IMPACT OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION ON FAMILY HOSPITALITY BUSINESS PERFORMANCE IN NORTH-CENTRAL NIGERIA.

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PhD/SEMT/2017/1057

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JANUARY, 2022

ABSTRACT

Family firms constitute the dominant and oldest form of business organizations, and are of crucial importance to the nations' economies. However, radical changes in servicing technology and philosophy, combined with intensified global competition and changing customers' demands have made many traditional hospitality systems obsolete. Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO) is widely considered to offer an elixir on firm-level entrepreneurship effectiveness. Hence, this study examined the predictive effects of entrepreneurial orientation on family hospitality business performance in North Central geopolitical region. Seven main hypotheses were developed and tested at P<.05 level of significance. Previous related studies were reviewed to position the work in existing literature conceptually, theoretically and empirically. The study also adopted business system of the 3-dimension model of family business development, as it gives survival niche in the marketplace by utilizing an intense energy that other firms cannot match. A model was developed and was grounded in the theoretical lens of Resources-Based View (RBV) to explain the mediating effects of familiness and hotel classification, and also to predict EO influence on family hospitality business performance. A quantitative approach was employed for the study with survey method. The target population was obtained from the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) archive which comprised of 2388 family hotels in the North-central states of Niger, Kogi, Kwara, Nasarawa, Plateau, Benue and FCT. The unit of analysis was at the firm level. A stratified sampling technique was adopted and Taro Yamane sample determination method was used to arrive at 453 samples with which questionnaires were served. A firm-level five points likert-scale questionnaire which was subjected to validity and reliability testsat 95% confidence level with a cronchbach alpha coefficient of 0.85. The questionnaire was administered through web survey and complemented with drop and pick method. Research assistants for each state and FCT were trained to administer the instruments. The data generated from 410 usable responses and questionnaires of owner-managers of the hospitality firms were analyzed with descriptive and inferential statistics. PLS-SEM 3 software was employed to test the hypothesized relationships. The study found that, of the seven hypothesized relationships for the research, four out of the five main hypotheses were not statistically significant while innovativeness was the only significant relationship with family hospitality business performance. The two hypothesized mediating effects of familiness and hotel classification were found not to have significant effect. Firm size and age were controlled in the measurement and did not yield significant influence on the study. The study concluded that firms must not wholly adopt the five dimensions of EO to have a competitive edge but the dimension that is unique to the business environment. Thus, the study recommended that hospitality firms should concentrate on innovativeness which seems to lead to higher firm performance rather than adopting the five dimensions of EO. Lastly, the study made several theoretical and empirical contributions to the family business, hospitality industry and entrepreneurial orientation. There are series of implications made for hoteliers, customers, academia, researchers, entrepreneurs and policy makers. Finally, suggestions were made for further studies.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BP	Business performance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CSF	Critical Success Factors
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EO	Entrepreneurial Orientation
EO	Entrepreneurial Orientation
FL	Factor Loading
GDP	Gross Domestic Products
I.C.T	Information Communication Technology
KMO	Keiser-Meyer-Olkin
KPMG	Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler
RBV	Resource-Based View
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Family business is the most prevalent form of business in the world (Pimentel, 2017). Throughout history and worldwide, families and business have always co-existed to a large extent mainly because most businesses commenced with the underlying motivation to earn a living and support a family. In the 16th to 18th centuries, family-owned businesses were run within the family house Ben *et al.* (2014) which made it easier for the owner's children to become the apprentices. It is arguably the oldest form of business organization, dating back to the start of agriculture, farming and craft. Most agrarian communities were organized along family members, which meant that the larger the family size, the bigger the farmable land that can be utilized by the family (Donckels & Fröhlich, 2011). While the business provides financially for the family, the family provides human resources which could be paid or unpaid for the business. This is why Belenzons *et al.* (2015) argued in their widely referenced article that families and businesses are inextricably intertwined. Family business in most instances grows from a one man business into a business controlled, managed and operated by two or more family members. Active participation of more than one member of a family which result in controlling above 50% of the total assets of the business is what makes the enterprise a family owned business. Family business is predominately grounded on the idea of ensuring the business ownership remains within the close control of family members over successive generations (Chua *et al.,* 2018).

This is to the extent that today, the scope of family business (FB) has gotten a considerable impact on the Nigerian economy, resulting in the great interest raised by research studies addressing the issues typical from different type of businesses. Such interest is not limited to Nigeria, according to Iglesias (2015) family businesses account for two thirds of the business fabric worldwide, with an even greater relevance in the United States and Europe. Indeed, in Europe 80% of all enterprises could be considered as family businesses. Family firms accounts for 80-90% of all businesses in the world; Family firms creates an estimate of between 75 to 90% of the worlds' Gross Domestic Product; Family firms employ between 50 to 80% of the world working population, 85% of start-ups from around the world were created with family money (Williams *et al.*, 2018). General Family Business (FB) statistics indicated that family firms account for the following share of private-sector ownership in Europe with Austria (80%); Belgium (70%); Finland (86%); France (95%); Germany (95%); Italy (93%); Netherlands (69%); Spain (75%); Sweden (80%) and Switzerland (88%) (Poza, 2014).

Historically, family businesses came into prominence during the early stages of industrialization in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in Western Europe (Colli *et al.,* 2012). Record of high market failures were experienced in most European countries and the recognition of businesses with family involvement were notable due to their significant intervention role during this period (Hamid, 2013 and Chua *et al.,* 2018). Wealthy families in Western Europe played significant roles in rescuing some major economies within this region before the twentieth century. Their dominance and prominence were so strong that they practically controlled the economies of these nations during the period referred to above. Overtime, traditional Asian, African, Western European and North American communities would refer to any trading establishment by the name of the family behind it (Segaro, 2012). This was the common practice; founding families behind a venture are usually perceived as the business itself. Impliedly, when referring to businesses over a century ago, what comes to the mind of majority of people is a business owned, managed and controlled by a family (Ishiwata *et al.*, 2014). This might be the platform that brought into existence the name family business.

However, Family business has been crucial to the business and historical landscape of the global business transaction. A significant percentage of these countries' economies were and are still controlled by family dynasties such as the Nike, USA (the Knights); Wal-Mart, USA (the Waltons' Family), Sainsbury UK, Peugeot in France, Hoshi Ryokan, Japan (the Houshi's Family), Tata Group, India (Tata Family), Sing Holdings in Singapore (the Huang Family), Zegna Group in Italy, The Salvat publishers in Spain (Salvat family) and many more. In Nigeria, the focus of this thesis, there are no specific centers disseminating information on family business research in the country. However, the following family companies are household names, Dangote group (Dangote family), The Mike Adenuga Group of Companies (Adenuga Family) Ekene Dili Chukwu Group (Ilodibe Family), Honeywell Group Nigeria (Otudeko Family), Isyaku Rabiu group (Isyaku Rabiu's Family), Mai Deribe's Venture (Mai Deribes' Family), Folawiyo Group (the Folawiyos), Eleganza Group (Okoya Family), Elizade Group (The Ade Ojo Family), AIT Group (Dokpesi family); Ibeto Group (the Ibeto Family), The Tejuosho Group (the Tejuosho Family), Ibru Business Dynasty (The Ibru Family), Diamond Bank (The Dozie Family), Ibro hotels (Ibro family), Cubana Hotels (Obi cubana Family); Dabras Hotel (Dabras family); George hotels (Georges' family) and a lot more. Furthermore, a recent survey carried out in Japan showed that 80 percent of family firms had a family member CEO, three out of five firms were 100 percent family owned and the remaining companies were more than 50 percent family owned.

Family businesses differ from traditional businesses in that they are owned or controlled by family members and thus have a great potential for the family to be involved in or to influence business matters. Because of the potential for family member influence, family businesses face many unique and complex problems not found in more traditional businesses (Pimentel, 2017 and Ward, 2011). Conventional wisdom holds that the more family members who are employed and the more central their roles, the greater the influence these men and women will exert on critical decision processes in family businesses (Onwuka, 2018). Allowing family members to influence organizational processes flies in the face of the advice of traditional management dogma, which tends to discourage family involvement in an enterprise, arguing that such involvement is antithetical to effective business practices, possibly leading to corruption and non-rational behavior (Martinez *et al.*, 2013).

With regards to family firms, scholars partly disagree if that context is enhancing or impeding entrepreneurial activities. On the positive side, characteristics often attributed to family firms such as stewardship behavior Kontinen and Ojala (2012) family-to-firm-unity Poza (2014) or long-term horizons (Zellweger *et al.,* 2012) may facilitate corporate entrepreneurship. On the negative side, long-term planning horizons (Salloum *et al.,* 2016) and long-term tenure of main actors (Covin, 1991, Covin & Slevin, 1991) may lead to inertia and lower levels of entrepreneurial activities. Family firms are also assumed to suffer from risk averseness and strategic simplicity (Miller 1983, Shepherd & Zahra, 2003 & Calzada *et al.,* 2015). In addition, family firms have an inherent need for stability, which may oppose the need for change (Venter *et al.,* 2012). The nature of business is completely contradictory to the nature of families, because families are guided by emotion, while business is driven by objectivity and reality. Furthermore, families are protectively oriented towards its members, the business significantly less, and the families primal resistant to change, while business cannot be without it. Scholars have argued that the unique characteristics relevant to family firms' identities foster entrepreneurship (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003), whereas others have argued that these family firm characteristics may work to inhibit entrepreneurial activities over time (Zahra *et al.,* 2014).

However, in order for organizations to survive and prosper, family hospitality business organizations must adopt what Covin and Slevin (1989) called an ‘entrepreneurial orientation’, that is, a strategic focus on new opportunities and a willingness to move beyond existing competencies and company resources. Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is understood from entrepreneurship perspective, in relation to new entry, by its focus on the processes, practices, and decision-making activities that define an organization as entrepreneurial (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). Numerous studies (Dess *et al.,* 1997 and Miller, 1983) have confirmed a positive relationship between EO and firm performance but not in the context of family business as there might be contrast due to its uniqueness.

However, since the investigation of the connection between family involvement and organizational processes and outcomes is still in its infancy (Calzada *et al.,* 2015). Many conflicting claims regarding the purported effects of family member involvement remain unresolved. Overall, the ambiguity regarding the impact of family ownership and control on entrepreneurial activity suggests that more work is required if we are to fully understand “the nature of family firms’ distinctions” (Chrisman *et al.,* 2013) and how these distinctions influence family hospitality businesses’ strategic behavior and performance.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

Globally, family businesses are the backbone of major economies, significantly contributing to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), employment creation and economic development in general. It is estimated that the total economic impact of family businesses to the global GDP is over 70% (Collins *et al.,* 2012). In the United States alone, it is estimated that there are over 12 million family businesses ranging from small private businesses to large publicly traded corporations and account for 64% of the GDP and also generates 62% of the employment (Ward, 2013). Similarly, in Nigeria, the informal sector which is largely made up of small and medium family businesses, account for over 65% of the country's economy (Onwuka, 2018).

However, a commonly cited statistic, across academic articles (KPMG, 2017) is that only 30% of family firms succeed to the second generation, 10-15% to the third, and only 3% beyond this. Generally, Onwuka ((2018) found that business demography data from UK Office of National Statistics (Angela, 2018) demonstrates that only 44.5% FB enterprises newly established in 2007 were still surviving in 2011.

The advent of globalization results in expanded markets, characterized by increased number of competition, shrinking market size and unemployment (Ndubisi & Iftikhar, 2012). This global competition, increasing interdependence, rapid technology development, unstable environments, and many other factors exerts greater pressure on family firms accustomed to inherent stability, strategic simplicity, complacency, inertial, risk averseness, and lower levels of entrepreneurial activities.

Furthermore, the large number of hospitality firms in Nigeria has forced a sustained competition among players whereby those without the internal and external strengths are phasing out of operations in droves (Olowofeso & Ale, 2019). Additionally, it is increasingly becoming indistinguishable how the classification systems are interpreted by consumers given the diversity of systems in operation, quality seals awarded through governments, independent organizations or electronic distribution channels, causing confusion and uncertainty among international travellers

The Price Waterhouse Cooper (PWC, 2019) also revealed a steady demise of family owned hospitality businesses in Nigeria, most especially in the Northern region. In some instances, the firm goes into extinction few years into the death of the visionary founder as a result of combination of factors, ranging from poor risk management, the inability or refusal of the founders to delegate because they do not trust their-relations and non-relations, fear of losing control, particularly in relation to ego identification with the enterprise, family conflicts, nepotism, role confusion, paternalistic tendencies, the unwillingness of non-family members particularly well educated and professionals, reluctance to work in family enterprises, lack of succession planning, management style, misappropriation of funds, lack of competent top management among others (Onwuka, 2018).

According to Klynveld Peat Marwick Goerdeler (KPMG, 2017), only three percent of Nigerian family businesses have defined structures for wealth creation and participation in the business which are essential building blocks for sustainability of family businesses. Revolutionary changes in servicing technology and philosophy, combined with globalized competition and ever changing customers' expectation, have made many traditional hospitality FB businesses old fashion. Similarly, PWC, 2019*),* reported that there is lower level of diversification of family business in Nigeria than global average of 26% with only 7% operating in multiple sectors and markets. In addition, the interplay between family members and the management of the family business poses a serious threat to the slow and gradual demise of the family businesses (Morris *et al.,* 2012).

Empirical works related to services is still quite scarce despite the fact that the service sector has become extremely large part of the modern economy and there are streams of studies which have paid attention to service sectors (Nordqvist *et al.,* 2011). Over the past few years, different scholars such as: Lechner and Gudmundsson, (2014) studied the role of entrepreneurial orientation in insurance industry. Matsuno *et al.* (2012) examined the moderating role of entrepreneurial orientation on relationship between information security and firm performance in Kenya. Kaunda (2012) also investigated the role of entrepreneurial leadership in growth of small and medium enterprises in Johannesburg; While Olaniran (2016) examined role of entrepreneurial orientation on performance of firms in Nigerian stock exchange. However, there is a lack of innovative research about hospitality industries Ottenbacher (2017) and Pinar *et al.* (2011) and, more specifically in Nigerian family hospitality business settings. Little knowledge exists regarding the effect of entrepreneurial orientation on the performance of the companies that provide services such as hotels and guest houses for national and international customers. It is on this premises that the study sought to investigate the influence of entrepreneurial orientation on the performance of family hospitality firms in North-central Nigeria.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The study aims to assess the impact of Entrepreneurial Orientation on Family hospitality Business Performance in North-Central Nigeria with mediation roles of familiness and hotel classification. In doing this, the following specific objectives were formulated to evaluate the impact of;

i. innovativeness on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

ii. risk-taking on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

iii. proactiveness on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

iv. autonomy on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

v. competitive aggressiveness on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

vi. familiness in mediating the relationship between EO dimensions and family hospitality business performance.

vii. hotel classififcation in mediating the relationship between EO dimensions and family hospitality business performance.

1.4 **Research Hypotheses**

In order to achieve the stated objectives, the following null hypotheses were formulated to guide the study:

1. Ho: Innovativeness does not significantly affect family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.
2. Ho: Risk-taking does not significantly influence family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.
3. Ho: Proactiveness does not significantly impact family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.
4. Ho: Autonomy does not significantly affect family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.
5. Ho: Aggressiveness does not significantly influence family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.
6. Ho: Familiness does not significantly mediate the relationship between EO dimensions and family hospitality business performance.
7. Ho: Hotel classes do not significantly mediate the relationship between EO dimensions and family hospitality business performance.

1.5 Research Questions

In order to achieve the stated objectives, the following research questions were posed to elicit responses that guided the study:

i. Does innovativeness has effect on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.?
ii. Is there a relationship between risk taking propensity and family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.?
iii. What effect does proactiveness have on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.?
iv. To what extent does Autonomy have effect family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.?
v. To what extent does competitive aggressiveness have effect on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.?
vi. Does familiness significantly mediate the relationship between EO dimensions and family hospitality business performance?
vii. Does hotel classification significantly mediate the relationship between EO dimensions and family hospitality business performance?

1.6 Significance of the Study

Family firms are of crucial importance to modern economies. They provide the majority of jobs as alternative to government employment, contribute significantly to a nation's GDP, and represent the dominating organizational forms. In Africa, 88.43% of all companies can be classified as family firms. It could be stated that a dominance of family businesses can be observed in most economies, in terms of numbers and economic importance. This study is specifically of immense benefit to the existing entrepreneurship literature use by institutions of learning, entrepreneurship researchers, academia and policy makers.

This study attempted to equip prospective family business entrepreneurs in various sectors to understand those factors that shape entrepreneurial behavior and enhance business performance even before taking the first step. Furthermore, the results of the research will help members of Nigerian Hotel Association a method of optimizing family hospitality businesses whose performance or fortune has nose-dived through adoption of entrepreneurial orientation.

The outcome of this study is envisaged to imbue family hospitality firm to have a higher readiness to assume risks and proactiveness necessary to meet the dynamic needs of the customers by exposing their workers to trending skills and techniques. The study has the potential to stimulate Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) to identify grey areas in hotel management that require changes in order to improve the industry's ability to profitably and competitively satisfy its customers by taking classification of hotel seriously.

The study would assist hospitality firms to have access to appropriate tools for rational decisions making and by so doing enhance competitive abilities of the firms to be competitive in the market place. Another key contribution by this study is that the outcome would provide government with information for policy on matters of firm level entrepreneurial orientation.

This research has added value to entrepreneurs, hoteliers, future researchers and policy makers, also through this research the government can identify where to direct their focus in policy making for entrepreneurial development. This study has therefore filled this gap in literature.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study investigated the impact of Entrepreneurial Orientation on family hospitality business performance among the six states and FCT that make the North Central Geo-political Zone (i.e Niger, Kogi, Kwara, Nasarawa, Benue, Plateau and FCT). In testing the EO of the firms under study, the five dimensions namely, Autonomy, Innovativeness, Risktaking, Proactiveness and Competitive aggressiveness were tested as valid measure of Entrepreneurial Orientation in hotels. The study focused on family businesses and not all businesses in this zone, in other words, not hotels owned or managed by governments or corporate entities. To effectively measure the entrepreneurial practices among family held hotels, this study considered businesses which have been in existence for a period of five years and above irrespective of the hotel classification. The study is at the firm level with a focus on the managers and owners of the business. This research was grounded in Resource-Based view theory. This study employed stratified sampling technique and SEMPLS was used as software to assess the impact of entrepreneurial orientation on family hospitality business performance.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The study has associated limitations. The results envisaged from this study are context specific. However, the state of the economy might affect research results as the economy is intermittently in and out of recession.

Firstly, this study is based on a survey in hospitality industry and as such, limits generalization to other industries. Besides, the researcher is aware of the obstacles to getting responses to questionnaires from firms being investigated, however, the combination of electronic and physical medium of instrument administration and retrieval made some difference.

Secondly, the study concentrated on the perceptions of managers being a firm level measurement, and hence did not take into account the perspectives of the other major stakeholders in hotel service such as customers, employees and shareholders. This should be of interest to subsequent studies.

Thirdly, limitation is related to the size of the firms that participated in the study. The research was envisaged to cover star rated hotels and non rated hotels popularly called "budget hotels". However, most of the firms were small in size, while few hotels also that participated in the study are big. The limitation of this sample characteristic is that the hotels may have a different set of capabilities, resources and strategies. The learning curve in small hospitality firm operation is different compared to large ones. If this holds true, the measures may have been undermined by their responses. However, since most of the measures showed high significance levels, it is assumed that the measures were not undermined in a significant way. The upside of including firms of varying sizes was that the generalisability of the results and measures has increased.

Finally, limitation could be in the dependent variable measurement of the firm's performance. The measures used are related to the areas of service quality, hotel occupancy rate, employee feedback and service quality. There may be other metrics that are as much suitable to generate different firm's performance outcome.

1.9 Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as operationally applied to this study**.**

Service: Act performed for someone else, including providing resources that someone else will use.

Innovation: is the successful implementation of novel ideas within an organization. Innovation can be viewed as a novel idea that has been implemented and generally accepted which makes an organization unique or produce a unique product or services.

Siblings: Siblings refer to brothers and/or sisters with a familial bond. A familial bond implies that the siblings share(d) the same parents and/or the same childhood and grew up in the same household.

Family Constitution: A morally binding document, which contains family values, family mechanism for resolving conflicts, order of succession, rules and regulations about coordinating family businesss activities.

Governance: it is the ownership and control, unity and internal dominance of the board by family members.

Ownership: it is the concentration, kinship based wedge between cash flow and ownership rights; non-diversified

Fig: 1.1 The Thesis Structure

Source: Author, (2020).

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews relevant literature on Family Business Entrepreneurial Orientation and firm performance particularly among the hotels owned and managed by family members in North Central region of Nigeria. It discussed the conceptual review of the five domains of entrepreneurial orientation in relation to family business; the theoretical framework and the empirical review of related literature to show the gap in knowledge that necessitated this study.

2.1 **Concept of Family Business**

Till date, there is no commonly established definition within the scientific community (Astrachan *et al.,* 2012; Ward & Dolan, 2008; Zahra & Sharma, 2013) about family business. According to Lank (2007) there are as many definitions for 'family enterprise' as there are researchers in the field. As Habbershon and Williams (2011) supported that the field has not been precise in its definition of a family firm, with more than 40 suggested definitions in the 1990s. There is no single definition of the family business concept. According to the European Commission (EC) (2009) family business review, family business is a term which is exclusively applied to every conceivable area, such as to public and policy discussions, to legal regulations, as an eligibility criterion for support services, and to the provision of statistical data and academic research. The majority of definitions seem to focus on the vital role of family in terms of determining the management and control methods used in the business. The EC (2009) family review stated that there is general agreement that a definition of family business has to incorporate three essential elements: the family, the business and ownership. The review went further to posit that, ownership is key to the business life of the firm. It enables a clear distinction to be made between family and non-family businesses. Taking the 'ownership perspective' rather than the 'company size' perspective can help improve understanding of the phenomenon.

According to Berent-Braun and Uhlaner (2012) a family business is any business in which a majority of the ownership or control lies within a family and in which two or more family members are directly involved. They further posited that it is a complex, dual system consisting of the family and the business. Family members involved in the business are part of a task system (the business) and part of a family system.

Also, Naldi (2013) described a family business as a corporation that is majorly owned by the members of a single family. In other words, a family business is a business in which members of a family have significant ownership interest and significant commitments toward the business' overall well-being.

Furthermore, Dana and Ramadani (2015) considered the term family business from the taxman's and the three-domain perspectives. They perceived family business as a business that includes a sole proprietorship as well as an entity such as a corporation, partnership, or limited liability company that conducts a trade or business and if the business is an entity rather than a sole proprietorship, the decedent and his or her family members must own any of the following: (i) at least 50% of the entity; (ii) at least 30% of an entity in which members of two families own 70%; or (iii) at least 30% of an entity in which members of three families own 90%". According to the three-domain perspective "the definition of a family business is sought within what is termed the three 'domains' which are family, business and ownership. The 'family' domain is based upon people being related by blood, by adoption or by marriage, owned by families, groups of related individuals, each with their own mixture of values, history, and emotional relationships.

The ‘business’ domain is based upon the structure of being a profit-driven and economic unit that functions as a commercial enterprise. The ‘ownership’ domain requires legal claim to the assets of the business risking those assets in the hope/expectation of making a profit. One domain is insufficient to achieving ‘family business’ status, but the family’s involvement in two or three domains qualifies the organization as a family business’.

Moreover, the European Commission Family Business Review (2009: P 194) described,

> *“A firm, of any size, is a family business, if: (1) The majority of decision-making rights are in the possession of the natural person(s) who established the firm, or in the possession of the natural person(s) who has/have acquired the share capital of the firm, or in the possession of their spouses, parents, child or children’s direct heirs.(2) The majority of decision-making rights are indirect or direct.(3) At least one representative of the family or kin is formally involved in the governance of the firm.(4) Listed companies meet the definition of family enterprise if the person who established or acquired the firm (share capital) or their families or descendants possess 25 per cent of the decision-making rights mandated by their share capital.”*

This study goes further to perceive a family business as an economic unit in which ownership or where majority of the ownership rests on a member or members of a single family that are related by blood, adoption or marriage.

Poutziouris *et al.* (2008: Pp59) postulated family business as

> *“an owner-managed enterprise with family members predominantly involved in its administration, operations and the determination of its destiny. Family members may include parents, children and grand-children; spouses, brothers, sisters and cousins”.*

Thus, family business has as many definitions as there are interpreters. It has a wide range of different forms. There are many standards created by different Institutions, Countries, Continents, Universities, legal facets, among others.

Nevertheless, Neubauer and Lank (2016) consummated this concept by listing the most common elements of the myriad definitions of family business:"

(a) The percentage of share capital owned by a family.

(b) Employment of owning family in executive or other positions.

(c) The existence of non-family in executives or employees.

(d) The extent to which the intention is to maintain family involvement in the future.

(e) The number of the generations in the owning family involved in the business.

(f) The number of families involved in either management and/or ownership.

(g) Whether a given family accepts that it controls its own enterprise.

(h) Whether non-family employees accept that it is a family enterprise.

(i) The size of the enterprise, particularly the number of employees."

The ultimately definition of family business, according to Poza (2010), is an enterprise where two or more family members are employed in the business and the family retains the control in the business. Although, here we can see the distinction of the definition between different facets. Moreover, Zahra and Sharma (2004) corroborated that the family business field still lacks coherence and discipline regarding the use of definitional operationalization. See table 2.1 for other definitions.

Table 2.1 Family Business Definitions based on important criteria

Criteria	Definitions
Ownership	A firm is a family firm if: it is owned by one or more family members, at least two members of the founding family are involved as major owners, family members ho ld a substantial proportion of the equity, fractional equity ownership by the foundin g family exists. *Source:* Gomez-Mejia *et al.* (2007).
Control	A firm is a family firm if: there is some family participation in the control over its s trategic direction; the members of a descendent group and their affines control at le ast 25 percent of the voting stock in a corporation; a family or an individual or unli sted firm on any stock exchange is considered the ultimate owner (20% of either ca sh flow or control rights); the largest controlling shareholder who holds at least 10 % of the voting rights is a family, an individual or an unlisted firm (unlisted firms a re often closely held and therefore considered under family control). *Sour ce:* Astrachan & Shanker (2015).
Board of Directors	A firm is a family firm if two or more family members serve as directors or two or more directors have a family relationship. S ources: Gomez-Mejia *et al.* (2007) and Venter, (2012).
Management	A firm is a family firm if: family members have management responsibility, on or more family members manage the business, at least two members of the founding f amily are involved as either major executives, the CEO is the founder or cofounder , the company is operated by the founding family. Source: Miller, (2011).
Self-Perception	A firm is a family firm if: senior management perceives the firm as a family firm; t he firm is considered a family firm by the CEO; the business is perceived as such b y the CEO, its managers or its owners; the company is perceived as such by the chi ef executive/managing director/chairman. Sources: W eismeier-Sammer (2013); Astrachan & Shanker (2015).
Transgenerational Succession	A firm is a family firm if the business is governed and/or managed with the intentio n to shape and pursue the vision of the business held by a dominate coalition contr olled by members of the same family or a small number of families in a manner tha t is potentially sustainable acrossgenerations of the family or families. In an FB, the re must be intent to transfer or an actual generational movementof the business in a ddition to ownership and management control. An additional aspect of family influ ence is the desire to transfer ownership to the next generation. Sources: Chrisman *et al*. (2013).
Multiple generation	A firm is a family business if there is generational ownership dispersion of the firm . The level of generational ownership dispersion within the firm denotes the numbe r of family generations that hold ownership control. Multiple generations have a sig nificant impact on the business Sources; Astrachan & Shanker (2015).
Family & business values	A firm is a family firm if it features family members' support for the organization, willingness to contribute to the business, and desire to be a part of the business. A firm can be considered a family business when the family and business share assum ptions & values. Sources: Collins, (2012).

Sources: Author, (2020).

Although Astrachan (2003) concluded that "there is no clear demarcation between family and non-family businesses." Hence for this study, the definition of family business is described as any firm owned by one or more family members, at least two members of the founding family are involved as major owners, family members hold a substantial prortion of the equity, fractional equity ownership by the founding family exist. This definition is adapted from Astrachan and Shanker (2015) as it suits the trend in Nigerian hospitality industry where majority of the practioners are either in the first or second generations.

2.2 Familiness

Familiness in the family business literature is often used interchangeably with the term family involvement. Habbershon and Williams (2011) proposed the concept of 'familiness' to be "the unique bundle of resources a particular firm has because of the systemic interaction between the family, its individual members, and the business", and how these 'idiosyncratic' resources in turn create sustainable competitive advantage or disadvantage that then leads to stronger or weaker business performance. However, Singal and Singal (2011) also argued that these resources will only create competitive advantage and superior firm performance if managed purposefully and efficiently. They also distinguished between four discrete resources of family firm capital: human capital, patience capital, social capital and survivability capital, combined with the governance structure attribute.

In addition, Habbershon *et al.* (2013) later built on the notion of 'familiness' using a unified systems perspective, whereby the resources and capabilities of the family unit, the individual members, as well as the business entity interact and add to the overall performance of the family business. 'Familiness' has since become widely used in family business literature to describe the various resources (human, psychological, social, financial and physical capital) that result from the interaction of the family and business subsystems (Sharma, 2014). The main issue with the original work of Habbershon and Williams (2011) that underpins the concept of 'faminess' is that it focused solely on family advantages and ignored family disadvantages, such as, nepotism, feuding, rivalry and the likes.

Moreover, Weismeier *et al.* (2013) suggested as essential to consider familiness in the light of the three main approaches of: components of involvement, essence, and organizational identity. 'Components of involvement' focuses on degrees of family management, ownership, and control; captures the presence of the family in the firm. 'Essence approach' focuses on behaviors and synergistic resources contributed to the business by the family; captures how family members behave in the firm. 'Organizational identity' focuses on family firm identity which is unique given the idiosyncrasy of the family; captures how the family defines and views the firm (Zellweger & Sieger, 2012).

After Habbershon and Williams (2011) first introduced the concept of familiness, the term has been developed by many other researchers. Even though the concept has grown in popularity for analyzing resources of family members, the topic has also received some critics from many other researchers that consider the concept as an umbrella term, because it is still ambiguous and lacks of proved models (Weismeier-Sammer *et al.,* 2013).

However, the familiness idiosyncracy will continue to provide an ambiance for understanding the dynamics of family uniqueness and resolving the inherent differences in family-business-ownership relationship.

2.3 Entrepreneurship

The term entrepreneurship has been used for decades, yet to this day there is little consensus about its definition (Williams *et al.*, 2010). Many perspectives can be found in the literature but the most common themes include: creation of wealth, creation of enterprise, creation of innovation, creation of change, creation of employment, creation of value, and creation of growth. Considerable effort has recently been put into developing a uniform definition. For example, Morris (1998) performed a keyword analysis of the definitions of entrepreneurship found in relevant literature and found 18 keywords used at least five times. Subsequently, they defined entrepreneurship according to the definition of Stevenson and Jarillo-Mossi (1990) that ''entrepreneurship is a process of creating value by bringing together a unique package of resources to exploit an opportunity'', because this definition captured all the core keywords of entrepreneurship encountered in their research.

This definition does not limit the kind of organizations in which entrepreneurial activities may appear. Indeed, entrepreneurial behaviour is not only possible in new ventures, but also in firms regardless of their size and age (Kraus *et al.,* 2011). The entrepreneurial activities of existing and established firms have for example been described as corporate entrepreneurship (Burgelman 1983 and Zahra 2005), entrepreneurial orientation (Lumpkin and Dess 1996; Wiklund and Shepherd, (2005), or intrapreneurship. Within the present study, the entrepreneurial activities of an established firm will be referred to as its 'Entrepreneurial Orientation' (EO).

2.3.1 Entrepreneurial Orientation

Entrepreneurial Orientation was introduced by Miller (1983) to the scholarly literature, even though he did not use the term EO in his initial writing (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011). Some scholars use different terminologies in discussing this firm-level behaviour toward entrepreneurial activity, such as strategic posture or strategic orientation (Covin & Slevin, 1991) corporate entrepreneurship (Zahra & Covin 2005; Kuratko 2010) and entrepreneurial orientation (Lumpkin & Dess 1996; Lyon, Lumpkin & Dess 2010; Moreno & Casillas 2008). However, EO is the most widely applied in the current literature.

Miller's first concept of entrepreneurial orientation in 1983 referred to a company's desire to be innovative to renew market contributions, take risks to test new and ambiguous products, facilities and markets, and be more active than challengers towards new market opportunities for strategic and performance objectives. This concept was further elaborated by Covin and Slevin (1989) and (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996).

At first, EO was primarily used as a measurement instrument to gauge the level of entrepreneurship within a firm. Barringer and Bluedorn (2009), for instance, used the EO scale, as developed by Covin and Slevin (1989), to operationalize the level of Corporate Entrepreneurship within a firm. In later years, more and more studies started to focus primarily on EO instead of corporate entrepreneurship and EO slowly became a research field on its own. Research by Miriti (2017) even showed that, by 2008, more studies have been dedicated to the concept of EO than the broader field of corporate entrepreneurship. Given the number of studies dedicated to EO, the specific focus on firm or top-management level of the organization and the context in which an EO strategy is deemed most successful (turbulent environment), EO can be seen as a distinct stream of literature within the broader field of CE that discusses how existing organizations can deal with uncertainty and change within the operating environment. Theoretically, the field of EO is, however, still relatively underdeveloped and there is a need to study how EO comes into existence, how it can be leveraged through internal organizational processes, and a need for more detailed findings on the value of EO in different industries and contexts (Miller, 2011).

In recent years, academic and business interests MSME, Corporate organizations including family businesses have continued to focus on entrepreneurship orientation Ibrahim and Lloyd (2011) internationalization and competitive strategies (Gersick, 2011). However, Chaston and Sadler-Smith (2012) added that entrepreneurial orientation (EO) as a differentiating firm factor in the entrepreneurship literature has been consolidated. EO has become a key concept in entrepreneurship, which has received considerable theoretical and empirical attention.

Entrepreneurs have an entrepreneurial orientation (EO) that indicates the procedures, structures, and behaviour of the firm to take advantage of opportunities. Entrepreneurs are described by previous literature as agents of change with the ability to disrupt an unsustainable system of industries and engage in complex entrepreneurial and sustainable trade-off decisions (Hansen, 2011). However, Mahmood and Hanafi (2013) argued that entrepreneurial orientation is reflected in the execution processes of organizations and organizational culture. It is a vital element for achieving higher performance through differentiation, developing better alternatives before competitors, supporting adaptation to environmental changes and market trends, weakening competitors' competitiveness and responding to future actions rapidly (Rusen, 2020). The cornerstone of entrepreneurship is EO and it is one of the significant predictors of firm performance (Guo *et al.,* 2019).

The knowledge of EO has been further extended and has greatly benefited from two important constructs. One construct was originally enunciated by Miller (1983) and subsequently adopted by (Covin & Slevin, 1989). This construct basically recognizes EO as having a basic and unidimensional strategic orientation that is self-evident in the simultaneous existence of three elements, innovativeness and proactiveness behaviors as well as risk-taking which is considered an attitudinal propensity. In particular, innovativeness and ingenuity ascribed to the notion of enhancement of creative procedures that could in fact lead to the creation of new products, services or technologies.

Proactiveness indicates a desire to pursue self-motivated willingness to enhance current situation and create an environment conducive for growth as well as an incubation for germination of new opportunities, while risk-taking refers to the courage and ability to channelize investments and efforts in uncertain domains in order to capitalize on exponential return possibilities in terms of gains (Penney & Combs*,* 2013). The second idea anticipated by Lumpkin and Dess (1996) is multidimensional, as it does not mandate simultaneous or parallel occurrence of different elements and offers two new co-factors, namely, competitive aggressiveness and autonomy, which together profess a strategy to challenge competitors in order to outsmart rivals in the industry, and to continuously focus on a single minded aim to excel and pursue options and directions that leads to the pursuit of opportunities and growth (Guo *et al.,* 2019).

As Runyan *et al.* (2012) reported that the concept of EO has been widely discussed through previous studies in entrepreneurship, so it can be considered as one of the main topics in this field, and the most commonly used measure of entrepreneurial behaviour or inclination in strategies and entrepreneurship studies. Also, Olowofeso and Ale (2019) revealed that EO is represented by three dimensions: innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking. EO also pointed to the combination of existing resources in new ways to develop and market new products, move to new markets and/or serve new customers (Hitt *et al.,* 2012). The entrepreneurial orientation is a constructive observation at the organizational level and depicts behaviours (innovativeness and proactiveness) and attitudes (risk-taking) for managers and employees to increase the firm value.

EO is an organizational concept that demonstrates the managerial ability through which companies autonomously innovate, take risks, proactive and aggressive initiatives to achieve competitive advantage. Other researchers emphasized an expanded definition of the EO (Awang *et al.*, 2011). In this vein, Covin *et'al.,* (2006) stated that entrepreneurial orientation is "a strategic construct whose conceptual domain includes certain firm-level outcomes and management related preferences, beliefs, and behaviours as expressed among a firm's top level managers".

EO is concerned about the decision-making styles, practices, processes and behaviours that lead to 'entry' into new or established markets with new or existing goods or services (Lumpkin & Dess 1996; Walter *et al.,* 2006; & Wiklund & Shepherd, 2009). This description is consistent with the view of Miller (1983) that EO leads to new market entry in either new or existing markets, but also explicitly recognizes that this can be achieved with either new or existing goods or services. Thus, entrepreneurs in hospitality industry wishing to gain entrance into new or existing market would need to demonstrate a reasonable degree of entrepreneurial orientation.

In more recent study, Vu (2017) differentiated entrepreneurship from EO that entrepreneurship is the development of a new company or new market entry (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). Nevertheless, EO relates to new entry's procedures, processes, and decision-making or in short how new entry is made (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996 and Vu, 2017).

Entrepreneurial orientation is essentially the process of creating the entrepreneurial strategy used by managers and decision-makers in organizations to establish common objectives, maintain vision and ensure the competitive advantages of their entities (Wales *et al.*, 2017). EO is closely connected with strategic management and strategic decision-making. Therefore, family firms that strive to maintain competitive advantage in the market place must possess entrepreneurial orientation. Adopting EO will assist the organization in developing strategies to achieve organizational objectives and perform optimally.

EO also reflects policies and procedures that develop the basis for decisions and actions of entrepreneurship that include planning, analysis, decision-making and various elements of the culture, value system and mission of the organization (Wales, 2019; Pimentel *et al.,* 2017 & Rosa, 2014). According to Patil (2014) and Rau (2014), EO is perceived as strategic guidance that represents attitudes, behaviours and strategic procedures that lead organizations to enter new markets or enter with new or existing products or services in established markets.

Moreover, EO is corporate strategy-making practices, management philosophies (Wale *et al.,* 2011 and Ireland *et al.,* 2009), and company-level behaviours that are of an entrepreneurial nature (Pearce*,* 2009). EO also refers to strategy-making procedures that give organizations basis for addressing creative, proactive and risk-taking decisions and actions (Wales, 2016). Innovativeness represents creativity in the direction of entrepreneurship in engaging in new ideas, experimentation and creative procedures, which can lead to and support new products, services or technological processes.

Proactive behaviours enable companies to anticipate the needs of clients looking for new business processes.

Additionally, Patil (2014) described EO as entrepreneurial strategy decision processes used by senior managers to develop a vision, mission and achieve competitive advantage. The company's orientation towards entrepreneurship is its tendency to act independently, innovatively, take calculated risks, and act proactively when facing market opportunities. However, companies improve their market position over competitors through applying competitive strategies.

Table 2.2 Definitions of EO and Entrepreneurial Firms

Authors	Definitions
Mintzberg (1973)	"In the entrepreneurial mode, strategy-making is dominated by the active search for new opportunities" as well as "dramatic leaps forward in the face of uncertainty".
Miller & Friesen (1982)	The entrepreneurial model applies to firm that innovate boldly, boldly and regularly while taking considerable risks in their product-market strategy.
Miller (1983)	"An entrepreneurial firm is one that engages in productmarket innovation, undertakes somewhat risky ventures, and is first to come up with 'proactive' innovations, beating competitors to the punch".
Naldi *et al.,* (2007)	". . . entrepreneurial orientation is defined as the firm's degree of proactiveness (aggressiveness) in its chosen product-market unit (PMU) and its willingness to innovate and create new offerings"
Lumpkin and Dess (1996)	"EO refers to the processes, practices, and decision-making activities that lead to new entry" as characterized by one, or more of the following dimensions: "a propensity to act autonomously, a willingness to innovate and take-risks, and a tendency to be aggressive toward competitors and proactive relative to marketplace opportunities".
Covin and Slevin (1989)	"Entrepreneurial firms are those in which the top managers have entrepreneurial management styles, as evidenced by the firms' strategic decisions and operating management philosophies. Non-entrepreneurial or conservative firms are those in which the top management style is decidedly riskaverse, non-innovative, and passive or reactive".
Walter *et al.,* (2006).	"Generally, entrepreneurial orientation refers to the propensities, processes and behaviors that lead to entry into new or established markets with new or existing goods or services".
Anwar *et al.,* (2021)	"EO constitutes an organizational phenomenon that reflects a managerial capability by which firms embark on proactive and aggressive initiatives to alter the competitive scene to their advantage".
Rauch *et al.,* (2009)	"EO refers to the strategy making processes that provide organizations with a basis for entrepreneurial decisions and actions".
Pearce *et al.,* (2010)	An EO is conceptualized as a set of distinct but related behaviours that have the qualities of innovativeness, proactiveness, competitive aggressiveness, risk taking and autonomy.
Chen and Chun, (2011).	"… entrepreneurial orientation is imperative in a firm's entrepreneurial process, including opportunity recognition, innovation and opportunity exploitation".

Sources: Author, (2020).

Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO) has become a salient concept within strategic management and entrepreneurship literature in the last three decades (Covin & Lumpkin 2011; Miller 2011; Covin & Wales 2019). EO is a much-explored dimension of strategy-making that has been found to have significant implications for firm performance (Miller 2011; Covin & Wales 2019). Rauch *et al.* (2009) conducted an assessment of previous EO-performance relationship studies, found that an increase in the quantity of such studies has occurred around the world. Therefore, It is reasonable to conclude that EO represents a promising area for building a cumulative body of relevant knowledge about entrepreneurship at firm level.

Entrepreneurial firms with high levels of EO possess the ability to identify and seize opportunities in a way that differentiates them from conservative organizations. Some researchers (e.g., Miller & Friesen 1982; Covin & Slevin 1989; Covin & Slevin 1991) have described the differences between entrepreneurial firms and conservative firms, as shown in Table 2.3

Table 2.3 Characteristics of Entrepreneurial Firms and Conventional Firms

Entrepreneurial Firms	**Conventional Firms**
Innovate frequently and extensively (especially in product and technology)	Minimal technological and product innovation
Strong risk-taking propensity by top management	Risk-aversion or weak risk-taking propensity by top management
Reactive and aggressively competitive	Non-reactive (more cautious competitive orientation)

Source: Wiklund and Shepherd (2009) & Rauch *et al.,* (2009).

Entrepreneurial firms are involved in frequent and extensive innovations to gain competitive advantage. They also demonstrate risk-taking behaviour to exploit the opportunities in the marketplace and react aggressively to competitors' actions. Due to this behaviour, entrepreneurial firms are more likely to succeed in dynamic or hostile environments. On the other hand, conservative firms are not by nature innovators or risk-takers. Innovation is only carried out when they are threatened by competitors (Miller & Friesen 1982). Based on their characteristics, conservative firms tend to work successfully in benign environments. Aloulou and Fayolle (2015) as well as Covin and

Wales (2019) suggested that firms will range in a continuum from highly conservative (the ‘low’ end) to highly entrepreneurial (the ‘high’ end).

EO enables firms to improve the acquisition and use of market information (Keh *et al.*, 2007). In turn, the firms might use this information to develop new capabilities to pursue business opportunities (Chaston & Sadler-Smith, 2012). By implementing entrepreneurial behavior such as risk-taking, innovating, being proactive and competing aggressively, firms have the resources to achieve their objectives in a better way or in a shorter time compared to conservative (non-entrepreneurial) firms

EO is a behavioural phenomenon, rather than attribute, in a firm-level (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011). As a behavioural model of entrepreneurship, EO is suggested to give meaning to the entrepreneurial process. In asserting that behaviour is at the centre of and is essential in the entrepreneurial process, Covin and Lumpkin (2011) further explained that “An individual’s psychological profile does not make a person an entrepreneur. Rather, we know they are entrepreneurs through their actions. Similarly, non-behaviour organizational level attributes, like organizational structure or culture, do not make a firm entrepreneurial. An organization’s action makes it entrepreneurial”. In other words, behaviour of entrepreneurial firms could be justified from their actions.

The EO investigations have targeted firms’ orientation toward entrepreneurial activity regardless of their types, sizes and ages (Covin & Wales, 2019). Nonetheless, the entrepreneurship and management strategic literatures suggest that EO concept has so far been applied more in the context of large firms than of SMEs, although findings using large firms as a sample may not be generalizable to SMEs (Aloulou & Fayolle 2015; Frishammar & Andersson 2009). For example, entrepreneurial activity in SMEs is based on their founders as well as their owners/managers. This activity is usually informal and improvisational rather than from planned and well-designed organizational systems, as in large firms. This is in line with Rauch *et al.* (2009) meta-analysis of EO studies that suggested that the influence of EO on performance is more obvious in small firms. In firm-level entrepreneurship, EO adoption is typically investigated through top management (Covin & Slevin, 1989). Past research (Dess *et al.,* 1997) indicated that family firms with an EO are more likely to perform better than those that lack such an orientation.

2.3.2 Role of Entrepreneurial Orientation in an Organization

The impact of entrepreneurial orientation on an organization's objectives and success is inevitable. EO is quite significant in building an entrepreneurial culture. The culture of an organization is quite significant to its ultimate performance by every organizational players especially the employees. Thus, any organization can take advantage of adopting an entrepreneurial orientation (Aliyu *et al.*, 2015).

Entrepreneurial orientation affects positively the success of any organization (Wales *et al.,* 2013). Many previous studies revealed that entrepreneurial orientation has a positive impact on firm performance (Covin & Miles, 1999 and Lodi, 2008), and this influence may increase over time (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2011; Junaidu, 2012; Engelen *et al.*, 2013; Wales, 2016; Covin & Lumpkin, 2011 and Short *et al.*, 2018).

