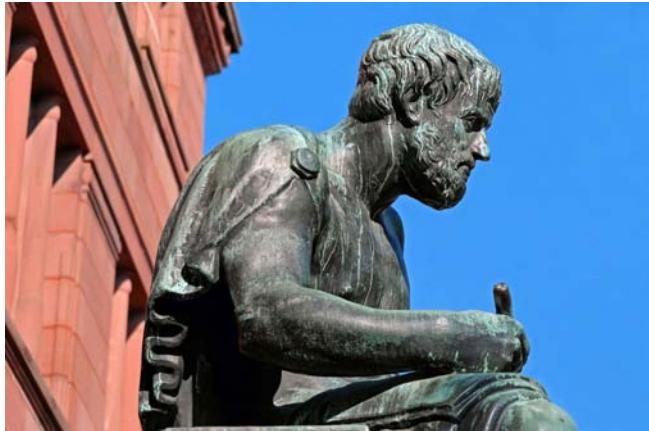
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15. Never start at the last minute: Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

16. Multitasking in research is not good: Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

17. Never copy others' work: Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

18. Go to seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.
Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

19. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

20. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

21. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

22. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

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Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- o Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- o Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- o Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- o Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- o Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- o Describe the method entirely.
- o To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- o Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- o If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- o Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- o Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- o Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

Content:

- o Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- o In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- o Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- o Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- o Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- o Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- o Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- o Do not present similar data more than once.
- o A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- o Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- o You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- o Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- o Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- o One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- o Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

THE ADMINISTRATION RULES

Administration Rules to Be Strictly Followed before Submitting Your Research Paper to Global Journals Inc.

Please read the following rules and regulations carefully before submitting your research paper to Global Journals Inc. to avoid rejection.

Segment draft and final research paper: You have to strictly follow the template of a research paper, failing which your paper may get rejected. You are expected to write each part of the paper wholly on your own. The peer reviewers need to identify your own perspective of the concepts in your own terms. Please do not extract straight from any other source, and do not rephrase someone else's analysis. Do not allow anyone else to proofread your manuscript.

Written material: You may discuss this with your guides and key sources. Do not copy anyone else's paper, even if this is only imitation, otherwise it will be rejected on the grounds of plagiarism, which is illegal. Various methods to avoid plagiarism are strictly applied by us to every paper, and, if found guilty, you may be blacklisted, which could affect your career adversely. To guard yourself and others from possible illegal use, please do not permit anyone to use or even read your paper and file.

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Topics	Grades		
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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