It also enhances organization' sales growth (Homburg *et al.,* 2014 & Wales *et al.,* 2013). Firms especially in hospitality industry that are characterized by being innovative, proactive and risk-taking have a high level of EO (Chirico *et al.,* 2011). Innovative behaviours as a dimension of EO are critical to the survival of the organization and organizations can use proactive behaviours to increase their competitive position with respect to other organizations. In terms of risk-taking, entrepreneurial organization that shows moderate levels of risk will outweigh those who offer very high or very low-risk levels (Kreiser *et al.*, 2010). Further, EO–performance relationship can be facilitated through transformational leadership behaviours (Engelen *et al.,* 2013), financial resources (Wiklund *et al.,* 2009), intangible resources (Wales *et al.*, 2019), capabilities such as strategic learning (Anwar *et al.*, 2021 & Short *et al.,* 2018), capability to organize resources (Wales *et al.,* 2011), learning capabilities such as Absorption Capacity (ACAP) (Teece *et al.,* 2011), organizational learning (Al-Mamun *et al.*, 2017), or learning orientation with other strategic.

The EO can also enhance the usefulness of the performance of organizational resources by the optimal use of these resources to identify and exploit opportunities (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2009; Barney, 1991 and Vu (2017) added that entrepreneurial orientation is one of the most important intangible sources to achieve sustainable competitive advantage for organizations through highlighting the new opportunities available in a business environment, exploiting these optimally and achieving success especially in a highly competitive business environment.

Similarly, EO becomes an outstanding feature for high performing organizations (Hughes & Morgan, (2007). Also, Rosenbusch (2013) demonstrated that entrepreneurial orientation helps to achieve sustainable performance. Organizations will have the ability to continually adapt to a dynamic work environment with constantly changing competitive pressures, customer needs and preferences, technology requirements and regulations to be successful if they are characterized by EO (Richard *et al.,* 2009 and Otieno *et al.,* 2012).

Wales (2016) also stated that entrepreneurial orientation represents the management's orientation toward seeking new opportunities for firm growth. The ability of an organization to develop new products, provide distinct product alternatives and adjust production levels as needed can be stimulated through innovativeness, proactiveness, autonomy, competitive aggressiveness and risk-taking. Hence, entrepreneurial orientated firms are more ready to achieve growth via exploratory strategic actions (developing new product) rather than exploitative activities (advertising) (Wales, 2016).

2.3.3 Entrepreneurial Orientation Dimensions

The specific dimensions of EO were introduced for the first time by Miller (1983). He suggested that the entrepreneurial firm is one that engages in product market innovation, undertakes somewhat risky ventures, and is first to come up with 'proactive' innovation, beating competitors to the punch. Accordingly, Covin and slain (1989) identified the salient dimensions of EO as innovative, risk-taking, and proactive.

More than a decade after Miller's work (1983), Lumpkin and Dess (1996) proposed five dimensions of EO: autonomy, innovativeness, risk-taking, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness. In other words, they added two additional dimensions – autonomy and competitive aggressiveness – to complement the three dimensions proposed by Miller (1983). Lumpkin and Dess (1996) argued that, to be successful, a firm requires autonomy from strong leaders or creative individuals, without any restrictions imposed by the firm's bureaucracy. The other dimension, competitive aggressiveness, described Miller (1983) idea of "beating competitors to the punch". It represents how a firm responds to threats, not only how it seizes opportunities, as indicated by Miller's proactive dimension. Hence, according to Lumpkin and Dess (1996), EO refers to the specific organizational-level behaviour to perform risk-taking, autonomous activities, engage in innovation and react proactively and aggressively to outperform competitors in the marketplace. Since then, many studies have adopted Lumpkin and Dess's five EO dimensions (e.g., Krauss *et al.,* 2012, Wiklund & Shepherd 2009; Corbetta, 2011 and Hughes & Morgan 2007). The five dimensions of

EO are summarized in Table 2.4, and will be discussed in detail subsequently in the next section.

Table 2.4 Dimensions of Entrepreneurial Orientation

Dimensions	Definitions
Autonomy	Independent action by an individual or team aimed at bringing forth a business concept or vision and carrying it through to completion.
Innovativeness	A willingness to introduce newness and novelty through experimentation and creative processes aimed at developing new products, services and processes.
Risk-Taking	Making decisions and taking action without certain knowledge of probable outcomes; some undertakings may also involve making substantial resource commitments in the process of venturing forward.
Proactiveness	A forward-looking perspective characteristic of a marketplace leader that has the foresight to seize opportunities in anticipation of future demand.
Competitive Aggressiveness	An intense effort to outperform industry rivals. It is characterised by combative posture or an aggressive response aimed at improving position or overcoming a threat in a competitive marketplace.

Sources: Adapted from Dess and Lumpkin (2006).

2.3.3.1 Innovativeness

The idea of innovativeness comes from Schumpeter (1934) and included fostering a spirit of creativity, supporting research and development, introducing new products/services and technological leaders (Lumpkin & Dess, 2014). Entry into new markets, typical for many African firms, can also be described as innovation. Innovativeness covers a range of activities from making marginal improvement to technological leadership (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). Creativity and innovation are interrelated and innovation can be thought of as applied creativity in the business context. Harnessing creativity leads to innovation. This can involve combining different objects in different ways to produce new products and discovering new purposes for products or better ways to solve customer problems (Schumpeter, 1942). Many entrepreneurs tend to be non-conventional, creative, lateral thinkers, who can think outside the box, identify innovative business opportunities, and be adept at adapting to changing and uncertain environments (Timmons & Spinelli, 2010). More creative and innovative firms tend to outperform other firm types in more volatile situations (Miller, 1983). Entrepreneurs that are more innovative will outperform those with lower levels of innovativeness. Innovativeness reflects a firm's propensity to engage in and support the generation of new ideas and creative processes that may lead to new products/services, technological processes and new markets (Lumpkin & Dess 1996 and Rauch *et al.*, 2009). Rauch *et al.* (2009) suggested that innovativeness plays a significant role in solving business problems and challenges, which in turn provides firms with the ability to succeed.

Venkataraman (1989) described entrepreneurship as the discovery of an opportunity, exploiting and converting it to a marketable course, while innovation is the exploitation of new ideas for the purpose of commercialization. Such innovation could be product/service, process, opening of new market, organizational or providing a new source of raw material (Schumpeter, 1934; Kuratko, 2010 and Adeyeye, 2016). Schumpeter (1934) was one of the first to associate entrepreneurship with innovation at the core of his theory of entrepreneurship. Adeyeye (2017) asserted that innovation is deviation from norm to different and unique activities that can raise the standard of living of the masses.

The innovative ability of firms to renew their market offers becomes crucial to their ability to survive and grow when they are operating under conditions of global competition, rapid technology advances and resource scarcity (Rauch *et al.,* 2009). Innovativeness is also crucial when firms have to face business model life-cycles that are shortening (Thompson & Strickland, 2013).

According to Lansberg (2013), innovativeness is related with creativity. Kuratko *et al.* (2005) defined creativity as "the application of a person's mental ability and curiosity to discover something new". Without creativity, therefore, there will be no force to be innovative (Ireland *et al.*, 2009). Creativity is a source of ideas or imaginings that will lead to the innovation of new products, services, processes, markets, or technology (James, 2016). Obviously, creativity is the foundation for innovative behaviour as it influences the quality and the quantity of innovation (Ireland & Webb, 2017).

Gimeno *et al*. (2010) however, found that there was inconsistency in operationalizing innovativeness and innovation in previous studies and it has resulted in interchangeable use of the constructs innovativeness and innovation. Schumpeter (1934) emphasized that innovation is the core of entrepreneurship (Aloulou & Fayolle, 2015). Schumpeter was also one of the first scholars to argue that innovation is the fundamental endeavor of entrepreneurial organizations for developing new products or inventing new processes (Aloulou & Fayolle, 2015), and that innovation can contribute to a firm's competitive advantage (Zhao & Lee, 2011). Likewise, Covin and Miles (1999) agreed that innovation is an essential part of a business strategy and that entrepreneurship cannot exist without it. Similarly, Otieno *et al. (*2012) and Ireland *et al.* (2017) emphasized the importance of innovation in creating a firm's competitiveness, which will lead to superior performance.

To Schumpeter (1934), innovation is measured by commercial or economic gain achieved through new or improved products, changes in economic production systems or expanding distribution networks.

Schumpeter (1934) identified five types of innovation: The introduction of a new product or new product quality; the introduction of a new production process; the opening up of a new market or market innovation; the securing of a new source of raw materials or other inputs; and the creation and application of a new organizational structure in an industrial sector.

They are explained as follows;

Firstly, process innovation involves the implementation of new or significantly improved methods of production or delivery of the product. Process innovation is about implementing a new or improved production or delivery approach, including changes in operational methods, the techniques used and the equipment or software, reducing environmental impacts and safety risks. Examples of process innovations includes being:

The first firms betting on SaaS (software as a service) technology, and using, for instance, cloud contact centers from hotel "talkdesk", changed the way their customer support processes used to be organized

The first hotels that decided to make decisions based on big data using, for instance, insights from the Protea hotels, made changes on their decision-making approach.

New or significantly improved techniques, equipment and software in hotel ancillary support activities, such as purchasing, accounting, computing and maintenance.

Secondly, product innovation is the introduction of a new or improved good or service. These inventions or changes may have to do with improving technical specifications, the materials or the software used or even advancing on UX (user experience). However, product innovations do not need to improve all functions or performance specifications. An improvement to or addition of a new function can also be merged with a loss of other functions or the downgrade of some other specifications. Moreover, a product innovation must be available to potential users but does not necessarily need to generate sales. Because if it did, then innovations with low demand or, for instance, digital products like apps that are free would be excluded. At the same time, routine changes or updates are not considered product innovations as they are only correcting errors or making some seasonal changes. Examples of service innovation in the hospitality industry are the use of facial recognition devices for verification of guests identity before check-in; voice-control rooms is another innovation where guest speak naturally to get personalized assistance; robots are now used to deliver items to guest around the clock; Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) Wristbands is now used, instead of having to carry a room key and their wallets, guests are given a wristband loaded with their rooms which makes it easy for guests to have everything with them and keep their hands free.

Thirdly, market innovation otherwise referred to as opening of new market, according to Pearce *et al.* (2009) is different from other types of innovation by its main objective which is to increase the volumes of sales or market share, consequently affecting the firm's size and profitability. Market innovation is fundamentally driven by geographical extension of innovative firms into a new market or by introducing the innovation to new users (Kelly *et al.*, 2015). It is the ultimate of all innovations because market creation provides opportunities for entrepreneurs to operate (Adomako *et al.*, 2018). Thus, entrepreneurship's focus on wealth creation is based on the discovery of new and emerging opportunities in the marketplace. Furthermore, innovation is incomplete without a purposeful and deliberate search for new opportunities in different places to penetrate into the markets (Kuratko *et al.,* 2005).

Therefore marketing innovation means developing a new marketing strategy that produces changes in, for instance, the way a product is designed or packaged, geographical extension of products, or even other decisions regarding price or promotion. The main approach for market innovation generally is through invention, and other innovative approaches referred to as Extension, Duplication and Syntheses (Kuratko, 2010). More often, invention is technological push while extension and duplication are market pull and the fourth, syntheses may either be technological push or market pull or both (Adeyeye, 2017).

Fourthly, securing of a new source of raw materials or other inputs necessary for further production of goods and services is associated with innovativeness. Where firms hitherto sources imput from abroad, a substitute could be locally sourced. This niche could be a competitive edge for the family firm in the market place, most especially if it is cheaper and relatively better than the imported. For instance, one of the most innovative devices in the hospitality industry for extension of market reach is "One night app" the concept promotes unsold hotel rooms at discounted rate to encourage spontaneous stay by customers.

Fifthly, organizational innovation refers to the development of a new organizational strategy that will somehow change a company's business practices, as well as the way its workplace is organized and its relationship with external stakeholders. Organizational innovations include;

Implementation of new methods for organizing standard routines and procedures for the conduct of work (for example, the implementation of new practices to improve learning and knowledge sharing within the hotel).

Moreover, innovations in workplace organization, i.e. the implementation of new methods for distributing responsibilities and decision making, division of work within and between hotel activities (and organizational units).

Furthermore, implementation of new ways of organizing relations with other firms or public institutions, such as the establishment of new types of collaborations with hotel suppliers, and the outsourcing or subcontracting of business activities in production, procuring, distribution, recruiting and ancillary services of the hospitality firm.

Degree of innovativeness

Another distinguishing element is the degree of innovation. In Schumpeter's definition of innovation, novelty for the relevant sector is repeatedly emphasized and radical innovations play a key role in economic development in Schumpeter's theory. This view is related to the classification of innovations by degree of novelty into:

A radical innovation, which represent the introduction of revolutionary new technologies, but also considerable uncertainty for the business model and the whole firm (Kraus *et al.*, 2011).

Likewise, incremental innovation, i.e. gradual improving of existing technology, which have generally quantifiable impacts on business (Gimeno *et al.*, 2010).

Besides, rationalisation which involves the prevention and elimination of production losses while using existing business elements optimally is a good form of innovation and lastly, a disruptive innovation is the type that upset the existing market or creates entirely new markets (Clausen & Madsen, 2011).

Newness

Newness is the quality or appeal of being new. Newness is a synonym of innovation. Innovation implies newness. Some literature use "newness" instead of a noun innovation.

Innovation is always associated with an attribute of ‘newness’ (Jiménez-Jimenez *et al.*, 2008). Since ‘newness’ is considered as a relative new term, scholars like (Keh *et al.*, 2007; Lechner & Gudmundsson, 2012) suggested that by answering the question of ‘new to whom?’ one can distinguish whether the innovation is radical or incremental. Applying this criterion, radical innovation refers to the introduction of products, services or technologies that are perceived to be new to the firm as well as to the market or industry. On the other hand, incremental innovation refers to innovation that is perceived to be new to the firm only.

Despite agreement about the relevance of innovation in competitiveness, previous studies have revealed inconsistencies in conceptualizing and measuring innovation (Guo *et al.,* 2019). This implied that innovation means different things to different people (Marco-Lajara *et al.*, 2014). This argument is supported by (Chaston & Sadler-Smith, 2012) who reviewed previous EO studies in four different industries within Australia and found that even though innovativeness is considered important in determining firm performance, it is not the most significant dimension. He argued that innovation has been interpreted differently by respondents. Some of them have related innovation with newness only, while others have considered innovation to be not only new ideas but also modifications as part of a continuous improvement program. Likewise, Eddleston and Kellermanns (2016) reported that in their study, the entrepreneurs, academics, and policy-makers in Italy had different interpretations of innovation. As a consequence, their behaviours associated with innovation policy-making and innovation practices differed as well. Undoubtedly a firm’s innovativeness, in terms of a firm’s willingness to seek and support creative or novel solutions to problems and needs, is crucial to achieve superior performance.

2.3.4 Risk-Taking

Risk taking is a firm's willingness to tolerate uncertainty, it may involve a firms willingness to seize a venture opportunity even though it has no guarantee or way of knowing if the venture will be successful or not. Risk taking is a defining feature of many family firms because, as with entrepreneurs, it is often associated with those who work for themselves rather than work for someone else for wages (Cantillon *et al.*, 1734). Risk taking is also associated with the risk–return trade-off that is common in financial analysis. Becker *et al.* (1961) argued that risk taking consists of venturing into the unknown, committing a relatively large portion of assets, and borrowing heavily. However, it can be argued that all business ventures involve some degree of risk Miller (1983) since we cannot predict future events, so risk-taking propensity is generally perceived as a continuum from low risk-taking (minimally risky actions) to high risk-taking (highly risky actions) (Knight, 1921). Thus, Miller (1983) concluded that risk taking generally refers to bold actions taken in the face of uncertainty.

There are three main categories of risk that a business will be expose to according to Knight (1921); business risk taking, financial risk taking and personal risk taking:

Business risk taking involves venturing into the unknown without knowing the probability of success. This risk is inherent with entering in untested markets or committing a firm to an unproven technology.

Financial risk taking on the other hand requires that a firm borrows heavily or commit to a large portion of its resources in order to grow. Risk is used in this context to refer to the risk /return ratio prevalent in financial analysis.

Personal risk taking involves the positions an executive assumes in favour of particular strategic decisions that may have an impact on the career of the individual.

Risk taking involves taking chances and it is not gambling as the methods used by companies to strengthen their competitive positions via risk taking includes researching and assessing risk factors to minimize uncertainty and using tried and tested true practices and techniques that have worked in other domains.

The literature differentiates between risk and uncertainty. Risk taking according to Knight (1921) refers to 'a known distribution of probabilities' i.e it's decision-making situations under which all potential outcomes and their likelihood of occurrences are known to the entrepreneur while *uncertainty* refers to 'a distribution of probability but with uncertainty' it is a situation under which either the outcomes and /or their probabilities of occurrences are unknown to the decision-maker.

Doorn *et al.* (2013) characterized entrepreneurial risk as either the potential to act too quickly on an unsubstantiated opportunity, thus "sinking the boat" or the potential to wait too long before acting, thus "missing the boat". They define sinking the boat as the likelihood that a new venture will fail to reach satisfactory performance and missing the boat as the likelihhod that a very attractive opportunity will be overlooked, dismissed, or lost because of competitor preemption or changing markets. Here, likelihood refers to the chance or probability that a new venture will achieve certain outcomes, such as gains or losses. To paraphrase the Doorn *et al.* (2013) analogy, entrepreneurs often launch their boats into the haze of an uncertain market, hoping to wing pioneering advantage (Kandampully, 2006). If the market either fails to congeal or develops around a different solution, then the entrepreneur has sunk the boat. Conversely, another entrepreneur may wait for the haze to lift, hoping for a clearer view of the market needs but in doing so may miss the boat or wind up occupying a follower position after a more risk-seeking competitor has made the first move. While risk by definition, entails some possibility of experiencing a loss of some magnitude Kepner (2004) view of entrepreneurial risk emphasized the likelihood of realizing an undesirable outcome from a particular new venture decision, thereby reflecting the uncertainty element of the Stevenson & Jarillo-Mossi (1990) definition.

However, Entrepreneurs, as well as SME-owners are more likely to operate in a risky environment than in an uncertain environment (Covin & Slevin, 1989). Operating in the former protected economies made it easier to predict the outcome of the decisions made (Khanna *et al.,* 2005). It is within this context that entrepreneurs are reported to take calculated risks when they decide to venture into new investments or markets (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). In situations where entrepreneurs take calculated risks, they collect relevant information that enables them to make informed decisions.

Moreover, Knight (1921) placed great emphasis on the entrepreneur's ability to make decisions under uncertainty. The uncertainty perspective also suggested a normative dimension that entrepreneurs who are willing to take on great uncertainty may deserve windfall profits the rare times they do succeed. The relationship between uncertainty and gain may be linear, or even exponential, where there are bigger payoffs when the un certainty born is greater. The uncertainty-bearing views entrepreneurs as bearers of uncertainty.

Similarly, Eden (2002) argued that successful entrepreneurs are typically not risk takers. Instead they take steps to minimize risks by carefully understanding them. Consequently they avoid focusing on risk and remain focused on opportunity.

Therefore, the investment of resources in the dynamic and competitive environment where factors are continuously changing involves risks. Lyon *et al.* (2000) described risk-taking as a tendency to take bold actions, such as venturing into unknown or new markets, committing a large portion of resources to ventures with uncertain outcomes and/or borrowing heavily for the purpose of investing in uncertain business. Risks can be associated with several factors, such as political instability, unsupportive policy and regulatory environment and information asymmetry, which may impede the realization of a firm's objectives. Shi and Dana, (2013) supporting this argument, pointed out that firms operating in less developed business support services and weak regulatory environments, experience less protection and are often compelled to unethical behaviour, such as corrupt transactions, to legitimatize their business.

Studies have long associated risk-taking with firm performance. Tsang (2002) argued that in a perceived high-risk business environment, few people are willing to attempt new initiatives. Those who are willing to do so are likely to generate more profit, enhancing the firms' growth, if their businesses succeed. One would thus expect a positive relationship between risk-taking and a firms' performance as reported in the developed economies.

2.3.5 Proactiveness

Proactiveness can be described as taking initiative by anticipating and pursuing new opportunities related to future demand and by becoming involved in emerging markets (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). A firm's proactiveness is demonstrated by its awareness of and responsiveness to market signals (Covin & Slevin, 1989; Hughes & Morgan, 2007). According to Rauch *et al.* (2009), proactiveness is "an opportunity-seeking, forward-looking perspective characterized by the introduction of new products and services ahead of the competition and acting in anticipation of future demand". Being a proactive firm may yield first mover advantage, allowing high profits from new products in new markets in the absence of competing products (Frishammar & Andersson, 2009). Kuratko *et al.* (2005) explained that proactiveness involves identifying and evaluating new opportunities, monitoring market trends and exploiting it outrageously. By engaging in these activities, proactive firms are able to introduce new products in the markets ahead of their competitors (Venkatraman, 1989). Hence it is concerned with firms disposition to implement an activity that influences the surrounding. Proactive firms are influencers and agents of change.

This means that a proactive firm may be considered more as a leader than a follower, since it has the will and foresight to seize new opportunities (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). Hughes and Morgan (2007) found that the role of proactiveness in firm performance varies at different stages of firm development. Proactiveness is a critical factor at the embryonic stage of firm growth however, it is less important once a firm is established. Proactiveness enables an emerging young firm to secure its position in its chosen marketplace to ensure longer-term prosperity (Hughes & Morgan, 2007).

According to Venkataraman (1989), the three views of entrepreneurial opportunities are; Opportunity recognition; if both sources of supply and demand exist rather obviously, the opportunity for bringing them together has to be recognized and then the match-up between supply and demand of resources has to be implemented either through as existing firm or a new firm. This notion of opportunity has to do with the exploitation of existing markets. Examples includes arbitrage and franchises.

Opportunity discovery; if only one side exists, that is, demand exists, but supply does not, and vice-versa. Then, the non-existent side has to be discovered before the match-up can be implemented. This notion of opportunity has to do with the exploration of existing and latent markets. Examples include; cure for diseases (demand exists; supply has to be discovered) and applications for new technologies such as the PC (supply exists, demand has to be discovered).

Opportunity creation; if neither supply nor demand exist in an obvious manner, one or both have to be created, and several economic inventions in marketing, financing among others have to be made for the opportunity to come into existence. This notion of opportunity has to do with the creation of new markets.

A review of the entrepreneurship literature suggests that a firm's level of proactiveness is positively related to its ability to collect more information pertinent to resources and opportunities available in an industry. This means that proactive firms are able to scan the environment more thoroughly to recognize and identify opportunities in their external environment. Accordingly, these firms are likely to be more knowledgeable in regards to the acquisition of information and resources than less-proactive firms, and in turn, this characteristic allows them to perform better than their less-proactive counterparts.

2.3.6 Autonomy

Autonomy refers to the ability to make decisions and to proceed with actions independently, without any restrictions from the organization (Lumpkin & Dess 1996). It also reflected the strong desire of a person to have freedom in the development of an idea and in its implementation (Covin & Slevin, 1989 and Miller, 1983). Lumpkin *et al.* (2009) asserted that autonomy can "enable a team (or individual) to not only solve the problems, but to actually define the problem and the goals that will be met in order to solve that problem". Therefore, they suggested that autonomy should exist at the strategic level to achieve a high level of EO Madhoushi *et al.* (2011) and Poutziouris *et al.* (2008) corroborated that autonomy offered by firms would motivate employees to work in a positive manner that could lead to higher firm performance. From reviewing four previous studies using samples from different industries in Australia, Rauch *et al.*

(2007) argued that firms cannot function entrepreneurially without giving autonomy to their employees. According to his findings, autonomy is the most important factor for improving hospitality firm performance across industries. It would appear that giving autonomy to all players in the organization may motivate them to act entrepreneurially, and in turn improve firm performance.

However, giving autonomy to employees is not without its limitations or challenges. For instance, Covin *et al*. (2006) observed that growth-oriented firms are likely to implement a more autocratic or less participative style of top management because autonomy seems not without risk. Gallo *et al*. (2009) found that offering autonomy, in terms of more decentralization of power and more participative leadership, may lead to decreasing innovativeness. This negative effect could be prevented with appropriate counter-strategies, such as conflict avoidance and conflict resolution (Gupta, 2015).

Moreover, Chrisman *et al.* (2013) stated that offering autonomy to employees might lead to desirable outcomes for both employees and firms. For example, providing autonomy to employees might build job satisfaction that in turn will motivate them to work better. Thus, with satisfied and motivated employees, it will not be difficult for firms to achieve a better performance in terms of profitability, market share, sales volume and others. Nonetheless, some researchers have also revealed that autonomy does not always contribute to the positive results for particular companies. In other words, the exercise of autonomy by employees or teams of the firm in some circumstances might hamper the achievement of the firms' goal. For that reason, offering autonomy, in terms of the independent spirit and freedom of action, to a firm's members has to take into account factors such as the firm's leader characteristics and the stages of firm's development. Obviously, autonomy should be applied properly in accordance to firms' policy such that it supports the achievement of the firms' objectives.

2.3.7 Competitive Aggressiveness

According to Lumpkin and Dess (1996), "competitive aggressiveness refers to a firm's propensity to directly and intensely challenge its competitors to achieve entry or improve position, that is, to outperform industry rivals in the marketplace". Firms with this behaviour tend to assume a combative posture towards rivals in an attempt to surpass competitors that threaten its survival or market position in the industry (Lyon *et al.,* 2000).

The terms 'proactiveness' and 'competitive aggressiveness' are often used interchangeably. Lumpkin and Dess (1996) distinguished between them, suggesting that proactiveness reflects a firm's reaction to opportunities in the marketplace, whereas competitive aggressiveness refers to a firm's response to a competitor's challenges. Later, in an empirical study, Lumpkin and Dess (2010) found that proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness were independent dimensions.

A firm's aggressiveness can be implemented through responsive or reactive behaviour. Responsiveness may take the form of head-to-head competition or direct attack on competitors, such as when a firm enters a market where a competitor is already present. In contrast, reactiveness involves a direct reaction to a competitor's action; for example, a firm might slash prices and sacrifice profitability to maintain its market share when a competitor introduces a new product to the chosen market (Mahmood & Hanafi, 2013).

Aggressiveness may lead to firm performance improvement because the focus on out maneuvering and undermining competitors strengthens the firm's competitiveness at the expense of rivals (Massis *et al.,* 2014). Research suggests that competitive moves are likely to play an important role in creating competitive advantage. Being aggressive in competition allows a firm to improve its market position by undermining its competitors. It also enables firms to respond quickly to the competitors' actions that are considered detrimental. This implies that more aggressive and frequent moves are likely to be performance enhancing.

However, they might not be the way SMEs especially in hospitality industry successfully compete. SMEs, which are characterized by limited resources, are unlikely to engage in aggressive and frequent competitive moves which are costly. Besides, aggressive behaviour toward the competition is not always appropriate due to cultural considerations.

2.3.8 Unidimensionality versus multidimensionality of the EO concept

Opinion is divided among researchers about the extent to which EO dimensions need to be present for a firm to be considered entrepreneurial. Miller (1983) suggested that only firms that possess all three dimensions (i.e., innovativeness, risk-taking, proactiveness) to a similar extent should be considered as entrepreneurial. Generally, theorists would not call a firm entrepreneurial if it changed its technology or product line 'innovated' according to our terminology, simply by directly imitating competitors while refusing to take any risks. Some proactiveness would be essential as well. By the same token, risk-taking firms that are highly levered financially are not necessarily considered entrepreneurial. They must also engage in product-market or technological innovation". In other words, Miller (1983) supported by Covin and Slevin (1991) argued that EO dimensions are best viewed as a unidimensional concept.

On the other hand, Lumpkin and Dess (1996) argued that any firm that engages in an effective combination of autonomy, innovativeness, risk-taking, proactiveness, and competitive aggressiveness can be considered as entrepreneurial. This suggests that to become an entrepreneurial firm, it is not necessary for all five dimensions to coexist (Chow, 2006). As EO is a multidimensional concept, the effect of each of its dimensions on firm performance can be observed independently (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996).

Furthermore, in examining the entrepreneurial process, it is beneficial to identify the unique contributions of each sub-dimension of EO such that firms could seek the best combination to improve firm performance (Kreiser *et al.*, 2010). Studies conducted by some scholars (e.g., Hughes & Morgan, 2007; Frishammar & Andersson 2009; Hansen *et al.,* 2011) have supported Lumpkin and Dess argument for the multidimensional nature of EO. Also, Hughes and Morgan (2007) argued that proactiveness and innovativeness were the most important EO dimensions for improving business performance.

Frishammar and Andersson (2009) reported that proactiveness is the only EO dimension to contribute positively to the international performance of Swedish SMEs. Hansen *et al*. (2011) reported that each EO dimension tended to vary independently and some dimensions of EO are responsible for improving firm performance, while other dimensions may have little or even no influence at all. This suggests that the effect of EO dimensions on firm performance varies, possibly depending on different industry contexts, business environment, country or stages in a firm's development.

2.4 Family business

Bouncken *et al.* (2014) stated that a family and a business are two dynamic, evolving, changing organism, both unique, with their own history, challenges, strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. Family businesses are owned by families or groups of related individuals, each with their own mixture of values, history, and emotional relationships. A family business is the interaction of these two dynamic organisms. According Venter *et al.* (2012) awareness of family businesses among the general public is low. People simply cannot distinguish a family company from a “normal” company. According to Lee *et al.* (2019) there are special strengths and weaknesses in family firms. The advantages that distinguishes most family businesses is the unique atmosphere, which has an enhancing common purpose among the whole work force, created by “a sense of belonging”. This intangible factor creates a number of very concrete and positive qualities which can give family business a significant competitive edge. But as well as there are many valuable advantages, family business is exposed to some serious and endemic disadvantages. In the same way that strengths are not unique to family businesses, neither are the weaknesses, but family businesses are vulnerable to these failings. Many of these problems bond on the inherent conflicts that can arise between family and business values.

2.4.1 Family vs. non-family business

The main difference between family and non-family business is obvious, since the former includes key family components, while the latter did not. According to Wang (2008) there are more complex differences in terms of behaviour of their owners, employees, social relationships, among others.

Similarly, Donckels and Fröhlich (2011) made a comprehensive research in 1991, among 1132 small and medium companies in 8 European countries where they observed the following characteristics:

Firstly, family businesses are closed, inside-oriented system, where members are more prone of hiding their secrets and knowledge and therefore preserving family tradition among family members. According to Blackburn *et al*. (2011) family members fear that the incorrect interpretation of the information would undermine the family reputation as well as the attitude of family and business to employees and society whereas most non-family businesses run a relatively open business structure.

Secondly, family entrepreneurs are very versatile, active and flexible, but not prone to taking many risks. Whilst non-family businesses are dynamic and less conservative in taking risk when the odds are in their (Williams *et al*., 2018).

Thirdly, according to Carlock and Ward (2010) family businesses need less social security and economic operation activities. Whereas non-family businesses device innovative measures to win the confidence of the stakeholders.

Fourthly, family businesses are prone to creating good working environment and take better care for the satisfaction of their employees. Non-family businesses are also known to provide competitive environment for the staff to deliver (Wang *et al.,* 2020).

Fifthly, family businesses are less favourable of including their employees into big company decisions and key business issues (Benavides-Velasco *et al.,* 2013). While non-family business de-emphasized bloodlines in favour of ranks, qualification and capacity to deliver in decision making.

Finally, family businesses represent a stabilizer for the general economy because they are less prone to taking big risks, creating profits and expanding. Family businesses favour in certain situations family issues over business ones. Whereas non-family businesses are driven by profit motives at all times. In family businesses, family members have an advantage in securing new employment over outside ones, unlike non-family firms that go for reasons beyond being a family (Madison *et al.,* 2016).

However, there is nothing quite like the entrepreneurial spirit that spark the launch and resilience that spur the growth of a family businesses in Nigeria. As a family grows and changes, the family business must also evolve to accommodate changing family dynamics.

2.4.2 Family members

According to Carlock and Ward (2010) Family members could be any of the following;

The first of the categories is, Neither an employee, nor an owner. They may not be part of the business, but have the opportunity to influence and exert pressure on the family that runs the business. For example, children can criticize their parents for spending too much time on business and very little devotion to them. This presents a problem because it raises feelings of guilt to parents for not finding time for the children and this can affect business decision making. In-laws also may be counted as outsiders, intruders or allies and are usually neglected, ignored and misunderstood. For instance, Berent-Braun & Uhlaner, (2012) described a daughter-in-law as required to support and understand her husband in business activities without a clear understanding of family or business dynamics. It can lead to problems in family or putting her between family confrontations. Sons' in-laws are in the same situations or difficulties. They can be counted as competitors by the wife brothers. Sons in-law, although may not be involved in business, they can exert pressure on families and businesses indirectly through their wives.

Another category is the one that is an employee, but not an owner - These members are active in the business, but do not have an ownership position. For this group, diverse problems may arise such as raising the feeling of inequality when compared to those family members who are not employees, but are business owners. This situation is often manifested with the words: “while I do all the work, others just stick and reap profits.” Or the problem may occur when owners bring decisions without consultation with family members who are employees but not owners (Morris, 1998). This is manifested by the words: “I deal with daily affairs of the company, knowing how decisions will affect the company’s work, while they do not ask me about it at all. Family members who are employees generally expect to be treated differently from employees who are not part of the family.

The third group is an employee and an owner - the members of this group may have the most difficult position in the enterprise. They must manage effectively with all members involved in both of systems, family and business. As owners, they are responsible for the welfare and business continuity, as well as for daily business activities (Rau, 2014). They must deal with the concerns of employees that are family members and for those who are not. This group comprises the founders, as owners and executive directors.

The last of the group involve those that are not employees, but owners. This consists of brothers, sisters and retired relative whose main interest is the income or profit of the business and everything that might jeopardize this can be a problem (Anderson, 2010). For example, while managers or owners wish to implement revolutionary strategies, it may encounter resistance from retired relatives who are concerned primarily about dividend or profit from business. However, it is natural that every family members demonstrate and share a level of commitment to the firm since the core of any family business is a shared business vision and identity.

2.4.3 Non-family members

The non-family, members can be perceived as;

An employee, but not an owner - This group of employees often faces with the issues of nepotism and coalition building as a result of family conflicts caused by daily business activities (Anderson, 2009).

The other group is an employee and an owner.- this group becomes very important since employees may become owners during the succession process (Chaston *et al.*, 2012). In businesses where a successor is selected, partial ownership of the business by its employees can accelerate the cooperation with the new management because employees will be more interested about the benefits and responsibilities of the business (Rau, 2014). In situations where the successor is not selected, a part of the business is likely to be sold to employees who are not part of the family, but who have actively participated in its development (Abuya, 2015). The employees in this case will require to be treated as owners, which may be difficult to detect and accept by some family members.

2.4.4 Family business characteristics

Defining the family business characteristic is important for their distinctiveness. Many authors such as Bradley *et al*. (2011), Chaston and Sadler-Smith (2012) have varying criteria. However, Homburg *et al.* (2014) identified four distinct approaches as: firstly, the rational approach; secondly, the founder approach; thirdly, the phases and stages of growth and the lastly, the systemic approach. This approach was chosen due to its comprehensive focus on family business characteristics.

i. Rational approach

One of the main distinguishing features of family businesses is the fact that feelings rather than logic control the decision-making process. Homburg *et al.* (2014) postulated the company as being the rational arena and its family members as being the emotional.

The family constitutes the core of the business and family members are tied by strong emotional bonds. Due to the fact that family and business are so intertwined by strong ties (Davis, 2002), it is virtually inevitable that emotions pass beyond the family boundaries and reach the business (Homburg *et al.,* 2014). There have been other studies that tried to attain a deeper understanding of the emotional ties that involve family members and business, as those of (Zellweger *et al.,* 2013) who tried to examine how much the family owners valued subjectively their business.

ii. Focus on the founder

This second distinct approach by Dana *et al.* (2015) considered that the founder's personality and style can help to predict obstacles in the transition process that the company may have to surmount. Normally the founder brings tendencies, values and rules to his/her management, which actually are the results of his/her experiences and personal life history.

Thus, the style of the founder does influence the operational culture of the company, affecting its development and the way it reacts to changes. The founder usually assumes multiple roles while the business grows, and involves him/herself personally, intervening at all organizational levels (Homburg *et al.,* 2014). The difficulties begin to emerge when the company grows and it needs a more professional management, requiring more planning, delegation and possible habitual inflexible nature of the founder manifest. New hiring practices, evaluation and promotion of personnel and management development must be implemented to allow the company to outlive its founder.

In many cases the resistance of founders to hiring professional executives, or even to passing the business over to their successors stems from the concern to protect their legacy. Thus, even if unconsciously, it is common for them to adopt a manner of speech that tends to underestimate the ability of their successors. According to Kiyabo and Isaga (2020), this would be a way that founders show themselves to be crucial to the survival of the business, and putting off their retirement as long as possible.

iii. Phases and stages of growth

This is another important family business characteristics that seeks to identify alternating periods of stability and transition that occur in response to changes and needs of the company, the family and the employees, members or not of the family. Homburg *et al.* (2014) identified three management standards that correspond to three different generations of the founding family. The first area is characterized by paternal and entrepreneurial management - typically a company's first generation. The second pattern occurs in the second generation companies characterized by a brother-like management. And finally, the third pattern is where collective management or family network prevails, run by brothers, cousins and other members of the third generation of the founding family. Thus, family hospitality firms would remain stable because of the ideology despite the generational changes in management.

iv. Systemic approach

Homburg *et al.* (2014) showed that from the beginning of the 1980s, the area of family business studies has come to recognize the importance of theories based on a systemic view for understanding the complex universe of these companies. The school of thought developed within this perspective have contributed significantly to broaden the perception of family businesses as highly complex system, developing a deeper understanding of the interaction between the family and business.

However, Kiyabo and Isaga (2020) summarized that some authors see family issues as elements external to the business, while others understand them as interlinked systems: two sub-units, family and business, which together comprise the family business system. In addition, the fact is that family processes and business processes are in a relationship of interdependency and interactivity. Therefore, the key to the success of family businesses is not individually working family and business systems, but understanding this interdependence and effectively managing their superposition to avoid potential conflicts.

2.4.5 The Interrelationship of the FB system

Tagiuri and Davis (2006) proposed a referential framework to represent such interactions based on a three-circle model that represents three independent but overlapping subsystems: business, ownership, and family. An individual who is part of the family company system can position himself in each one of the seven subdivisions that are formed by the overlapping circles of the subsystems, as presented in Figure 2.1.

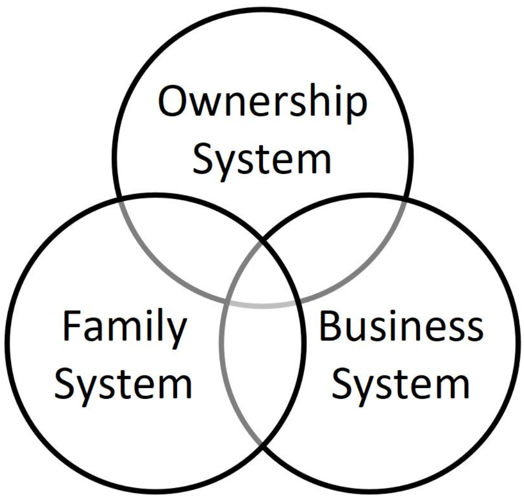

Fig 2.1: Three-circle-model

Source: Tagiuri and Davis (2006)

In this model, these ‘three subsystems are taken into account to explain how individuals in family business make decisions or develop strategies that fulfill the goals of each subsystem and the whole family business (Poutziouris, 2008).

Along this line of reasoning, Madison *et al.* (2016) explained the idea of a joint system, which operates according to the practices built up from the needs on each side, family and business, to meet the needs of the whole. In this sense, Tagiuri and Davis (2006) found empirically that family businesses that consider the family and the business as parts of a whole system have better results when compared to those that seek to limit the governance only to the business area. This possibility of linkage between business and family was earlier crafted by Berent-Braun and Uhlaner (2012) who proposed mechanisms of articulation between the business and family, for example, a board of directors. Davis (2002) addressed the need for creating processes and social structures that can deal with family problems in a proper context, separating them from the business issues. As Naldi *et al.* (2013) pointed out, that such structures do not have a defined format, since they are not required by law, but that the forum seen to be more common in family-owned firms is the family council, which consists of a group of family members that periodically meets to discuss the family relationship with the business, among other things.

2.4.6 Forms of FB ownership

Family business is not just an entity but can be categorized into four different groups such as domestic, traditional, enlarged and open as can be seen in fig. 2.2.

According to Moreno and Casillas (2008), the taxonomic classification of family businesses by grouping them into three specific family business models are:

(a) – The model of ownership, which can belong to either one or two people, whether or not they are the founder’s heirs.

(b) – The presence of family members on the board of directors and in the management bodies of the firm that reflects the diversity of interactions between family members and business, depending on the involvement of family or nonfamily members.

© – The size of the business - a model that reflects the heterogeneous organizational structure.

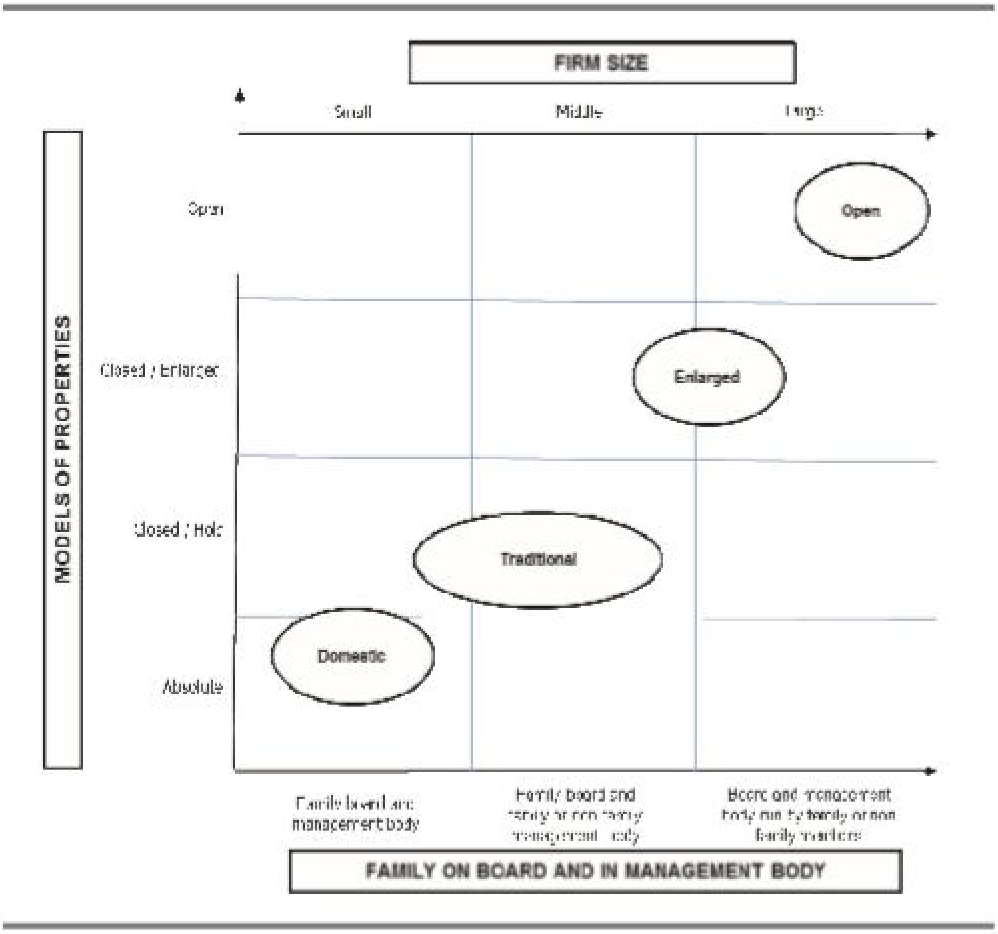

Fig 2.2 Forms of Family Business Ownership

Source: Salvato, (2014).

By crossing these model, Naldi *et al.* (2013) reported that four forms of family business ownership emerged: Domestic family-type business; Traditional family-type business; Enlarged family-type business; Open family-type business.

2.4.7 Domestic family business

A domestic family business is run by a single and absolute owner, the owner-founder or founder-entrepreneur. By and large, these types of family businesses display a strong overlap between ownership and management. Accordingly, they are characterized by a paternalistic leadership style precisely because they are directly run by one single owner who behaves just like a paterfamilias (Naldi *et al.,* 2013). The firms are usually very small and have a very simple organizational structure. The elements that qualify them as domestic businesses, namely, the small size and strong ownership structure, do indeed favor the establishment of an authoritarian and highly centralized governance. The dynamics and governing structures of a domestic family business are very simple, as the development processes and decision power are in the hands of one single person rather than in large management groups. Consequently, the management body, if present, is composed solely of family members and of very few outside collaborators. Likewise, the staff is made up of family members and of very few nonfamily employees. Hence, the domestic family entrepreneur professionally runs the entire business on his/her own, taking on all the responsibilities and risks related to his/her leadership and management (Schendel & Hitt, 2007).

The success of a domestic family hospitality business depends on its ability to adapt quickly to changes, thanks to its extremely flexible organizational and decision-making context. One of the advantages of this type of family businesses is indeed the fast decision-making process. Being exercised by one single person or by very few family partners, that are able to respond quickly and effectively to the ever-changing market demands (Carlock & Ward, 2010). Furthermore, because in this case, the main target is the hotel firms, owners can easily establish closer relationships with their customers, thereby becoming more competitive than larger businesses. Thus, some domestic family hospitality businesses may not actually demonstrate serious entrepreneurial orientation that can withstand competition, due to weak strategy adoptions.

However, being very small businesses, they do not have substantial assets nor the ability to attract highly qualified employees. Their main financial assets derive from private equity or from debt capital. Consequently, the family members receive most of the business earnings. The invested capitals often constitute a relevant share of the family's financial assets. The remaining part is hardly ever invested but in low risk activities. There exists, therefore, an almost total overlap between the business and the family which oftentimes causes non-transparent economic practices. According to Siebels and Knyphausen-Aufseb (2012) some of these practices include compensations for family employees whose remuneration policies and procedures hardly ever comply with market conditions.

2.4.8 Traditional family business

The traditional family business is based on a very controlled ownership model. This means that the ownership of the business is concentrated in the hands of one person or very few people. In these types of businesses, the family directly partakes in the managerial processes. According to Rosa *et al.* (2014) the business, which ranges from small to medium sized companies, is typically handed down from the founder to the subsequent generations. Its actual growth is influenced by the behavior of the entrepreneur-owner, or by the authoritarian owner, depending on his/ her entrepreneur-owners skills. Unlike the entrepreneur-owners of domestic family business, the entrepreneur managers of traditional family businesses are more inclined to delegate other family stakeholders, thereby rendering their behavioral patterns less extreme. Interestingly, the entrepreneur/owner's self-realization, desire for independence, and motivation for success are intertwined with the motivations for success, accomplishment, and strong willingness to participate in the growth and development of the family hospitality business of the shareholders, if present.

It is indeed in these types of businesses that the roles of ownership and control most often overlap. In particular, this overlap leads to the establishment of governing bodies completely controlled by the family members, who, regardless of their formal roles, hold crucial positions in governance practices. In fact, in these firms, according to Rau (2014), it is possible to find governing bodies such as Family Board, Family Assembly, and Family Agreements. Furthermore, it is also possible that preliminary decisions may be discussed at unofficial meetings known as Family Council - which summon almost all family members. In such cases, the Family Assembly is called upon to ratify the decisions previously discussed and approved by the Family Council.

According to Rau (2014) the Board of Directors is mainly composed of family members. They therefore determine all the dynamics and the relations between the firm and the business. In the event of unresolved conflicts between family members, external collaborators may be hired to mitigate the unresolved conflicts. Their other roles include offering family members experience-based advice and expertise not present within the family circle. This is often the case, for instance, when the family business is run by a manager lacking skills in specific areas and therefore needing qualified advice and assistance from external collaborators. In short, the Board of Directors plays a pivotal role in balancing the power of the entrepreneur-owner by keeping under check any form of authoritarian leadership (Penney & Combs, 2013). In the event that these were to happen, family members resort to the support of external components of the Board of Directors so as to tramp down the leadership and the power of the entrepreneur owner. In practice, just as it happens in large businesses, independent administrators play intermediary roles between minor and major shareholders.

Nevertheless, given the strongly centralized control, traditional family businesses do not leave much room for a more democratic form of decision-making process, even when the ownership system is extended to nonfamily members. In effect, the reason why family-run businesses decide to resort to external nonfamily members is to obtain investment (James, 2016).

Once this objective has been reached, the family often regains its shares. An example of such phenomenon is the types of agreements between financial institutions and family businesses. In such cases, a bank may agree to finance the traditional family business in exchange for quota shares and board appointments. Subsequently, once the family pay back the loan, it buys back its shares and restores its board of directors to its original configuration. Concerning nonfamily collaborators, it often happens that when a company is run by a single owner, a trust-based collaboration ensues between him/her and his/her collaborator (Carlock & Ward, 2010). As single collaborators move from administrative positions to much higher and challenging ones, they begin to be perceived as true family members, thereby enjoying the confidence of the entire property.

Actually, nonfamily collaborators play a rather vague professional role within the traditional family business. A case in point is when the owner manager, being unable to delegate his/her powers, prefers to entrust his/her powers in the hands of a trustee who will act as his/her alter ego. According to Nordqvist *et al.* (2014) traditional family businesses, which operate both at the local and international levels, have generally a medium competitive intensity. Interestingly, diversification is not their market strategy, as their competitive strength hinges on their specialized manufacturing.

During the growing and evolving stages of the business, families may not have sufficient financial resources to follow through with their projects and may therefore have to open their share capital to new shareholders. Undoubtedly, this poses additional issues for the entrepreneur founder, or family partners, to maintain the control of the company. Therefore, the family resorts to legal forms to reduce the risk of hostile takeovers (e.g. cooperative associations or limited partnership), including agreements on voting rights in family assemblies, and the use of statutory provisions that limit the selling of shares or guarantee preemptive rights.

2.4.9 Enlarged family business

As the name suggests, the extended family business is characterized by an extended proprietorship model, that is, the ownership of the capital is divided between more than 5-6 family members, including nonfamily members, if present. Whereas the size of the organizational structure is in between a traditional and an open business, the actual physical size ranges between medium and medium-large sized firms (Nava & Lavee, 2012). Most of these businesses are either of second generation if they derive from more than one family, or of third generation if they derive from a single family.

The peculiar organizational structure determines how the owner will exercise his/her decision-making power (Penney & Combs, 2013). For example, in some cases, the family exercises both ownership and control in other cases owners dilute their ownership among different individuals while continuing to hold the highest percentage of shares. In another model, the business is run by both family members and outside professional managers. This latter model seems to operate at its best when the organizational structure is characterized by a net separation of competences. In these cases, the family members deal with all the technical competences related to the core business, whereas the hired managers deal with the technical, managerial, and marketing issues. The advantage of such hybrid system is that it creates a balanced relationship between the entrepreneurial culture and the managerial culture. In effect, the creative-intuitive behavior of entrepreneurs works in tandem with the more rational and planned behavior of managers, a strategic synergy that ensures the success of the firm. Overall, under these circumstances, the extended family business undergoes a managerialization process while continuing to maintain its decision-making power, most of the times held by the founder and his/her successors.

The governing bodies are composed of a much higher number of family members, compared to traditional firms. This gives rise to a differentiation of family roles some have a proprietorship role, others cover governing roles, and others manage to cover both ownership and control (Naldi *et al*., 2013). However, this type of ownership and control may cause generational drift and cool off of family shareholders. Generational drift of family ownership refers to the gradual increase in the number of family members involved in the business. To keep intergenerational conflicts under check, the family implements the so-called Family Agreements (Nordqvist *et al.,* 2014). The purpose of these agreements is indeed to regulate ownership succession and/or the transfer of share capital to only one or more heirs. Cool off of family shareholders refers to a substantial dampening of emotional ties or affinities among the governing family members as the business is passed down from one generation to the next (Nordqvist, *et* *al.*, 2011). The negative result of such phenomenon is the attenuation of business identity.

However, besides the higher number of family members and, particularly of nonfamily members involved in ownership, various other aspects render extended family businesses different from the more traditional ones. For instance, the Board of directors is much more structurally articulate and complex and always includes collaborators outside of the family circle. Therefore, the overall governing body is generally more complex owing to the presence of professional managers and independent administrators. Similarly, the board of statutory auditors is in itself another novelty as it is made up of independent collaborators/consultants, who are generally appointed by the minorities. The overall outcome of these dimensions is the formalization of organizational structures, i.e., the creation of an articulate business structure capable of integrating and of aligning governance with the business strategies. The decision-making process that external managers are asked to undertake is aimed at obtaining the consensus of all the major shareholders (family owners) and of other investors (bank systems).

2.4.10 Open family business

In the open family business, which generally includes medium to large sized companies, the family preserves the control of the company but hands over the ownership to a non-descendant. The Board of Directors and the governing bodies comprise both family and nonfamily members. In particular, the involvement of nonfamily members allows the family members to sustain higher growth rates than those financeable with their own share increase.

From an ownership perspective, this type of family business is characterized by a "non anonymous" ownership, very often belonging to the family circle, that persists even when it is extended (Nordqvist *et al.,* 2011). Consequently, the forms of control exercised by the economic actors are adapted against the increasing complexity of the organizational structure. In particular, extending the share capital to nonfamily partners can bring about conflicts between family and nonfamily partners. One potential consequence is the family's partial loss of independent decision-making power. Indeed, under such circumstances, the family may decide to abandon such managerial model and adopt one that would guarantee major transparency, as required by the new shareholders. The following three examples according to Penney and Combs (2013) will better explain this process:

(a) to abandon policies that would engender tensions and conflicts between family members and business (e.g., employment and remuneration policies that would privilege family members only;

(b) to form governing bodies in which nonfamily members would have equal representation;

(c) to adopt transparent and efficient procedures that would enable nonfamily members to be constantly informed on the company's financial outcomes.

Therefore, in order not to lose the control over governance, the family ownership is handed over to external entities, including foreign entities or trust. This explains why open family businesses, to better deal with growth, resort to group-based organizational structures (Penney & Combs, 2013). In this way, they can keep ownership separate from management, as it happens in large corporations in which such separation occurs through managerialization. Accordingly, in some open family businesses, one finds forms of family control in which ownership rights are strongly held by the family thanks to control holdings. Indeed, these holdings control numerous industrial and commercial subsidiaries and handle all business fiscal operations, thereby facilitating the mechanisms of succession (Zainol, 2013).

This peculiar form of governance allows open family businesses to grow without having to undergo a complete managerialization, as it commonly happens in large Anglo-Saxon corporations. Therefore, the handing over of power from individuals to corporate groups, typical of public companies, translates into a dominant coalition that is fully controlled by the family. Under such circumstances, governance faces a very challenging negotiation process not only between ownership and management, but also within the highly complex family and nonfamily ownership systems (Naldi *et al.,* 2013). The latter is made up of multiple nonfamily shareholders most of whom are driven by speculative interests to increase share prices, or rather, by achieving a higher retribution of profits through allocation of residual rights.

As opposed to open firms, Bature and Hin (2017) stated that the organizational structure is less complex for a number of reasons including shortened hierarchies, a well-balanced assignment of responsibilities even among members at the intermediate organizational levels, flexible coordination and finally, a cohesive and fully embraced business culture. Extended family businesses are akin to open businesses in that they too operate on a wide market, even at international levels, and have an organizational system made of more articulate government bodies and coordination mechanisms. Despite these similarities with open firms, extended family-run businesses do preserve some aspects of traditional family businesses Penney and Combs (2013), among which the importance of the family's control over governing activities.

The negative perspective of this open type of organizational structure is that tensions and conflicts often arise between the controlling family coalition and the nonfamily shareholders, most of whom are anonymous and minority shareholders. This is why it is paramount for open family businesses to regulate ownership rights between family and nonfamily members by means of efficient contract agreements. Simply put, in cases where the ownership structure is highly fragmented, the speculative interests and profit-oriented objectives will lead to a managerial organizational structure (Nordqvist *et al*., 2014). By contrast, in cases where family ownership is preserved, speculation will be overrun by the family's strong desire to ensure the long-term survival of the company.

2.4.11 Family business categorization based on complexity.

There are six categories of family businesses according to Gimeno *et al*. (2010), complexity and the degree of structure development. They are captain, emperor, family team, professional family, corporation and family investment group. These categories are hereby discussed;

a. *Captain model*;- This model is most commonly found in enterprises ranging from micro to medium in size. The average age of these businesses is 28 years old. In these enterprises, the complexity of family and business is low. Entrepreneurs of these businesses share the ownership with other family members, typically first with spouses or siblings, and later with children. These are so called "founders' businesses" and result from the commitment of one person, usually lasting as long as that person has the authority, interest and energy to lead the business (Zainol, 2013).

b. *Emperor model:*- Family and business complexity in this model is high. The complexity follows the passing of time. There are two generations working together, but the leading power is in the hands of a person who leads the family and business in the same time. In this model, shares may be owned by several family members from different generations. Average number of shareholders is 5. The success or failure of the family business depends largely on the skills of a person with primary discretion over the enterprise.

The explanation of the names of the first two models is as follows: a captain is someone who owns a simple unit, and an emperor is someone who has power over a wide range of social systems. The difference in complexity between the captain and the emperor models is as result of two factors: the time and resources of family leader. Through the years family complexity increases and at the same time the complexity of the business becomes higher as it grows. Above all, they are differentiated by the resources of the leader that could be employed for innovativeness. According to Gimeno *et al.* (2010), on average level, the "emperor" has more competence as a manager and is more growth-oriented than the "captain."

Table 2.5 Characteristics of family business categories

Model	Characteristics
Captain	Enterprise managed by the founder
Emperor	Business and family united by a leader
Family team	Extended family working in a small business
Professional family	Few family members are engaged in professional management of a complex business
Corporation	Complex family managing complex business
Family investment group	Families with different complexities jointly invest

Source: Gimeno *et al.* (2010)

c. *Family team model:-* In this model of family business, family complexity is higher than the complexity of the business, while the average number of shareholders is relatively high (5-6 shareholders). Disorders that may arise as a result of the complexity of family seem to be limited because some restrictions are usually in place at this point that apply to family members entering the business—only 36 % of shareholders are engaged in work. But, these restrictions can also be spontaneous as the small size of the firm may force other family members to look for their professional development out the family business. In the future, family complexity can be increased significantly (number of shareholders can be increased to 48 %, respectively to 9.5 shareholders) (Gimeno *et al.,* 2010). This can lead to a dangerous situation for the business, since an existing structure may be faced with the difficulty to absorb this level of complexity. Further development of the structure would be a valid solution, but it can bring a level of resource consumption that may not be obtainable (due to time of leaders, economic resources spent on consultancy, government bodies, among others). In order to avoid high-risk situations in this model, there are two alternatives for the future: (1) to encourage development creating adequate capacity, and (2) to reduce the number of owners.

d. *Professional family model:-* This model is opposite to the previous one. Complexity of the business here is significantly higher than the complexity of the family. Businesses of this type are characterized by a high level of growth and development. Growth and development have come from a less personalized structure than the one that typified the first generation leadership. The family continues involvement in management. In this model there may be a number of family members in managerial positions for instance, an average of 3, but they behave in a professional manner (Bature & Hin, 2017). Family members are oriented towards business operations, possessing a high level of sophistication in management and overall structure.

`e. *Corporation model;-* This model is among the most developed models—in several dimensions. It is characterized by higher complexity, both as a family and as a business, and it is the model with the highest average age (61 years) and highest level of structure development (Donaldson, 2011). The presence of family members in top management in some cases is 'circumstantial', such businesses, which are managed by family members, can easily evolve into businesses managed by non-family members. Meanwhile, such families business may have been listed perhaps for shareholders subscriptions.

f. *Family investment group*:- In such a model, the family should have a large economic surplus. In this model the family realizes joint investment, but does not take over the management of business, and the relationship between the family and its investment should be different from the family-business relationship (Duran-Encalada, 2012).

Conclusively, family investment group model becomes the convenient choice when the family does not want or undecided on any of the models previously described, and decides to sell the business, generating the economic surplus. Then the family decides on how to use the sales proceeds. Above all, the choice of the model to adopt depends on business type and phase.

2.4.12 Participants in the family business

Participants in a family business can be generally divided into two groups: family members and non-family members. However, Sharma (2014) shared them into internal and external family business members. Internal members are those who are involved with the business, such as employees, owners and/or family members. External members are those who are not linked to the family business, whether through employment, ownership or family membership. Also, Venter *et al.* (2012) categorized participants in family business into four groups: non-family members (includes non-family employees, outside professionals, experts, consultants, advisors, who offer expertise and skills, as part of the management team and assist in strategic business decisions.

Inactive family members includes members who do interfere in the business decision making or disagreements, the senior generation which (includes parents who willingly delegate authority, share important information related to the business and resign control, but ensures their financial protection after retirement) and the incumbent generation which includes children as active family members being able to realize their personal ambitions and satisfy their career needs in the context of the family business). Each participant has personal approaches and ways of thinking and abilities to put pressure on business and family (Donckels & Frohlich, 2011).

2.4.13 Family business culture

Culture represents a way of thinking and understanding during a process of judgment, evaluation and obedience. It is a way of dealing with others. Culture refers to the set of values that are shared by people in a group and have a tendency to continue over time even when group membership changes (Duh & Belak, 2009).

To understand and manage the opportunities inherent in family business cultures is not easy, and it is not often done in family firms, but it is essential for leaders who wish to ensure the continuity of their businesses and the well-being of their families. Family business cultures are categorized differently from different authors. For example, Kimberly (2009) identified these types of family business cultures: an avoidance culture (an insidious sense of ineffectiveness), charismatic culture (everything depends and goes around the leader), paranoid culture (a persecutory subject matter), bureaucratic culture (very rigid and depersonalized), politicized culture (leadership responsibility is relinquished). Hofstede (1998) classified cultures by comparing the degree of individualism versus collectivism, the tendency towards uncertainty avoidance, the bias between masculinity and femininity and the apparent power-distance metric. Dyer (1998) identified these cultures: paternalistic culture, laissez-faire culture, participative culture and professional culture, which are presented in Table 2.6 and described below.

Table 2.6 Characteristics of family culture types

	Paternalistic	**Laissez-faire**	**Participative**	**Professional**
Nature of relationships	Lineal (hierarchical)	Linear	Collateral (group orientation)	Individualistic
Nature of human	People are basically untrustworthy	People are good and trustworthy	People are good and trustworthy	People are neither good nor evil
Nature of the truth	Truth resides in the founder family	Truth resides in the founder/family although outsiders are given autonomy	Truth is found in group decision making/ participation	Truth is found in professional rules of conduct
Orientation towards environment	Proactive stance	Harmonizing/proactive stance	Harmonizing/ proactive stance	Reactive/proactive stance
Universalism/ particularism	Particularistic	Particularistic	Universalistic	Universalistic
Nature of human activity	Doing orientation	Doing orientation	Being-in becoming orientation	Doing orientation
Time	Present or past orientation	Present or past orientation	Present or future orientation	Present orientation

Source: Dyer (1998).

Paternalistic culture: This type of culture is encountered most often in family businesses where a family has a control of about 80% of the enterprise (Dyer, 2003). In paternalistic cultures, according to Dyer and Whetten (2016) relations between family members are placed in hierarchical order. The leader, who is a member of the family, has full authority and power to make decisions. For this type of culture, the family members do not defer so much from external members. Employees have a duty to perform the tasks they receive from family. Paternalistic enterprises are oriented to the past and present.

Laissez-faire culture: This type of culture is quite similar to the paternalistic one. Laissez-faire culture relations are placed hierarchically, while employees should only realize the goals of the family business. Unlike the first one, at this type of culture, owners have a dose of confidence at employees and give them some freedom in making decisions (Hamid, 2013).

Participative culture: This kind of culture is rarely used in family businesses. According to Sharpe (2014), it is found only in four cases from the total number of businesses surveyed. At the participative culture, relations are equally placed and have a group orientation, while family status and power claim not to be highlighted. Family trusts in the employees and gives opportunity to show their talent. The orientation of this type of culture is toward the present and future.

Professional culture: Professional culture enables business management to be transferred to professional managers, who are not family members. Relations are individualistic, which means that employees focus towards individual achievements. Professional managers have impersonal attitude toward employees, who are evaluated based on their ability to contribute to the growth of company profits (Dyer & Whetten, 2016). Family businesses that adopt this culture might be more innovative, resourceful, high tendency to be autonomous as a result of their orientation with a great level of risk taking

2.4.14 Governance structure of the family business

The family is often characterized by multiple generations and multiple family branches. The family governance system includes intra-group and inter-group elements. Intra-group elements refer to the governance of relationships and decision-making within the family. Inter-group elements refer to the relation between the family and the other family enterprise entities such as the family business, the family office and the family foundation (Donaldson, 2011). As time passes and more generations are added, there is less interaction among family members, a decline in common experiences and decreasing similarity. Unless steps are taken to hold family members together, they will tend to grow apart, thereby making the preservation of family norms, culture and legacy challenging (Berent-Braun & Uhlaner, 2012). The multi-generation, multi-branch family often has multiple objectives, including: ensuring sustainability and prosperity of the family business; enabling family harmony and happiness among future generations; sustaining the family brand; maintaining control of the family business; managing succession of ownership, control and management; and mitigating family conflicts to maintain unity. To allow the family to realize these objectives, a customized family governance system, developed by the family and tailored to the context of the family, is needed. According to Berent-Braun and Uhlaner (2012) the family governance system needs to be crafted so as to: enable coordinated decision-making about common assets and their management; enable orderly succession in ownership, management and control; minimize interpersonal conflict within the family; enable family harmony and happiness in future generations; preserve and enhance family wealth; ensure sustainability and prosperity of the family business; enable long-term estate planning

2.4.15 Element of governance structure

The main elements of a multi-generational, multi-branch family governance structure according to Carlock and Ward (2010) include; the family constitution, family council, family assembly and family meeting or committee.

Table 2.7 Family Governance Institutions

	Family Meeting	Family Assembly	Family Council	Familty constitution
Stage	Founder	Sibling partnership/ cousin confederation	Sibling partnership/ cousin confederation	Sibling partnership/ cousin confederation
Status	Usually informal	Formal	Formal	Formal
Membership	Usually open to all family members. Additional membership criteria might be set by the founder	Usually open to all family members. Additional membership criteria might be set by the family	Members elected by the family assembly. Selection criteria defined by the family	As stipulated by the family constitution.
Size	Small size since family still at founder stage. Usually 6–12 family members	Depends on the size of the family and membership criteria	Depends on criteria set up for the membership. Ideally 6–12 members	Depends on criteria set up for the membership in the constitution
Number of meetings	Depends on the stage of the business' development. When business is growing rapidly, can be as frequent as once a week	1-2 times a year	2-6 times a year	In any manner prescribed in the constitution
Main Activities	1-Communication of family values and vision 2-Discussion and generation of new business ideas	1-Discussion & communication of ideas, disagreements, and vision	1-Conflict resolution	It is the law book the regulate and prescribe the operations and activities of FB stakeholders.
	3-Preparation of the next generation of business leaders	2-Approval of major family related policies and procedures	2- Development of the major family-related policies and procedures 3-Planning	It codifies the values and vision of the founder
		3-Education of family members on business issues	4-Education	it states the ownership and succession plans of the FB
		4-Election of family council and other committees' member	5-Coordination of the work with management and the board and balancing the business and the family.	

Source: IFC Family Business Governance Handbook (2018).

Family Constitution: A morally binding document, according to Salvato (2014) it contains rules and regulations about coordinating decision-making among family members. It generally contains information about the family mission, code of conduct, history, values, beliefs and norms, as well as the family's mechanisms for conflict management and succession, its institutions including business institutions, and its employment, liquidity and exit policies.

Family Council: A forum of certain family members elected or appointed by the family, it is responsible for coordinating family decision-making and managing family affairs (Dyer and Whetten 2016).

Family Assembly: A forum of all family members dedicated to preserving the family's heritage, culture, norms and traditions, it also discusses family affairs.

Family meeting/Committees: Groups of elected or appointed family members, they are responsible for specific aspects of family life, such as education of family members and family philanthropy. This committee is usually raised from family meetings (Frank *et al.,* 2010).

The table 2.7 governance structure emerges over time as the family grows beyond the first generation. The development of the formal governance structure is often visible in the second or third generation. Yet, the specific institutions depend on whether the family continues to own, control or manage in later generations the business or businesses founded by the first generation (Frank, 2016). In instances where the business is sold and family members share interests in common financial assets, a single family office, which includes a private asset-management organization, may be developed. The specific structure of the investment vehicles depends on a broad range of factors including estate plans and tax considerations.

Broader environmental factors and societal trends also affect the evolution of family governance. Since 1970, families in Western societies have been changing, following two main patterns: increased individualism and increased democratization (Armstrong *et al.,* 2010). An analysis of the evolution of family governance among 50 Australian family firms found that these two trends threaten the stability and continuity of the family. Families have been attempting to counter these trends by developing governance policies such as a family code of conduct, along with governance institutions and traditions that facilitate communication and negotiation, including family councils, family assemblies, family meetings and family retreats.

Finally, the family governance structure is likely to have an impact on the family firm governance. Survey from 192 family firms in Finland by Blackburn *et al*. (2011) showed that the variety of family institutions is positively related to the degree of social interaction among family members, defined as the intensity of social ties among family members. Moreover, social interaction increases shared vision, and shared vision improves decision-making in the family business innovation and skills (Calzada *et al*., 2015). Therefore, ultimately, the implementation of family governance institutions has a positive effect on the decision-making process in the family firm.

2.4.16 Reasons for establishing family business

Different reasons have been adduced by family business owners for going into business. Some of such reasons according to Wales (2016) are as follows:

The first reason is need for investment: Some people may have inherited fortunes from their family or from the sale of family properties other may be looking for a way to invest their life savings or retirement benefit. One of the ways to make such an investment is to establish family businesses. Such investment could be passed to the next generation as a family heritage (Frank, 2016). *The second is crave for independence:* Some people are averse to working for people or working under a boss. So family business offers an escape route where someone will be a boss of his own. *The third is to realize entrepreneurial ambition:* There are people who are nursing the ambition of being successful entrepreneurs. What other easier way is there to try it out than to establish a FB. Fourthly, *Bandwagon Effect:* The stories of successful family businesses are bound and many people are going into businesses regularly with the hope of being like others. So for fear of being left out of the list of those that own and run a family business, people may establish their own businesses to emulate neighbours or friends who are successful business moguls. *Fifthly, improvement of Standard of living:* FB offers the opportunity of moving out of poverty and improvement in the standard of living if managed properly with a regular stream of income it promises (Wales, 2016). *Finally, wealth creation*: Wealth can be created by going into businesses that is family owned and managed. A lot of families have grown out of poverty by creating enormous wealth by indulging in the family business and this could be a genuine reason to go into it.

2.4.17 Benefits and drawbacks of family businesses

Family business like any life venture is a complex organization with its unique characteristics and therefore has not only advantages but also disadvantages (Frank, 2016). It is like a two edges word, benefits and draw back. Such benefits include;

Commitment to Family and Business: Members of family who are actively involved in business are often highly committed to the organization because it represents something that they (and the family) created pet. They are willing to put much more time and effort compared to employees of non-family businesses. This phenomenon has a positive effect to other (non-family) employees since they feel like being part of a team and therefore contribute more (Frank *et al.*, 2010).

Flexibility of Time, Working Hours and Money: Family members are not concerned about working hours, but they work when there is work to be done, even though this sometimes means 15+ hours some days. They are also not concerned about having salaries the same day every month, for they usually pay their salaries when they have enough money to do so (Martin & Lumpkin, 2013). Thus, the concern is more about the success rather than immediate gains. The future offers entrepreneurial benefit that is higher than salaries.

Quick Decision Making; Family businesses usually do not follow high protocols, but make decisions quite quickly (Frank, 2010). It is very clear that crucial decisions in family businesses are usually taken by the founder and owner of the company. For companies, that have divided ownership and management, it is much harder and time consuming process to take decisions. They spent too much time on meetings and internal discussions. However, quick decision making can be a crucial advantage in today's fast economy.

Transfer of Knowledge from One Generation to Another; According to Neubauer and Lank (2007) majority of family business owners would like that their children continue working for the company and preserve the tradition. Founder of the business is usually very proud of the company he or she established, and puts more time and effort in it. Founder is usually more willing to transfer the knowledge, management and ownership to his or her children, or at least blood relatives (Wales, 2016).

Reliability and Pride; Management of family companies is not changing very often, making reliability and pride very important factors. This gives potential partners sense of security and trust. In practice Frank (2010) indicated that this usually means that positions within the company are more or less filled with the same people. Thus, customers and other business partners communicate with the same employees, which in long-term means better relationships that can consequently lead to friendship and higher productivity.

2.4.18 Drawbacks of family business

Family business is quite rosy but not void of its challenges. Among such are;

Firstly, *emotional aspects in making business decisions.* When facing hard business decisions which could jeopardize family relationships, family members are more prone to act in the benefit of the family, rather than the business. However, Jiménez-Jimenez *et al.* (2008) stated that this is mainly due to emotional aspect in decision making. Amongst majority of family businesses, term "family" comes before term "business", and therefore priorities are ranked as such.

Secondly, Navigating Business and Family Life. Since family business is usually big part of ones private life, these two sometimes crash between each other (Duh & Belak, 2009). When family owns a business, this occupies their whole life and they forget about their family duties towards their spouses and children.

Thirdly, Nepotism. Duh & Belak, (2009) affirmed that entrepreneurs usually put their families before company and therefore sometimes employ under-qualified family members, rather than non-family ones with higher education and expertise. These can cause disputes amongst other employees and motivation for work can drop. Dissatisfaction can be caused also when family members, expect the same commitment to the family business, from other employees, as they have. This system can work only if employees are suitably awarded for the extra work.

Fourthly, Rigidity Family business owners are also faced with fear of big changes and therefore stick to already established way of managing business. As Frank, (2010) indicated, they associate innovation and novelties with risk taking and are afraid to ruin something they have put so much time and effort in the past. Furthermore this can have a huge negative impact on growth and development of family business.

Fifthly, Succession to Next Generation. Family business entrepreneurs wish that, their company remains in the family and therefore need a suitable successor (Duh & Belak, 2009). This is a complicated process since not all children are willing to take over such heritage. Also when there are more possible successors it is hard to choose just one and divide roles in the company fairly. Therefore many founders postpone this decision and/or are included in the business even when the transition is officially over and remain as unofficial managers. However, most of the challenges tend to be minimized in a family business with Entrepreneurial orientation.

2.4.19 Importance of FB to the economy

There has been evidence as to the starling role FBs and other SMEs play in economic development of advanced and growing nations. Statistics abound that give figures as to percentage contribution of FBs to the GDP growth of a nation (see table 2.8 for detail). Corroborating this statement Alaye-Ogan (2012) opined that FOBs and small businesses irrefutably remain critical to the development of any nation's economy as they are excellent source of employment generation, help in the development of local Nigerian technology, and develop indigenous entrepreneurs. They have been an integral part of the international economy for centuries and have continued to play an important role (Osemeke, 2011).

FBs are driving force for economic growth, job creation, and poverty reduction in developing countries. They have been the means through which accelerated economic growth and rapid industrialization have been achieved Harris *et al*. (2016) and Sauser, 2015).

Table 2.8 Family Business: Numbers and Facts.

Roles	*Percentage*	*Context*
Busines	80-98%	Worldwide free economy
GDP	70-90%	Most countries worldwide
Employment	75%	Worldwide
Job creation	50-80%	Worldwide.

Source: Adapted from *Poza (2014).*

Furthermore, family business has been recognized as a feeder service to large-scale industries (Fabayo, 2009). They carry the weight of economic wealth and job creation in most economies. They breed in relation to 79% jobs and account for two-third of GDP in India (Belenzons, 2015). It creates 85% employment opportunities and accounts for about 50% of the GDP in Brazil. In the same vein, family businesses in Nigeria contribute 46.54% to GDP (SMEDAN, 2014). In the US, Canada and Slovenia, among others, they account for about 80 to 90 percent of the business enterprises and about 50 percent of employment and GNP (Okpukpara *et al.*, 2011). They also play great roles in alleviating poverty and improving equality of lives (Okpukpara *et al.,* 2011). They are recognized as a crucial element in the effort to lift countries out of poverty (Williams *et al.,* 2010).

The importance of FBs to the citizens' standard of living and the nation's general growth cannot be emphasized enough as even the existence of large-scale industries is seen as dependent on healthy activities of family businesses (Fabayo, 2009). FBs are very important since they hold the connection for social and economic wealth, creation of communities, states, nations and maintenance of regions and competition across the globe (Onuoha, 2012). Hence, Nigeria's quest to be one of the biggest twenty economies in the World by the year 2020 cannot be realized without the contributions of small-to-medium scale enterprises (SMEs), majority of which are family businesses (Onuoha, 2012).

2.4.20 Identifying the distinctiveness of family businesses

The process of differentiating family business from other forms of business organisation was one of the approaches used by early family business researchers to define family business. The models used by early family business scholars are the dual circle model and three circle models.

2.4.20.1 *Two system family business model*

The dual circle model describes the involvement of a family in the business system. The underlying conceptual model held that the family firm is made up of two overlapping subsystems: the family and the business, with each system having norms, rules, values and structures peculiar to it. The business sub-system is expected to operate and be guided by sound business practices and principles while simultaneously meeting family needs for employment, identity, and income. The dual circle model clearly shows the challenges facing all family enterprises which is trying to harness any conflicting goal of the two subsystems and also finding the right strategies that satisfies both.

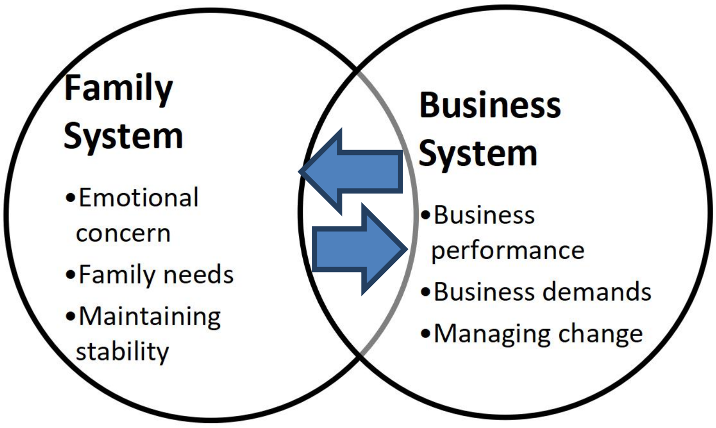

Fig 2.3: Two system family business model

Source: Gersick *et al*. (2011).

2.4.20.2 *Three system family business model*

Gersick *et al.* (2011) introduced the three-circle model by incorporating family ownership of the business into the equation. This concept was borne out of their work with many different companies of varied sizes which show that there was more need to differentiate between the ownership and management subsystems within the business circle than between the family and the business as a whole. Gersick *et al.*'s work was developed based on the original arguments presented by Taguiri & Davis (1982).

Family businesses are presented as a whole of three independent, but overlapping systems including the following; ownership, family and business, as presented in Fig 2.4.

The three circle model outlined below is used to illustrate the interaction or impact of the family component on the business and ownership of the firm. The Three Circle Model is represented by the ownership, business and the family circle.

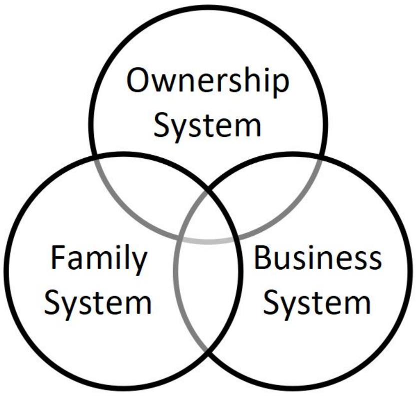

Fig 2.4 Three system family business model

Source: Gersick *et al*. (2011)

The ownership circle represents the interaction and impact the owners have on the family and on the business. The business circle represents the interaction and impact that business has on the family and on the ownership of the firm. The family circle represents the interaction and impact that the family has on the business and ownership of the firm. The ownership circle and the business circle are common to all firms. According to Paul *et al.* (2019) the family circle is unique to family business and differentiates it from its nonfamily business counterparts. In many family businesses, the family permeates the business and the ownership of the firm, making it a significant, if not the major component in the overall running of the family business. It is easy to see how the interaction between these three components can create family, business and ownership challenges, as well as provide unique opportunities.

According to Gersick *et al.* (2009) the three Circle Model illustrates how each of the components interacts with each other and how all three circles meet in the middle, indicating that at some stage of the family firm, ownership, business and family are mixed together.

Ownership
System (2)

4
5
7

Family
System (1)
6
Business System
(3)

Environ

ment

Fig 2.5: Three system-multi units family business model

Source: Gersick (2011)

A family business consists of four basic components of the three overlapping circles in a family business environment as shown in the figure 2.5, namely; circle (1) the family system circle (2) the ownership system, and (3) the business system/manager, and the overlapped sector (4) the people external to the firm.

The Part 1 represents an overlap between owner and his family members (wife/husband, children, relatives, parents), whilst the Part 2 represents a physical, emotional and financial involvement of the owner in the company. In the beginning ownership and company can be identified as a single person, but later on these two can be separated almost completely, especially in hospitality firms. If grows professionally and becomes open to non-family members or partners (Gersick *et al.,* 2011).

Also, Part 3 is about the family members that are involved in everyday business activities, but are not (yet) owners. These could be for example younger family members that work part time job during school holidays or after school hours such as cleaners, receptionist, guards, laundry, aesthetics and other jobs as may be found in hospitality firms, while part 4 is the core of family business. Family members that are represented here differentiate themselves from employees or managers, since they are also emotionally involved in the whole process. These emotions such as inheritance, fears, pride, love, trust bring additional responsibility and respect for the hospitality firms and family as separated, yet connected institutions. Relationships within the family influence relationships in the company and vice versa. Therefore family businesses are quite complex institutions and should be treated as such (Amin *et al.,* 2016).

Moreover, the overlapped sector (5) refers to owner managers who are not family members. Those family members who work in the firm but do not own any shares are in the overlapped sector (6). Finally, those who are shareholders as well as family members and also work for the firm are in the triple overlapped sector (7).

This views the firm from diverse perspectives (Lansberg, 2013). Family members often see it both as an important part of the family's identity and heritage, and as a source of financial security that will enable them to satisfy their lifestyle expectations. Managers view their careers as attached to the firm and tend to regard the business as a vehicle for professional advancement and economic achievement. Individuals can also belong to more than one group at the same time. It is even possible for the same person to hold conflicting views about the ultimate goals of the firm (Amin, 2015).

Gersick *et al.* (2009) asserted that issues and dilemmas faced by family businesses entail the distinction between the owners and the managers rather than between the family and the business. He viewed the family firm as a complex system composed of three overlapping subsystems: ownership, business and family. The family dimension covers factors such as health, prosperity, continuity, participation, community role, communication, education, values, goals, and so on. The business dimension refers to the firm's operations, financial issues, employees, supplier and customer relationships, and so on. The dimension of ownership is related to liquidity, capital allocation, and assurance of succession, strategic direction and financial performance (Gersick *et al.,* 2010).

Patil (2014) observed that most of the interaction between household and enterprise was affected by the characteristics overlap between family and the firm, by the life cycle of the family and the firm, by the size of the family and the firm, and by the division of labor and gender roles within the family. The family's soft values and culture have to be connected to the hard values and culture of the firm. One of the most important results of that study was that family entrepreneurship can provide one solution to the problem of connecting work and family as the division of labour is quite flexible in business families. The economic stage of a family firm changes over time and the economic interaction between household and enterprise follows the life-cycle stages.

For instance, when starting a family business especially in the hospitality industry, the owner and his/her family will invest their savings and private properties in the firm such as land, furniture, office equipments and so on, from that day on the household and the firm economically overlap as long as the enterprise exists. Habershon *et al.* (2013) argued that the discussion of strategy, planning and growth, or performance led to the tensions and contradictions that could arise between the family system and the business. Anyone in either system may affect each or both parts of the system (Gupta, 2014). Finally, it is observed that a social network, including the family hospitality firms, offer the social context in which the family business initiates a novel enterprise, grows it to viability and transitions a sustainable venture to the next generation.

2.4.21 Three-dimensional model of family business developmental stages

Family businesses just like living organisms, have what literature refers to as an organizational lifecycle (Penney & Combs, 2013). The lifecycle concept assumes that businesses develop through a series of definable stages as they grow in terms of size, age, complexity, among others. In each stage, businesses face new challenges requiring a unique set of solutions. The study of organization lifecycles has become increasingly more specific by considering the unique elements of different types of businesses.

An early model, by Lansberg (2013) characterized organizational growth through a one size fits all approach. The model focuses on progression and breaks businesses down to moments that require a "revolutionary" change in order to "evolve" to the next stage of development. The speed at which an organization experienced these changes depended on the pace of the industry. In early stages of this model, the business experiences problems of creativity and direction, which spark the development of leadership and autonomy. The business then experiences growth through delegation, which causes a crisis as the top managers fear a loss of control. This leads to an overhaul of coordination to the point where too much "red tape" prevents productive work. In the final stage, collaborative efforts grow the business to the point where personal enrichment becomes the objective (Andrews, 2012).

This model sparked thought and lead to the development of more specific developmental models that accounted for the individual circumstances of the organization. For example, to address the complexity of growth in small businesses, Churchill and Lewis (2013) outlined a more detailed model. A critical difference is that this model has a series of cusps at which the business may change directions, succeed or fail, or move backwards to redevelop. The model also takes into account the small start-up business's reliance on the founding and controlling individual in the success of the business. Throughout the developmental process, the small business may move in and out of four stages: take-off, growth or survived, succeed or disengage and exist. As the business evolves, the relationship between its founder and the business becomes increasingly detached (Churchill & Lewis, 2013).

Progressing even further, researchers expanded on prior research in order to develop an organizational lifecycle model applicable to family-owned businesses (Gersick *et al*., 2009). Family business literature such as Zainol (2013), Zahra & Sharma (2004), described the nature of the family-owned business by separating it into the overlapping circles of family and business (Lansberg, 2013). However, this three-dimensional approach failed to capture the developmental process of the organization as it transitioned from generation to generation. Like the organizational lifecycle models before it, the three-dimensional development model works to classify businesses into various typologies (Zahra *et al.,* 2014). The type of family-owned business and the challenges it will face are determined by its position along three axises which, over time, transition from stage to stage.

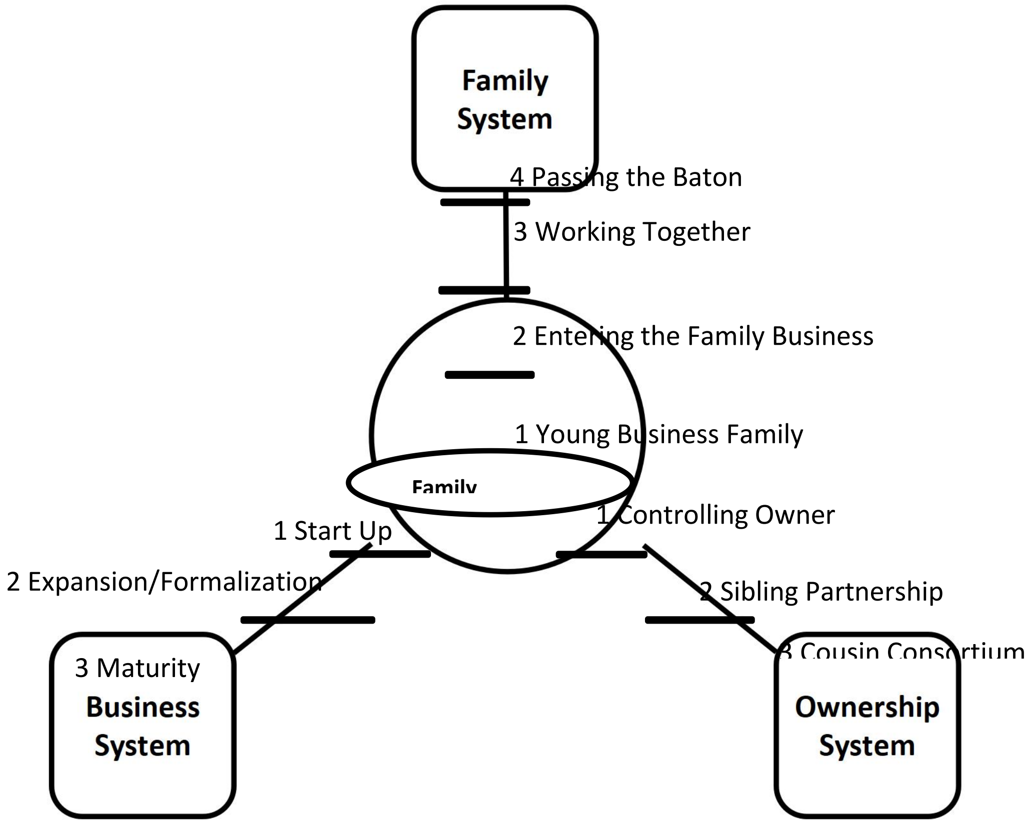

Fig 2.6 Three-dimension model of FB development & professionalization

Source: Adapted from Gersick *et al*. (2009).

The three-dimensional growth model characterizes businesses based on the three dimensions of ownership, family and business. According to Williams *et al.* (2018). each dimension is further separated into a series of stages. It is important to note that the family-owned business exists in each dimension at all times, but that the makeup of each dimension changes overtime.

Fig 2.6 described the transitional process of each dimension of ownership, family and business. This study explained the characteristics of each stage as well as the challenges faced within the stage. However, what should be evident from the following discussion is the lack of attention paid to developing best practices based on the interconnection between all three dimensions.

2.4.21.1 *Ownership dimension*

Within the Ownership dimension of the three-dimensional model, three stages may occur based on the number of owners and the complexity of ownership. As the organization moves along these stages, ownership increasingly dilutes among a broader array of family (Amin *et al.,* 2016). The organization may move to any of these stages as it transitions in ownership, becoming more complex or simpler over time (fig 2.7).

In its infancy, a single controlling owner, who lies at the center of the organization, operates the organization based on a wealth of knowledge and experience. As a result, the business cannot survive without high levels of input from the owner. The business relies on the owner to make most decisions and employees to complete the required tasks. While this centralized power upholds during this stage, when a Sibling Partnership takes over the organization, shared control becomes a critical issue. Each sibling typically finds their own role and stands up as a spokesperson for their division in the business and their family branch. This shared power may spark growth and spread the delegation of power to more employees in the organization. The common thread that tied these siblings together often fails to connect the Cousin Consortium. With a blend of many cousins and relatives owning the business, each with their own culture, a shared vision may fail to develop (Ramadani *et al.,* 2015).

To navigate through these stages of development within the Ownership dimension, the authors of the model suggests three fundamental guidelines. First, the establishment of shareholder meetings creates an environment for discussing specific issues regarding ownership. Second, developing a board of directors and advisers provides a long-term strategy that helps the president by broadening his/her perspective. As the organization develops, Lansberg (2013) puts it that, the board become increasingly important, especially in the Sibling partnership and expansion/formalization stages of development. A board should comprise of unbiased individuals who do not benefit from any specific decisions made. Lastly, planning in the business should occur in four forms – the strategic plan, the management development team, the contingency plan and the continuity plan. It is the job of the board to aid the president in developing these plans..

2.4.21.2 *Family dimension*

A family has the ability to build a close identity founded on interpersonal trust and loyalty. These relationships change and develop over time as the family grows and continues to cycle through generations. As each generation ages into adulthood, the structure of their life is reinvented – they gain power in both the family and business, while redeveloping goals, values and objectives (Williams *et al.,* 2010). Critical moments affect the lives of each individual members as well as the family. Children grow, move out and marry, while their parents age, retire and pass away. The Family dimension is broken down into different units.

Family-owned businesses may comprise of several types of families, as shown in fig 2.6, all at different stages of development. However, most family owned-businesses begin as a "Young Family Business", a family with children under the age of eighteen. At the core of this stage is the married couple, who work together to develop a marriage enterprise that accommodates each others' dreams. Children grow up viewing their parents' interactions with the business and its effect on the family. Depending on the child's view of the business, he or she may join the organization as a young adult, moving the family to the "Entering the Business" stage. As the parents assess their self-achievement of goals and make adjustments, the children battle between a sense of togetherness and a desire for differentiation, in search of their own identity. The "Working Together" stage occurs as the young generation begins to come of age in the organization and establish a leadership style (James, 2016).

While each generation has its own identity, clear communication can unite the two to develop innovative changes in the business. As the parental unit ages, succession becomes a critical issue for the continuity of the business during the "Passing the Baton" stage. At this stage, the transferring owner may feel a loss of identity and attempt to make one last heroic leadership stand, which might hinders the sustenance of the organization (Gersick *et al.,* 2011). However, this is imminent where the younger family or heir apparent to the business does not share the same vision with the aging family.

The management of the transitions between stages of the Family Dimensions, involves several practices. Firstly, developing a *family council* to provide the appropriate setting for educating family members, setting boundaries between business and family, and creating shared values. In early stages, these meetings may be informal; however, as the family business develops, formal family discussion become critical in developing norms and resolving conflict. According to the 2007 Family Business family-owned businesses in United States of America utilize formal *family meetings* (Wales *et al.,* 2019). The goal of the family council is to develop a family plan that represents a shared vision based on the history and a longer-term plan. It connects the family to a mission statement and philosophy that guides their actions. Lastly, the family plan presents clear objectives and an action plan on the way to achieve the goals as a family.

2.4.21.3 *Business dimension*

Most small businesses, family and non-family, fail to sustain enough cash flows to stay alive for only a significant period. More specifically, only one third of family-owned businesses survive to the second generation, 12 percent make it to the third and a dismal 3 percent survive to the fourth generation (Sharma, 2013). The added dimensions of Family and Ownership affect relationships and place great stress on the continuity of the family-owned business. Often, changes in these dimensions spark growth or new challenges in the Business dimension. The author categorized the Business dimension into three stages based on the growth and complexity of the business.

In its early years, during the Start-Up stage, the entrepreneurial founder or beginning generations act on high aspirations and little organizational structure. In order to survive, the business must develop a niche in the marketplace by utilizing an intense energy that other firms cannot match (Zahra, 1993). As the business finds new markets and develops new products, it enters the Expansion/Formalization stage for instance, a hotel that started in Minna Niger State, found new market in Abuja in an expansion stage. The speed at which a start-up advances to the Expansion/Formalization stage depends on numerous factors and may happen slowly or, often, suddenly, stemming from trigger events, such as a new location, department or owner. The rapid changes mean that the owner-manager must often adjust his or her role by allowing other employees to make decisions. According to Deephouse and Jaskiewicz (2013) strategic planning, policies and procedures help to consistently aligning employees with the organization's goals. The fast pace of the Expansion/Formalization stage is replaced by declining margins and a secure market share in the Maturity stage. While many procedures have become norms, the organization may continue to develop its internal structure, placing greater emphasis on functional or product based departments. However, increased competition requires the business to reinvent itself in order to avoid complacency (Gersick *et al.,* 2011).

As the business transitions, the model suggest the implementation of a management development team with the purpose of developing a management plan. Made up of the owner and top managers, the management development team has the purpose of acquiring talent. While the primary goal is to determine what works best for the business, the team must also consider developing family members. The outcome of the management development team is a descriptive plan of how to hire, when to hire and how to groom employees (Deephouse & Jaskiewicz, 2013). This management development plan considers what areas of business will grow, what stage of the business dimension it is facing, the environment and its appraisal and career management process (Gersick *et al*., 2009). The intense interaction between family and business, social institutions that are driven by different objectives, ends up making a family business a fertile ground for the emergence of conflicts. Hence the next section on family business conflicts.

2.4.22 Challenges of family business in Nigeria

According to Neubauer and Lank (2016), the most often cited characteristic of family businesses is that many of them fail to be sustainable in the long term. Indeed about two-thirds to three-quarters of family businesses either collapse or are sold by the founder(s) during their own tenure. Only 5 to 15 percent continue into the third generation in the hands of the descendants of the founder(s) (Zellweger *et al.,* 2013).

This high rate of failure among family businesses is attributed to a multitude of reasons. This study divided the reasons family businesses fail into two parts; the internal factors and the external factors.

2.4.22.1 *Internal factors*

According to Busenitz (2009) these are the factors or challenges which cause family business to fail which are internal to the firm. They include;

i. Lack of Succession Planning: According to Busenitz (2009) succession planning is crucial to the success and continuity of a business particularly for family businesses. Most Entrepreneurs never give a thought to the need to prepare an acceptable successor in the event of their exit.

ii. Extended Family system: This creates severe pressures for the successors and the family business as cultural values and customary laws operational in Nigeria give them a claim to the properties of the entrepreneur. As Bryman (2011) corroborated, the extended family which includes uncles, aunts, nephews, nieces and cousins could also be deemed survivors to the estate of the enterprise founder. Thus a succession conflict may occur where the extended family related to the founder of a family business may occur.

iii. Succeeding Management: an incompetent person may finally inherit a blooming unit of the family business, which he may be unable to run effectively. In this case, the heir has not been adequately trained or prepared to effectively run the business. This could lead to the management and financial ill-health and final collapse of the business (Short, 2018).

iv. Founders' Children: In line with Busenitz (2009), sometimes the founder's children may not be interested in the family business. Again they may disagree with the founder's choice of sibling heir and may decide to leave the business for such a reason.

v. Lack of Insurance Cover: As a result of management incompetence, misjudgment or inadequate funding, the enterprise may not be adequately insured. A catastrophe or business mishap could lead to illiquidity resulting in the collapse and/or sale of the business.

2.4.22.2 *External factors*

Some of the external factors that affect the survival of family businesses according to Butler (2018) include

i. Government Policies: In managing the Nigerian economy, successive governments have attempted to re-engineer key sectors of the economy particularly the banking, insurance and oil sectors. A change in the capitalization requirements result in mergers (a forced succession) which jeopardize the sustainability of the enterprise. This was experienced in 2006 when the minimum capital base of banks was increased from N5 billion to N25 billion. Many banks were forced to merge. Change management also becomes a key issue in such cases.

ii. Legal Requirements: The legal requirements stipulated by government regulatory bodies may create sustainability problems for family businesses like for any other business. This policy has created succession problems and threat to the sustainability of many family businesses.

2.4.23 From family business to business family

Much of the family business literature has implicitly assumed that the involved family has a single business and has focused on the goals and objectives, strategies, structure, culture, and performance pertaining to that family business (Aldrich & Cliff, 2003). As the business and the family both prosper, they often accumulate other assets, some within the firm and some outside. For example, the single-family, single-business firm may acquire the building in which it operates or construct its own building. Initially, there may be space in the building that is not being utilized, which could lead the family firm into the property rental business. Excess cash may be invested in the stock market leading to a financial securities portfolio. Alternately, excess cash may be invested in other business ventures. As the original business expands and becomes more complex, the complexity of the family enterprise as a whole will develop in a different manner than that of the original business (Memon *et al.,* 2018).

It was noticed, in the early 2001, that families whose enterprises had evolved to this stage began calling themselves business families instead of family businesses, and some family business centers started calling themselves centers for business families. It is hoped that looking at the family enterprise as a business family instead of a family business, involves important shifts in the conceptualization of governance. The first shift is in the family's attachment to their original business.

While family businesses remain in the same business, the business family is more ready to exit from (enter into) a business that no longer benefits (will benefit) from the family's involvement or no longer benefits (will create value for) the family in unique ways that other businesses or passive financial market investments cannot. The business family grows not just through innovation in the original business but also through venturing into other related and unrelated markets (Habbershon & Pistrui, 2002). The enterprise may be organized into a group structure with a holding company at the top and operating subsidiaries or business units at the bottom.

In countries where the tax treatment is favorable, the structure would typically be in the form of a pyramid (Onwuka, 2018). Since the family's wealth is not concentrated in a single business, they benefit from the risk-reducing effects of holding a diverse portfolio of businesses. The family's hope for the family enterprise in the hands of future generations is no longer limited to building value in the original business but value creation through a constantly adapting portfolio of businesses and other investments. With respect to succession, a topic that continues to occupy a large portion of the family business literature, the business family's focus would emphasize the preservation of the family's value system, entrepreneurial spirit, and capacity for innovation, not necessarily the preservation of a particular business. A business family perspective shifts governance toward addressing the challenges of encouraging and managing the entrepreneurial activities of family members, whereas a family business perspective needs to simply address the challenges of managing the growth and profitability of a single business. From the governance structure point of view, a business development department that constantly searches for new ventures and evaluates existing ones may become a necessity.

Table:2.9 Differences between the business family and family business

Dimension	Family Business	Business Family
The family's business enterprise	The family has a business that it wants the next generation to sustain.	The family will always own one or more business, whichmay not be the same ones over time.
Growth & expansion of the family's business enterprise	The family will continue to grow & expand the business	Each business controlled by the family must benefit from the family's involvement & the family must benefit from continuing to control the business or the business will be sold or changed; in addition, the family will continue to develop new businesses.
Family wealth	Family's wealth concentrated in the business	Family's wealth spread over multiple operating businesses & other investments such as financial securities & real estate.
Organizational structure	One business organization, usually with a functional structure	Many operating businesses & other investment organized as a multi-business corporations or business group (with or without a pyramid structure) potentially managed by a holding company and/or family office.
Transgenerational sustainability aspirations	Future generation will take over & continue to build value in the business	Future generations will continue to grow an optimal portfolio of value-creating businesses & other investments.
Nature of succession	Succession depends upon future generations taking over ownership, governance, and/or ma nagement of the business	Succession depends upon future generations adopti ng & preserving the family's value system & entrep reneurial spirit in pursuing existing & new opportunities.

Sources: Moss *et al.* (2014).

Shifting from a "Family Business" to a "Business Family" may look subtle on paper, but the implications of the two diverging approaches are profound. A Family Business is driven by family loyalty and harmony as a primary goal, causing choices that often trump profitability and performance, even to the detriment of the business's long-term viability. However, the interconnectedness of business and ego is precisely the reason why many family businesses achieve success, creating the impetus to work harder, serve better and offer more flexibility and responsiveness to customers than their bureaucratic corporate brethren (Misoskaa *et al.*, 2016). A family business can provide a sense of purpose and meaning to the family. If the family is wise enough to understand the challenges inherent in FB, they will prepare a combination of structures, processes and policies in place which can help them to coexist together and live in harmony and also have enough family wealth which can help them grow and maintain their lifestyle (Sharpe, 2014).

A Business Family, on the other hand, recognizes performance and competitive profitability as the main things that will provide long-term sustainability, outweighing short-term family loyalty considerations, thus becoming the primary criteria for decision making even if it is difficult. A business family understands that family harmony is not a goal; it is a byproduct. When the focus is on performance, the business generates cash, which in turn leads to dividends, distributions and growth in stock value, and these are what set the table for satisfied family members. An ideal business family is the one who understand that the survival of the business is important for the survival of the family. They put the business interest ahead of the family and their personal egos or aspirations. They are happy to let go the management if they feel that the professional can manage the business better.

2.5 Understanding the hospitality business

The word 'hospitality' originates from the latin word 'hospe' which imply host or guest and hospitium, which imply guest chamber, hotels, inn or quarter (Cabrera-Suarez, 2011). According to Olowofeso and Ale (2019), Hospitality industry in Nigeria was introduced by the colonial master in 1920s by the establishment of catering guest house in Lagos and other catering guest houses across the country in the early 1950 which marked the beginning of what turned out in the later years to form the genesis of formal hotel business in Nigeria. Hospitality business is seen as the commercial activities which offer consumers accommodation, means and drinks when out from home while promoting a welcome, warm friendly experience that benefits travelers (Duran-Encalada *et al.,* 2012). However, Kandampully (2006) perceived hospitality as friendly and generous behavior towards visitors and guests, intended to make them feel welcome by offering food, drink, room and entertainment to customers, a company or organisation. Similarly, Alvarado-alvarez *et al*. (2021) defined hospitality as a combination of physiological and psychological comfort within defined levels of services. The primary interesting elements is that of the social relationship fostered by the warm, friendly, welcoming courteous, open, generous behaviors of the host, creating the hospital social environment. This promotes the positive feeling of security and comfort created by physical structure, design, location of facilities, provisions of accommodation facilities to sleep, eat, relax and wash, together with the supply of beverage, service and entertainment. However, there are four segments of the hospitality industry, namely; food and beverages, travel and tourism, recreation and hotel logding. This study is concerned with hotel lodgment.

2.5.1 Types of hotels

The hotel provides home away from home to millions of travelers and tourists. The purpose of their visit is different, so is their need and expectation of services rendered by the hotel (Melia & Robinson, 2018). Hotels can be classified based on the room charges, facilities available, length of stays of guests, location of the hotel, ownership and management and many more. Some of the most famous classifications according to Rusen *et al.* (2020) will be explained below;

i. Residential hotels

According to (Abdullah and Hamdan, 2012) residential hotels are apartment houses which are usually located in big cities and provide hotel services to guests who stay on a long term basis. It is also possible for guests to stay at residential hotels for a shorter period of time. Many hotels have a residential wing which is usually low budget and low facilities compare to other rooms. People who are on special assignments, workshop, training or youth service which usually last between two months and a year patronize this kind of offer.

ii. Transit hotels

Transit hotel are located close to airports and motor-ways, they cater for guests who are on transit and need a temporary place to stay for a shorter period of time which may vary from one hour to few days. A distinctive characteristic of transit hotels according to Agiomirgianakis (2012) is their design which mainly focuses on providing comfort and convenience. Most of the budget hotels are in this category.

iii. Resort hotels

The resort hotels are located in special places close to scenic beauty such as lakes, mountains, seas and beaches Agiomirgianakis (2012). A typical example of resort in Nigeria are Obudu catle ranch, Confluence hotel Lokoja, HBC Resort Jos, Hills station hotel just to mention but a few. Since the emphasis of a resort hotel is usually on relaxation, it is not uncommon to find recreational amenities such as golf course, swimming pool, tennis courts and some other indoor sport facilities in the hotel. The main target groups for these types of hotels are people with income that is above average who are looking for a place to relax and stay away from their daily routine. Resort hotels are mostly seasonal establishments. However, recently, the trends have changed a little and some resort hotels are operating throughout the year. Resort hotels can also be sub-divided into summer resorts, winter resorts, health resorts, all season resorts, and hill resorts (Alarcon & Maspera, 2015).

iv. Heritage hotels

Heritage hotels are old properties of aristocratic and royal families which are renovated to provide special experience to tourists (Aref & Redzuan, 2009). However, this type of hotel gives guests special treatment like nobles and patricians. Heritage hotels are not as common as the commercial or residential hotels.

v. Commercial hotels

Commercial hotels as the name suggests are usually located in city center and draw their guests from everywhere. The hotel's main focus is usually on the busy commercial center and they provide services such as business center facilities and parking space (Arikan, 2017). The idea of the hotel being in the city centers may cause someone to think that the hotels' customers are only business travelers. However, the numbers of leisure travelers lodging in the hotel is increasing yearly. Moreover, the commercial hotels even have guests who lodge permanently in the hotel.

2.5.2 Rating/Classification of hotels

According to Alarcon and Maspera (2015) hotel classification is "the assignment of hotels to a categorical rating according to the type of property, facilities, and amenities offered". The classification system was brought into the hotel industry at a time when it was only a few establishments that strived to provide safe and reliable lodging and food to travelers. The system was initially developed as a regulatory framework which ensured customers protection. In the recent years, the focus of the classification system has changed a little bit from protecting to informing the customers. Additionally, the system is now being used to market the hotel establishment and also to standardize the industry by various local, state and national governments (Arikan, 2017).

Due to the heterogeneity of the hotel industry, it is difficult to have a unified classification system, as different classification exists in different countries. Among the most popular and well respected trademark classification systems in the global hotel and travelling industry are the stars and the diamond rating systems.

2.5.2.1 *Diamond rating system*

The American Automobile Association (AAA) was among the first authorities to approve designations for hotels and restaurants. The criteria for its rating is based on a combination of the overall quality, the range of facilities available as well as the level of services offered by the hotel. Additionally, the rating also represents the type of experience which the travelers should expect from the hotel unit. AAA ratings range from 1 to 5 diamonds of which each of the diamonds has its unique or distinctive characteristics (Arikan, 2017). Hotels with one diamond rating are the ones that provides essential accommodation service with no-frills. They usually meet up with basic comfort, cleanliness and hospitality and appeal to budget minded travelers. In a two diamond hotel, the customers can expect affordable rooms where physical attributes, design and amenities have been enhanced as compared to one diamond hotel. Meanwhile, a three diamond hotel is somewhere between providing basic amenities to providing luxury. It usually has multifaceted accommodations with distinguished style, physical attributes, amenities and guest comfort. In a four diamond hotel, the customer can expect to see refined and stylish rooms with upscale physical attributes that reflect enhanced quality throughout. One of the distinctive characteristics between a four diamond hotel and the other lower diamonds is that properties designated with the four diamonds often have extensive amenities with a high degree of hospitality and services. The five diamond hotels have the highest level of luxury with extraordinary physical attributes, meticulous personalized service, extensive amenities and impeccable standards of excellence (Arikan, 2017).

2.5.2.3 Star rating system

The star rating system is everywhere across the globe, most travelers and hotel guests prefer making inquiries about hotels in relation to their stars despite the fact that the criteria for the star rating of hotels varies from one country to the other (Alarcon & Maspera, 2015). The Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation act of 1992, empowered NTDC to regulate the establishment, operation and classification of hospitality industry in the country. Star rating is used in Nigerian hospitality industry for many reasons at the national level it provides the customers the opportunity of finding a hotel that really conforms to their desired standard. Additionally, hotel management also benefit from the rating because it helps to improve the quality of the product being offered to the guests (Alarcon & Maspera 2015).

Just like the diamond ratings, each of the stars has its distinctive characteristics. In a one star hotel, customers can expect a small hotel which is often operated by the owner with a personal atmosphere and basic accommodation services which do not include restaurant service but it is usually within a walking distance. One star hotels are usually located near public transportation and major intersections, whereas, a two star hotel is often part of a hotel chain that offers consistent quality and limited amenities.

A Customer can expect a small or medium room size which is furnished with phone and TV. Although a two star hotel may not have the convenience of room service, customers can still expect a small restaurant onsite. According Kandampully (2006), three star hotels are mostly located near a major expressway, business center and/or shopping area. They offer nice, spacious rooms and decorative lobbies. On-site restaurants may be average in size but will offer breakfast, lunch and dinner. Valet and room service, a small fitness center and a pool are often available in this category of hotel.

However, in a four star hotel, the customer can expect a formal, large hotel, with top-notch service. It is not uncommon to see a four star hotel located in places where there are other hotels of the same caliber clustered nearby. Four stars hotels are strategically located close to shopping malls and places full of entertainment. At the same time, the customers can expect beautifully furnished rooms, restaurants, valet parking, fitness center, concierge and room service which are above average.

In a five star hotel customers can expect a luxurious hotel offering the highest degree of personal service with so much elegance and style rooms equipped with quality linens, VCR, CD stereo, Jacuzzi tub and in-room video. There can also be multiple restaurants on site with extensive, gourmet menus, and room-service which is available 24/7. Additionally, customers can also expect a fitness center, valet parking and concierge service (Aref & Redzuan, 2009). The five-star ratings used to be the highest in the hotel ratings system.

However, in the recent years, there has been emergence of the first six-star hotel built in Dubai, United Arab Emirates and some other countries claimed to have seven-star hotels. Due to the controversy regarding the criteria for a six or seven stars hotel, this study will adopt the five stars as the highest rating of the hotel.

2.5.3 Branded budget hotels

Defining branded budget hotels is perhaps the first and most important step in developing a sound understanding of their operations. Although Quest (Melia *et al.,* 2018) defined budget hotels as a new generation of mainly small hotels offering limited facilities and a no-frills price. The number of rooms ranged from 20 to 140 rooms. However, Olowofeso and Ale (2019) defined the budget hotel concept as the fastest growing segment of the industry in Nigeria offering clean, simple rooms and a restaurant or coffee shop onsite or nearby. Indeed, the conventional hotel classification schemes struggled to embrace the budget hotel concept due to the level of product/service offering. Similarly, Ottenbacher (2017) defined a budget hotel as:

> *"a limited service lodging establishment offering the benefit of good value for money in standardised modern accommodation: quality is as good as three or four star hotels and rates are 25 to 30% cheaper."*

Moreover, Kandampully (2006) in search of a single comprehensive definition, synthesised the previous definitions and concluded that a budget hotel is best defined as: "a brand new purpose-designed product concept in the hospitality industry which relies heavily on three factors: branded product concept, value for money and consistency". Similarly, Pinar *et al.* (2011) used a broader definition in an attempt to capture and reflect the diverse nature of the concept. Ottenbacher (2017) defined budget hotels as purpose-built, branded accommodation units with an average of 50 rooms and standard low prices. Individual units are often known as lodges, inns or motels. Originally located close to motorways and busy roads, budget hotels have also become more common in city-centre locations.

Based on the above analysis, it is concluded that due to intense competition in the hospitality industry players and the search for differentiation advantages, the search for universality in definition should be deemphasized. Instead what is needed is a broad prescriptive general definition that can be tailored to specific contextual situations.

2.5.4 Characteristics of budget hotels

This section briefly explored the different proposals from various authors. However, even from this angle, there is still no universally accepted set of characteristics in the reviewed budget hotel literature.

Meanwhile, Melia and Robinson (2018) summarized the main features of budget hotels into five generic characteristics as follows: Low construction and operating costs; Simple design; Mainly, main road location with a few exceptions in town and airports; Live-in managers and desk clerks; Small in size ranging from 50 to 150 rooms.

According to Arikan (2017) the main proponents of generic characteristics, proffer their own set of characteristics. These include: Low tariff structure, Minimum range of facilities, Limited services, Strategic location near main road networks, Modern design and construction, Room charges 50% lower than three star hotels, Employ a minimum number of staff, Mostly located alongside major highways, Lower levels of investment than full service hotels, Budget hotel or limited service hotels also dubbed "economy hotel" are unclassified and cheaper to established "small" hotels, often constructed by hoteliers who either could not establish star hotels or established it for meeting a target market. Moreover, Pinar *et al.* (2011) posited that the economic situation of the country, the demographic location and the financial situation of organizations wishing to take advantage of accommodation services necessitates establishment of budget hotels.

2.5.5 Rationale for hotel classification

Most countries have a grading system for accommodation which generally follows a 5-star grading scheme developed by the American Automobile Association (AAA), with one being the lowest and five being the highest. Meanwhile, Pinar *et al.* (2011) explained that hotel grading systems are designed to fulfill a number of different needs for both hotel operators and guests. Kandampully (2006) synthesized five of the most important of Assaf and Pinar *et al.* (2011) needs as:

Standardization: the need to establish and control a system of uniform service and product quality that helps to create an orderly travel market distribution system for both buyers and sellers. This could be used to compare service and quality among hotels.

Marketing: to advise travellers on the range of hotels available within a destination as a means of promoting the destination and encouraging healthy competition in the market place

Consumer protection: to ensure that hotels meet minimum standards of accommodation, facilities and services within classification and grade definitions.

Revenue generation: to provide revenue from licensing, the sale of guidebooks among others.

Control: *t*o provide a system for monitoring, evaluating and controlling the performance of the industry on the quality front.

In essence, the argument for hotel grading is that it serves as an initial indicator to potential guests and intermediaries of the levels of service quality and comfort to expect in a hotel.

2.5.6 Hospitality firm management

Since hospitality and tourism has been a highly profitable industry with a considerable growth rate for the last thirty years Melia and Robinson (2018), the competition among tourism destinations in macro sense and tourism establishments in micro sense has become incredibly intense, which in turn leads to necessary application of specifically designed competencies that stimulate successes..

In management sciences, strict definitions, rigid conclusions and quantitative evidence may not be easily derived for subjective concepts like management, since it covers many components. On the contrary, it was very briefly defined by some authors as "the art of getting things done through people" Melia and Robinson (2018) averred that successful end result needs existence and application of various skills and abilities like; flexibility, cognitive skills, creativeness, tough mindedness, motivational skills, social skills, technological knowledge, communicational ability, personal skills, language skills, leadership traits, matched by enormous effort and energy (Arikan, 2017).

Management is also defined “as the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the work of organization members and of using all available organizational resources to reach stated organizational goals” (Ramanathan & Ramanathan, 2011). In the same manner, a manager is the person who is in charge of an hotel organization or one or more of its subsidiary units.

Management definitions indicate that managers face many challenges and should obtain many qualitative and quantitative skills in order to suitably fullfill the positions. When hotel managers are taken into account, it becomes clear that their jobs are even more complicated and challenging, since, it also requires cultural diversification issues regarding both employees and guests. Since hotels are "hosts" to the world they are very vulnerable to and affected by social trends and technological trends while trying to serve a friendly feel at home atmosphere to their guests. Hospitality management is specially complicated since it is a non-stop service industry serving to customers with emotional purchasing behavior causing hotel managers having higher burn out effects (almost seven times more than other industries managers).

Hotel managers, also face high stress levels and experience complexity in forecasting and decision making activities. Years of research on hospitality management topic indicates that hospitality managers should obtain specific requirements in addition to the ones needed for management in general.

Several studies have been undertaken in order to analyze what make a manager successful. Melia and Robinson (2018) states that most successful managers tend to focus on entrepreneurship and work the longest hours. They would also prefer rational logic rather than people in their decision-making. Similarly, Arikan (2017) define hospitality managers as entrepreneurial, hard working and constantly distracted so that they do not have time to focus on long term strategic management, but also more assertive, autocratic, ambitious, pragmatic, optimistic, cheerful and extroverted than managers in other areas. As an example, Holiday Inns Worldwide core competencies are inter- and intra-personal and communication skills with staff and customers rather than higher and cognitive skills (Arikan, 2017).

Therefore, as table 2.10 indicates, the skill requirements of hospitality industry staff and managers are considerably different when compared with traditional manufacturing.

Table: 2.10 Skill Requirements for managers of hospitality organizations

Competencies	Characteristics	Competencies	Characteristics
Analytical Skills	Problem solving, economic decision & risk analysis, cost estimation, probability and statistical analysis.	Service Process Design	Performance measurement, blueprinting/flowcharting, work task breakdown, job design
Interpersonal Skills	Professional responsibility, verbal and technical writing skills, leadership, facilitation skills, team building.	Service System Operations.	Process evaluation & improvement, service quality improvement, customer relations management, risk management
Business Skills	Project management skills, project costing, business planning, change management.	Service System Management	Scheduling, budgeting, MIS, principles of human resource management.

Sources: Authors survey (2020)

Analytical skills are the traits and abilities that allow managers to observe, research and interpret a subject in order to develop complex ideas and solutions. Analytical skills are soft skills that help hotel managers identify and solve complex problems. Such skills include problem solving, critical thinking, economic and risk analysis, cost estimation, data analysis, research and communication (Russo, 1997).

Interpersonal skills are traits managers rely on when they interact and communicate with others. These skills involve the ability to communicate and build relationships with others. Often called people skills, they tend to incorporate both your innate personality traits and how managers have learned to handle certain social situations.

Business skills are type of personal skill that is necessary for a manager to be successful in running an enterprise. It is refers to your work ethic and how you work with others. They are something that is gained with time, maturity, and experience. These include soft skills, communication skills, management skills, and technical skills (Ben *et al.*, 2014).

Service process design refers to the arrangement of service facilities where the service is provided and the processes through which the service operations are structured and delivered (Ramanathan & Ramanathan, 2011). Service design addresses how an organization gets something done." Service design focuses on how a manager of hotel or restaurant operates and delivers the food it promises; from sourcing and receiving ingredients, to on-boarding new chefs, to server-chef communication regarding a diner's allergies. Each moving part plays a role in the food that arrives on the diner's plate, even though it is not directly part of their experience. Service design can be mapped using a service blueprint.

A service system operation is an open transformation process of converting inputs (consumers) to desired outputs (satisfied consumers) through the appropriate application of resources (family, material, labor, information, and the consumer as well). Wal-Mart attracts millions of customers because they can find department store merchandise, groceries, auto service, dry cleaning, movie rental, hair styling, eyeglasses and optical services, and nursery items all in one place (Abdullah & Hamdan, 2012).

A service system management is a configuration of technology and organizational networks designed to deliver services that satisfy the needs, wants, or aspirations of customers. Service systems can be characterized by the value that results from interaction between service systems, whether the interactions are between people, businesses, or nations.

2.5.7 Critical success factors in hospitality industry

The last theme to emerge from the research is the commonality of a number of critical success factors that are perceived to affect the performance of small and medium-sized hotels. Although it was evident from prior researches that some critical success factors were unique to each operation, the research by Melia and Robinson (2018) identified the following four critical success factors as being common to small and medium-sized hotels. The first critical success factor is the quality of the infrastructure and products of the hotel. The second critical success factor is the location of the property, the third critical success factor is the high rate of customer care and satisfaction that the establishment provides and the fourth critical success factor is the staff providing the products and services of the hotel.

The critical success factors in hotel in hotel industry, have been changing over time, driven by global competition and increasingly high customer expectations. However, above are the areas in which a hotel must excel to survive in the market place.

2.6 Place of EO in family business organization

Besides the need to carefully manage the business risks associated with EO in different situations, companies experience difficulties in creating an organization that is supportive of EO. Although top managers may possess a very strong EO, opportunities often have to be explored by lower level managers or non-managerial employees. This difference between the implementation of an EO strategy at top management level and the willingness of employees to pursue such strategies has also been labeled as the 'crux' of entrepreneurial management (Stevenson & Jarillo, 2003). Intrapreneurship literature specifically focuses on the importance of entrepreneurial behaviors initiated by employees and how such behaviors can be stimulated within an organization Belgacem (2015) especially in hospitality businesses. Although the focus on employee-initiated entrepreneurial activities has also been criticized for having a relative small impact on the subsequent financial performance of organizations and there is a growing consensus that employees play a key role in the effective translation of an EO strategy into day-to-day operations (Wales *et al.,* 2019; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2011).

A successful implementation of EO, for instance, might require radical product innovation and the pursuit of entrepreneurial opportunities. Employees or lower level managers, on the other hand, may be unwilling to depart from their everyday operations, since they do not see the benefits of entrepreneurial projects, or may experience severe problems while trying to implement such projects in addition to their regular tasks. Therefore, tensions arise between the owner on one hand, the amount of autonomy, flexibility and consideration of individual input that is needed to stimulate entrepreneurial behavior amongst employees and, on the other hand, the procedures, efficiency and hierarchy that is needed within the production process (Busenitz, 2009). These interrelations between the organizational culture and the prevalent organizational structure (hierarchical relations, job design, procedures, among others), highlights the links between EO, intrapreneurship research and the field of organizational behavior (OB). The inclusion of individual level theories of human behavior is therefore needed to enhance our understanding of the process of EO (Bradley *et al.*, 2011).

According to (Busenitz, 2009) managers who want to pursue an EO strategy will regularly face difficult choices when it comes to the changes that have to be made and EO research has, so far, paid little attention to the organizational processes that are needed at employee level in order to stimulate EO throughout the organization or the contributions of non-managerial employees to the process of EO.

2.6.1 The Management of EO

Recently, EO has been described as a performance-variance enhancing strategic orientation instead of a performance-means improving strategic orientation (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2011). Under this notion, EO would not per se improve the performance of firms on average but rather creates more extreme financial outcomes; positive as well as negative.

Although Morris *et al.* (2012) emphasize that the element of risk taking in EO reflects calculated risks and should not be understood as reckless behavior, firms can suffer substantial losses when inventions, strategic repositioning or new business ventures fail. Firms and small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) in particular, have fewer opportunities to diversify risk; thus making them more vulnerable when engaging in risk taking behaviors. Higher levels of managerial risk taking is therefore expected to result in either higher returns or bigger losses and EO may enhance the chances of business success, as well as the chances of business failure. Risk taking, however, is not the only element in EO that can result in both positive and negative outcomes. Literature on ambidexterity Zellweger *et al.* (2013) argued that firms should find a balance between opportunity exploration and exploitation. Depending on the situation at hand or the context in which a firm has to operate, this balance may shift more towards exploration or exploitation (Nwekpa *et al.*, 2017).

A relentless focus on innovation is therefore unlikely to be equally successful for firms of different sizes, that operate in different markets and that produce different type of products. In a similar vein, different results can be expected when firms engage in proactive firm behaviors. The extent to which EO is successful is therefore heavily dependent upon the context in which a firm operates and managers should carefully manage the business risks that are associated with EO.

2.6.2 The Conceptual framework

A conceptual framework is an assembly of a set of research concepts cum variables together with their logical relationships often presented in the form of diagrams, charts, graphs, pictographs, flow charts, organogram or mathematical equations (Andre, 2014). Below is a diagram that shows the required relationship among the variables in this study

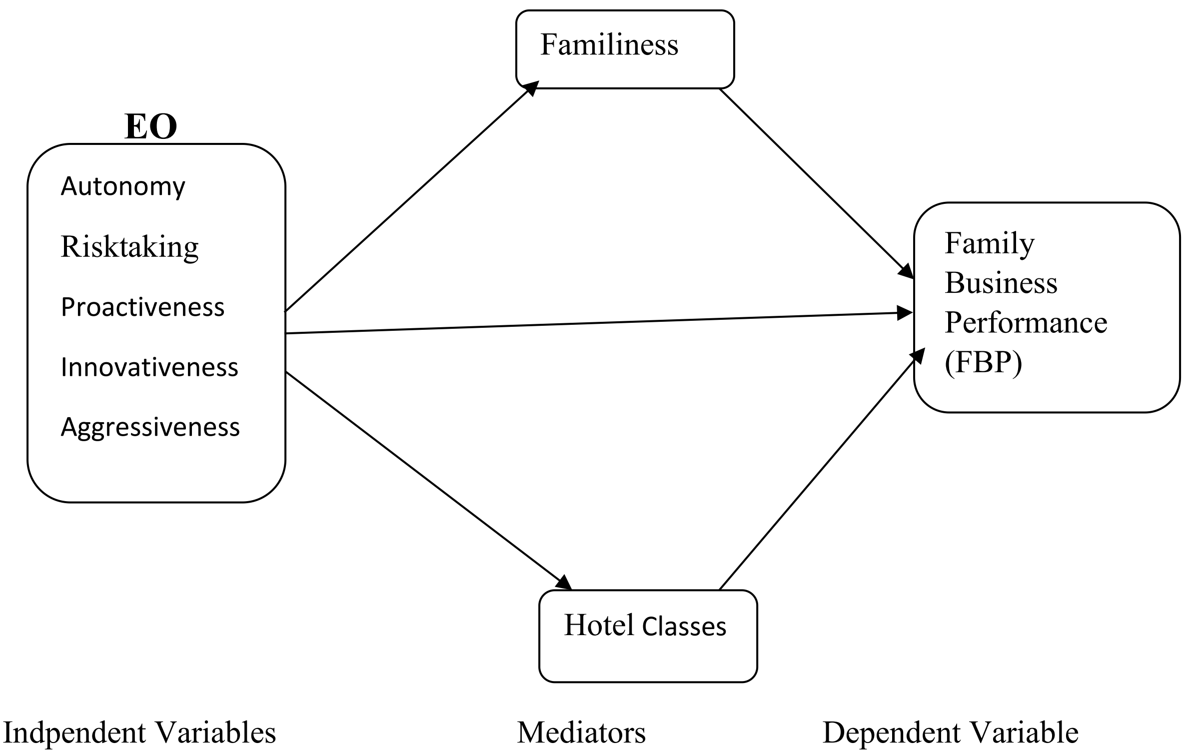

Fig 2. 7 EO and firm performance framework
Source: Author (2020).

The model figure 2.7 is unique in that it incorporates the development of thoughts about the research topic and the feeling associated with the interconnectedness of familiness and hotel classification as mediators of the hypothesized relationship. The research independent variable of EO is conceptualized into five distinct dimensions to first establish a diect relationship with family hospitality firm performance as dependent variable and was measured with hotel occupancy rate, service quality and employee productivity. In order to determine if other variable accounted for the hospitality firm performance, the study introduce the mediation of familiness and hotel classification. This was done to ensure robustness of the study.

2.6.3 Entrepreneurial orientation and family business performance

Entrepreneurship scholars such as Rauch *et al*. (2009), Wiklund and Shepherd (2011) have attempted to explain firm performance by investigating a firm's entrepreneurial orientation. Further, Yusuf (2012) stated that the relationship between EO and firm performance has become the central focus of interest for studying EO. To date, findings have been mixed. Numerous studies have shown that EO, directly or indirectly, has a positive relationship with firm performance (e.g., Krauss *et al.,* 2011; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2009; Hughes & Morgan, 2007). This means that firms adopting EO perform better than those that lack such an orientation. This association may be related to the fact that today's dynamic business environment shortens product life cycles and increases uncertainty. In addition, the actions of competitors as well as customers are unpredictable. Firms, therefore, are required to have more aptitude for innovativeness, risk-taking, proactiveness, autonomy, and competitive aggressiveness in order to gain competitive advantage and achieve higher performance. Hence, an effective EO may be a good predictor of firm performance.

The work of Hughes and Morgan (2007) is one of many studies that investigated the direct effect of each dimension of EO on performance. They discovered that the contribution of each EO dimension to firm performance varies, and in fact, autonomy and competitive aggressiveness dimensions are not correlated at all with firm performance. They also argued that all EO dimensions simultaneously show little direct effect on firm performance. Other researchers (e.g., Wiklund & Shepherd 2011 and Wang 2020), however, suggested that investigating the direct effect of EO on firm performance will not provide a comprehensive description of the relationship. Therefore, most researchers have applied other variables as moderators or antecedents to the model of EO-firm performance (Covin & Slevin, 1991). Interestingly, the empirical findings of EO-performance relationship studies were mixed. Dana and Ramadani *et al.* (2015) discovered no significant relationship between strategic posture (their term that equates to EO) and firm performance. Similarly, Rauch *et al.* (2009) were unable to provide any evidence of a positive relationship between EO and profitability. Moreover, Lee *et al.* (2019) found in their study that EO may not significantly improve firm performance. Some factors are suggested to contribute to the inconsistent findings of the EO-firm performance relationship studies, such as the use of different methodologies, research designs and samples Rauch *et al.* (2009) and the fact that firms are examined at different stages of development (Hughes & Morgan, 2007). Some researchers such as Keh *et al.* (2007), Tang *et al.* (2008) also suggested that national culture may affect the outcomes of the EO-firm performance relationship since EO dimensions might be implemented differently across countries and cultures (Naldi *et al.,* 2007). It is no surprise therefore, that Lumpkin and Dess (2014) called for future research to investigate the influence of culture on the strength of the EO-firm performance relationship.

2.6.4 Performance measurement in hospitality industry

In order to have more satisfied and loyal customers, the organization must be able to provide a wide range of services/products, so that customers can make their choices according to their preferences (Abdel-maksoud *et al.,* 2016). This simple action can lead to organization's performance if the organization manages to satisfy its customers and attract new ones, fact that should increase its sales, market share and profitability. Therefore, performance can be defined as “the accomplishment or outcomes of an entity Ittner *et al.* (2003) or as the ability of an object to produce results in a dimension determined priori, in relation to a target (Said *et al.,* 2013).

There are different types of performances measures that companies can use. The balanced scorecard method from Kaplan and Norton, (1996) often served as a basis for evaluation of CEOs. In general, the Balanced Scorecard, which consists of four different perspectives have two types of measures: financial and non-financial performance measures.

Financial performance measures, which can also be classified as accounting-related performance measures, are measures such as firm profit, earnings per share, hotel occupancy rate, sales growth or total shareholder return on investment, cash-flow, profitability, cost efficiencies, turnover, (Ibrahim & Lloyd, 2011). One important disadvantage is that the use of financial performance measures may lead to accrual manipulation. This can be explained by the bonus-maximization hypothesis (Kraiczy, 2013) which stated that managers of firms with bonus plans are more likely to choose accounting procedures that shift reported earnings from future periods to current periods, or vice versa, under certain conditions.

Non-Financial performance measure ascertains the non-financial aspects of the firm. Examples of non-financial performance measures are measures such as workforce development, service/product quality, customer satisfaction, on time delivery, innovation measures, attainment of strategic objectives, market share, efficiency, productivity, leadership and employee satisfaction, employee feed-back, (Farrington, 2009). These metrics have several important benefits compared to financial performance measures. First, high performance on non-financial performance measures is positively related with future financial performance. In this way, these measures can instigate the CEO to take actions that benefit the firm in the long term (Fatoki, 2012). Secondly, non-financial performance measures curbs excessive earnings of the management (Ibrahim & Lloyd, 2011).

As both financial and non-financial performance measures have advantages and disadvantages, and combining both measures is often the best option. According to Harris and Mongiello (2011) financial indicators only allow for feedback on the action taken, while other indicators are able to give a feed forward on what is occurring as a result of actions taken (Kandampully, 2006). Kobjoll (2007) for instance, find that combining financial performance measures with non-financial performance measures leads to a significant higher mean level of return on assets and a higher level of market return. Similarly, for effective measurement of hospitality firms, Abdel-Maksoud *et al.* (2016) suggested a model involving five financial and non-financial performance metrics: Hotel occupancy, product quality, marketshare and employee morale. Value of people (employees as well as guests) in the hotel service delivery process has a big importance for the hotel performance. This orientation has led to suggestions that hotels need to develop better performance information relating to such key areas as employee morale and customer satisfaction.

This study therefore combined financial and non-financial performance measurement to test against entrepreneurial orientation. Specifically, a financial performance measure that is less investigated and peculiar to hotel (i.e hotel occupancy rate) was tested among others while non-financial indicators like employee satisfaction and service quality were tested as they apply very well to the problem being studied.

2.7 Theoretical Review

The theoretical ground for the EO-hospitality firm performance relationship is still immature (Aref & Redzuan, 2009). However, this study reviewed three theories; the Resource-based View (RBV), Social capital theory and Agency theory. By and large, literature has intensively explored the influence of EO on firm-level performance. While several studies have empirically confirmed the EO performance link, a limited number of research studies have offered theoretical explanations of the EO-FB relationship.

2.7.1 The Resource-based view

A major stream of research in strategic management has focused on competitive advantages and their sources. The resource-based view **(**RBV**)** of the organisation is a strategy for achieving competitive advantage that emerged among the acedemics between 1980 and 1990, following the works of academics and businessmen such as Birger Wernerfelt, Prahalad and Hamel, Spender and Grant. The core idea of the theory is that instead of looking at the competitive business environment to get a niche in the market or an edge over competition and threats, the organisation should instead look within at the resources and potential it already has available. The heterogeneity among firms within a particular industry and the success factors of the outperforming firms are the focus of this research stream. Beginning with the works of Penrose dated 1959 and her "theory of the growth of the firm," the internal view of resources and capabilities as a source of competitive advantage has received a high degree of attention (Barney, 1991). By keeping external market conditions constant, research in this area analyzes the resources and capabilities within a firm.

However, within the RBV model, there are two main types of resource (assets), which are tangible and intangible assets. The tangible are physical things for example, property, land, products and capital. These are resources which can generally be bought easily on the market and thus offer little competitive advantage, as other organizations can also acquire identical assets quickly if they should like. Intangible assets refer to items and concepts that have no physical value but can still claim to be owned by the organization. This may refer to any reputation, trademarks or intellectual property which the organization may possess. Some of these e.g. reputation are built up over a significant period of time, and is something which other competitors or comparable organizations cannot buy in the market. These will likely stay within the organization and are their main source of competitive advantage.

Although possession of heterogeneous and immobile resources is crucial to organizational success, it is not alone if they wish to sustain this competitive advantage. Barney (1991) identified a framework for examining the key properties of resources and organizations (VRIN). These criteria were altered later by other management scholars, and the new acronym VRIO was developed. This stands for:

Resources are considered *valuable*, if they can help to increase the value of the service or product supplied to customers or others reliant on the organisation. This can be improved by increasing differentiation, decreasing the cost of production, or other general modifications to improve the quality and worth of the service. Any resources that do not meet this condition may lead to a competitive disadvantage.

Resources are *rare* if it can only be acquired by one or few organizations in both tangible and intangible forms. If organisations have the same resources or capabilities, this can result in competitive parity.

Inimitable resources of an organization are such that can not easily be duplicated. If an organisation holds resources which are valuable or rare, they can at least achieve a competitive advantage in the short-term. However, to sustain this advantage the resources need to be costly to imitate or substitute, or else rivals may begin to close the gap by obtaining the same or similar resources.

Organised resources to capture value in market place. Resources do not necessarily convey a competitive advantage if the organisation, its systems and its processes are not designed to exploit the resource to its fullest, then it cannot hope to gain a competitive advantage. This could refer to not utilising talented or knowledgeable individuals in the correct department or role, or not fully building campaigns that utilise the organisation's positive reputation, amongst many other examples. Only when all of these factors are fulfilled can one gain a sustained competitive advantage, and can innovate and get ahead in the market. This competitive advantage can, in turn, lead to superior and sustainable financial results when it is built upon; firstly, a unique bundle of resources (the resource-based view of the firm) (Barney, 1991). Secondly, a unique position within a particular industry (strategic positioning models) (Porter, 2008), thirdly, an ability to renew strategic resources (dynamic capabilities) Teece *et al.,* (2011), or lastly, an ability to assimilate external knowledge and apply it to commercial ends (absorptive capacities) (Ramanathan & Ramanathan, 2011).

With the seminal works of Wernerfelt (1984) and Barney (1991), research on internal focus has been reinforced. Barney (1991) developed a framework that is based on two central assumptions. First, firms within an industry are heterogeneous regarding their resources and, second, these resources are not moveable across firms. A firm's resources can "include all assets, capabilities, organizational processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge, among others. controlled by a firm that enable the firm to conceive of and implement strategies that improve its efficiency and effectiveness (Kraiczy, 2013). However, not all resources have a positive impact on organizational outcomes. Only resources or capabilities that possess all these characteristics have the potential to generate a sustainable competitive advantage and in turn increase firm performance.

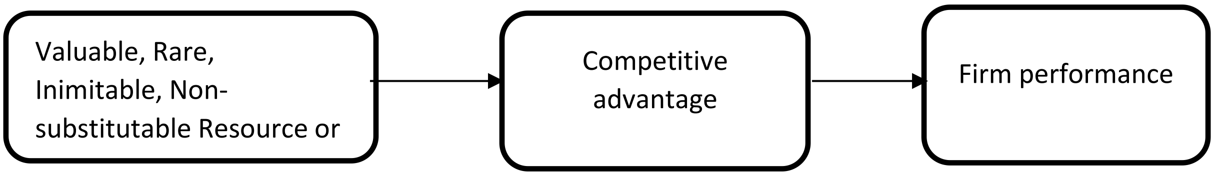

Fig 2.8: VRIN model of RBV

Source: Barney (1991)

The RBV has been used as an underlying theory by many studies in different fields of research. For example, Hitt *et al.* (2012) showed that human capital has an indirect and a direct effect on firm performance. Miller *et al.* (2008) test the RBV and find evidence that in contrasting environments different types of resources (knowledge-based vs. property based) are the explanation of financial performance. In addition, family firm researchers have adopted the RBV to resolve family firm issues.

The most widely known study using the RBV stems from Habbershon and Williams (2011) who defined "the bundle of resources that are distinctive to a firm as a result of family involvement as the 'familiness' of the firm." This unique bundle of resources can arise when a family impacts a business. The interaction between a family, its members, and the business are inimitable for each family firm. Teece *et al.* (2011) identified five family firm-specific resources and attributes that have the potential to provide competitive advantages for family firms. In their resource management process model, they argued that family firms evaluate, acquire, shed, bundle, and leverage these resources in a different way than do non-family firms, resulting in a potential competitive advantage. These resources are human capital, social capital, survivability capital, patient capital, and governance structure. Human capital described the acquired knowledge, skills, and capabilities of an individual (Kraiczy, 2013). In family firms, human capital can have both positive and negative effects. Although family members are often highly committed to the firm, relationships are warm and friendly and the potential for deep firm-specific tacit knowledge is high, and thus the threat of employing suboptimal employees just because of the family affiliation may pose a problem (Kraiczy, 2013).

Furthermore, Lansberg (2013) defined survivability capital as the integration of unique resource, namely “the pooled personal resources that family members are willing to loan, contribute and, or share for the benefit of the family business”. These resources can take the forms of free labor, loaned labor, additional equity investments, or monetary loans (Kraiczy, 2013). However, survivability capital can function as a safety net in situations of unpredictable outcomes. Patient financial capital (i.e equity, debt, loan, pensions, sovereign wealth funds among others, which the family member is willing to forgo an immediate return), differs from typical financial capital, because it is linked to a longer time of investments and not a threat of liquidation in the short-term. This is supported by Nordqvist *et a.l* (2014) research suggesting that firms with patient financial capital are capable of pursuing more creative and innovative strategies such as divestment, corporate venturing and organizational renewal. In particular, the human capital of the family and the ownership structures of family firms are unique resources that bring knowledge to create new ideas and financial capital to develop these ideas into new products (Armstrong *et al.,* 2010). The family further has the power to allocate financial resources to particular new product projects and the stamina that is needed to realize a new product project over a longer period. These resources may generate competitive advantages for a family firm and can lead to superior new product performance.

However, just like most theories used in business, the resource-based view has its share of criticism. For example, it can be difficult to determine the appropriate level of analysis due to the broad definitions of resources. Furthermore, certain types of resources, such as a company's reputation or knowledge, are subjective. Managers must also consider the fact that heterogeneity doesn't necessarily imply uniqueness. While it's true that a family firm's resources are important, they are not the only factor behind business growth and performance. Regulatory policies, strategic planning and other aspects matter too. Another potential issue is that new technologies and trends are emerging every day and may have a dramatic effect on the firm key resources. Researchers also state that valuable resources don't necessarily provide a competitive advantage. The global economy and other external factors may have a greater impact under certain circumstances. For example, even if the firms' software program is valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable, customers may still want a less-advanced product that comes with a lower price tag during economic downturns. Additionally, the firms' competitors may offer a completely different product that yields similar results in terms of efficiency.

Despite its limitations, this approach can help family-held hotels define and leverage their key resources to achieve better performance. Family-owners may also conduct a SWOT analysis to identify the firms' strengths and weaknesses, discover opportunities and anticipate potential threats. By identifying firms' key resources, managers are better able to develop a competitive strategy and market their products.

2.7.2 Social Capital Theory

The realization that besides standard factors of production, the importance of human capital (knowledge and skils) and cultural factors are important in economic and social outcomes led to the birth of social capital in 1990 (Harrison and Huntington, 2000). The first systematic exposition of the term and its entry into the academic debates can be attributed to the work of Bourdieu (1986) and Coleman (1988). However, it was the pioneering work of Putnam (1993) that heavily popularized the term among social scientists and attracted the attention of researchers and policymakers. Broadly, social capital can be defined as a collective asset in the form of shared norms, trust, networks, social relations, and institution that facilitate cooperation and collective action for mutual benefits. Social capital theory can be defined as “the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition” (Patil, 2014).

Social capital theory is a complex multidimensional concept having various dimensions, types, levels and determinants; and varieties of definitions exist depending on the discipline and interest. Nevertheless, most definitions emphasized the role of social relations in generating benefits for individual, family and society as a whole. The critical elements of social capital include social networks (families, friends, communities, and voluntary associations), norms of reciprocity (shared norms, values, and behaviours), and trust (people and institutions). It is collectively-owned capital generated through individuals’ shared norms, values, attitudes, and behaviours that positively benefits economic development. The most common forms of social capital include structural and cognitive social capital; bridging, bonding, and linking social capital; strong and weak ties; and horizontal and vertical social capital.

Social capital can be measured at individual and collective level as well as at the micro-, meso-, and macro-levels. These different forms and levels of analysis suggest that social capital can be defined, operationalized, and measured in different ways. The use of the term ‘capital’ in social capital is a highly controversial issue. Some economists criticize the capitalization of social capital in the sense that it lacks many of the basic properties of classical capital and, hence, it does not qualify as capital. On the other hand, many social scientists argue that although social capital lacks some basic properties of classical capital, it shares many important properties of classical capital and, hence, it qualifies as capital. It can be argued that the properties of social capital, such as it can be put into production function, can accumulate over time, is capable of improving economic performance, can be invested with expected future returns, is convertible, is appropriable, and requires maintenance; this makes it qualify as one form of capital. Research distinguishes between family social capital and a family firm’s organizational social capital. Angela (2007) described family social capital as “one of the most enduring and powerful forms of family capital.”

The family represents a unique social network where each member can have social relationships, which are based on trust and a shared language, with other family members. Thus, family members can benefit from each other regarding information, influence, and relationships. Organizational social capital describes a resource that represents the character of social relationships within a firm (Kraiczy, 2013). It helps firms provide access to external resources and facilitate internal coordination. The existence and in turn connection of these two forms of social capital can increase positive firm outcomes. For example, Adizes (2009) stated that social capital may affect inter-unit and inter-firm resource exchange, the creation of intellectual capital, inter-firm learning, supplier interactions, product innovation, and entrepreneurship.

Contributions can be derived from both inter and intra-organizational relationships. Contributions from internal relationships include the reduction of transaction costs, facilitation of information flows, knowledge creation and accumulation, and improvement of creativity. External contributions can be found in increasing success rates of alliances. Both family social capital and family firm organizational capital are important resources that can provide information, technological knowledge, access to markets, and complimentary resources. In the context of innovations, the social capital of the family can be a decisive resource, which is unique to each family firm. Depending on the degree of family influence, social networks can be used in order to expand, for example, the in-depth knowledge of trending hospitality technologies from other family firms or suppliers. In particular, family social capital can be identified as a competitive advantage, because it is family and firm-internal strategy. Hence, the effect on innovation outcomes may be positive.

Nevertheless, social capital theory is plagued by theoretical vagueness and conceptual weakness (Ponthieux, 2014) and its practical value has been challenged on various grounds. Sabatini (2006) claimed that the relationship between social capital theory and economic performance is still unconvincing and sometimes conflicting. He outlined three weaknesses of social capital theory as; no universal definition and measurement method; no unanimous agreement on the positive relationship between social capital and performance; and even when a positive relationship is established, doubts remain on the causal nexus between social capital and its outcomes. Chen (2005) argued that despite actual and perceived positive influence of social capital theory, there is still some scepticism about whether and how much influence it exerts on economic development and social transformation. Empirical studies on social capital theory suffer from lack of uniformity with regard to indicators and approaches used to measure aspects of social capital theory (Harper, 2012). It seems to suggest that social capital theory is still surrounded by various practical unanswered questions and it is far from clear. However, there is no doubt that it is a promising construct in fostering economic outcomes and, at least, it has become a subject of interest and opened the room for further theoretical and empirical discussion.

2.7.3 Agency and stewardship theory

Agency and stewardship theory are two interconnected theories that describe the relationship between two actors: the principal and the agent. Therefore, stewardship theory first introduced to management literature by Davis (2002) extends agency theory of Ross and Mitnick by integrating the views of other disciplines such as sociology and psychology (Lechner and Gudmundsson, 2014). Agency theory, which also appears as principal–agent theory in the literature, is theoretically based on divergent interests, opportunistic behavior, and asymmetric information, and deals with the conflict of interest between an agent, who acts as a representative of a principal, and a principal, who delegates work to an agent. In a situation, where the principal and agent have the same interests, no conflict of interest exists and no agency costs arise. In other situations, the principal and agent will have different interests (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006).

Typically, an agent will possess more or better information than will the principal about himself, the decision situation, or the consequences of actions. As a result of asymmetric information, the literature distinguishes between two types of agency conflicts: adverse selection and moral hazard. Adverse selection describes a situation before contracting where the principal inadvertently chooses an agent who is less able, committed, and industrious than the principal expected. Moral hazard describes a situation after contracting where the agent acts in his or her own interests rather than in the interests of the principal. Complete contracts, which anticipate and provide for every eventuality, can only exist if information is perfect and costless and people are unbounded in their mental capabilities. But this is often not the case in reality, where people have bounded rationality. This leads to incomplete contracts between the principal and agent. In order to control the adverse selection and moral hazard problems, principals have to invest in the recruiting process and align interests between themselves and agents (Kraus *et al*., 2012). The costs related to the control of these agency problems are called agency costs. In family firms, three different agency conflicts – family owner vs. external manager, family owner vs. external shareholder, and family owner vs. family manager – can occur.

Nothwithstanding, The greatest weaknesses of agency theory are related to the narrowness of its behavioural assumptions and of the focus of the theory. The fact that agency theory focuses only on self-interested and opportunistic human behaviour means that the theory ignores a wider range of human motives.

2.7.4 Resource based view – justification for adoption

Of the economic and organizational theories dominant with family business research, this study have chosen to anchor the survey on Resource Based View (RBV). A number of family business researchers are increasingly drawing on the Resource-Based View or Theory of rent creation (Shuklev & Ramadani, 2012). The key aspect of RBV is that it moves the focus of competitive differences away from a market perspective to a firm perspective, in order to explain differences in individual firm performance. Central to RBV is that firms have access to different resources, which if they are, Valuable, Rare, Inimitable, and Non-Substitutable (VRIN), will lead to Sustainable Competitive Advantage (SCA) (Rau, 2014). The advantage of drawing on RBV theory within family business research is that it allows for, and can account for differences, in resources that are specific to families that is, their resources and how these are then deployed within the business setting. If these family resources are VRIN, they (potentially) confer competitive advantage (Rau, 2014). RBV also assumes a bounded rationality approach by managers that takes account of other firms' competitive resources, and the accrual of resources to keep it in a superior position. Furthermore, this approach is viewed as occurring over a longer time horizon, a key feature of family firms.

This theory is important to the study as the dynamics in the hospitality sector change over time. Increased advancement especially in information technology brings about a corresponding competition in hospitality due to smart products offering. A firms' ability to compete may be determined by the resources that it has at its disposal. In this study, RBV (Barney, 1991) is adopted to provide theoretical base to study EO-performance relationship of family hospitality business.

2.8 Empirical Review

Esther *et al*. (2018) assessed the effect of entrepreneurial orientation on the customer satisfaction of selected manufacturing firm in Enugu State, Nigeria. The survey research design was adopted for the study. The study had a population size of 1258, out of which a sample size of 303 was realised using Taro Yamene formula at 5% error tolerance and 95% level of confidence. Instrument used for data collection was primarily questionnaire and interview. Out of 303 copies of the questionnaire that were distributed, 278 copies were returned. The hypotheses were tested using Pearson product moment correlation coefficient and simple linear regression statistical tools. The findings indicated that Proactiveness significantly affect customer satisfaction in Innosson technical and industry limited ($r = 0.890$; $F = 1054.328$; $t = 7.685$; $p< 0.05$). There is a positive relationship between innovativeness and product quality in Innosson technical and industry limited ($r = .771$, $P < .05$). Risk –taking significantly affects productivity in Innosson technical and industry limited ($r = 0.724$; $F = 303.480$; $t = 3.439$; $p < 0.05$). The study concluded that entrepreneurial firm is one that engages in product-market innovation, undertakes somewhat risky ventures, and is first to come up with ‘proactive’ innovations, beating competitors to the punch. The study recommended that all manufacturing firms should forecast into future to ascertain the likely needs of the customers, and adopt a proactive measures to address those needs for the achievement of customer satisfaction.

Duru *et al.* (2018) evaluated the role of entrepreneurial orientation in the performance of Small and Medium Enterprises in FCT, Abuja, Nigeria. The study employed a descriptive and quantitative research design. The instrument for data collection was structured questionnaire and works on entrepreneurial orientation-Performance nexus. The data was analyzed using the Principal Component Analysis and multiple linear regression analysis. The results showed that five entrepreneurial orientation dimensions as identified in the literature were not exhibited by SMEs in the study area. Innovativeness was the only entrepreneurial orientation dimension out of the five that exerted a positive and statistically significant relationship with the performance of SMEs. However, the other three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation: proactiveness, risk-taking, and autonomy exerted a positive and insignificant relationship with the performance of SMEs. Therefore, the study, recommends that to add values to their firms, SMEs operators in Abuja need to be innovative in their entrepreneurial activities with emphasis on process and radical innovations.

Ibidunni *et al.* (2018) estimated the moderating effect of Entrepreneurial Orientation on entrepreneurial competencies and performance of agro based SMEs. The study used questionnaires to gather information from 230 managers of agrobased firms in Lagos state Nigeria. Data analysis was carried out using hierarchical multiple regression to show relationships between the variables. Findings suggest that entrepreneurial competencies have a direct influence on performance of Agro-based SMEs. More so, the statistical result indicates that innovativeness, proactiveness and autonomy are the three entrepreneurial orientations that moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and performance of the firms. The study therefore made useful recommendations on the varied adoption of EO dimensions based on context.

Mukarutesi (2018) investigated the Relationship between Entrepreneurial Orientation, Government Policy and SME Performance: The Case of Small and Medium Enterprises in Rwanda. Given the ever-growing importance of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in developing nations like Rwanda this study examines the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation, government policy and the SMEs' performance. The research study was conducted in Rwanda using a cross-sectional research design. The targeted sample was 226 firms and the collected data was entered and analyzed using the SPSS software package. The study used the Pearson correlation coefficient and the regression model analysis to test the research hypothesis. The results show that entrepreneurial orientation is significantly and positively related to both SME performance and government policy. At the same time, government policy is also significantly and positively related to SME performance. These results were confirmed by the hierarchical regression model which showed that entrepreneurial orientation and government policy were both significant predictors of SMEs' performance. Based on its findings the study gives recommendations for SME staff members to improve their performance.

Bonaventure *et al.* (2017) appraised entrepreneurial orientation and organizational competitiveness in the Hospitality Sector in Portharcourt. This study investigated the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and organizational competitiveness of hotel in Port Harcourt. The study utilized quasiexperimental research design based on cross sectional survey. Data were collected through questionnaire and 145 copies of questionnaire were distributed out of which 142 copies were returned as valid copies. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homogeneity. Thus, a non-parametric spearman statistical rank order correlation technique was utilized to test hypotheses. The findings revealed a positive and significant relationship between the dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation and measures of organizational competiveness which are correlated. Based on these findings, we recommended that management and individual in hotel business should take pro-active measures to invest in opportunities that are not open to others to gain organizational competitiveness. They should develop innovative mindset and see innovation as the vehicle through which they satisfy customer value and that will enable the firm to gain organizational competitiveness. They should also see risk-taking from the positive side and should invest in only highly profitable business opportunities that will bring huge profit to shareholders to enable them grow.

Miriti (2017) probed the influence of Family Business Entrepreneurial orientation on Performance of Small and Medium Sized food and Beverage Manufacturing Family Enterprises in Nairobi County, Kenya. The study used descriptive survey design. The target population was 146 businesses registered by Kenya Association of Manufacturers operating businesses in food and beverages. Sample size included 84 businesses which were confirmed as family owned. Respondents were sampled using non-probability convenient sampling procedure. Data was collected using a questionnaire which had both open ended and closed ended items. The study generated both qualitative and quantitative data. The collected data analyzed using inferential and descriptive statistics. Testing of hypothesis was at 95% level of significance. The findings revealed that owner/ managers were supportive and encouraged new ways of doing business and that in the past three years businesses had pioneered the development of breakthrough innovations in industry with respondents' having introduced many new products / services over the past three years implying that the businesses have not only been innovative but also risk taking. On basis of these findings the following recommendations were made: family business should embrace entrepreneurial culture, CEOs and founders to create necessary environment that would encourage and reward those working in the family business to be more innovative, creative and risk takers if they are to continue existing beyond the life span of the founder.

Nwekpa *et al.* (2017) investigated Entrepreneurial Orientation and Business Performance amongst Micro businesses in Nigeria. The approach adopted for the study was exploratory, where by a survey was done on a total of 273 micro businesses from four different sectors; Retail; ICT Manufacturing and Artisans. The data gathered therefrom were analysed using the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation analysis. This study confirms the universal empirical evidence that EO has positive and significant relationships with business performance. This paper highlighted the importance of a neglected form of business, and also provided new dimensions for the measures of micro business performance. The implications of the study are that EO is the way out for micro businesses if they wish to perform better.

Ukonu (2017) examined the crossing-point between entrepreneurial orientation and organisational learning in the manufacturing industry a case of Saclux Industries Nigeria Limited, Abia state. Consented respondents were administered questionnaires. Data collected was keyed into SPSS20 and analysed with multiple regression and correlation to ascertain the degree of relationship and ANOVA to test the effect of the Organisational learning (OL) on Entrepreneurial orientation (EO). The results indicated a positive correlation between OL and EO. Furthermore, Organisational learning had a moderating effect on EO which had a significant effect on each component of EO (risk-taking, proactiveness, innovativeness, competitive aggressiveness and autonomy) independently and jointly with a resultant positive effect on Organisational performance. Consequently, the study infers that more attention be paid to knowledge acquisition, dissemination and shared implementation in both Small, medium and large scale industries if organisations are to survive the dynamic, turbulent and competitive environment in which businesses operate.

James (2016) studied entrepreneurial orientation and performance of commercial banks in Kenya. The research was a descriptive survey and targeted at head of the department of business development and or head of research and development at the head office of all commercial banks in Kenya. One of the major findings of the study was that many of the respondents agreed that the banks" profits increased by the activities of entrepreneurial orientation. Furthermore, it was found that a lot of the respondents attributed the success in their banks to the level of implementation of entrepreneurial orientation strategies in their products, services, and as well as their processes and procedures. The study recommended that banks should create enabling environment for the employees to be innovative in their operations in order to take its competitive advantage through creation of innovative services (financial) leading to increased financial performance and growth of the sector.

Olaniran (2016) explored the role of Entrepreneurial Orientation in performance of firms on the Nigerian Stock Exchange. The target population was 176 firms listed in

Nigerian Stock Exchange with financial returns as at August, 2014. Out of the population, a sample of 60 firms were selected. Secondary data collection instruments were applied on the sampled firms. Tools used in the analysis included frequency tables, mean, standard deviation and correlation coefficient. SPSS Version 20 was also used in the analysis of the data. Other methods of statistical analyses were Pooled, Random and Fixed regression models based on the preferences suggested by the Hausman specification test results. The results of panel analysis of the relationship between Entrepreneurial Orientation dimensions – Innovation, Risktaking, Pro-active Posture and Aggressiveness; and performance of firms listed in the Nigerian Stock Exchange, with Returns on Assets and Returns on Equity as proxy, showed a negative relationship between Innovation and Returns on Equity and Innovation and Returns on Equity. It also revealed a negative relationship between Risk-taking and Returns on Assets, but a positive relationship between Risk-taking and Returns on Equity. Other dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation such as pro-active posture and aggressiveness had positive relationships with Returns on Assets and Returns on Equity. The implication of this study results is that, in Nigeria, though entrepreneurial orientation has been widely adopted and practiced, innovation and risk-taking are yet to have positive relationship with Returns on Assets and Returns on Equity. This may be due to the fact that Innovation and Risk-taking may be at infancy stage and cosmetic as revealed in previous studies or the firms were operating, essentially, in a seller's market or both.

Misoskaa *et al*. (2016) studied investigated the drivers of entrepreneurial intentions among business students in Macedonia. This research endeavours to identify factors that drive entrepreneurial intentions among Macedonian business students. The Partial least square approach to the Structural equation modelling was applied. The study used a sample size of 225 students which was analyzed with multiple regression. The result revealed that entrepreneurial intentions determine the likelihood of starting a business whereas the Theory of Planned Behaviour suggests that intentions capture the motivational aspect of behaviour and are dependent on behavioural, normative and control beliefs. Findings highlight the impact of entrepreneurship education, support systems and a favourable business climate on entrepreneurial intentions, which correspond to the majority of the European countries as well as global tendencies.

Oluwale *et al.* (2016) examined factors influencing entrepreneurial orientation of smallholder farmers in southwestern Nigeria. Smallholder farmers have continued to thrive in Nigeria as they cater for immediate needs of families with little left for the market. Despite several challenges in the sector, smallholder farmers remain principal actors in the nation's agricultural production. Their entrepreneurial acumen has been displayed in their ability to survive regardless of harsh economic and technological environments. This paper provides information on factors influencing entrepreneurial orientation of smallholder farmers in Nigeria. The study was conducted among farmers who participated in the RUFIN initiative in Lagos and Oyo states. A total of 240 questionnaires were administered on smallholder farmers in the two states with 92.5% response rate, of which 90.8% were well completed and useful for multiple regression analysis. The results showed that majority of the farmers were males (67.9%) and majority (72%) of the respondents were youths (21-50 years) and married (80.8%). Few farmers (19.3%) had university education and a small majority (29.4%) had no formal education. About 81.2% of the respondents engaged in core farming activities while few of them were into trading-related activities. The results further showed a medium rating of innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking potential. Farmers' innovativeness was influenced by their level of expenditure on new products cultivation, R&D spending, educational attainment and idea generation. Other factors which influenced proactiveness and ability to take risk were introduction of new technology and high-cost project investment. The paper concludes that entrepreneurial training and government interventions are required to enhance the entrepreneurial capability of the farmers for improved growth.

Pratono and Mahmood (2016) investigated entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance: How can small and medium-sized enterprises survive environmental turbulence? This study investigates the entrepreneurial ecosystem to determine the role of environmental turbulence in the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and firm performance. This study attempts to provide additional insight to understand the relationship between EO and performance. This study uses a structural equation model with data from 255 small and medium-sized enterprises operating in Indonesia. The results indicate that environmental turbulence may have either a positive or negative impact on firm performance by encouraging firms to be more effective and achieve greater performance or having a negative effect on firms with superior entrepreneurial orientation.

Sidek *et al.* (2016) investigated the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation, access to finance and SMEs performance. The study attempted to unearth whether access to finance can be a mediator in the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business performance. For start-up, this study employed a primary data set drawn from 30 SMEs and using regression analysis to test all hypotheses. By testing the mediator effect, this study advances the previous works on this area which considers this effect on business performance simultaneously. The main findings indicate that entrepreneurial orientation and access to finance are positively significant on business performance and entrepreneurial orientation would help business to get access to capital and hence its performance could be improved. The study made useful recommendations to the stakeholder such as government, private bodies, NGOs, policy maker and entrepreneurs on the important of entrepreneurial orientation and accessibility to finance on business performance.

Siraj *et al.* (2016) explored the role of entrepreneurial orientation in shaping firm innovative performance. A cross sectional survey using questionnaire was conducted on a sample of 261 manufacturing SMEs operating in Kano State, Nigeria. Pearson correlation and linear regression analyses were performed to analyze the data. The results indicate significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and firm innovation, and that among the dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation, pro activeness contributes most to innovation. Firms should therefore constantly evaluate the level of their entrepreneurial orientation in order to find out whether it is sufficiently adopted, and that they should concentrate on pro activeness.

Aliyu *et al.* (2015) studied entrepreneurial and Market Orientation Relationship to Performance: The Role of Business Environment. A survey research designed with planned questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale was adopted from previous works to determine responses from 640 owner/managers of SMEs. The analysis was carried using Correlation, the results of the study indicated that entrepreneurial orientation has a significant and positive relationship with business performance; a negative relationship is reported between market orientation and business performance. The study also found that business environment does not moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation, market orientation and business performance of SMEs. Owner/ managers, regulatory agencies, government, and other stakeholders will benefit from the study findings, and future research direction provided.

Belgacem (2015) explored Entrepreneurial Orientation and Firms' Performance: The Case of Tunisian Companies. The purpose of this paper is to study the relationship between the three main dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation and the performance of 100 Tunisian companies. A survey of 100 small and medium companies revealed the existence of a direct and positive relationship between the three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation, namely innovation, risk-taking and proactiveness, and performance. From this study, we can emphasize the idea that more the Tunisian companies are proactive, accept the risk of success or failure, and encourage the innovation, more they improve their performance. Moreover, the effect of the relationship between the three couples; innovation - performance, risk taking – performance, and proactiveness - performance is large and statistically significant. This article provides recommendations for companies of how their entrepreneurial orientation positively influences their performance.

Gupta (2015) examined the EO–performance relationship among small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in India. Data collected from 198 Indian SMEs was tested with regression analysed. It revealed a strong positive linkage between EO and firm performance. Environmental contingencies – demand growth and competitive intensity – were theorized and found to have a moderating influence on the EO–performance relationship. Implications and directions for future research are discussed.

Otache and Mahmood (2015) measured entrepreneurial orientation and performance of Nigerian banks with team work being the mediating factor. The regression results showed that there was no threat of non-response bias. Also, the normality test results showed that the data were normal as the z kurtosis and z skewness values were less than the recommended threshold of ±2.58 (0.01 level of significance). Findings from this study showed a positive and significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and performance. Furthermore, as hypothesized, further assessment of the structural model indicated that teamwork fully mediated the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and performance. Teamwork was positively and significantly related to entrepreneurial orientation and organizational performance.

Semrau *et al.* (2015) considered the entrepreneurial orientation and SME performance across societal cultures: An international study. The focus of this study is an examination of the EO of inner city traders in the City of Johannesburg, South Africa. Data relating to EO, contextual factors and entrepreneurial performance were collected from 308 street traders and regression analysis was used to test the hypothesized effects. The findings indicate that EO is associated with certain contextual and learning factors, suggesting that the provision of entrepreneurial training might contribute to the empowerment of informal entrepreneurs. At the same time, higher levels of proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness were found to be positively associated with continuance satisfaction.

Bouncken *et al.* (2014) studied the entrepreneurial orientation in vertical alliances: joint product innovation and learning from allies. This paper clarifies how a firm's entrepreneurial orientation (EO) affects joint product innovation within a vertical alliance and how this is influenced by increasing technological uncertainty and the absorption of knowledge from the alliance partners. The results of a structural equation model with latent interactions on 171 firms in the manufacturing industry indicate that the focal firm's EO increases joint innovation, although this positive effect declines when a high level of uncertainty increases. On the other hand, the ability to absorb partners' knowledge increases joint product innovation. As such, this study's results contribute to research in the field of vertical alliances, EO, and the theoretical foundation of a dynamic capability perspective.

Filser and Eggers (2014) delved into the entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance: A comparative study of Austria, Liechtenstein and Switzerland. The objective of this study was to investigate the influence of the EO dimensions on the performance of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in different but neighboring countries. The focus is on the Rhine Valley, a region that covers parts of Austria, Liechtenstein and Switzerland. Based on a telephone survey responses from 304 business owners and CEOs in the Rhine Valley were collected. Multiple regression analysis shows that firm performance is affected by innovativeness and risk-taking and surprisingly not by proactiveness. The findings reveal that firms in different countries show different configurations of EO dimensions. Therefore, our results suggest that firm performance depends on each EO dimension with regard to environmental aspects. Practical as well as theoretical implications are discussed and recommendations for future research are proposed.

Also, Lumpkin and Rauch (2014) probed entrepreneurial orientation and business performance: an assessment of past research and suggestions for the future. Extending beyond qualitative assessment, the study undertook a meta analysis exploring the magnitude of the EO-performance relationship and assessed potential moderators affecting this relationship. Analyses of 53 samples from 51 studies with an N of 14,259 companies indicated that the correlation of EO with performance is moderately large ($r = .242$) and that this relationship is robust to different operationalization of key constructs as well as cultural contexts. Internal and environmental moderators were identified, and results suggested that additional moderators should be assessed. Recommendations for future research are developed.

Onyema (2014) researched the effects of Entrepreneurial Orientations on Organizational Learning in a Manufacturing Firm in Nigeria. The data for the study was collected through questionnaire administered on different categories of staff of Unilever Nig. Plc. The data collected was analyzed using multiple regression, descriptive statistics and Pearson’s correlation analysis. The result of the study indicated that entrepreneurial orientation as measured by risk taking behaviour, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness has positive and significant impact on organizational learning. The conclusion is that the enterprises especially small and medium scale ones, must learn and apply knowledge of such learning to adjustment strategies in order to take advantage of emerging opportunities. It is therefore recommended that given the increasing volatility of enterprise operating environment enterprises need to continually increase their coping ability through learning.

Arisi-Nwugballa *et al.* (2013) evaluated the relevance of Entrepreneurial Orientation to the Performance of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises in Ebonyi State, Nigeria. To achieve this, the researchers randomly distributed 400 copies of questionnaire to a sample of MSMEs in the State, and 246 copies were retrieved, representing 61.5 per cent return rate. Data generated were analysed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The study found that three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation namely; innovativeness, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness were relevant to, at least, one measure MSMEs performance in Ebonyi State. Innovativeness and proactiveness have significant correlation with customer performance, while competitive aggressiveness has significant relationship with both product and customer performance. Risk-taking and autonomy had no significant correlation with any of the performance measures, suggesting they are not relevant to MSMEs in the State. An important implication of these findings is that strategic policy decisions of MSMEs should, given the present status of Ebonyi State, focus on enhancing their positions in respect of innovativeness, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness; towards improving their overall performance.

Abdullah and Al-Hosam (2012) inquired into the effect of entrepreneurial orientation on the organizational performance (Islamic Banks in Yemen) using the partial least squares approach. Data was collected from the Yemen banking sector employing responses from bank managers with forty-four out of fifty-six questionnaires being returned. The results of the study pertaining to the impact of entrepreneurial orientation on the performance of Islamic Banks was confirmed in line with the Resource-Based View of the firm that looks at the organizations capabilities as a source of competitive advantage. The study confirmed the important effect of entrepreneurial orientation on organizational performance and the need of banks to be entrepreneurial to be able to respond quickly to the unexpected changing business environment and ensure customer satisfaction.

Kaunda (2012) looked into Entrepreneurial Orientation, Age of Owner and Small Business Performance in Johannesburg. The study was completed by means of a convenience sample of 103 firms in Johannesburg, collected and analyzed through regression, the data on small entrepreneurs and established an understanding of the link between entrepreneurial orientation and business performance, amongst younger and older entrepreneurs in South Africa. The study found that more than other factors, the proactivity of the entrepreneur influenced the entrepreneurial orientation (EO) relationship, while risk taking and innovation did not have a major effect on this relationship and subsequent performance of the business (BP). Other key finding of the research showed a suggestion of age having an inverse relationship with entrepreneurial orientation and business performance as well. This research is expected to add value to entrepreneurs, future researchers and policy makers in government by helping identify where to direct their focus in enhancing entrepreneurial development.

Chen (2011) investigated Entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance in non-profit service organizations: contingent effect of market orientation. A moderated hierarchical regression based on a sample of 307 non-profit service organizations revealed that an inverted U-shaped relationship existed between each sub-dimension of EO and performance. However, these relationships do not exist for each sub-dimension of MO. When both market intelligence generation and responsiveness are high, the relationship between innovativeness and performance will be in a linear form. Under the condition of high-market intelligence responsiveness, the higher proactiveness will lead to a higher performance level. These findings will better our understanding of the relationship between EO and firms' performance.

Clausen and Madson (2011) probed ''entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance: as dynamic perspective". The study draw on survey data where firms have been administered a questionnaire at two points in time matched with official firm register data about survival and exit in Norway. Regression analysis with control for selection bias is used to examine the relationship between EO and firm performance. The result showed that the firms initial EO at Time period 1, as well the change in EO over time, influence firm performance in Time period 2. Overall, this paper contributes to the literature by incorporating a dynamic perspective on the relationship between EO and firm performance.

Kraus *et al.* (2011) examined Entrepreneurial orientation and the business performance of SMEs: a quantitative study from the Netherlands. The study used multidimensional model of EO and test a series of hypotheses pertaining to its performance effects using survey data gathered from 164 Dutch SMEs. The result showed that proactive firm behavior positively contributes to SMEs performance during the economic crisis. It further showed that innovative SMEs do perform better in turbulent environments, but those innovative SMEs should minimize the level of risk and actions to avoid projects that are too risky.

Madhoushi *et al*. (2011) researched entrepreneurial orientation and Innovation Performance: The Mediating Role of Knowledge Management. Firms with greater innovativeness will be more successful in responding to changing environments and in developing new capabilities that allow them to achieve better performance. This study tried to accentuate the role of Knowledge Management (KM) in the relations of Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO) and innovation performance. The population in the study was 164 Iranian SMEs. This study developed and simultaneously tested three hypotheses about: (1) The impact of EO on innovation performance, (2) The impact of EO on KM, and (3) The impact of km on innovation performance. LISREL software was used to test the hypotheses. The results indicated that entrepreneurial orientation both directly (B = 0.38) and indirectly through the knowledge management (B = 0.377) affected innovation performance. Hence, knowledge management acts as a mediator between entrepreneurial orientation and innovation performance.

Alarape (2009) assessesed the relationship between the Perceived Business Environment and Firm's Entrepreneurial Orientation. The paper examined the entrepreneurial orientation and performance of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) vis-à-vis the environmental embeddedness. Using multi-stage sampling technique, a total 279 firms were selected for the study at two strategic areas, Lagos and Ibadan being the hub of industrial activities in Southwestern Nigeria. The data generated was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. It was found that the entrepreneurial orientation of the firms is significantly related with two environmental variables of dynamism and hostility, while the four environmental variables of dynamism, hostility, heterogeneity and munificence significantly related to the dimensional variables of entrepreneurial orientation.

Okpara (2009) surveyed entrepreneurial orientation and Export Performance: Evidence from an Emerging Economy. This study follows a quantitative research design using survey methods with statistical treatment. Several t-tests and correlation tests were used to ascertain whether relationships existed between high (proactive) and low (conservative) entrepreneurial orientation firms and selected performance indicators. Results showed that firms that adopted proactive orientation achieved higher performance, profitability, and growth compared to those that adopted a conservative orientation. The study offered practical suggestions on how SMEs can improve growth, performance, and profitability by engaging in proactive export orientation behaviors.

Table 2.11: Review of Empirical Family Business and EO Publications.

Author(s)	Topic(s)	Methods	Findings	Research Gaps
Esther *et al*. (2018)	Effect of entrepreneurship orientation on the customer satisfaction of selected manufacturing firms in Enugu	Survey was adopted and 278 firms across multiple industries. Pearson moment correlation was used for analyses.	Higher EO strategic consistency stemming from managerial intentionality—yields higher levels of customer satisfaction.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Duru *et al.* (2018)	Role of Entrepreneurial Orientation in the Performance of Small and Medium Enterprises: Evidence from Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, Nigeria.	Data was collected with questionnaire and analyzed using the Principal Component Analysis and multiple linear regression analysis.	The results showed that five entrepreneurial orientation dimensions as identified in the literature were not exhibited by SMEs in the study area	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Ibidunni *et al.* (2018)	the moderating effect of Entrepreneurial Orientation on entrepreneurial competencies and performance of agro based SMEs.	Survey was used among managers of 230 sampled agro-based firms in Lagos state. Data was analyze using hierarchical multiple regression to show relationships between the variables.	Findings suggest that entrepreneurial competencies have a direct influence on performance of Agro-based SMEs.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Mukarutesi (2018)	Relationship between Entrepreneurial Orientation, Government Policy & SME Performance: The Case of Small and Medium Enterprises in Rwanda.	A cross sectional research design was used. The sample of 226 firms was analyzed using Pearson correlation coefficient and regression model analysis	The results show that EO is significantly and positively related to both SME performance and government policy.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Bonaventure *et al.* (2017)	Entrepreneurial orientation and organizational competitiveness in the Hospitality Sector in Portharcourt	Quasi-experimental research survey design was used and 145 sampled managers was analyzed with spearman statistical rank order correlation to test hypotheses	The findings revealed a positive and significant relationship between the dimensions of EO and measures of organizational competiveness which correlated positively.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Miriti (2017)	Influence of FB EO on Performance of SME food & Beverage Manufacturing Enterprises in Nairobi County, Kenya	The study used descriptive survey design. A Sample of 84 manufacturing FB were analyzed using descriptive and inferential correlation statistics	The findings revealed that managers were supportive and that in the past three years businesses had pioneered the development of breakthrough innovations in industry	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance

Nwekpa *et al.* (2017)	Entrepreneurial Orientation and Business Performance amongst Micro businesses in Nigeria.	An exploratory survey design of 273 enterprises from retail; ICT, Manufacturing and Artisans. Data were analysed using Pearson Moment Correlation.	This study confirms the universal empirical evidence that EO has positive and significant relationships with business performance.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Ukonu (2017)	The crossing-point between EO and organisational learning in the manufacturing industry a case of Saclux Industries Nigeria Limited, Abia state	Data collected was analysed with multiple regression and ANOVA to test the hypothesized relationships.	The results indicated a positive correlation between OL and EO	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
James (2016)	Entrepreneurial orientation and performance of commercial banks in Kenya	A descriptive survey and targeted 28 heads of business development unit of commercial banks in Kenya & was analyzed with ANOVA	It was found that banks performance was due to the level of implementation of EO in banks products and services.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Olaniran (2016)	Role of Entrepreneurial Orientation in performance of firms on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.	Secondary data was collected from 60 public quoted firms. Mean, standard deviation and correlation coefficient was used to test the hypotheses.	The results showed that EO innovativeness and risk-taking did not have positive relationship with Returns on Assets and Returns on Equity but with other dimensions	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Oluwale *et al.* (2016)	Factors Influencing EO Of Smallholder Farmers In Southwestern Nigeria.	The study sampled 240 farmers from Lagos and Oyo states. Multiple regression analysis was used in testing the hypothesized relationship	The results showed a medium rating of innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking potential. Farmers' innovativeness was influenced by intencity of expenditure on new implements, products cultivation, R&D.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Pratono & Mahmood (2016)	Entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance: How can SMEs survive environmental turbulence?	This study uses a structural equation model with data from 255 small and medium-sized enterprises operating in Indonesia.	The results indicated that environmental turbulence have negative impact on firm performance but lesser effect on firms with superior EO.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Sidek *et al.* (2016)	The relationship between entrepreneurial orientation, access to finance and SMEs performance	The study employed a primary data set drawn from 30 SMEs and used regression analysis to test all hypotheses.	The main findings indicated that EO and access to finance are positively significant to business performance	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance

Siraj *et al.* (2016)	The role of entrepreneurial orientation in shaping firm innovative performance.	A cross sectional survey of 261 manufacturing SMEs in Kano State. Pearson correlation and linear regression analyses were used to analyze the data	The results indicate significant relationship between EO and firm innovation, and that among the dimensions of EO, proactiveness contributes most to innovation.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Aliyu *et al.* (2015)	Entrepreneurial and Market Orientation Relationship to Performance: The Role of Business Environment.	A survey research designed was adopted and 640 responses obtained from managers of SMEs was tested using correlation analyses.	The results of the study indicated that EO has a significant and positive relationship with BP; a negative relationship is reported between market orientation and BP.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Belgacem (2015)	Entrepreneurial Orientation and Firms' Performance: The Case Of Tunisian Companies.	This study used a structural equation model with data from 100 Tunisian SMEs.	It revealed the existence of a direct and positive relationship between the three dimensions of EO and firm performance	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Gupta (2015)	Entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance among indian SMEs	Data collected from 198 Indian SMEs was tested with regression analysed.	It revealed a strong positive linkage between EO and firm performance	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Otache & Mahmood (2015)	Entrepreneurial orientation and performance of Nigerian banks with mediation of team work.	The study employed a primary data set drawn from 23 banks and used regression analysis to test all hypotheses.	Findings showed a positive and significant relationship between EO, teamwork and performance.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Semrau *et al.* (2015)	Entrepreneurial orientation and SME performance across societal cultures: An international study	Data obtained from 308 street traders were regressed to test the hypothesized effects.	The findings indicated that EO is associated with contextual and learning factors, suggesting that the provision of entrepreneurial training might contribute to the empowerment of informal entrepreneurs	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Bouncken *et al.* (2014)	Entrepreneurial orientation in vertical alliances: joint product innovation and learning from allies.	The study hypotheses were tested with structural equation model with latent interactions on 171 firms	It was indicated that the focal firm's EO increases joint innovation, although this positive effect declines when a high level of uncertainty increases	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance

Filser and Eggers (2014)	EO and firm performance: A comparative study of Austria, Liechtenstein & Switzerland.	Multiple regression analysis of 304 enterprises was done	It showed that firm performance is affected by innovativeness and risk-taking and surprisingly not by proactiveness.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Lumpkin and Rauch (2014)	Entrepreneurial orientation and BP: An assessment of past research & suggestions for the future	Analyses of 53 samples from 51 studies with an N of 14,259 companies	It indicated that the correlation of EO with performance is moderately large (r =.242) and that the relationship is robust	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Onyema (2014)	Effects of EO on Organizational Learning in a Manufacturing Firms in Nigeria.	Data was analyzed using multiple regression, descriptive statistics and Pearson's correlation analysis.	It indicated that EO as measured by risktaking, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness has positive & significant impact on organizational learning	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Arisi-Nwugballa *et al.* (2013)	The relevance of EO to the Performance of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises in Ebonyi State.	246 MSMEs were sampled and data generated was analysed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation.	It was found that innovativeness, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness were relevant to MSMEs performance. Risk-taking and autonomy had no significant effect.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Abdullah and Al-Hosam (2012)	Effect of EO on the organizational performance (Islamic Banks in Yemen)	The study used partial least squares technique to analyze data collected from 44 Yemen banking sector bank managers	The study confirmed the important effect of EO on Banks organizational performance.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Kaunda (2012)	Entrepreneurial Orientation, Age of Owner and Small Business Performance in Johannesburg.	The study sampled 103 firms in Johannesburg and analyzed through regression	It found that more than other factors, proactivity influenced the EO – performance relationship even though it was positive.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Chen (2011)	Entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance in non-profit service organizations: contingent effect of market orientation.	A moderated hierarchical regression based on 307 sample was used to test the hypotheses.	It revealed that an inverted U-shaped relationship existed between each sub-dimension of EO and performance. Higher proactiveness will lead to a higher performance level.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance

Clausen & Madson (2011)	Entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance: as dynamic perspective	Regression analysis with control for selection bias is used to examine the relationship.	The result showed that the firms initial EO at Time period 1, as well the change in EO over time, influence firm performance in Time period 2.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Kraus *et al*. (2011)	Entrepreneurial orientation and the business performance of SMEs: a quantitative study from the Netherlands	The study used sampled data from 164 Dutch SMEs. Multiple regression was used for analyses.	The result indicated a positive relationship between EO and SMEs performance after using survey data gathered from 164 Dutch SMEs.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Madhoushi *et al*. (2011)	Entrepreneurial orientation and Innovation Performance: The Mediating Role of Knowledge Management.	This study developed and simultaneously tested three hypotheses and LISREL software was used to analyze them.	The results indicated that EO both directly and indirectly affect knowledge management & innovation performance. Hence, knowledge management acts as a mediator between EO and innovation performance.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Alarape (2009)	The relationship between the Perceived Business Environment and Firm's Entrepreneurial Orientation.	Using multi-stage sampling technique, a total 279 firms were selected from lagos and Abuja. The data generated was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics	It was found that the EO of the firms is significantly related with two environmental variables of dynamism and hostility.	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance
Okpara (2009)	Entrepreneurial orientation and Export Performance: Evidence from an Emerging Economy.	This study follows a quantitative research survey design. Several t-tests and correlation tests were used to ascertain the relationships.	Results showed that firms that adopted EO achieved higher performance, profitability, and growth compared to those that chosed to be conservative	Did not explore EO in the context of hospitality firms and family business performance

Source: Author (2020)

2.8.1 Research gap

Entrepreneurial orientation study is context specific (Rauch *et al.,* 2009). Therefore, the literature available for review revealed a gap in context and method applied in previous researches.

Most of the earlier works for instance Rauch *et al.* (2009), Gupta and Gupta (2014), and Dess and Lumpkin (2005) done on entrepreneurial orientation were carried out in developed settings like Europe and America which have different level of idiosyncrasy from Northern Nigeria, so their findings are not generalizable to this part of the country.

Furthermore, some of these studies for example Melia and Robinson (2018), Kobjoll (2007) employed a very small sample size or used a comparative study approach where only two hotels were investigated, therefore their findings may not be generalizable in Nigeria. Some of the studies were conducted more than five years ago; therefore due to changes in the business environment, their findings may not be valid today. Other research works that were conducted focused mostly on manufacturing industry, implying that their findings may not be generalizable to the hospitality sector which is intangible and service oriented.

The method adopted for analyses in previous work such as Anderson *et al.* (2009) is also subject of suspect, as it could not efficiently address multi-variate and latent variables. This study therefore seek to apply structural equation model partial least square (SEM-PLS) in testing the variables and constructs under investigation. This analytical tool has been found overtime to be very effective in testing and analyzing multi-variate functions.

Additionally, most of the studies with one identifiable exception (Hughes and Morgan, 2007) have only measured EO as a whole and have not tested the relationship of its individual dimensions and performance. However, it had been suggested that all the dimensions of EO may not always be beneficial for firm performance (Lyden 2015; Hughes and Morgan, 2007), value will be added by increasing the understanding of the effects of EO and its dimensions by also looking at the impact of the single dimensions on family hospitality firms' performance.

With regard to EO as the main pillar of family firms' long-term success, a puzzle can be observed. Even though entrepreneurship scholars suggested a positive relationship between EO and firms' short-term and long-term success, scholars such as (Dess *et al.,* 2003, Zahra and Covin, 1995, Zahra and Garvis, 2000) who investigated family firms that have survived and prospered across generations argued that they provide a context hampering EO (Barringer & Bluedorn, 1999; Cabrera-Suarez *et al.,* 2011 and Covin & Slevin, 1991). The question thus is: how much entrepreneurship in terms of EO is needed for long-term success of family firms? Do they have to be entrepreneurial all the time, or is there a distinct promising EO pattern? These are unanswered by the previous literature and the study attempted to answer them.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Description of the Study Area

This research is set in the context of North-central Nigeria, a country of more than 180 million people (National Population Commission NPC, 2006). North Central Nigeria consists of six states and FCT of the country. The region is rich in historical and colonial relics, natural land features, and boasts some of Nigeria's most exciting scenery.

Abuja – The Federal Military Government of Nigeria, promulgated decree No. 6 on the 4th of February, 1976, which initiated the removal of the Federal Capital from Lagos to Abuja. As of 2015, the city was experiencing an annual growth of at least 35%, retaining its position as the fastest-growing city on the African continent and one of the fastest-growing in the world. Abuja is Nigeria's administrative and political centre and also a strategic capital on African continental affairs due to Nigeria's geo-political influence in regional issues. As a result, Abuja has continued to witness high influx of visitors, investors, tourist and the likes. There are a number of hospitality firms that rose to the needs of tourists and guests from no stars hotels/guest lodges to five stars hotels.

Benue State – Benue State popularly called "food basket of the nation" with a population of about 4,256, 641 (NPC, 2006) has a wide range of tourist attractions. The tourism potentials include Makurdi Zoological Garden, the Ikyogen Cattle Ranch, Dajo Pottery, Ikwe Holiday Resort, Enemabia Warm Spring, Montane Games Reserve and the popular archaeological Hills hosting the reach cultural heritage of the Tiv people. There are a number of hospitality firms that sprung up in response to the accommodation, foods, drinks and pleasure needs of tourists and visitors.

Kogi State – Kogi State is called the “Confluence State” because of it location at the meeting point of the Rivers Niger and Benue. Kogi State has beautiful places of interest to visit such as: Lord Lugard’s House, The Inikpe Statue**;** World War Cenotaph Lokoja; The 50 meters Osome Falls; Mount Patti; Agbaja Plateau picnic and mountaineering spot; European Cemeteries; the Awo Tunnel among others, The huge crowd of tourist that throng the state for tourism and other related matters necesitated the setting-up of a number of hospitality firms.

Kwara State – Kwara State is known as ‘The State of Harmony’ because of the peaceful relations between its many ethnic groups, which include Yoruba, Nupe, Bariba and Fulani tribes. The tourist attractions in Kwara State are: Owu water Fall, Ilorin International airport, Mungo park monument, Sobi hills, Esie Museum, Asa dam, Emirs palace Ilorin, patigi beach, Unilorin botanical garden, Imoleboja Rockshelter, National Park, Watana Rock, Wanzaya Cave among others. The increasing volume of tourist and other pleasure seekers also warranted private investment in hospitality firms.

Nasarawa State – Nassarawa state slogan “home of solid minerals” is a pot pourri of tourist attractions with array of hills and rocks that dot the state’s landscape. The young state is richly endowed with scenic beauty, and conspicuous features such as the famous Mada Hills and Rukubi Hills, Ava and Eggon Hills at Keffi, Keana Salt Processing centre, Hunkulake, Akuriwari warm spring, Crocodile Lake, Assakio and Natural springwaterlafia. Its temperate climate makes it a tourist destination. Some of the exciting spots for pleasure seekers are Graceland hotel & Suites.

Niger State – Niger State has the largest landmass in the country. The State is home to Kainji and Shiroro hydroelectric power Stations; hence it is dubbed the ‘Power State’. Some of the exciting tourist sites that are mecca of sort to pleasure seekers are Kainji National Park, the Borgu game reserve, Zugurma game reserve, Gurara falls among others. In response to the pleasure needs of tourists and visitors, a good number of lodges sprung up in some strategic parts of the state.

Plateau State – The name 'Plateau' was gotten from the picturesque of Jos Plateau, which is a mountainous area in the north with a captivating rock formation and its slogan home of peace and tourism. Platue state has an enviable weather,fascinating rocky terrain and scenic attractions such as Assop Falls, Shere hills, Wase Wildlife Park, Kwi Conical Hill, Kahwang Basaltic rock formation, Kerang Volcano Hill, Riyom Rock, Amuru bird sanctuary, Shendam Artworks, Naraguta Tourist Village, Rayfield Resort, Solomon Lar Amusement Park, Jos National Museum among others. Anumber of hospitality firms that sprung up to cater for the pleasure needs of tourists and guests.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopted a quantitative approach by using a descriptive survey design to establish the relationship between EO and family business performance. Davis (2002) described research design as the overall strategy that is chosen to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby ensuring that research problems effectively addressed. Research design constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. It involves using questionnaires and sometimes interview tests, and generalizing the results of the sample to the population from which it is drawn. The descriptive survey design was used to obtain information from a sample of family managed hospitality firms' respondents for testing hypotheses on entrepreneurial orientation application in the firms. See fig 3.1 for details of the research design.

The research onion was used in explaining the research design for the study.

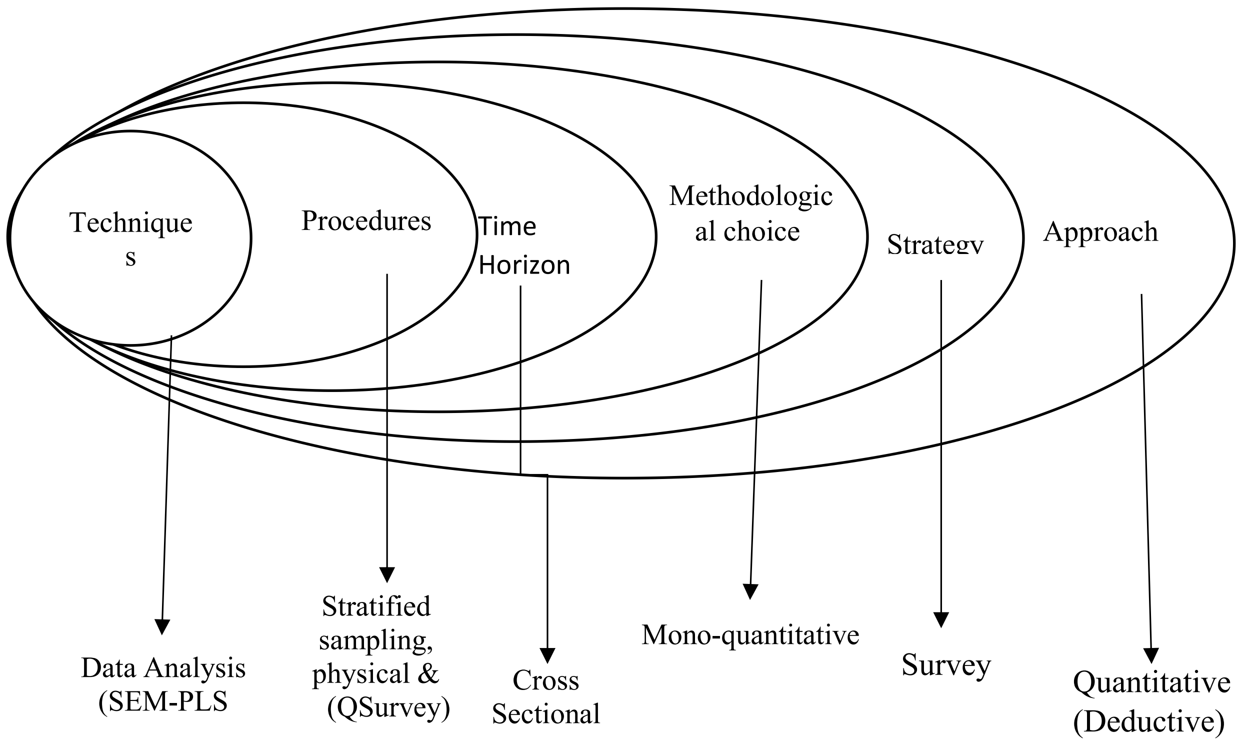

Fig 3. 1: "Onion**"** Research framework

Source: Adapted from Saunders *et al.* (2016)

i. Approach

The deductive quantitative approach is particularly suited to the positivist approach, which permits the formulation of hypotheses, questionnaires and the statistical testing of expected results to an accepted level of probability $P < 0.05$ (Snieder & Larner, 2009). The data collected helped to confirm or reject the research hypotheses on EO and family hospitality business in north-central region.

ii. Strategy

Survey was used in quantitative research and involves sampling a representative proportion of the population (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This strategy was used to observe causal variables between EO and family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria. It permits the collection of vast data from 6 states and FCT that was used to answer the research questions.

iii. **Methodological choice**

There are three research approaches Mono, Mixed and Multi method. However, this study adopted mono-method which involves the use of quantitative methodology to test the relationship between EO and family hospitality business.

iv. Time horizon

This is the timeframe within which the project is intended for completion (Saunders *et al.,* 2016). There are two types of time horizons; the cross sectional and the longitudinal. The cross sectional time horizon applied to this study, where the studies and investigation concerned EO of family held hospitality firms was collected from 453 hotels in north-central region, analysed and reported between 2017 to 2020.

v. **Procedures**

This layer of the research onion indicated how the research data were collected. However, the North Central Geopolitical region comprised of people with significantly diverse characteristics. Thus, stratified sampling technique was employed to collect primary data from hotel owner-managers mainly through the web-based and drop and pick questionnaires.

vi. Techniques

This last layer of the research onion implied the methodology used to analyze the data collected. The data collected through survey was analyzed using smartPLS to test the hypothesized relationships between the EO and family hospitality firms.

3.3 Population and Population frame for the Study

A population refers to all the cases, even though a researcher is usually unable to reach the whole population within the time frame available. However, most family businesses are considered to be Small and Medium scale Enterprises (SMEs). The population of this study comprised of 2491 hotels in the region which was taken from CAC 2017 report of registered companies in Nigeria. The study further compared the list with Nigeria Hoteliers Association State chapters and FCT register to identify and extract the family owned hospitality firms. However, the target population of the study consists of the owners-managers of the 2,388 family hospitality firms in the study area.

3.4 Unit of Analysis

This study of family hospitality owned/managed businesses with few full-time working employees (the definition of micro-sized in Nigerian enterprises) so the unit of analysis will be at the organization or firm level, the family business itself. This is necessary to determine the boundary of the data collection (Saunders *et al.,* 2016). A firm as the unit of analysis, means that the focus is on its characteristics and actions in the market, not on the interests and behaviors of various individuals or subunits and bargaining between them inside the firm.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Various opinions exist about the appropriate sample size for quantitative methods. Determining the appropriate sample size is very important in any empirical research, as inadequate sample size or even too large a size may affect the quality of the research (Siegel, 2013). Many researchers such as Cohen *et al.* (2003) and Donaldson (2011) however, suggested that the larger the sample size, the less probable it is to produce errors in generalizing findings to the population; and a larger size is more likely to be normally distributed when analyzing the resulting data (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Sampling frame is the list of all elements of the population from which a sample will be drawn (Siegel, 2013). A list of all the hotels in the study area was obtained from (Corporate Affairs Commission, CAC) and further filtered with the list of state chapters of Hotelier Association in order to extract family hospitality businesses among the list. In doing this, the selection criteria used includes but not limited to the following; the hospitality firm must be family owned or managed, must not be government owned, must not be corporately held, the firm must have been in business for at least five years, the management team must have at least a family member that is, where it is owned by the family, and where the hospitality firm is publicly quoted, the family must have an equity stake not less than 25%.

The sample size was arrived at using Yamane (Yamane, 1973) formula with 95% confidence level. It can be more realistic than randomization in terms of time, effort and cost needed in finding respondents.

Taro Yamane formular:

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

Where:

n = Sample size

N = Population under study

e = Margin of error

$2388/(1+2431(0.05)^2)$

= 453 Samples

Stratified sampling technique was used to pick respondent family hospitality firms. The logic behind the selection mechanism is to attract a proportional sample representative of the heterogeneous population of the north-cental region. The sample for the family hospitality firms from each north-central states was determined using Bowley (1926) proportional allocation statistical techniques as stated below.

$$nh = \left(\frac{Nh}{N}\right) n$$

Where:

nh= the sample size for stratum h,

n= total sample size,

Nh= the population size for stratum h,

N= the total population

Hence, distribution is as presented in Table 3.1

Table 3.1 Family held hotels in North central region

States	No of hotels	Samples
Benue	251	49
FCT	873	169
Kogi	254	47
Kwara	298	56
Nasarawa	270	50
Niger	215	40
Plateau	227	42
Total	2,388	453

Source: NBS (2019), NHA, (2020).

The sample size for the study is therefore 453 hotels but only 410 questionnaires were returned useful for the survey. The heterogeneous nature of this population makes this technique more suitable option for the current study (Saunders *et al.,* 2016). The study further used random sampling technique to determine the participants among the family hospitality firms from each states, since it has to be the representatives of the target population.

3.6 Source of Data Collection

This research relied on primary data as the main source of data. The study used structured questionnaire adapted from (Rauch *et al.*, 2009 & Lumpkin & Dess, 1996) to obtain relevant data from family hotel manager and owners. As the most knowledgeable individual in the firm, the respondent can provide the information needed. Furthermore, using a point informant means that only one or two individual in the firm is affected, which may increase the probability of firms choosing to participate in the study.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

In conducting survey research, questionnaire is the most common instrument employed to collect relevant data from the study sample. Based on the nature of survey interaction, a questionnaire can be distributed to respondents using several modes: mail, telephone, internet (Web survey) and face-to-face as detailed in table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Data-Collection Methods for Research Using Surveys

Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
Mail survey - A self-administered questionnaire sent to respondents through the mail.	Convenient for the respondents. Enables coverage of a larger area. Lower cost than face-to-face survey.	No opportunity for the respondent to ask for clarification. Low response rate.
Telephone survey - An interaction between a researcher and respondents over the telephone.	Allows respondents to ask for clarification. Higher response rate than mail survey. Less expensive than face-to-face survey.	Restricts the type of data collected. Random sampling is unlikely to be carried out. Less in-depth due to a shorter interview.
Web/Internet survey - A self-administered questionnaire sent to respondents over the internet.	Convenient for the respondents Enables coverage of a larger area.	Restricted to people who are familiar with a computer and phone. Restricted to people who have internet access.
Face-to-face survey or drop and pick - A direct interaction between a researcher/agents and respondents at a mutually convenient place.	Allows respondents to ask for clarification. Higher response rate than mail survey.	Time-consuming. More expensive than the other three modes. Potential bias/participant influenced by researchers.

Source: Adapted from Zahra and Sharma, (2004).

Lyon, Lumpkin and Dess (2000) suggested some factors that should be taken into account when conducting research in developing countries, such as cultures that highlight social relationships (including face-to-face communication) though is more expensive but it is the most reliable. Based on those concerns, the survey for this study was conducted majorly through web/internet and face-to-face approach to encourage more respondents to participate, and ultimately increase the response rate.

3.7.1 Web Survey

With the emergence of ICT technology, the use of the Internet helped researchers to have access to a large population at cost effective rate (Siegel, 2013). Since the focus of this study is to evaluate the impact of entrepreneurial orientation on family hospitality business performance, web survey was adopted.

A web questionnaire was designed through the qsurvey platform and served on family held hotels to elicit relevant information that helped to realize the research objective.

The questionnaire was administered through website, blog posts, mobile networks, and social media.

There are three main sections in the Web survey used in this study. The web page first welcome respondents with an introduction to the purpose of the research and definitions related to Impact of Entrepreneurial orientation on family hospitality business performance. It further assures respondents of their confidentiality and anonymity while participating in the survey.

In the subsequent section, a filtering question is used to ensure the Web survey is answered by the right sample target. The question goes "Is the hotel owned, funded and managed by a family and its members? Respondent who answered "No", were directed to exit while those who answered "Yes" are prompted to give their demographic information. The system automatically redirect respondents who answered 'Yes' to the main survey questions on EO and family hospitality business performance that were dropped one after the other.

In addition, using the control function in the Web survey, respondents were forced to answer all questions and they could seamlessly navigate through the questions with "previous, next and submit" buttons. On completion and submission, a drop message is displayed on the screen as "thank you for taking time to be part of the survey". Finally, as a result of initial unimpressive response rate, physical questionnaires were also administered by 14 research assistants, 2 person per state. However, where a hospitality firm answered both physical and web-based questionnaires, the later was upheld.

3.8 Description of the Research Instrument

This research employed close-ended, self-administrated questionnaire, as the target participants are managers of family hospitality businesses in Nigeria. The developed questionnaire was designed and adapted based on the literature review and the proposed conceptual framework of this study. It consists of two main parts.

A: Demographic Data

The first section, firm and respondent background, comprised 17 questions mainly closed questions. Hospitality firm's background including questions about the length of time the firm has operated, its products and markets and its marketing activities. Respondent background consisted of questions about respondents' age, relationship with the hotel owner, education and work experience.

B: Respondents Perception

The second part concerns the respondents' perceptions of the variables under study. The scale method chosed for the questionnaire is five point Likert scale. The method is designed to allow hotel managers to respond in varying degrees to each item that describes the service. This questionnaire uses"the agree to disagree" continuum. This response format is simple and the scales developed using the Likert method yield higher reliability coefficients with fewer items than other scales (Hayes, 1992). This study used managerial perceptions in measuring the relationship between EO and firm performance, as Lyon *et al.* (2000) suggested that perceptual measures of EO may provide more precise information. In total, twenty six questions on EO dimensions were asked in the questionnaire, consisting of five items for autonomy, six items for innovativeness, five items for risk-taking, five items for pro-activeness and five items for competitive aggressiveness.

C Family business performance measurement

In the third section, firm performance in the study was evaluated using a comprehensive picture of a firm performance scale, as suggested by Faizol *et al.* (2010) and (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005). Measures used in this study are hotel occupancy rate, employees' feedback/satisfaction and service quality. The study measured all constructs, using well-established measures on a 5-point Likert-type scale (5 = Strongly agree; 4 = Agreed; 3 = Undecided; 2 = Disagree and 5 = Strongly disagree).

3.9 Measurement of Research Variables

The questionnaire for this study was organized into three sections: firm and respondent backgrounds, entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance.

Table: 3.3 Measurement of Research Variables

PART A: Demography		❖ 16 Items ❖ Nominal scale to collect personal information about the respondents such as Gender, Age, Occupation, Education Level, Location (State of Residence), Do you have Information Technology Skills?
PART C: DV	Firm Performance	❖ 10 Items ❖ Five-point Likert scale for each item with ❖ "1" indicating "Strongly Disagreed"; "2" indicating Disagreed" ❖ "3" indicating "Undecided"; "4" indicating "Agreed"; ❖ "5" indicating "Strongly Agree".
PART B: EO (IV) Source: *Lumpkin and Dess 2010*	Competitive Aggressive	❖ 3 Items ❖ Five-point Likert scale for each item with ❖ "1" indicating "Strongly Disagreed"; "2" indicating Disagreed" ❖ "3" indicating "Undecided"; "4" indicating "Agreed"; ❖ "5" indicating "Strongly Agree".
	Pro-activeness	❖ 4 Items ❖ Five-point Likert scale for each item with ❖ "1" indicating "Strongly Disagreed"; "2" indicating Disagreed" ❖ "3" indicating "Undecided"; "4" indicating "Agreed"; ❖ "5" indicating "Strongly Agree".
	Risk-Taking	❖ 5 Items ❖ Five-point Likert scale for each item with ❖ "1" indicating "Strongly Disagreed"; "2" indicating Disagreed" ❖ "3" indicating "Undecided"; "4" indicating "Agreed"; ❖ "5" indicating "Strongly Agree".
	Innovativeness	❖ 8 Items ❖ Five-point Likert scale for each item with ❖ "1" indicating "Strongly Disagreed"; "2" indicating Disagreed" ❖ "3" indicating "Undecided"; "4" indicating "Agreed"; ❖ "5" indicating "Strongly Agree".
	Autonomy	❖ 5 Items ❖ Five-point Likert scale for each item with ❖ "1" indicating "Strongly Disagreed"; "2" indicating Disagreed" ❖ "3" indicating "Undecided"; "4" indicating "Agreed"; ❖ "5" indicating "Strongly Agree".

Source: Author (2020).

3.10 Psychometric Properties of the Research Instrument

Validity and reliability are two properties of the measurements that have to be taken into account to ensure that the instruments used are both accurate and consistent (Bryman & Bell, 2011). These measurements must be assessed properly in order to reduce measurement errors.

3.10.1 Validity of the Instrument

Validity is the extent to which the measures used in the questionnaire are truthfully measuring the intended concept and not something else (Hair *et al*., 2010). The validity of a measure is critical because theoretical constructs are not directly observable; rather, they are measured using observed hospitality firms variables. Commonly, two types of validity are applied in this study; content (or face) validity and construct validity.

(a) Face and Content Validity

This is the degree to which the content of the items adequately represents the universe of the relevant items under study. To ensure face validity, the instrument on entrepreneurial orientation and hospitality firm performance, was given to 10 hoteliers to assess whether the instrument was a valid measure of the practices in hospitality industry. This study adopted lawshe (1975) measurement for gauging agreement among raters. If more than half of the experts and hoteliers indicate that an item is essential, the item has some content validity. However, few corrections made were built into the scales. Lawshe (1975) content validity formular:

$CVR = (n_e – N/2)/(N/2)$ where

n_e = numbers of hoteliers indicating "essential"

N= total number of Hoteliers.

This formular yield values which ranges from + 1 to -1; positive value indicates that at least half of the panelist rated the items as essential derivation of these scales from theory relating to entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance. In this study where the entire panelist rated the instrument as sufficient, the value was calculated and returned as 1, which is in congruence with the rule of the thumb.

(b) Construct Related Validity

Construct-related validity relates to the extent to which the measure “may be said to measure a theoretical construct or trait”, deriving from “established relationships among behavioural measures” (Davis, 2002). Construct validity was ensured through the derivation of scales tightly developed from EO theory that was directly tested. A factor analysis was conducted on related E.O-FP constructs for measurement.

3.10.2 Reliability of the Instrument

Reliability refers to the consistency of scores that the same person would obtain if they were to take the test at other times or under different conditions. According to (Baker *et al*. (2001) there are four ways of measuring reliability for any empirical metric. They are; (a) inter-rater reliability (b) test-retest reliability, (c) parallel forms reliability and (d) internal consistency reliability. However, this study applied test-re-test reliability method as Hair *et al.* (2010) indicated that test-retest shows more consistency on the research instrument over time.

According to Baker *et al*. (2001) the size of a sample to be used for pilot testing varies depending on time, costs and practicality, but it tends to be 5- 10 per cent of the main survey. Thus, the study used a sample of 10% out of the total size of 453 family hospitality firms.

3.10.3 Pilot study

The pilot survey followed the procedures of the real data collection phase. However, in the pilot survey, only 45 family hospitality firms were selected to be part of the survey out of 70 hospitality firms invited through an invitation thread posted on their web sites and social media account. A hyperlink was also inserted within the invitation thread linking participants to the Web survey page. Finally, participants were urged to give comments on the Web survey.

After two weeks, the same instrument was re-administered. The first and second responses were analyzed to show the amount of consistency. When the two set of measures correlated show($r > 0.78$) it means the instrument is reliable. According to Hair *et al.* (2010) a coefficient of 0.7 is the benchmark of deciding whether or not the EO dimensions of Innovation, Proactiveness, risktaking, autonomy and competitive aggressiveness instrument is reliable. The cronbach alpha result of the study indicated a value of 0.85, which is sufficient according to the guideline. However, care was taken to exclude the piloted respondents from the main study to avoid element of bias.

3.11 Ethical Considerations in Current Study

This study followed the global norm of survey of this nature. As a follow-up, the questionnaire's cover letter illuminated the purpose of the study and confirmed that respondents would not be physically, socially and psychologically harmed.

According to Lindell and Whitney (2001), four issues have been identified in relation to research ethics that should be followed in all phases of the study, from collecting the research data to writing the results. These are: straightforwardness, diligence, objectivity and applicability. Straightforwardness refers to researchers being honest and not lying, cheating or deceiving. Diligence denotes that investigators should be thorough in the study process and should not use shortcuts. Objectivity implies that scholars should not be subjective. This is mainly essential in positivistic studies, and proposes the conducted study should be determined and related to the literature. For this reason, the author has made every effort to maintain these standards. The current thesis has also guaranteed the avoidance of any activities that may adversely influence other researchers or injuries to participants.

The cover letter affirmed the confidentially and privacy of the participants and a declaration that they have the right to pull out their involvement at any time.

Lastly, the respondents had the option of receiving a copy of the outcomes of the research if they request for one, and were asked to fill in their contact information, including phone numbers and emails.

3.12 Data Retrieval and Response Rate

This study exerted some effort to control the research response rate by emails, telephone and where the two options were not available, then a physical visit. Additionally, the returned instruments were checked upon receipt for consistency and validity of respondents' answers. Double checking for authenticity of the data was conducted by enumerators and where any response was proven to be fabricated, such responses were discarded. However the response harvested was high due to combine measures employed which yielded 410 out of 453 research instruments and were adjudged useful for the analyses.

3.13 Method of Data Analysis

Well-validated scales from previous studies were employed to operationalize the key constructs of family business entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance for measurement. The data collected through the web and questionnaires were coded and fed into the excel software; this allowed the data to be analyzed using SEM-PLS (Structural Equation Model - Partial Least Square). Data analysis for the quantitative methods using the descriptive and inferential statidtics for the analysis.

The study selected PLS SEM due to large sample size, and the study's use of several different measurement scales. PLS does not assume that variables have been measured free of errors. Covin and Wales (2019) argued that EO dimensions are theoretically distinct and might be empirically distinct; consequently, they proposed various measurement approaches for EO. In essence, the researcher can distinguish between formative and reflective measurement approaches for latent, unobservable constructs such EO. 'Formative' means that the explanatory indicators create the latent construct, while 'reflective' means that the latent construct produces its observable measurements. The difference between the two approaches is that reflective measurements are thematic and thus interchangeable (with high internal consistency), while formative measurements each contribute – possibly to a different degree – to the latent construct. The use of these approaches is highly dependent on the research goals, even if formative measurement approaches pose more challenges (Covin & Wales, 2019).

3.14 Mediating Variable

According to Henseler *et al*. (2009), assessing the direct and indirect relationships between exogenous and endogenous latent variable is another important evaluation of a structural model. This direct and indirect relationship can be examined by conducting mediating or moderating analysis. In this section, it only assessed the significance of the mediating relationships. This is based on the theoretical analysis that suggests familiness and hotel classes as two key mediating factors that influenced long-term relationships.

3.15 Control variables

Assessing the impact of control variables on the dependent variable is important in order to rule out other possible effects that are unrelated to the hypothesised relationships (Creswell, 2009). According to these authors, demographic variables are usually good candidate that can be used as a control variable. For this study, size and age were selected as control variables.

3.16 Statistical Model Specification

A structural equation model (SEM) was developed to capture the entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and family hospitality business performance (FHBP) using a survey design method. In this model, business performance was the outcome variable while entrepreneurial orientation dimensions in respect to Innovativeness, Risktaking, Proactiveness, Autonomy and Competitive Aggressiveness are the predictor variables. SmartPLS was considered suitable for testing the hypothesized relationship as according to Henseler *et al.* (2009) it is most appropriate for examining complex cause-effect-relationship models. Therefore, the Partial Least Squares (PLS) procedure was used as it was appropriate for the non-normal data sets in the current research. This approach has two components namely; the structural model or the inner model and the outer model which depicts the relationship between latent variables (the endogenous and exogenous variables) as multiple regressions:

$$Y_{(1\text{-}3)} = \beta 0 + \sum\beta X_{1(a\text{-}e)} + \sum\beta X_{2(a\text{-}e)} + \sum\beta X_{3(a\text{-}e)} + € \qquad (3.10.1)$$

Where:

Y and X are the endogenous and exogenous latent variables, respectively.

Y= Dependent Variable (Family firm performance)

Y_1=Hotel Occupancy Rate

Y_2= Service Quality Variable

Y_3= Employees Productivity Variable
X= Independent Variable (Entrepreneurial Orientation)
a=Innovativeness
b=Risk taking
c=Proactiveness
d=Autonomy
e=Aggresiveness
$X_{(a-e)}$ = Entrepreneurial Orientation Variables
β = Path coefficients which measures the relationship among constructs.
€ = error term

The condition imposed is $E(Y/X) = \sum\beta X_{(a-e)}\text{-}n$ which implied that the relationship between the endogenous and exogenous latent variables is equal to the summation of paths coefficient of the exogenous variable(s), while E(€/X) = 0 and Cov (€, X) = 0 implied no linear relationship between predictor and residual. The outer model applied a formative aspect of PLS. The formative, manifest and latent variables for this study are captured in the following models:

Outer Model 1

INN=Innovativeness
RSK=Risktaking
PRO=Proactiveness
AUT=Autonomy
AGG=Aggressiveness

$$EO_{INN}= \beta0+ \beta1EO_{INN}1+ \beta2EO_{INN}2+ \beta3EO_{INN}3+ \beta4EO_{INN}4+ \beta5EO_{INN}5 + € \qquad (3.10.2)$$

Where: EO_{INN} = Entrepreneurial Orientation Innovativeness variable (latent variable) and EO_{INN} 1-5 = Manifest Variables

Outer Model 2

$$EO_{RSK}=\beta0 +\beta1EO_{RSK}1+\beta2EO_{RSK}2+\beta3EO_{RSK}3+\beta4EO_{RSK}4 +\beta5EO_{RSK}5+€ \qquad (3.10.3)$$

Where: EO_{RSK} = Entrepreneurial Orientation Risktaking variable (latent variable) and EO_{RSK} 1-5 = Manifest Variables

Outer Model 3

$$EO_{PRO}=\beta0 +\beta1EO_{PRO}1+\beta2EO_{PRO}2+\beta3EO_{PRO}3+\beta4EO_{PRO}4+\beta5EO_{PRO}5+€ \qquad (3.10.4)$$

Where: EO_{PRO} = Entrepreneurial Orientation Proactiveness variable (latent variable) and EO_{PRO} 1-5 = Manifest Variables

Outer Model 4

$$EO_{AUT}=\beta0+\beta1EO_{AUT}1+\beta2EO_{AUT}2+\beta3EO_{AUT}3+\beta4EO_{AUT}4+\beta5EO_{AUT}5+€ \qquad (3.10.5)$$

Where: EO_{AUT} = Entrepreneurial Orientation Autonomy variable (latent variable) and EO_{AUT} 1-5 = Manifest Variables

Outer Model 5

$$EO_{AGG}=\beta0+ \beta1EO_{AGG}1+\beta2EO_{AGG}2+\beta3EO_{AGG}3+\beta4EO_{AGG}4+\beta5EO_{AGG}5+€ \qquad (3.10.6)$$

Where: EO_{AGG} = Entrepreneurial Orientation Aggressiveness variable (latent variable) and EO_{AGG} 1-5 = Manifest Variables

Outer Model 6

$$HO = \beta0 + \beta1HO1 + \beta2\ HO\ 2+ \beta3\ HO\ 3+ \beta4HO\ 4+ \beta5HO\ 5 + € \qquad (3.10.7)$$

Where: HO= Hotel Occupancy variable (latent variable) and HO 1-5 = Manifest Variables.

Outer Model 7

$$SQ = \beta0 + \beta1\ SQ1 + \beta2\ SQ\ 2+ \beta3\ SQ\ 3+ \beta4SQ4+ \beta5SQ\ 5 + € \qquad (3.10.8)$$

Where: SQ = Service Quality variable (latent variable) and SQ 1-5 = Manifest Variables.

Outer Model 8

$$EP = \beta0 + \beta1\ EP1 + \beta2\ EP\ 2+ \beta3\ EP\ 3+ \beta4EP\ 4+ \beta5EP\ 5 + € \qquad (3.10.9)$$

Where: EP = Employees Productivity variable (latent variable) and EP 1-5 = Manifest Variables.

Outer Model 9

$$FP = \beta 0 + \beta 1\ FP1 + \beta 2\ FP2 + \beta 3\ FP3 + \beta 4 FP4 + \beta 5 FP5 + € \quad (3.10.10)$$

Where: FP = Firm Performance variable (latent variable) and FP 1-5 = Manifest Variables.

Table 3.4: Summaries of validity guidelines for assessing the measurement model

	Validity type	Criterion	Guideline
A	Internal consistency	Composite Reliability	CR > 0.7 (for exploratory study) CR > 0.8 (advance research) CR < 0.6—lack of reliability
B	Indicator reliability	Indicator loadings	Items' loading > 0.7 and significant at least at the 0.05 level
C	Convergent validity	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	AVE > 0.05
D	Discriminant validity	Cross loading	Item's loading of each indicator is highest for its designated construct.
		Fornell & Larcker	The square root of the AVE of a construct should be greater than the correlations between the construct and other constructs in the mode
		Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)	

Source: Author (2020).

Therefore, in this study, the measurement model's validity is satisfactory when:

1. CR is greater than 0.7.

2. Item's loading is greater than 0.7 and significant at least at the 0.05 level.

3. AVE value for each construct is larger than 0.50.

4. Item's loading of each indicator is highest for its designated construct.

5. The square root of the AVE of a construct should be greater than the correlations between the construct and other constructs in the mode.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter composed of four sections. The first section was dedicated to descriptive characteristics of the unit of analysis. In the second section, the evaluation of measurement model is presented and the third section is dedicated to the estimation of the structural model. Lastly, the discussion of the results of the study is presented.

4.1 Descriptive statistics

This section presents the demographics to show the general features of the sample of this study in tables, charts and diagrams.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Gender

	Frequency	% of Total
Male	330	80%
Female	80	20%
Total	410	

Source: Author (2020).

The result in table 4.1, showed that 80% of the respondents were male and 20% of respondents were female. This suggested a large portion of the reactions exuded were from male workers in hotels. It was observed that for reasons ranginging from cultural, religious and marital issues, female gender in the north central region would not prefer working in hotels. However, Purcell (1996), Pinar *et al.* (2011) observed that today's hotel management have significantly changed in the gender structure of employees as the number of women it employed is on the rise. Though the orientation has significantly changed about women involvement in entrepreneurship activity but not much seems to have altered about agelong stereotyping of women involvement in hotel management especially in north central hotel management.

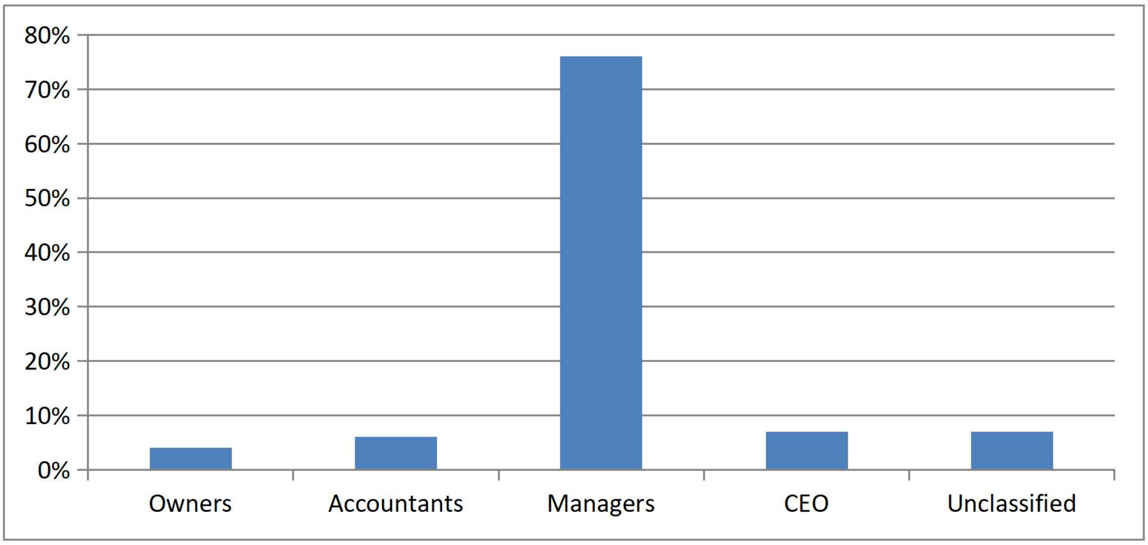

Fig 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Positions in the Firms.

Source: Author (2020).

Figure 4.1 revealed the distribution of respondents positions in the firm. The managers among respondents (Number 3) had the highest proportion with 76%, other unclassified (Number 5) persons 7%, the CEO of the firm (Number 4) 7%, Accountants of the firm (Number 2) accounts for 6% and owners of the firm among the respondents (Number 1) was only 4%. The managers are motivated by their objectives and thus construct performance to align with their strategic intent (Ishiwata, 2014). As such, the hospitality firms' performance could be captured through the managers' perception of how well their businesses are running from both financial and non-financial perspectives. The hospitality firm owner-managers' aspirations of having their firms being inherited by their children could be the driver to engaging in busines personally.

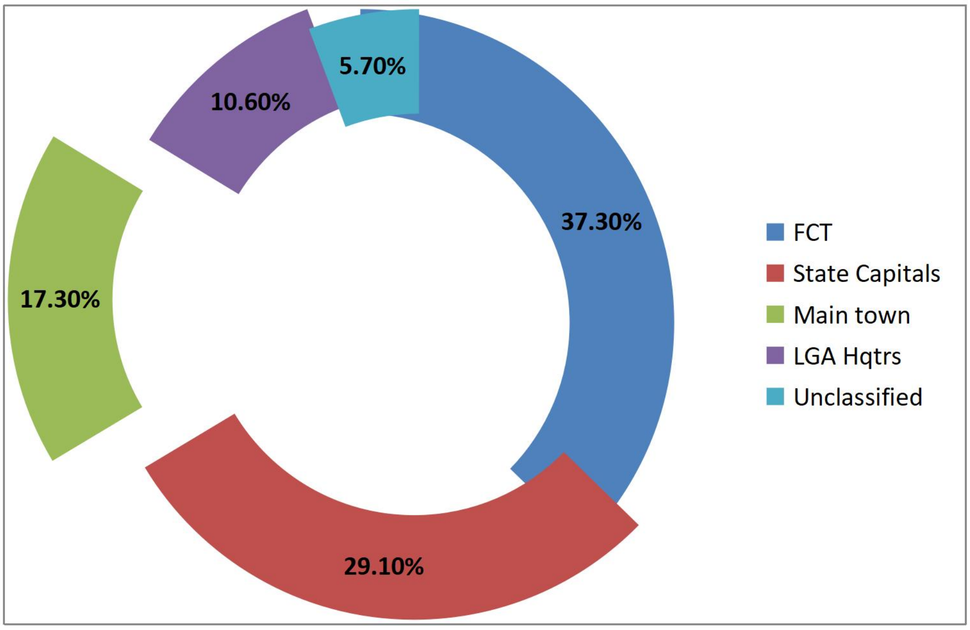

Fig 4.2: Locations of Hotels

Source: Author (2020).

Figure 4.2 depicted the locational distribution of responses. About 37.3% respondents are from FCT, the firms located at state capitals of north central states accounted for 29.1%, the once located at main towns has 17.3%, the local government headquarters 10.6%, while the others located at unclassified locations accounted for 5.7%. The high response rate from FCT is mainly due to its centrality and importance as the host seat of power with its influence beyond Nigeria and high adoption of digital marketing (CAC, 2017).

The popular choice of FCT, State capitals and local government headquatres is in line with (Barney, 1991) submission that firms use their resources in the form of tangible assets (e.g., strategic locationand firm facilities) and intangible assets (e.g., patents, know-how and family) for their competitive strategies. Under RBV, firms are considered to be heterogeneous in terms of their available resources while the resources are imperfectly mobile among firms. Moreover, these capital cities are more likely to offer basic facilities that easier confer competitive advantage in the market place.

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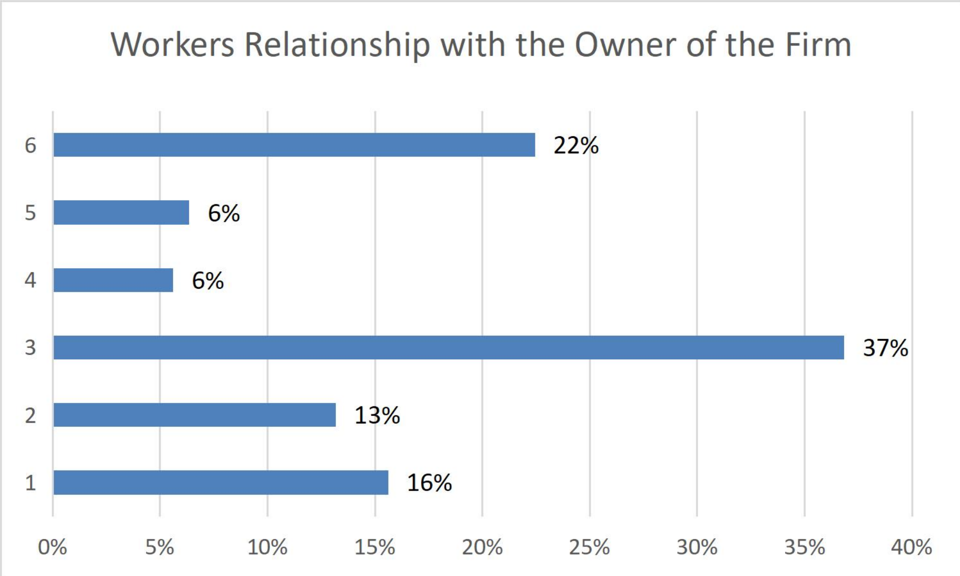

Fig 4.3: Respondent Relationship with Firm Owner

Source: Author (2020).

Figure 4.3 showed the relationship that subsist between the hotel owners and the workers. The respondentswho claimed the owners as uncle or aunt to them had the highest 37% response rate. The hotel owners who responded to the instruments themselves had 22% response rate. Children who manages the properties on behalves of their parents accounted for 16% of the respondents. Those who see themselves as siblings to the owner of the hotels accounted for 13% of the respondents. Parent among respondents is 6%, while friends to the owner among respondents was 6%.

This implied that extended relations like nephew, niece and others who are not neucleus to the owners predominantly work in the hotel among family members. In the context of family-business, entrepreneurs were found to bring their family members onto employment and management boards of their firms (Awang *et al.,* 2011). The family is seen as "an increasingly important source of opportunity identification" and a supplier of resources for businesses (Klein, 2000). The family members are used by the owner-managers to overcome many of the business problems they encounter in business.

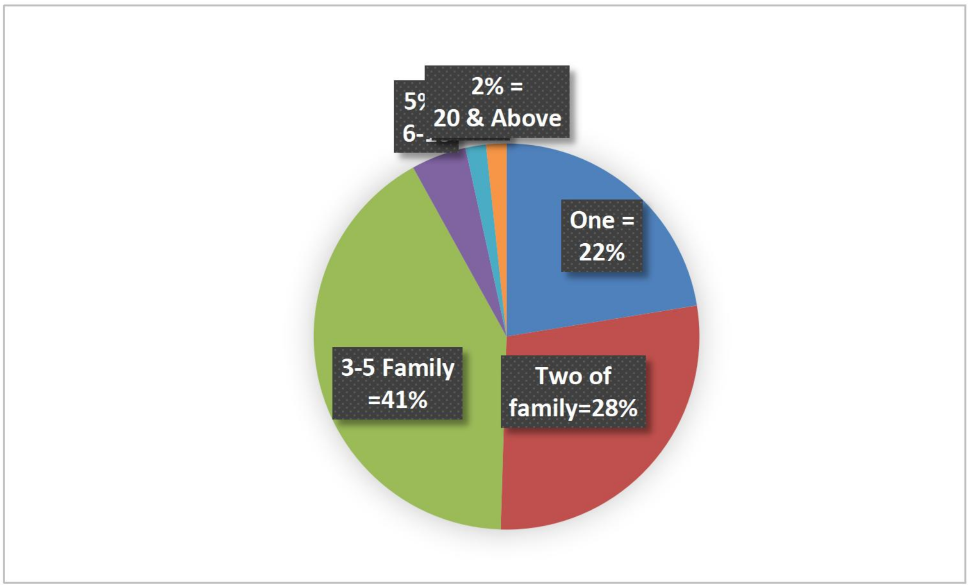

Fig. 4.4:Numbers of Active Family Members in the Hotel

Source:Author (2020).

Figure 4.5 depicted the distribution of numbers of family members that worked in the hotel. Respondents among the family members working in the hotels numbering 3-5were 41%, family members numbering two among the respondents accounted for 28%. Where only one individual is actively involved in daily operation of the firm accounted for 22%. While situation of 6-10 members working for the family is 5%, 11 – 20 persons accounted for 2% and situation of above20 member respondents was 2%.

This is in line with Vu (2017) submission that many local business owner-managers successes were greatly attributed to support from their families (e.g., financing and working for the business in the start-up stage). According to Klein (2000) the frequent interactions between the family members and their employees cause them (the owner-managers) to develop a strong family-business bond. The owner-managers sometimes treat their business as an extension of their families, thereby bringing their family values into the business management practices. Firms with family shareholdings and family members on the management board were reported to have higher levels of assets and return on assets (ROA) (Anderson & Reeb, 2003).

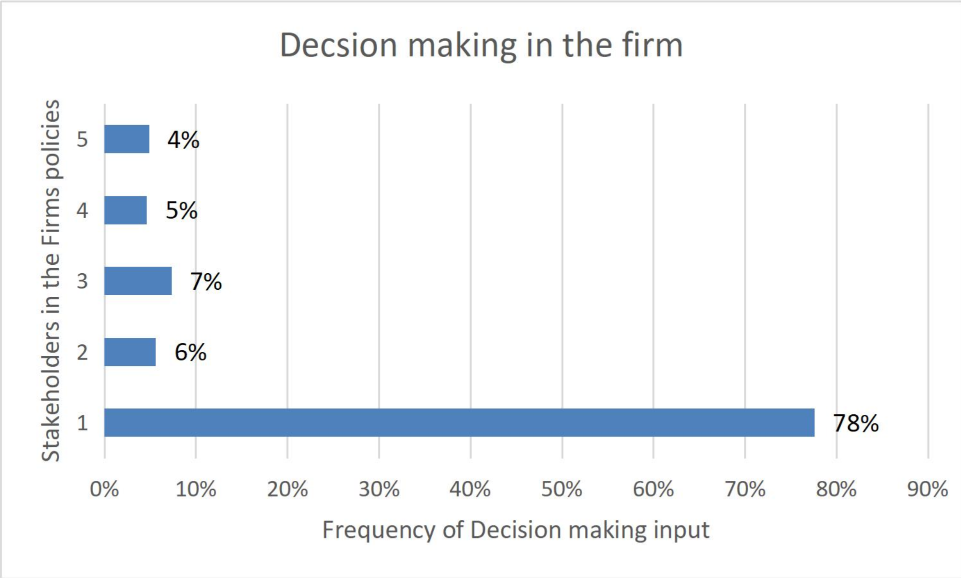

Fig 4.5: Decision Making in the Firms

Source: Author (2020).

Figure 4.5 presented a distribution of decision making authority in the hotel. The firm owners among the respondents accounted for 78% of all the decisions. About 7% of the respondents were hotel managers. The officer designated as the CEO is 6% responsible for decision making. In few corporate hospitality firms involved, 5% of the decisions were taken by the boardwhile general meetings accounted for 4% of the decisions. With this distribution, it is not in doubt that the bulk stops at the desk of the family owner-manager. As such, the decision making process under the owner-manager's control will be expected to take account of the owner-manager and the family's stakes so as to yield more benefits for the owner manager and their family.

Furthermore, as the key decision-makers in the hospitality firm, the owners/managers determine the overall strategic orientation of the organisations.The abilities of the decision-maker play a major role in determining the outcome of risktaking behaviour. According to De-Clercq *et al.,* (2013) being involved in a decision-making process, as recognised in participative management, can be as simple as supplying information for decision- making input.

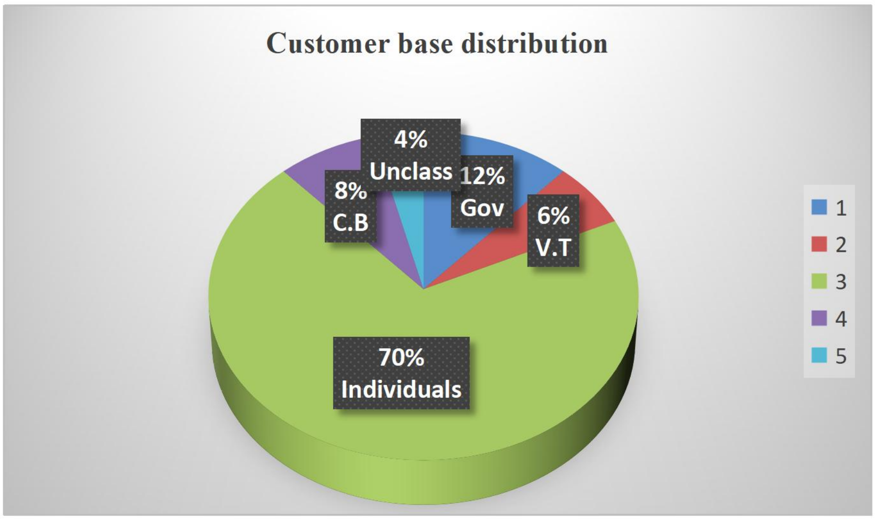

Fig 4.6. Customer Base Distribution

Source: Author (2020).

Figure 4.6 presented the customers' wide distribution of the hospitality firms. The classes of customers as reflected above, revealed that individuals patronage accounted for the highest volume (70%), next is government and its agencies (12%), corporate bodies (8%), visiting tourist(6%), while other unclassified people are the least (4%). This individual patronage is leading in terms of customer base of the hospitality firms, thereby suggesting that hotels relied heavily on the patronage of individuals. Hospitality firms exist to provide value to customers and other stakeholders (Muthusi, (2014). Such individuals expectations and satisfaction were met and they became loyal to the service and also recommended others to the hospitality firms. Government and its agencies came second in terms of patronage, which is an indication that government activities especially lodging, still take place a lot in family hospitality firms even though some government establishment have their lodges, guest houses and hotels that were not within the purview of the study. Additionally, the inovative offering tailored towards meeting customers needs also necessitated continous attraction by government functionaries.

Furthermore, as competition in the hospitality sector intensifies, Massis (2014) predicts that it will drive companies to be innovative in order to make savings through smart build and self-check-in and technological advancements such as the Travelodge iBooker application for greater convenience and ease of use.

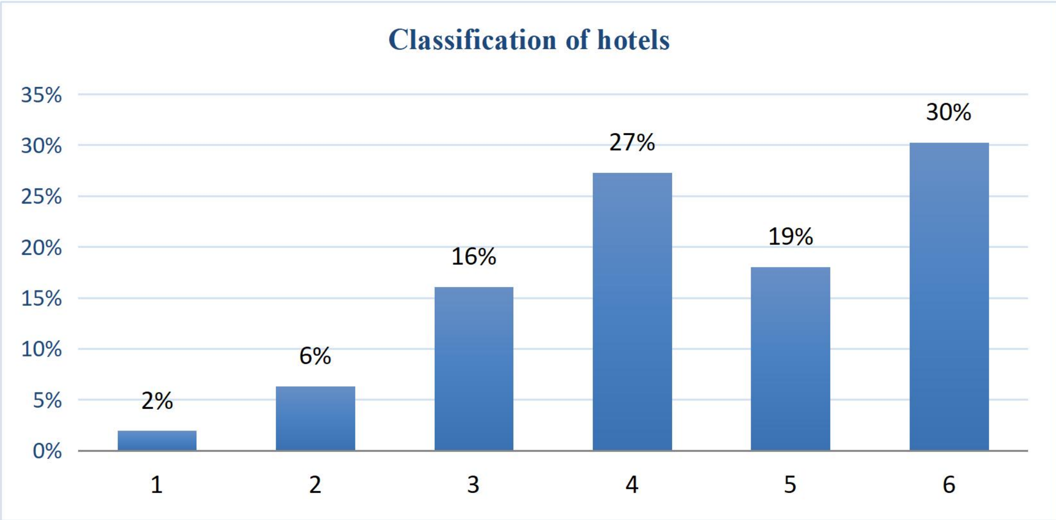

Fig 4.7: Classification of Hotels

Source: Author (2020).

Figure 4.7 provided the distribution of the rating of hotels that participated in the survey. 30% of the hotels were ungraded or unclassified. About 27% of the respondent were two-stars rated, the hotels rated as one-star accounted for 18%. The three-stars were 16%, while four-stars and five-stars were 6% and 2% stars respectively. The high level of unclassified hotels implied that, hotel classification standards appear to be taken for granted by both guests and the industry (Muthusi, (2014).

As Chrisman *et al.,* (2013) attributed this lack of awareness of the significance of the Tourism Board classification symbols by respondents. Furthermore, Massis (2014) argued that given the importance of hotel classification as a marketing strategy, it has received very limited attention. However, determining the exact number of hotels operating in Nigeria is fraught with difficulties due to non registration with the regulatory bodies and incessant shut down of operation .

4.2 The Summary of the Descriptive Statistics Analysis

The mean, mode, Median, standard deviation, variance, minimum value and maximum value of each indicator were examined. Table 4.2 outlines the descriptive statistics for all indicators.

Table: 4.2 The Central Tendency and Dispersion Analysis

Constructs	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dev	Variance
EO Innovativeness	1	5	2.4717	2.2	1.8	0.9733	0.947
EO Risk-taking	1	4.4	2.6117	2.6	2.2	0.71577	0.512
EO Proactiveness	1	4.6	2.5741	2.4	3	0.84888	0.721
EO Autonomy	1	4.4	2.48	2.4	1.6	0.87789	0.771
EO Aggressiveness	1	4.6	2.618	2.6	2.6	0.88219	0.778
Familiness	1	4.4	2.5161	2.4	2.4	0.74701	0.558
Hotel Class	1	4.6	2.7849	2.8	2.6	0.85213	0.726
Service Quality	1.2	4.4	2.5576	2.4	2.2	0.80394	0.646
Employee Satisfaction	1.2	4.4	2.4288	2.4	3.2	0.67542	0.456
Hotel Occupancy	1	4.2	2.4873	2.4	2	0.74275	0.552

Sources: Author (2020)

However, the standard deviation emphasized as it shows the spread of the data set distribution (Hair *et al*., 2010). It also measured the typical distance between each data point and the mean.

Hotel classification variable received the highest value for mean and standard deviation (2.7849 and 0.80394) of all the variables measured. While employee satisfaction or morale has the lowest mean of 2.4288 and the standard deviation of 0.456. That means that the individual responses, on average, were 0.73 away from the mean of hotel classification. The lowest standard deviation value of the constructs is related to employee satisfaction/morale and it is a little under 0.61, which means that the individual responses are clustered around mean of the employee satisfaction/morale than in the case of the other constructs.

The independent variables' five dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation have the following standard deviation: Autonomy 0.878; Risk taking 0.716; Proactiveness 0.849, Innovativeness 0.973 and Competitive aggressiveness 0.882 value. Among the dimensions of EO, innovativeness had the highest standard deviation value while risktaking had the lowest. It shows that the individual responses, on average, were 0.77 away from the mean of innovativeness and that the individual responses are clustered around mean of innovativeness than the case of the other constructs. The mean values are between the 2.47 and 2.61 the lowest value belongs to risk taking and innovativeness dimensions respectively.

Furthermore, the study also considered the rate of dispersion among the dependent variables standard deviation values of constructs such as hotel occupancy rate, employee satisfaction/morale and service quality with 0.74, 0.68 and 0.80 values respectively. Table 4.2 revealed that service quality has the highest value for standard deviation under dependent variable with a little lower than 0.78. The lowest standard deviation value in the dependent variable is related to the employee morale, and it is a little under 0.56, which means that the individual responses are clustered around mean of the services quality than in the case of the other constructs. The values for means of employee satisfaction and services quality are 2.55 and 2.43 respectively. This showed that the preponderance of responses on the dependent variables is situated around the region. The summary of central tendency therefore, has limited relevance to the analysis as it is for descriptive purposes. Thus, it is very important to the study.

4.3. Pre-Model Estimation

The Model below is based on entrepreneurial orientation and hospitality firm performance. It was designed to help understand and realize each of the specific objectives.

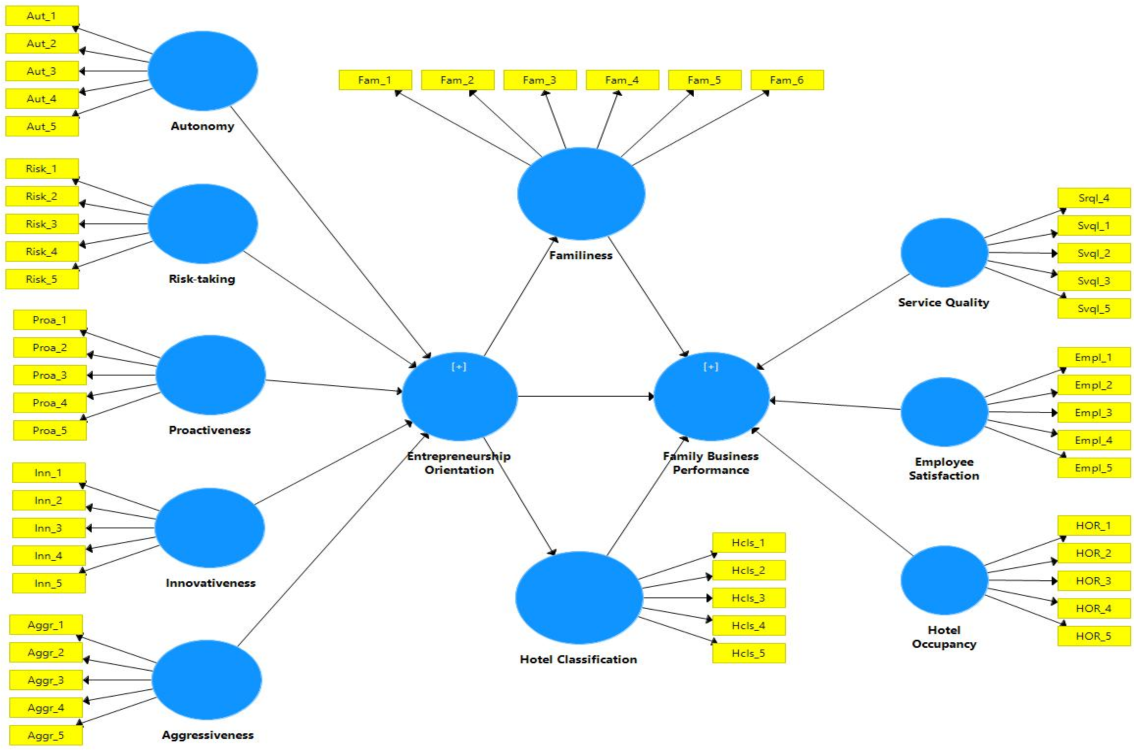

Fig 4. 8: Model of EO and Hospitality Firm Relationship

Source: Author (2020).

Fig 4.8 model depicts the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and family hospitality business performance. It shows all the items under each of the constructs in both the independent and dependent variables, which were used for the analysis when all the variables were combined. Each construct was assessed separately and jointly in testing the relationship.

4.4 Evaluation of Measurement Model

The measurement models described the relationships between the latent variables and their measures. Reflective measurement is a measurement model setup in which measures represent the effects (or manifestations) of an underlying construct. Causality is from the construct to its measures (indicators). Also referred to as Mode A in PLS-SEM. Evaluation of measurement model is carried out by assessment of reflective measurement models. Assessment of reflective measurement models includes evaluation of:

a.Measurement model (Indicators Reliability)

i. Composite reliability to evaluate internal consistency,

ii. Outer loadings of indicators for individual indicator's reliability,

iii. Cronbach alpha

b. Convergent Validity; Average variance extracted (AVE) to evaluate the convergence.

c. Discriminant Validity; Cross loading and fornell& larker

To assess the relevance and significance of the path coefficient fig 4.9 showed the performance of the independent and dependent variables.

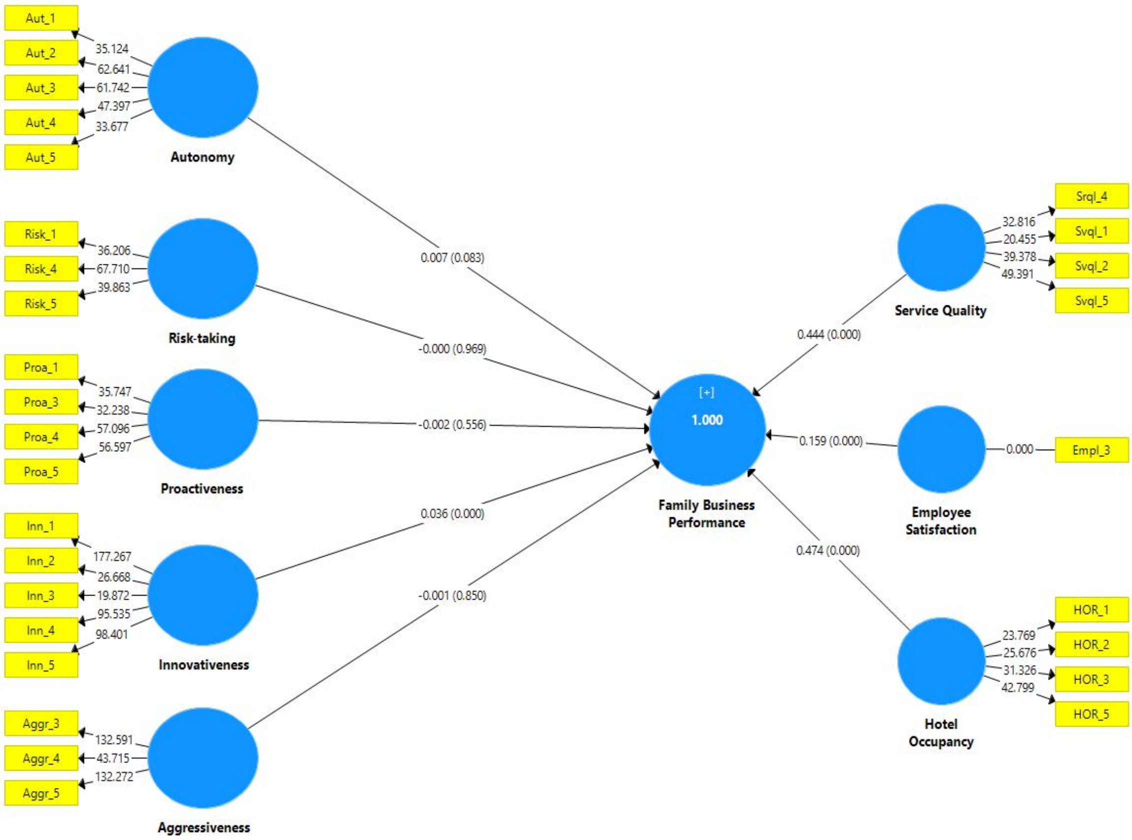

Fig. 4.9. Relevance and Significance of Path Coefficient

Source: Author (2020)

At a 5% significance level, it was found that all relationships in the structural model are significant as AUTO → FBP (p = 0.083); RISK → FBP (p = 0.969),PROA → FBP (p = 0.556); INNO → FBP (p = 0.000), AGGR → FBP (p = 0.850), SVQL→ FBP (p = 0.000); EMSA → FBP (p = 0.000); HOTO → FBP (p = 0.000).

Furthermore, by running the bootstrapping analysis, a detailed overview of the results was obtained. These include standard errors, bootstrap mean values, t values and p values. The Confidence Intervals tab in the bootstrapping results shows the confidence interval as derived from the BCa method.

Table 4.3: Measurement Model (Indicators Reliability)

Constructs	Items	Loadings[a]	AVE[b]	CR [c]	RhoA[d]
Innovativeness	Inno_1	0.944	0.739	0.933	0.918
	Inno_2	0.756			
	Inno_3	0.701			
	Inno_4	0.932			
	Inno_5	0.933			
Risk	Risk_1	0.847	0.675	0.861	0.774
	Risk_4	0.84			
	Risk_5	0.775			
Proactiveness	Proa_1	0.732	0.654	0.883	0.826
	Proa_3	0.81			
	Proa_4	0.847			
	Proa_5	0.842			
Autonomy	Auto_1	0.841	0.681	0.914	0.886
	Auto_2	0.834			
	Auto_3	0.833			
	Auto_4	0.78			
	Auto_5	0.837			
Aggressiveness	Aggr_3	0.949	0.815	0.929	0.882
	Aggr_4	0.803			
	Aggr_5	0.949			
Familiness	Faml_2	0.708	0.609	0.861	0.785
	Faml_4	0.784			
	Faml_5	0.782			
	Faml_6	0.708			
Hotel Classification	Hocl_1	0.736	0.738	0.894	0.816
	Hocl_2	0.905			
	Hocl_3	0.925			
Service qual	Svql_1	0.737	0.586	0.85	0.769
	Svql_2	0.796			
	Svql_4	0.734			
	Svql_5	0.792			
Employee Sat/morale	Emps_3	0.737	1	1	1
	Emps_4	0.81			
	Emps_5	0.737			
Hotel O Rate	Hor_1	0.709	0.574	0.843	0.759
	Hor_2	0.74			
	Hor_4	0.746			
	Hor_5	0.822			

Note: a. All items loadings > 0.5 indicates indicator reliability (Hulland, 1999, p.198)
b. All AVE > 0.5 as indicates convergent reliability (Bagozzi & Yi 1988); Fornell &Larcker, 1981)
c. All composite reliability (CR) > 0.7 indicates internal consistency (Gafen *et al*., 2000)
d. All Rho alpha >0.7 indicates indicator reliability (Nunnally, 1978).

Source: Author (2020)

Table 4.3 also showed that the internal consistency reliability of the measurement model is high as shown by Cronbach's Alpha values of 0.907 (Innovativeness), 0.750 (Risk taking), 0.822 (Pro-activeness), 0.883 (Autonomy), 0.873 (Aggressiveness), 0.785 (Familiness), 0.817 (Hotel classification), Service quality 0.784, employees satisfaction or morale (1.000) and 0.752 (Hotel occupancy rate). The indicators met the Cronchbach's alpha loading of > 0.7 provided by (Nunnally, 1978). Similarly, the composite reliability values also show high internal consistency reliability with values of 0.933 (Innovativeness), 0.861 (Risk taking), 0.883 (Pro-activeness), 0.914 (Autonomy), 0.929 (Aggressiveness), 0.861 (Familiness), 0.894 (Hotel classification), Service quality 0.850, employee satisfaction/morale (1.000) and 0.843 (Hotel occupancy rate. The indicators met the composite reliability (CR) internal consistency threshold of 0.7 (Gafen *et al.,* 2000).

Additionally, following the Bagozzi and Yi (1988), Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) indicator must be 0.5. The loadings however showed high convergent values of 0.739 (Innovativeness), 0.675 (Risk taking), 0.654 (Pro-activeness), 0.681 (Autonomy), 0.815 (Aggressiveness), 0.609 (Familiness), 0.738 (Hotel classification), Service quality 0.586, employee satisfaction/morale (1.000) and 0.574 (Hotel occupancy rate. The indicators met the composite reliability (CR) internal consistency threshold of 0.7 (Gafen *et al.,* 2000).

4.5 Convergent Validity

Convergent Validity is the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measure of the same construct. Convergent validity can be evaluated using the value of average variance extracted (AVE). Fornell and Larcker (2016) indicated that a sufficient convergent validity is achieved when the AVE value of a construct is at least 0.5. Outer loadings criteria should maintain a loading > 0.7. Thus, the result met the Hair (2010) convergent threashold as the latent variables explained more than 50% of its indicators variance.

4.6 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is also called vertical collinearity. Cross loading criterion subjective independence can help reduce the presence of multicollinearity amongst the latent variables denoting that the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of a latent variable should be higher than the squared correlations between the latent variable and all other variables (Fornell & Larcker 1981).

Table 4.4: Discriminant Validity (Fornell and Larker)

	Aggr	**Innov**	**Auto**	**EmSat**	**Faml**	**HoCl**	**HoR**	**Proa**	**Risk**	**SvQl**
Aggr	**0.873**									
Innov	0.714	**0.860**								
Auto	0.712	0.734	**0.825**							
EmSat	0.706	0.666	0.702	**0.791**						
Faml	0.666	0.641	0.748	0.538	**0.78**					
HoCl	0.669	0.497	0.602	0.337	0.538	**0.672**				
HoR	0.633	0.619	0.604	0.586	0.580	0.548	**0.656**			
Proa	0.602	0.544	0.512	0.545	0.601	0.592	0.551	**0.609**		
Risk	0.533	0.509	0.541	0.566	0.466	0.472	0.474	0.570	**0.581**	
SvQl	0.466	0.421	0.509	0.456	0.307	0.477	0.515	0.541	0.537	**0.566**

- The diagonal are the square root of the AVE of the latent variables and indicates the highest in any column or row

Source: Author (2020).

Table 4.4 showed the Fornell and Larcker discriminant validity criterion, the square root of the AVE of each construct should be higher than the construct's highest correlation with any other construct in the model (this notion is identical to comparing the AVE with the squared correlations between the constructs). Table 4.4 shows the results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion assessment with the square root of the reflective constructs' AVE on the diagonal and the correlations between the constructs in the off-diagonal position. For example, the reflective construct "Aggr" has a value of 0.873 for the square root of its AVE, which needs to be compared with all correlation values in the column of “Aggr”. Furthermore, for Innov, Auto, EmSat, E.O, faml, HoCl, HoR, Proa, Risk and Svql, the researcher considered the correlations in both the row and column. Overall, the square roots of the AVEs for the reflective constructs Aggr (0.873), Inno (0.860),Auto (0.825), EmSat (0.791),Faml (0.78), Hotcls (0.672), HoCr (0.656),Proa (0.609), Risk (0.581) and Svql (0.566) are all higher than the correlations of these constructs with other latent variables in the path model, thus indicating all constructs are valid measures of unique concepts.

Table 4.5: Result Summary for the Reflective Measurement Model

Latent Variable	Indicators	Internal Consistency		Convergent Validity		Discriminant Validity
		Composite Reliability	Cronbach Alpha	Loadings	AVE	
		0.6 - 0.9	0.6 - 0.9	>0.7	>0.5	Confidence Interval doesn't include 1
Autonomy	Auto_1	0.914	0.883	0.841	0.681	Yes
	Auto_2			0.834		
	Auto_3			0.833		
	Auto_4			0.78		
	Auto_5			0.837		
Risk	Risk_1	0.861	0.760	0.847	0.675	Yes
	Risk_4			0.84		
	Risk_5			0.775		
Proactive	Proa_1	0.883	0.822	0.732	0.654	Yes
	Proa_3			0.81		
	Proa_4			0.847		
	Proa_5			0.842		
Innovativenes	Inno_1	0.933	0.907	0.944	0.739	Yes
	Inno_2			0.756		
	Inno_3			0.701		
	Inno_4			0.932		
	Inno_5			0.933		
Aggressivene	Aggr_3	0.929	0.883	0.949	0.815	Yes
	Aggr_4			0.803		
	Aggr_5			0.949		
Familiness	Faml_2	0.861	0.785	0.708	0.609	Yes
	Faml_4			0.784		
	Faml_5			0.782		
	Faml_6			0.708		
Hotel Classes	Hocl_1	0.894	0.817	0.736	0.738	Yes
	Hocl_2			0.905		
	Hocl_3			0.925		
Employee Sat/morale	Emps_3	1.000	1.000	0.737	1.000	Yes
	Emps_4			0.81		
	Emps_5			0.737		
Hotel O Rate	Hor_1	0.843	0.752	0.709	0.574	
	Hor_2			0.74		
	Hor_4			0.746		
	Hor_5			0.822		

Source: Author, (2020).

The summaryof results of the reflective measurement model is shown in table 4.5. As can be seen, all model evaluation criteria have been met, providing support for the measures' reliability and validity.

4.7 Evaluation of Structural Model (Model estimation)

The structural model predictive capabilities and relationships between constructs were evaluated following six layers of steps. These include:

(i) Collinearity assessment,

(ii) Path coefficient

(iii) Coefficient of determination (R^2Value),

(iv) Effect size f^2

(v) Blindfolding and predictive relevance Q^2

(vi) Effect size q^2.

In addition, this study also assessed the mediation relationships that were proposed in the research model. The mediation relationships were tested using the guidelines proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986).

4.7.1 Assessment of collinearity

Collinearity arises when two indicators are highly correlated. Collinearity among latent variables was assessed through Variance Inflated Factor. The threshold value is VIF >5 indicate a potential collinearity problem (Hair *et al.,* 2016).

Table 4.6: Collinearity Assessment

	Aggr	Auto	E.O	Faml	Hotc	Inno	Proa	Risk	Svql	Emsa	HOR
Aggr			2.01								
Auto			1.50								
E.O			7.30		1						
Faml				2.9							
Hotc					1.525						
Inno			1.60								
Proa			1.06								
Risk			1.13								
Svql									1		
Emsa										2.7	
HOR											3.3

Source: Author (2020).

The table 4.6 showed the VIF values of all combinations of endogenous constructs (represented by the columns) and corresponding exogenous (i.e., predictor) constructs (represented by the rows). Specifically, the following sets of (predictor) constructs for collinearity: Aggre, Auto, Faml, Innov, Proac, and Risk as predictors of F.B Performance were assessed. However, collinearity among the predictor constructs is not a critical issue in the structural model as they are all less than 5.

4.7.2 Assessing the R^2 value and the f^2 values of the endogenous construct

Coefficient of determination or R^2 calculates the amount of variance in the endogenous construct as explained by all the exogenous constructs linked to it.

Table 4.7 Coefficient of Determination (R^2 Value) Endogenous Construct

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Family Business Performance	0.705	0.705	0.000	20026.983	0.002

Source: Field survey (2020).

As shown in table 4.7, the R^2 value of the endogenous constructs FBPfis 0.705. this implied that this model explained 70.5% of the variance. The R^2 value ranges from 0 to 1, with higher levels indicating higher levels of predictive accuracy. The R^2 tend to describe the amount of variance in endogenous family hospitality business performance variable which is explained by exogenous entrepreneurial orientation variable. The 70.5 value is considered moderate given the (Hair *et al.,* 2010) threshold.

4.7.3 Effect size f^2

The change in the R^2 value when a specified exogenous construct is removed from the model can be used to evaluate whether the omitted construct has a substantive impact on the endogenous constructs. The impact of the change is referred to as effect size (f^2). The effect size can be calculated as;

$f^2 = R^2$ included $- R^2$ excluded / 1 $-R^2$ included, where;

R^2included and R^2excluded are the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is included in or excluded from the model.

Guidelines for assessing f^2 are that values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, respectively, represent small, medium, and large effects (Cohen, 2003) of the exogenous latent variable. Effect size values of less than 0.02 indicate that there is no effect.

Table 4. 8: Result of Effect Size (f2) Coefficient

Variables	FBP	Conclusions
Innovativeness	0.284	medium effect size
Risk taking	0.011	small effect size
Proactiveness	0.175	medium effect size
Autonomy	0.085	small effect size
Aggressiveness	0.07	small effect size

*Effect size impact indicator are according to Cohen (1988), f2 values; 0.35 (large), 0.15 (medium) and 0.02 (small).

Source: Author, (2020).

Table 4.8 indicated that f^2 values for all the combinations of endogenous constructs in the columns while exogenous constructs in the model exceeded the benchmark.

4.7.4 Assessment of the Q^2 values of the endogenous constructs

The Q^2value measures a models out-of-sample predictive power as another criterion for a model's predictive accuracy. The Q^2value larger than 0 suggest the model has predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct. In contrast, values of 0 and below indicate a lack of predictive relevance.

Table 4.9: Predictive Relevance Q^2 Value of endogenous construct

Variable	Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)
Family Business Performance	0.500

Predicitve Relevance (q2) of predictor exogenous latent variables as according to Henseler *et al.,* (2009), q2 values 0.35 (large), 0.15 (medium) and 0.02 (small).

Source: Field survey 2020.

In the table 4.9, SSO shows the sum of the squared observations, SSE the sum of the squared prediction errors, and the last column (i.e., 1 – SSE/SSO) the final value Q^2, which is interpreted to judge the model's predictive relevance with regard to each endogenous construct. In line with the guideline of Hair et'al (2016), the Q^2 values of the four constructs under investigation are considerably above zero. More precisely, E.O (0.584), FBPf (0.400), Familiness (0.491) and Hotel classes (0.243) have values exceeding the threshold as shown in table 4.9. These results provide clear support for the model's predictive relevance.

4.7.5 Standardized root mean square residual.

Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) used to measure the goodness of fit. The SRMR is the difference between the observed correlation and the predicted correlation. It allows assessing the average magnitude of the discrepancies between observed and expected correlations as an absolute measure of (model) fit criterion.

Table 4.10 Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR).

	Saturated Model	Estimated Model
SRMR	0.061	0.061

Source: Authors survey, (2020).

Table 4.10 presented the SRMR result for the three models. A value less than 0.10 and of 0.08 (in conservative sense) are considered a good fit (Hair *et al.*, 2014). The PLS bootstrapping procedure provides the SRMR criterion. The SRMR values for the model is less than 0.08; it is therefore concluded that the model met the goodness of fit criteria (Henseler *et al.*, 2016).

4.7.6 Evaluation of the path coefficients and significance

In order to investigate the relationship between EO and family hospitality business performance, path coefficient was used. The mediation effect of familiness and hotel classification on the path between predictors and performance was also tested.

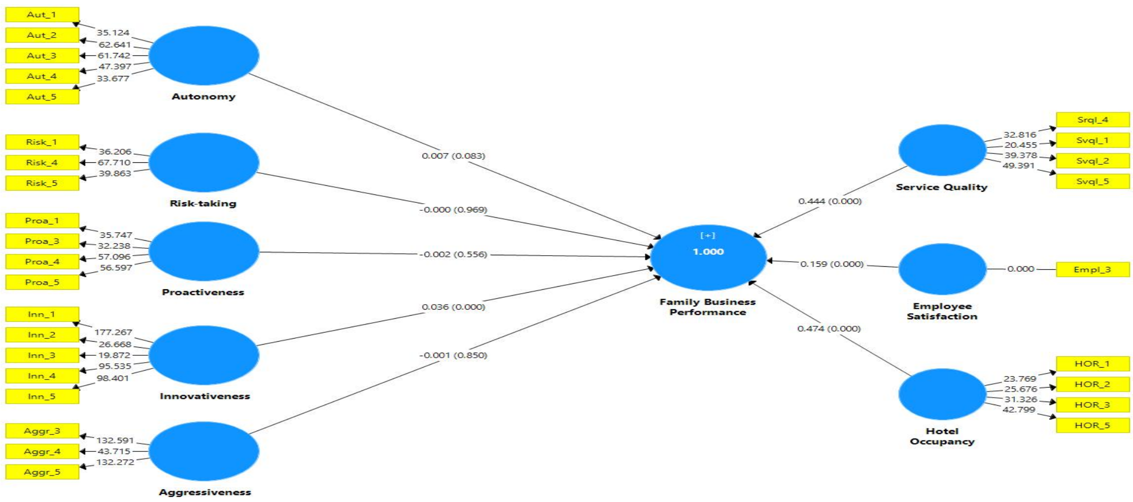

Fig 4.10: Path coefficients of the model

Source: Field survey (2020).

Fig.4.10 showed Path model for exogeneous and endogenous variables.

According to Memon et al. (2018) the minimum number of bootstrap samples must be at least as large as the number of valid observations but should be 5,000. Critical t-values for a two-tailed test are 1.65 (significance level = 10%), 1.96 (significance level = 5%), and 2.57 (significance level = 1%). Path coefficient vary between -1 and +1. Higher absolute values denote stromger (predictive) relationships between the constructs.

4.7.7 Hypotheses testing

This section showed the results of the seven hypotheses tested at 5% level of significance.

Table 4.11: Hypotheses Testing Result

Hyp	Null Relationships	Std Beta	STDEV Error	T Statistics	P Values	
Ho1	Innovativeness -> FB Performance	0.036	0.006	5.55	0.001	Accepted
Ho2	Risk-taking -> FB Performance	0.1	0.003	0.039	0.969	Not accepted
Ho3	Proactiveness -> FB Performance	-0.002	0.004	0.589	0.556	Not accepted
Ho4	Autonomy -> FB Performance	0.007	0.004	1.736	0.085	Not accepted
Ho5	Aggress -> FB Performance	-0.001	0.005	0.189	0.083	Not accepted

**p<0.01,*p<0.05

Source: Author (2020).

Table 4.11 revealed the structural model results as follows; Innovativeness => Family Business performance relationship has the strongest path coefficient of (5.55). Other study's relationship path coefficients are Autonomy => FBP (1.736); Proactiveness => family business performance (0.589); Competitive aggressiveness => Family Business performance (0.189); and Risktaking => family business performance with (0.039) are weak.

At a critical t-values for a two-tailed test of 1.96 and significance level of 5% p-value threshold, only null hypothesis 1 "Innovativeness does not significantly influence family hospitality business performance" was statistically significant and hence accepted. The other formulated null hypotheses 2, 3, 4 and 5 were not statistically significant and therefore, rejected. Accordingly alternate hypotheses on, autonomy, risktaking, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness were upheld.

4.7.8 Robust test estimation.

Robustness test is any quality assurance methodology that focused on testing the correctness of research model. The robustness test in this study assessed whether the estimated effects remain statistically significant in response to uncertainty faced in specifying empirical models. Therefore, this study incorporated mediating factors of familiness and hotel classification. The study also controlled for firm size and age which are capable of influencing the final result of the study.

4.7.9 Mediating analysis

The bootstrapping procedures approach exhibited higher levels of statistical power (Hair *et al.,* 2014). At first, PLS algorithm and Bootstrap procedures without the mediator (relative advantage) construct in the model was calculated. The PLS algorithm calculation with mediator are shown in Table 4.12.

Based on the value of Variation Accounted For (VAF), following conditions of mediation effect as given by Hair *et al.* (2013), to find out the strength of mediation, the variance accounted for (VAF) is calculated which denotes the strength of the indirect effect in relation to the total effect (direct effect+ indirect effect). If this value is less than 20%, then almost no mediation takes place. If VAF has very large outcomes of above 80%, then full mediation takes place and a VAF value larger than 20% but less than 80% characterizes as partial mediation.

The mediation analysis was carried out to estimate the magnitude of indirect effect of mediating variable (familiness and hotel classification) on the relationship between exogenous variables entrepreneurial orientation and hospitality business performance.

Table: 4.12 Mediation Table

Exogenous	Mediation Analysis	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	VAF *(Indirect / Total)*	Mediation Result
EO (Innovativeness) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.002	0.029	0.069	No Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0	0.028	0	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.002	0.029	0.069	No Mediation
EO (Risk-taking) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.003	0.016	0.188	No Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0	0.015	0	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.003	0.016	0.188	No Mediation
EO (Proactiveness) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.003	0.01	0.3	Partial Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0	0.007	0	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.003	0.01	0.3	Partial Mediation
EO (Autonomy) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.002	0.017	0.118	No Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0	0.017	0	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.002	0.018	0.111	No Mediation
EO (Aggressiveness) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.003	0.022	0.136	No Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0.001	0.019	0.053	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.003	0.022	0.136	No Mediation

Source: Author, (2020)

Table 4.12 showed the mediating results of familiness and hotel classification on family hospitality business performance. It was observed that when familiness and hotel classification mediate the relationship between autonomy and dependent variable, they were found not to have met the conditions of mediation effect as given by Hair *et al.* (2013) in both separate and joint measurement as the VAF was less than 20%. Furthermore, table 4.12 also revealed that familiness and hotel classification did not have influence on the independent variables' risktaking and family hospitality business performance. The mediation effect was measured individually and jointly on the relationship between independent variable and the dependent variable and both measurement, fell short of the hair *et al.* (2013) threshold for significant mediation.

Table 4.12 showed that the mediation effect of familiness on the relationship between proactiveness and family business performance was found to enjoy partial mediation. However, hotel classification had no mediation effect on proactiveness and family hospitality business performance. Although there was a joint mediation effect on the relationship between proactiveness and family business performance as it met the threshold for a partial mediation.

It also revealed that the mediating results of familiness and hotel classification on predicting the relationship between competitive aggressiveness tendency and family hospitality business performance was not significant. It was observed that when familiness and hotel classification mediate the relationship between Aggressiveness and dependent variable, they were found not to have met the conditions of mediation effect as given by Hair *et al.* (2013) in both separate and joint measurement as the VAF was less than 20%.

Furthermore, when the independent variable, innovativeness relates through familiness and hotel classification to the dependent variable family hospitality business performance, the mediating variables had no influence on the level of performance. The joint effect of familiness and hotel classification was not also found to enjoy any significant influence in predicting firm performance.

4.8. Control Variables Analyses

Firms of different size and age may be in different stages of development and may thus have different kinds of organizational and environmental characteristics, which may impact on performance (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005). Due to these reasons, these variables were controlled for. In a post-hoc analysis, the control variables were modeled and treated as independent variables together with other latent variables. Using SmartPLS MGA, the path coefficient, T-statistics and the significant values were examined.

Table: 4.13 MGA Analysis result - R Square values for Firms Age

Firms Size	R^2 (5 Years)	R^2 (10 Years)	R^2 (15 Years)	R^2 (20 Years)
FBP	0.799	0.917	0.833	0.999

Sources: Author (2020).

Table 4.13 shows the ages of the respondents hospitality firms as classified as 5- 9 years, 10 – 14, 15-20, 20 years and above.

The results of the MGA indicated that some differences can be found among the age groups. MGA analysis results shows that the ages of the family hospitality business performance in model 4.13 is: (R^2: 79.9%) within age 5 to 9 years of the data, fit the regression model, (R^2: 91.7%) within the age of 10 – 14 years of the data, fit the regression model, (R^2: 83.3%) within the age of 15 – 19 years of the data, fit the regression model, while (R^2: 99.9%) for the ages of 20 years and above of the data, fit the regression model of firm ages.

Table 4.14: Effect of Firm Age as a Control Variable on FBP

Construct Relations	Path Coefficient	T Statistics	P Values
Aggressiveness -> FBP	-0.001	0.188	0.851
Innovativeness -> FBP	0.036	5.483	0.001
Autonomy -> FBP	0.007	1.727	0.084
Proactiveness -> FBP	-0.002	0.59	0.555
Risk-taking -> FBP	0.001	0.039	0.969

Source: Author (2020)

Table 4.14 revealed the effect of entrepreneurial orientation dimensions of innovativeness, risktaking, proactiveness, autonomy and aggressiveness on family hospitality business performance when firm age is controlled. All variables were not significant in the model except innovativeness versus family business performance with a value of 5.483 t-statistics at 0.001 p-value. This implies that innovativeness defies ages of hospitality firms performance. Thus, innovativeness is the lifeline of hospitality industry. This is in tandem with Covin and Miles (1999) that innovation is an essential part of a business strategy and that entrepreneurial firms cannot exist without it.

Table 4:15 MGA Analysis result - R Square values for *Firms Size*

Firms Sizes	R^2 (Two)	R^2 (Five)	R^2 (Ten)	R^2 (Twenty)
FBP	0.802	0.731	0.869	0.991

Source: Author (2020)

Table 4.15 revealed the firm size as a control variable on family hospitality firm performance. The respondent hospitality firms were classified into four subgroups: One or two family member, three to five family members, six to ten family members, and eleven to twenty family members. The results of the MGA indicated that some differences can be found between the sizes of the firms. MGA analysis result showed that the family hospitality firm owner-managers responses on size of family firms in Table 4.15 is: (R^2: 80.2%) for one or two family members data, fit the regression model,

(R^2: 73.1%) in three to five family members data, fit the regression model, (R^2: 86.9%) in six to ten family members data fit the regression model, (R^2: 99.1%) in eleven to twenty family members data, fit the regression analysis. The effect of firm size as a control variable on family hospitality firm performance is therefore shown in Table 4.15.

Table: 4.16 Firms Size as a control variable on FBP

Construct Relations	Path Coefficient	T Statistics	P Value
Aggressiveness -> FBP	-0.001	0.191	0.848
Innovativeness -> FBP	0.036	5.536	0.001
Autonomy -> FBP	0.007	1.753	0.008
Proactiveness -> FBP	0.159	21.395	0.001
Risktaking -> FBP	0.474	12.024	0.071

Source: Author (2020)

Table 4.16 highlighted the effect of entrepreneurial orientation dimensions of innovativeness, risktaking, proactiveness, autonomy and aggressiveness on family hospitality business performance when firm size is controlled. The values for innovativeness and proactiveness were statistically significant but aggressiveness, autonomy and risktaking were not significant. This implied that innovativeness and proactiveness have serious effect on family hospitality firm performance irrespective of the size. Hughes and Morgan (2007) corroborated that proactiveness and innovativeness of small firms were significantly related to firm performance.

Table: 4.17 Firms Sizes and Firms Ages as control variables on FBP

Construct Relations	Path Coefficient	T Statistics	P-Values
Aggressiveness -> FBP	-0.002	0.378	0.849
Innovativeness -> FBP	0.036	5.587	0.001
Autonomy -> FBP	0.007	1.728	0.084
Proactiveness -> FBP	-0.002	0.592	0.554
Risk-taking -> FBP	0.001	0.004	0.968

Source: Author (2020).

Table 4.17 revealed the effect of entrepreneurial orientation dimensions of innovativeness, risktaking, proactiveness, autonomy and aggressiveness on family hospitality business performance when firm ages and firm sizes are controlled. All variables were not significant in the model except innovativeness versus family business performance 5.587 t-statistics at 0.001 p-value. This implied that innovativeness defies ages and sizes of hospitality firms performance. Thus, innovativeness is the lifeline of hospitality industry. This is in tandem with Covin and Miles (1999) that innovation is an essential part of a business strategy and that entrepreneurial firms cannot exist without it.

From the analyses, the relationships between all the independent variables EO and dependent variable FHBP were not found to be significantly different despite the inclusion of the control variables (i.e., age and firm size). Thus, it is concluded that the hypothesized relationships are still significant when the effects of age and firm size are controlled for. Lastly, the study noted that control variables (firm sizes and ages in the industry) were not revealed to have a significant influence on hospitality firm performance.

4.9 Summary of Main Findings

Based on the research findings, family hospitality business performance is found to be influenced positively by Entrepreneurial Orientation of the firm. As shown in Table 4.18, six hypotheses (i.e., H2, H3, H4, H5, H6 & H7) were not supported while H1 was supported.

Table 4.18: Summary of Main Findings

Ho	Null Research Hypotheses	Result
H1	Innovativeness does not significantly affect hospitality FBP	Supported
H2	Risk taking does not significantly influence hospitality FBP	Not supported
H3	Proactiveness does not significantly impact hospitality FBP	Not supported
H4	Autonomy does not significantly affect hospitality FBP	Not supported
H5	Aggressiveness does not significantly influence hospitality FBP	Not supported

Source: Field survey, (2020)

Table 4.19 provided the summary result for mediating variables of familiness and hotel classification.

Table 4.19: Mediated Relationships

Ho	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	T-Stat	Decision	ConfidenceInterval 0.05	0.95
H6	E.O ->Faml ->FBPf	0.128	0.066	3.893	Not Supported	0.135	0.395
H7	E.O ->Hotc ->FBPf	0.113	0.021	8.685	Not Supported	0.139	0.221

**$p<0.01$, *$p<0.05$

Source: Field survey 2020

4.10 Discussion of Results

In this section, the findings of the survey were presented in accordance with the underlying research hypothesis. The results were discussed and compared with related previous studies.

4.10.3 To determine the influence of innovativeness on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

The study hypothesized a null relationship between innovativeness and family hospitality business. The examination of path analysis obtained using PLS graph showed that innovativeness had no significant effect on family business performance with a path coefficient of 5.555 at a p-value of 0.001. Therefore, the null hypothesis for the study was accepted and the alternative hypothesis, that innovativeness has a significant effect on family hospitality firm performance in north-central region was rejected. It is likely because, there is no vast opportunity to demonstrate unique services, different from others like it can be found in ICT firms or in product innovation. For instance, if an innovation devise is found, others will emulate it. It takes more time and money to discover another opportunity that is different from others. However, the innovative ability of hospitality firms to renew their market offers is very crucial to their survival and growth when operating under conditions of global competition, rapid technology advancement and resource scarcity. As innovation is the core of entrepreneurship, a family firm that does not innovate will remain stunted, decline and eventually die (Kuratko and Hodgett, 2009; Adeyeye, 2018).

An entrepreneurial hospitality firm has to be on a perpetual change spiral and the entrepreneurial architecture will have to evolve continuously. Oscar *et al.* (2013) reported that innovation in hospitality is the ability to take quick advantage of scientific or technological discoveries, utilize them in ways that translate the new discoveries into added-value for their customers/clientele.

According to Covin and Wales (2019) the current business environments are experiencing fundamental changes in terms of globalization, dynamic customer demand, and emerging technological innovation. The Internet is a critical driver for these shifts.

However, as the internet penetrates deeply into innovative business products, processes, organizational strategies, marketing, raw materials and society, it also changes relationships between customers and firms, and significantly changes hospitality firms' customer behavior and preference. Constant availability of information over the Internet allows customers to easily access product and service information and become better-informed ever than before. Numerous available offerings and low switching costs substantially result in more differential customer requirements and preferences, which force companies to make great effort to understand their customers as enunciated by resource based view. Driven by the development of electronic communication platforms, a customer-centric hospitality industry is taking the place of traditional hospitality firm-centric business. Unfortunately, most of the sampled family hospitality firms are not doing enough to leverage on this innovation ICT for their firm performance.

Pnevmatikoudi (2016) maintained that service firms' innovation requires higher research and development, higher levels of information and it is complex and takes time. Greater innovativeness will therefore be disruptive to the industry (Miller & Friesen, 1982). Ottenbacher, (2017) also opined that largesse and glamour of innovation comes at a price. An entrepreneurial family in hospitality business has to create an entrepreneurial architecture, revamp its organizational structure, marketing strategies and leadership style. Kandampully (2006) posited that innovativeness has the potential to greatly impact the market and many times provides sustainable competitive advantage until the next big innovation happens. In spite of the great potential rewards for innovation, it does carry great risk as not all efforts yield results and research and development and other innovations efforts are often the first to be cut back during an economic downturn.Nonetheless, firms without a deliberate policy on EO will tend to be at the lower end of the innovativeness spectrum and ultimately performed poorly.

In more recent study, Pnevmatikoudi (2016) indicated that 46% of innovations in hospitality firms emerge from customers, suppliers and intelligence networks. Focusing on the needs of hotel customers, satisfying them with incremental innovation, improves firm and customer relationship which leads to higher rates of customer retention and performance. Moreover, Eden (2002) meta-analysis indicated that a focus on existing customers and their needs does not allow innovation to take place, it was however questioned by Kandampully (2012) who argued that if firms do not focus on markets and customers, new and novel products would not emerge. At this point, Debruyne (2015) waded into the debate that by a deeper analysis of customer needs through different channels of communication and feedback, innovations in hotel services translate to firm performance.

When examined with mediation variable, it was revealed that familiness has no significant mediating effect on the relationship between innovativeness and family hospitality business performance. The study further modeled the intervention of hotel classification to the ensuing relationship between innovativeness and family firm performance. The result also indicated that hotel classification has no significant mediation on family firm performance. Upon combining the two mediating variables it was observed that there was also no mediation as VAF was 0.069. This revealed that neither family involvement nor hotel classification has significant influence on family business performance. It was perceived that most family involvement only constituted hanger-on to the hospitality firms especially among the absential owner. It was also noted that hotel classification system is rampantly abused as hoteliers arrogate classes to themselves without following the laid down guideline. Moreover, the deluge of budget hotels around strategic part of the towns has significantly altered the classification system.

4.10.4 To examine the impact of risktaking on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

The study hypothesized a null relationship between risk taking and family hospitality business performance. As hypothesized, risk taking tendency does not have a significant effect on family hospitality business performance with a path coefficient of 0.039 at a p-value of 0.969. Therefore, the null hypothesis for the study was rejected while the alternate hypothesis that risktaking has significant influence on family hospitality business performance in north central region of Nigeria was upheld. This implied that risk taking was not a significant consideration of hoteliers in north-central region.

The finding is in consonance with past studies of Wang *et al*. (2020) and Anderson (2010) whereby the relationship between risk taking and superior firm performance was not found to produce positive effects. Although Kiyabo and Isaga (2020) noted that family firms take fewer risks than non-family firms. Again, most owner/managers of family firms are more focus on control and sustainability of the firm beyond the current generation, which might lead to risk averse behaviours.

Moreover, once the firms have been established, hospitality firms' owners/managers in this study have to overcome the risks in pursuing a strategic opportunity, since they do not have a priori knowledge of probable outcomes. In today's rapidly changing and highly uncertain business environments, entrepreneurial firms must be willing to take risks, which Gudmundson, (2003) called 'missing-the-boat' risk, for a firm's survival and successful performance (Wales *et al.,* 2019). Entrepreneurial hospitality firms are characterised by the entrepreneur's ability to recognise and exploit the opportunities in the marketplace to create an advantage (Gupta *et al*., 2020).

Doorn *et al.* (2010) revealed that risk taking is influenced by culture, institutional environments, size of the economy (GDP), technological sophistication and the political environment to name but a few. In addition, Gupta *et al.* (2020) indicated that risk taking is a crucial element in the entrepreneurs' decision-making menu when starting a new business, finding a new market, or introducing a new product or reorganizing a firm (Frank *et al.*, 2010). Several activities that contain risks in hospitality industry like entering new unproven markets was tested during the pilot studies and the cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.85 was considered appropriate for the study.

Furthermore, firms under intensely competitive environment may resist taking such high level risk. Tang *et al.* (2008) argued that in a perceived high-risk business environment, few people are willing to attempt new initiatives. Those who are willing to dare are likely to generate more profit, enhancing the firm's growth, if their businesses succeed.

Nothwithstanding, Pérez-Luño *et al.* (2011) indicated that risk taking was found to significantly diminish firm performance. According to McCann *et al.* (2001) some projects may still fail and others succeed regardless of the risk undertaken. Similarly, Kreiser *et al.* (2010) and Baker and Sinkula (2009) did not find relationship between risktaking propensity and firm performance. Interestingly, the findings of a meta-analysis by Renkert-Thomas (2016) showed that the contribution of risk-taking to firm performance is smallest among the EO dimensions. Similarly, Ottenbacher (2017) failed to prove the role of risk-taking propensity in the success of Thai e-commerce entrepreneurs.

However, in a comparative study by Miller *et al.* (2008) it was observed that the effects of EO on company performance are not always the same in western firms and eastern emerging markets. Importantly, the different components of EO may have differential impacts on firm performance in emerging markets, making it impossible to think of EO as an integrated construct as been stylized in the EO literature based on western contexts. Greater corporate risk taking is usually associated in western firms with enhanced company performance but in the eastern emerging market context, capital markets are weak and business environment is volatile. Consequently, managers who adopted risky strategies are exposed to relatively greater downside risks, and may be unable to borrow to smooth cash flows. Hence risk taking may undermine rather than improve family hospitality business performance in developing economies.

Meanwhile, the Resource-Based Views, the infusion of family element in managing hospitality firms as conferring competitive advantage in the form of free labour, brand, data base of customers, love, loans/grants from family members without interest and inconvenient repayment terms could be a source of strategic resource.

The study introduced a mediating effect to estimate the total, direct and indirect effects of exogenous variable on endogeneous variable through familiness and hotel classification. The outcome of the VAF value in the model indicated that entrepreneurial orientation component of risk taking has no mediation through familiness with VAF 0.096,which showed that there is no need for familiness for effective hospitality business performance. This suggested that either the family is involved or not family hospitality business will meet up to the stakeholders' expectation (Melia and Robinson, 2018). It has no mediation through hotel classification with VAF 0.096, which showed that there is no need for hotel classification on the EO family hospitality firm performance. When the two mediating variables were combined, it was observed that there was no mediation with a value of 0.222. This value indicated that familiness and hotel classification do not have significant effect on hospitality firm performance. The result inferred that familiness and hotel classes could not intermediate a sustainable relationship to meet the need of the family business. The study found support from Chaston and Sadler-Smith (2012) that classification systems had minimal influence over customer satisfaction of lodgement decision of their sample. On the other hand, it was perceived that family dominance will tend to encourage conservatism rather than risk taking.

It was posited that organizations that do not take risks in dynamic environments will lose market share and will not be able to maintain a strong industry standing relative to more aggressive competitors. It was expected that firms that have better performance would also have a higher level of risk propensity ((Melia and Robinson, 2018).).

4.10.3 To assess the influence of proactiveness on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

To validate the proposed hypothesis and the structural model, the path coefficient value between the two latent variables was assessed. The Entrepreneurial Orientation dimension of Proactiveness recorded a path coefficient 0.589 value. The EO proactiveness was not statistically significant for the research model, which indicated that there is a no significant relationship between proactiveness and family hospitality firm performance at $p<0.056$. Hence, the alternate hypothesis that proactiveness has significant impact on family hospitality business was upheld. It is evidence that hoteliers in the study area are forword looking and visionary giving their strategic location and product offerings. This finding resonated with Ramadani and Hoy (2015) that pro-activeness has not significantly affected firm performance.

Moreover, the importance of proactiveness was emphasized by Peng *et al.* (2008) who suggested that forward-thinking entrepreneurial managers are essential to the entrepreneurial process because they have the vision and initiative to pursue opportunities and growth. Therefore, being proactive can take the forms of introducing new product/service or technological capabilities ahead of competitors and continuously seeking new product or service offerings which may yield a first mover advantages, allowing high profits from new products in new markets in the absence of competing products. Family hospitality firms could focus on the future and seeks to capitalize on opportunities it sees by using all its knowledge of the environment, i.e. the needs of customers, supply of resources, technology availability, competitor strategies, among others.

Even though, entrepreneurs are predisposed to the development of business to pursue specific objectives Wang *et al.* (2020) submitted that they still need to be proactive in seeking out an attractive niche and creating the necessary resources to facilitate new entry (Lumpkin and Rauch, 2014). Fatoki (2012) posited that firms must be alert to monitor opportunities and trends in the market where aesthetics and technological edge is the basis for competition.

Furthermore, entrepreneurial hoteliers need to develop a vision and determined ways to combine previously unidentified components to capitalize on the perceived business opportunity. Flanagan (2005) found that proactiveness was more important to firms in the early stages of industry development than in more mature industries. Meanwhile, Covin and Miles (1999) suggested that firms must have the strategic reactiveness and responsiveness for new circumstances that often occur in uncertain entrepreneurial contexts.

Even though proactiveness has been associated with strong performance in previous EO studies (Miller, 1983) and (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996) this is not always the case with family firms. Moreover, in a study of multiple generations of family ownership, Martin and Lumpkin (2013) found that second generation owners exhibited lower proactiveness than that of first generation owners, thus suggesting that the presence of proactiveness is equivocal across generations of family firms.

It was observed that most family owned hospitality firms are unstandardized and less responsive to changing customer preferences, and are ill prepared to meet customers' future preferences. In a study of strategic postures, Daily and Thompson (1994) also found that committing resources to entering new markets alone was not a strong predictor of firm growth. According to Gupta and Bastra (2016) most of the time firms are not able to invest in research and development budgets compared to the leaders in the industry. Therefore, Lower research and development budgets mean that many times family hospitality firms are not aware of new developments that might be the key to customer solutions. Anwar (2021) found that firms operating in organizations that are unsupportive of trend in technology and that place emphasis on individual (rather than group) accomplishment will be less likely to display proactive behaviours.

A mediating effect of familiness was introduced to estimates total, direct and indirect effects of causal variable on outcome variable. The result indicated that proactiveness had partial mediation through familiness with VAF of 0.300, this implied that either the family is involved or not has no significant effect on firm performance. Subsequently, the mediation of hotel classification had no significant effect. The result is consistent with Callaghan and Venter, (2011) finding that there is lack of awareness of the significance of classification symbols by respondents. The joint mediation of the variables, only had partial mediation of 0.303 VAF. This revealed that either the family element is involved or hotel is classified, the hotel could still meet its set targets.

However, the resource-based view stressed that family idiosyncracyof the hospitality firm, could create and sustaining competitive advantage in the market place. Competitive advantages do not come from external elements, but from internal capabilities that each company learns to put together to create some competitive value for the company. For instance family members, just by working in the organization already offer resources in the form of familiness.

Since entrepreneurship promotes the search for competitive advantages, such advantage can be sustained by the knowledge and information about competitors, customers, government regulations, protecting any economic benefit gained through barriers to imitation derived from organizational strategy and processes. According to Madhoushi (2011) first mover advantage refers to the benefits gained by firms that are the first to enter new markets, establish brand identity, implement superior administrative techniques or adopt new operating technologies within an hospitality industry industry. This needs to be carried out in conjunction with careful monitoring and scanning of the environment if this dimension is to be exploited as a competitive advantage in the market place. Thus, the study concluded that proactiveness did not significantly predict family hospitality firms' performance.

4.10.6 To investigate the effect of autonomy on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

Entrepreneurial orientation dimension of autonomy recorded a path coefficient value of 1.736 positive at a p-value of 0.083. Autonomy was not statistically significant for the model which indicated that there is no a significant relationship between Autonomy and family hospitality business performance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not accepted while the alternative hypothesis that autonomy significantly affects family hospitality business performance in North-central region of Nigeria was upheld.

This implied that autonomy is a significant consideration of hoteliers in north-central region. This result is probably due to the characteristics of the hospitality firm owners/managers and overbearing family influence. Owners/managers of family firms are widely acknowledged to have ultimate power and authority within their firms; this may be the explanation for the limitations they place on the autonomy they grant to the employees in hospitality firms. However, the concentration of power may create some problems, since it restraints the types and quality of information received by owners/managers to exploit potential opportunities in the marketplace (Kiyabo and Isaga, 2020). As a consequence, it may hinder hospitality firms' ability to undertake entrepreneurial activities, and thus lead to lower performance. Furthermore, it seemed that autonomy is not without risk. Amin *et al*. (2016) found that offering autonomy, in terms of more decentralisation of power and more participative leadership may lead to decreasing innovativeness. In addition, the exercise of autonomy by employees or teams of the firm in some circumstances might hamper the achievement of the firm's goals (Lee *et al*., 2019). For that reason, offering autonomy, in terms of the independent spirit and freedom of action, to a family hospitality firm's members of staff has to take into account factors such as the firm's leader characteristics and the stages of firm's development.

However, Wales *et al*. (2019), Pratono and Mahmood (2016) and Hughes and Morgan (2007) indicated that autonomy does not positively affect firm's performance. Little wonder why many previous studies failed to include firm autonomy as a dimension of the EO framework and only focused on the EO three dimensions by Miller (1983) and Covin & Slevin (1989). Indeed, autonomy may have unintended consequences as well as teams may lack co-ordination and sustained support from upper management.Top hotel workers with high need for autonomy are associated with a preference for working alone, control over the workplace, and tend to be averse to excessive rules and procedures.

The mediation result indicated that familiness has no mediation through autonomy and family business performance. This is in line with Covin & Slevin (1991) conclusion that the family effect may lead to inertia and lower levels of entrepreneurial activities. Hotel classification standards appear to be taken for granted by both guests and the industry (De-Clercq *et al.,* 2010) as it had no significant effect on the causal relationship. The joint mediation only accounted for 0.111 value. This valuewas less than 20% threshold required for at least partial mediation. Thus familiness and hotel classification mediation(s) had no significant effect on autonomy and hospitality firm relationship.

Similarly, Edmond and Wiklund, (2010) revealed that the levels of autonomy exercised in family hospitality firm may depend on the firm size, management style or ownership. Additionally, in a hospitality firm where the primary decision maker is the owner or the manager, autonomy is implied by the rights of ownership" as shown in the study by Anwar *et al.,* 2021).

However, contrary to this finding, Lumpkin and Dess (1996), Wiklund and Shepherd, (2005) concluded that autonomy significantly influences firm performance. A necessary condition for entrepreneurial orientation is autonomy (Slater and Narver, 2000) which refers to the freedom of employees to be creative, to develop new ideas and open communication and to be focused upon customer interaction and orientation (Melia *et al.,* 2018). Autonomy drives flexibility and creativity (Hughes and Morgan, 2007) flexibility enables firms to react faster to customer needs, while creativity drives innovation and uniqueness. In addition, it allows for discretionary action where solutions are needed (Amin, 2015 and Anwar *et al.,* 2021). Autonomy may be centralized in principle and concern only specific individuals, like managers, accountants or decentralized and dispersed to all organizational members.

4.10.7 To ascertain the impact of competitive aggressiveness on family hospitality business performance in North-central Nigeria.

The hypothesized relationship between entrepreneurial orientation dimension of Competitive aggressiveness and family hospitality business performance recorded a 0.189 path coefficient at a $p<0.085$ value. This indicated that Competitive aggressiveness was not statistically significant for the model, which indicated that there is no significant relationship between Competitive aggressiveness and family hospitality firm performance. Therefore, the null hypothesis 5 was not accepted while the alternative hypothesis that competitive aggressiveness significantly affects family hospitality business performance in North central region of Nigeria was upheld. This implied that family hospitality firms' when faced with intense competition posed by rivals do demonstrate some aggressiveness to beat competitors to the punch. Moreover, consistent with Wang *et al*. (2020) who found that competitive aggressiveness was the most important EO dimensions for improving business performance. Anwar *et al.* (2021) argued that intensely challenging the competitors would require unconventional strategies rather than conventional tactics. Two types of competitive action were identified which involved being proactive or being reactive to competitors' moves (Siraj *et al.,* 2016). The representation of items on a number of indicators such as cost, processes, partnerships and differentiators indicated a number of coordinated and repetitive competitive actions are required to intensely challenge competition (Covin & Wales, 2019). Competitive aggressiveness of the firm can be enhanced by the speed and multiplicity of competitive attacks by selecting a number of appropriate strategies. Gupta *et al.* (2020) found that competitive actions can be initiated on a number of fronts, which include markets, products, cost and price and development of inimitable capabilities in line with Resource Based View of family firms. It was noted that firms often use predatory pricing as a source of differentiation. This competitive action of enhancing the pricing power is facilitated by a reduction in cost. Furthermore, a family hospitality firm may have the propensity for competitive aggressiveness, and may also adopt such as posture, but its ability to outperform its rivals largely depends on its capabilities to do so and the resources at its disposal to achieve its objectives. Therefore, firms may prioritize the rules of engagement based on these capabilities and resources and the competitor's size and strength. An entrepreneurial family firm may augment its own capabilities based on the assessment of a competitor's capabilities.

However, the finding is contrary to (Lee *et al.*, 2019, Chaston and Sadler-Smith, 2012 and Kraus *et al*., 2012) which showed no relationship between both constructs. Even though Martens *et al.* (2016) did not find any direct significant relationship between competitive aggressiveness and organizational performance, and only few studies have hypothesized a linkage between competitive aggressiveness and organizational performance, the dimension is still seen as a part of positive entrepreneurial concept (Lechner and Gudmundsson, 2014).

Furthermore, the mediation result showed that there is no need for familiness mediation for a significant relationship between aggressiveness and hospitality performance. This is consistent with Lee *et al.* (2019) that the involvement and influence of a family in a business does not automatically lead to high performance. The study further modeled the intervention of hotel classification to the ensuing relationship between aggressiveness and family firm performance. Thus, hotel classification standards appeared to be taken for granted by both guests and the industry (Gupta *et al.,* 2020) as it had no effect on the causal relationship between aggressiveness and family hospitality business perofermance. Similarly, the joint mediation was not significant enough to affect the relationship. This revealed that either family involvement or hotel classification has no significant influence on family business performance.

This finding is consistent with the study by Martinez *et al.* (2013) which showed that there is no relationship between competitive aggressiveness and firm performance. Yang and Meyer (2019) concluded that competitive aggressiveness demonstrated no effect on performance. Similarly, Okpara (2009) also perceived that adoption of competitive aggressiveness orientation will not significantly lead to achieving higher performance, profitability, and growth compared to those that are conservative.

This competitive aggressive stance may not always yield desire results as competitors and customers may not view the firm's actions in an industry as being desirable or acceptable, for example a hospitality firm may make pre-announcements of new products or service to either pre-empt rivals or scare off potential competitors, this behaviour may not be acceptable or ethical in some quarters.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

EO has received considerable attention in the literature as many studies from various countries have sought to make conceptual and empirical progress in this area. Scientific progress regarding the EO concept has been accompanied by increased attention to the context in which the EO– performance relationship is embedded. However, this research focused on the relationship between EO and family hospitality business performance and the mediating effect of familiness and hotel classification in shaping the relationship. Although entrepreneurial strategy can lead to positive performance outcomes, an emphasis on EO can be challenging for family hospitality firms particularly in emerging economies such as Nigeria characterized by weak institutional environment. Therefore, this study answered the question "what is the impact of EO on family hospitality firms' performance? The demographic and inferential statistics were analyzed to address the impact of EO on family hospitality firm performance.

The demographic distribution of survey respondents revealed that out of 410 sampled family hospitality firms, there were more men (80%) at the helm of hospitality firms' administration than women (20%) which was perceived to be due to cultural and religious reasons. The managers among respondents were 76% while the other respondents including the firm owners accounted for 26% which significantly pointed that the data collected were absolutely from the relevant channel. All the respondents were family members of the owners though with diverse degree of relationships. The individuals who perceived the hotel owners as uncles or aunts accounted for 47%, children managers were 24%, the hotel owners and siblings among respondents were 29% reflecting the samples are actual family in business of hospitality.

Furthermore, the study used SmartPLS to analyze the seven null hypotheses which were tested at $p<0.05$ level of significance. Five of the hypotheses were for the main studies and two for mediations. However, only hypothesis one (innovativeness) was statistically significant while the remaining six were not found to be significant. Consequently, the following major conclusions were drawn in line with the objectives of these study:

Firstly, innovativeness does not significantly affect family hospitality firm performance. The null hypothesis 1 of the study was accepted, while the alternate hypothesis was rejected. Family hospitality firms tend to be reluctant to innovate and slow to change, thus hampering entrepreneurial activities and behaviors. Moreover, most family hospitality firms do not engage in nor support the generation of new ideas and creative processes that may lead to new hospitality services, adoption of new technology and new marketing strategy. However, innovativeness when fully imbibed, improves the application of market information, supporting the company in pursuing existing market opportunities by introducing new products and helping it conduct market and customer-oriented adjustments in the process of value creation for pleasure seekers. Therefore, innovativeness is sine qua non to family hospitality firm survival and competitiveness.

Secondly, the result of the null hypothesis analysis showed a statistical insignificant relationship between risktaking and family hospitality firm performance. Hence this study rejected HO, and accepted HA, which implies that risk- taking has no significant impact on family hospitality firms performance in north-central region. Family firms that are hitherto reknown to be risk averse seemed to have joined the fray of risk strategist due to the dwindling future of the hospitality firms. Moreover, in a volatile business environment such as Nigeria, risk taking is inevitable in order to achieve good return on investment. In other words, family hospitality firms' owners/managers who dare to take more risks also take actions that are more suitable and perform better in the long-run.

Thirdly, the null hypothesis 3 result revealed a statistical insignificant relationship between proactiveness and family hospitality firm performance. Hence this study rejected HO, and accepted HA, which implies that there is no significant association between proactiveness and performance of family hospitality firms in north-central region. The family hospitality firms were perceived to focuses on the future and seek to capitalize on emergent opportunities by using all its knowledge of the environment, i.e. the needs of customers, supply of resources, technology availability, competitor strategies. Also, family hospitality firms were found to demonstrate inclination to lead in introducing new products, technologies, administrative techniques, influence trends, adopt unconventional tactics to shape their environment and not react to it.

Fourthly, the result of the null hypothesis analysis showed a statistical insignificant relationship between autonomy and family hospitality firm performance. Hence this study rejected HO, and accepted HA, which implies that there is no significant association between autonomy and performance of family hospitality firms in north-central region. The study found that there is high level of independence among owing family members but vital moves of the firm among the employee mangers is tied to apron strings of the owning family. Autonomy enables a team or individual to not only solve the hospitality related problems, but actually define the problem and the goals that will be met in order to solve that problem. However, autonomy should exist at the strategic level to achieve a high level of EO.

Fifthly, the result of the null hypothesis analysis showed a statistical insignificant relationship between competitive aggressiveness and family hospitality firm performance. Hence, this study rejected HO, and accepted HA, which implies that there is no significant relationship between competitive aggressiveness and performance of family hospitality firms in north-central region. Being aggressive in competition allows family hospitality firms to improve their market position by undermining their competitors. It also enables firms to respond quickly to the competitors' actions that are considered detrimental.

Additionally, it was evident from the robust estimation in the study that firm size and age do not have significant difference from the result of the study on the effect of EO and family hospitality business. The study further confirmed that the mediation of familiness and hotel classification on the relationship between entrepreneurship and family hospitality business performance were not significant both individually or jointly for all dimensions of EO measured but only partially mediated between proactiveness and family business performance. Furthermore, the study found support in Resources based view (RBV) that the internal resources and capabilities of a firm such as family members could serve as a source of competitive advantage in the market place.

Lastly, the study revealed that out of the seven research hypotheses raised for the study, six were rejected and only one was accepted. Statistically, the study found that innovativeness was the only significant dimension of entrepreneurial orientation while risktaking, proactiveness, autonomy and competitive aggressiveness were not found to have significant effect on family hospitality performance.

5.2 Recommendations

In view of the conclusions arrived at, this study suggested the following recommendations:

i. Family hoteliers should innovate their services in providing artificial intelligent, robotics and smart technologies within their premises and friendly space age websites that help consumers seamlessly nervigate their services.

ii. Risk-taking should be viewed as part of family culture necessary to engender returns on investment. Family hospitality firms should also insure their operations against unforeseen circumstances.

iii. Family business should always be pro-active to leverage on information communication and technology as it serve as drag net to attracting the world and boundless opportunities it has to offer. Hospitality firms need not wait for the NTDC to wield the big stick before adopting the global best practices in the industry.

iv. Family firms cannot function entrepreneurially without conceding some degree of autonomy to key players in the firm. A family firm requires autonomy for its key stakeholders or creative individuals, without any restrictions imposed by the firm's bureaucracy family constitutio.

v. Family firms are required to have more aptitude for competitive aggressiveness either virtually or physically in order to gain competitive advantage and achieve higher performance.

5.3. Original Contributions to Knowledge

The current study has many original contributions that can improve the body of knowledge.

Firstly, the study examined the impact of entrepreneurial orientation on family hospitality business performance in North central, Nigeria. This is in response to the challenge posed by Wiklund and Shepherd (2005) as well as Slevin and Terjesen (2011) for increased testing and understanding about EO and its performance implications in other cultural contexts beyond Europe and America. The result of this study is truly unique compare to prior EO empirical researches.

Secondly, in determining the direct and indirect effect between the EO, familiness, hotel classification and family hospitality firm performance, the study used smartPLS multivariate technique for analysis which showed that firms must not wholly adopt the five dimensions of EO to gain competitive egde, but the dimension that is unique to its business environment. The method of analysis was not only remaekable in EO studies but the finding was distinct.

The study provided a ground breaking insight into the phenomenon of familiness, and examined its constituents and importance in family business in hospitality setting. As far as family business literature is concerned, this seems to be the only one thus far that sought to explore the inter relationship between EO, familiness, hotel classification and hospitality firms' performance.

It also seems to be the first to test the mediating effect of familiness and hotel classification on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and family business performance.

This contributes to the body of knowledge in developing economies by showing the impact of EO on family hospitality firms. In addition, this thesis is an advanced endeavor to prove that EO, a concept developed in the US and European contexts (Martens *et al.,* 2016 and Rauch *et al.,* 2009), can work in the context of Nigerian hospitality industry.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

The following suggestions are made for further researches:

i. EO should be applicable to many other types of organizations such as Universities, charity organizations, hospitals, religious organizations and government organizations rather than only SMEs.

ii. EO can also benefit from new theoretical perspective. Over time, theories such as institutional theory, network theory, resource base views, social capital theory, agency theory, stakeholders' theory among others have been severally used to address this concept. A new perspective could be explored.

iii. Additionally, the collected data in this study is strictly obtained from managers of hotels, it is therefore advised that future research should make use of other hospitality arms such as travels and tours, restaurants and eateries, drinks and bars among others to better assess the relationship between EO and firm performance in this industry.

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(APPENDIX A)

PART A:

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Federal University of Technology,
Dept of Entrepreneurship

&Business Studies PMB 65 Minna,
Niger State.

Dear Sir or Madam,

I am a doctoral student at the Federal University of Technology, Department of Entrepreneurship & Business Studies, Minna, Niger State. I am currently conducting research as part of the requirement for PhD programme.

The objective of this research is to investigate"**Entrepreneurial Orientation and Family Business Performance of Hotels in North-Central Geo-political Zone".**In particular, the research aims to examine the influence of each dimension of entrepreneurial orientation – autonomy, innovativeness, risk-taking, proactiveness and competitive aggressiveness – on the performance of family business, with a particular focus on hospitality sector.

Respondents are requested to answer all questions based on their experience and knowledge. Please read the questions carefully and mark your answers as instructed. Completing the questionnaire normally takes approximately 15 minutes.

All collected information is strictly confidential. Your contribution to this research is deeply appreciated.

If you have any query regarding this research, please contact me by phone 08032857900 or e-mail d.waheed@futminna.edu.ng.

Thanks for your Participation and Co-operation

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please answer all questions. There are no right or wrong answers.

PART A: **Family Business Background**

1. Hotelname:____________

2. Company address and contact telephone number: ____________________

3. How long was the hotel established? (a)5yrs & above (b) 10yrs & above

   © 15 yrs & above   (d) 20yrs & above   (e) 25 yrs & more

4. State & position of owner/CEO (i.e. person who completed the questionnaire):

   ____

5. Your gender (Please tick): Male   Female

6. Your age:----- (a) Less than 18 Years

   (b)18 – 22 Years   (c) 22 – 50 Years

   (d)Above 50 Years

7. Your relationship with the owner -----

   (a)Spouse   (b)Parent

   (c)Guardian   (d)Relation

   (e)Employer

8. Number of family members in the organization? ----------------

   (a) One   (b)Two

   (c)Three   (d)Four

   (e)Five & above

9. Number of all employees in the hotel? ----------

   (a) Three   (b) Five

   (c) Ten   (d) Twenty & more

   (d) Fifty & above

10. Who takes major daily decisions? --------

    (a)Owner   (b)Manager

    ©Senior workers   (d)Relations

11. Who takes financial decisions.

(a)Owner ☐ (b)Manager ☐

©Senior workers ☐ (d)Relations ☐

12. Your highest educational background (please check):

(a)High school ☐ (b)Diploma degree ☐

©Bachelor's degree ☐ (d)Master's degree ☐

(e)PhD ☐

11 Work experience in hospitality industry (please check):

(a)Two ☐ (b)Four ☐

©Five ☐ (d)Seven & above ☐

(e)Ten & above ☐

12 How many full time workers do you employ?_____________

(a)Two ☐ (b)Four ☐

©Five ☐ (d)Seven & above ☐

(e)Ten & above ☐

13 Class of your hotel---------

(a)One star ☐ (b)Two stars ☐

©Three stars ☐ (d)Four stars ☐

(e)Five stars ☐ (f)None star ☐

13 Main hotel services you offers: ___________________

(a)Lounge ☐ (b)Bars ☐

©Restaurant ☐ (d)Events ☐

(e)laundering ☐ (f)Others ☐

14 Who are your main customers of your services? (please check)

(a)Governments (b)Foreigners (export) (c)Individuals

(d)Corporate organizations (e)Other (specify)

Part B: Entrepreneurial Orientation

Please answer all questions by marking one point along the line that best represents your opinion on each statement. There are no right or wrong answers. Example:

Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD)

Section 1- Autonomy

a) Hotel manager has freewill to perform his job without continual supervision from the family owner

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

b) Our hotel owner allows me to be creative and try different methods to do my job.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

c) Family owner allow me to make decisions without going through elaborate approval procedures.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

d) Family owner have confidence in me to manage and resolve all hotels' problems.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

e) The owner family have confidence in me to take financial decisions

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

Section 2- Innovativeness

a) Our hotels regularly introduces new services/products/processes.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

b) Owning family places a strong emphasis on digital and online presence.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

c) The hotel regularly exposed staff to web training, in keeping with the trend in the market. .

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

d) Over the past few years, changes in our services and product offerings have been quite regular.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

e) Over the past 5 years, our hotel is the market leader in online and modern technology adoption

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

Section 3- Risk-taking

a) Our hotel usually commits large assets or fund with the hope of profit maximization.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

b) In general, our hotel has a strong inclination towards venturing into untested business opportunities.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

c) Owing family believes that borrowing to invest is necessary to achieve objectives. .

	Strongly	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly

	agree				Disagree
Hotel					

d) The owning family often encouraged hotel leadership to take calculated financial risks

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

e) The term "risk-taker" is considered a positive attribute for employees in our hotel.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

Section 4- Pro-activeness

a) Our hotel is very often the first to introduce new marketing strategies

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

b) Our hotel typically initiates actions which competitors respond to.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

c) Our hotel continuously seeks out new digital products/services. .

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

d) Our hotel continuously monitors market trends and identifies future needs of customers.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

e) Our hotel has increased the number of services/products offered during the past two years.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

Section 5- Competitive aggressiveness

a) In dealing with competitors our hotel adopts a very competitive "undo-the-competitor" posture.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

b) Our hotel is in partnership with other firms for better offering to the customers.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

c) We assume an aggressive posture to combat industry trends that may threaten our competitive position. .

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

d) We offer irresistible prices for high values.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

e) Our hotel will sacrifice profitability to maintain its market share when necessary

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

PART C: Family Business Performance

Section 1- Service Quality Items

1. The hotel has the means and staff for physical or electronic service delivery to meet customers' expectations.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

2. We have more customers now than 2 years ago.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

3. Our customers usually ask for improvement in some services we offer

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

4. Our services such as hotel bookings, payment and complains are done online.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

5. Most of our customers have been with the hotel for at least 2 years

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

Section 2- Hotel Occupancy rate

1. On average, half of the hotel rooms are occupied daily.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

2. The percentage of repeat guests generated is 50% per month.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

3. On the average, every room meets half of the monthly revenue target.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

4. On the average guest spend 48 hours before checkout

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Hotel					

5. We often have full bookage of the hotel rooms

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

Section 3- Employee feedback

1. What some of the employees do meet critical target goals of the firm.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

2. Workers regularly move from our firm in search of other jobs.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

3. We offer competitive welfare package relative to public workers.

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

4. Hotel staff are very loyal to their work

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

5. There is opportunity for career growth in the firm

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

PART D: Mediator

Section 1- Familiness

a) Family members are ready to commit personal fund for the success of the hotel

	Strongly agree	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Hotel					

b) Many family members participating actively in decision making of the firm

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

c) Family members in this hotel are willing to work with little or no payment as its their own

	Once or Twice	A Few times	Neutral	Often	Very Often
Hotel					

d) Family members help to attract customers and opportunity for the hotel

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

e) Family members are happy to be identify with the brand

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

Section 2- Hotel classification

a) Classification of hotels improves brand image

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

b) Hotel classification improves the profitability of the firm

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

c) Do the hotel have the facility to be qualified among the star rated classification?

	Once or Twice	A Few times	Neutral	Often	Very Often
Hotel					

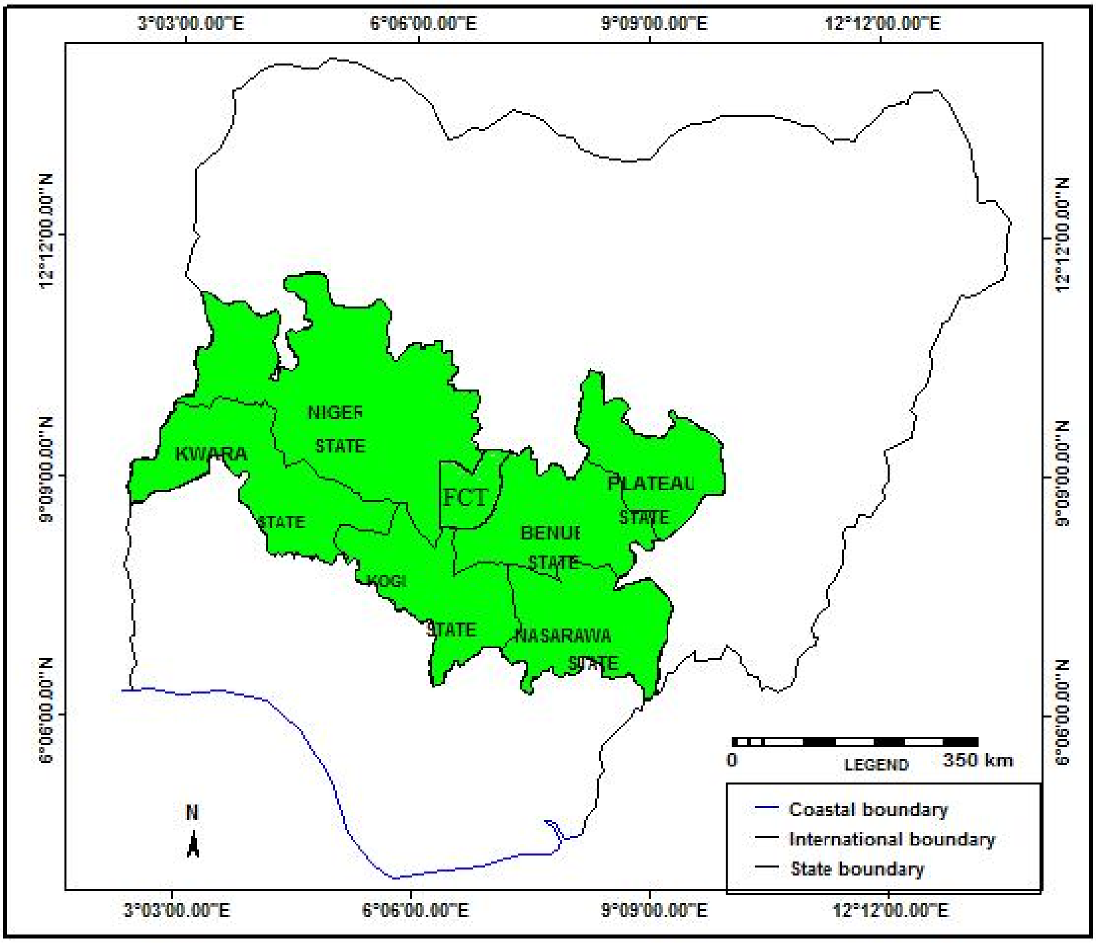
d) Does the hotel offer high speed internet access and other smart service?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

e) It the hotel licensed and graded by NTDC

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Hotel					

APPENDIX B



APPENDIX C

THE THESIS GANTT CHART

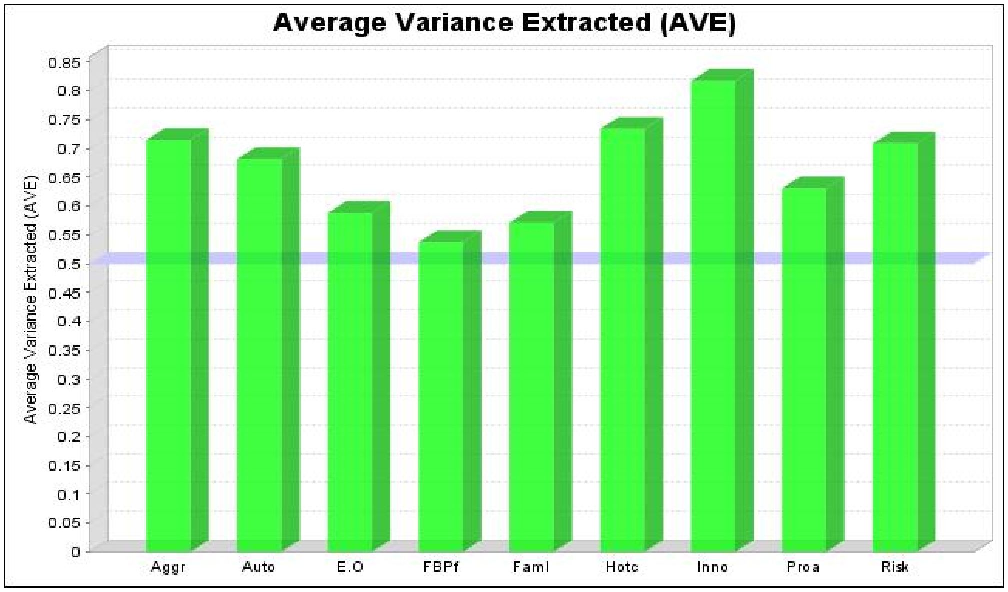
ACTIVITIES	Jan. - Mar, 2018	Apr. - June, 2018	July - Sept., 2018	Oct. - Dec. 2018	Jan. - Mar, 2019	Apr. - June, 2019	July - Sept., 2019	Oct. - Dec. 2019	Jan. - Mar, 2020	Apr. - June, 2020	July - Sept., 2020	Oct. - Dec. 2020
Course Work												
Chapter One												
Chapter Two												
Proposal Defense												
Design of Questionnaires												
Collection of Data												

APPENDIX D

Table 4.9: Measurement model (Indicators Reliability)

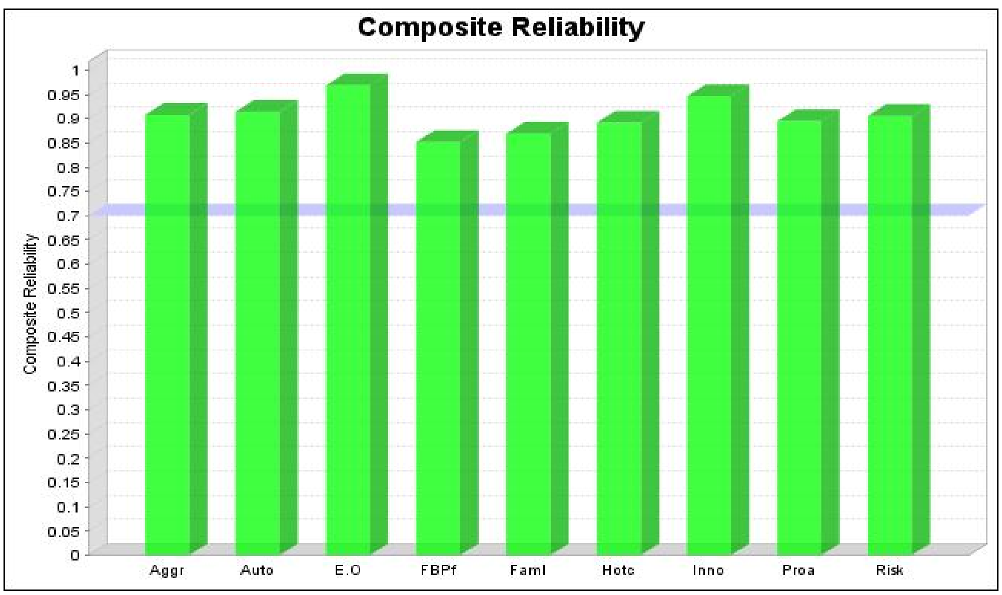
Constructs	Item	Loadings	AVE[b]	CR [c]	Rho A[d]
Innovativeness	INNO_1	0.958	0.817	0.947	0.923
	INNO_2	0.738			
	INNO_4	0.951			
	INNO_5	0.951			
Risk	RISK_1	0.928	0.709	0.906	0.865
	RISK_2	0.776			
	RISK_3	0.927			
	RISK_4	0.715			
Proactiveness	PROA_1	0.815	0.631	0.895	0.856
	PROA_2	0.787			
	PROA_3	0.764			
	PROA_4	0.794			
	PROA_5	0.811			
Autonomy	AUTO_1	0.856	0.682	0.915	0.889
	AUTO_2	0.823			
	AUTO_3	0.82			
	AUTO_4	0.773			
	AUTO_5	0.854			
Aggressiveness	AGGR_2	0.715	0.715	0.908	0.873
	AGGR_3	0.932			
	AGGR_4	0.78			
	AGGR_5	0.933			
Familiness	FAML_1	0.717	0.572	0.869	0.821
	FAML_2	0.797			
	FAML_3	0.782			
	FAML_4	0.708			
	FAML_5	0.772			
Hotel Classification	HOCL_1	0.761	0.734	0.892	0.814
	HOCL_2	0.89			
	HOCL_3	0.911			
Firm Performance	EMPLY	0.821	0.537	0.852	0.804
	HOTOC	0.648			
	MKSHR	0.704			
	SALES	0.711			
	SERVQ	0.77			

Note: a. All items loadings > 0.5 indicates indicator reliability (Hulland, 1999, p.198)
b. All AVE > 0.5 as indicates convergent reliability (Bagozzi& Yi 1988); Fornell&Larcker, 1981)
c. All composite reliability (CR) > 0.7 indicates internal consistency (Gafen, et al 2000)
d. All Cronchbach's alpha >0.7 indicates indicator reliability (Nunnally, 1978).



Source: Field survey 2020

Fig. 4.10: Average Variance Extracted



Source: Field survey 2020

Fig. 4.11: Composite Reliability

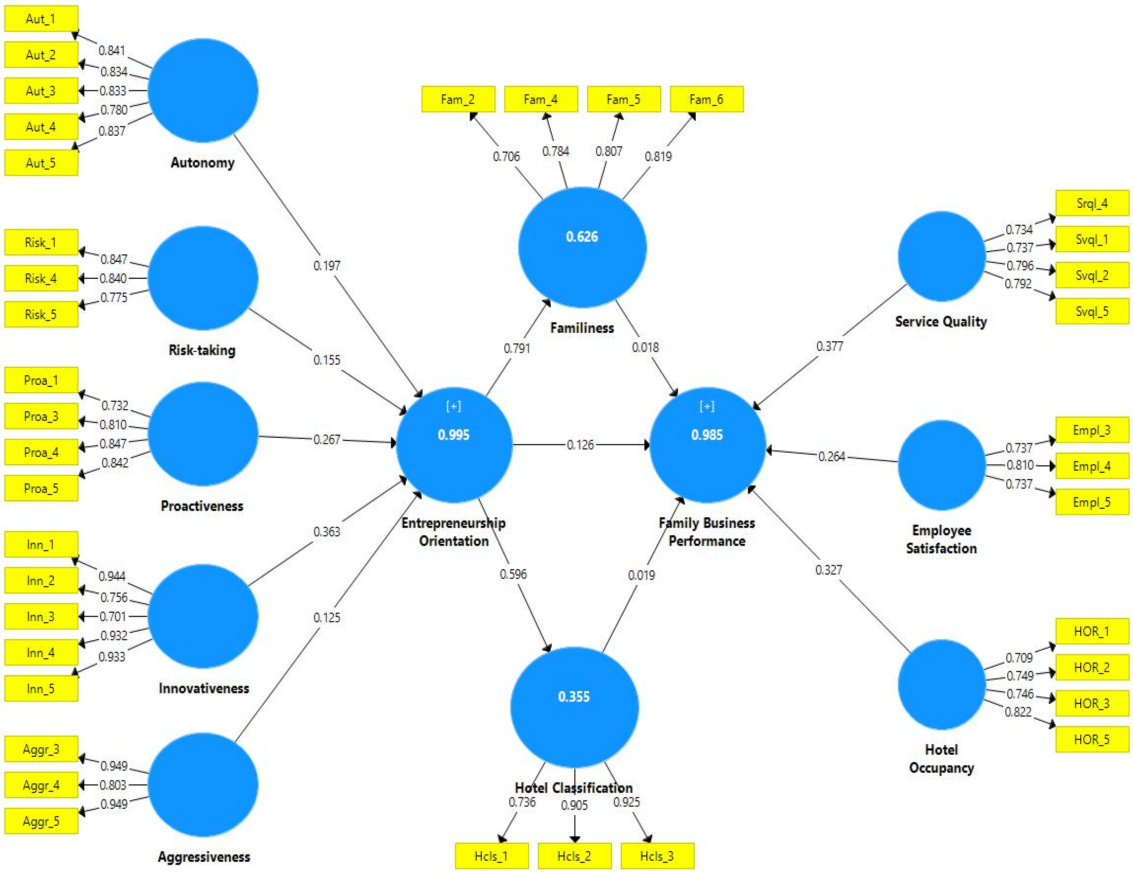
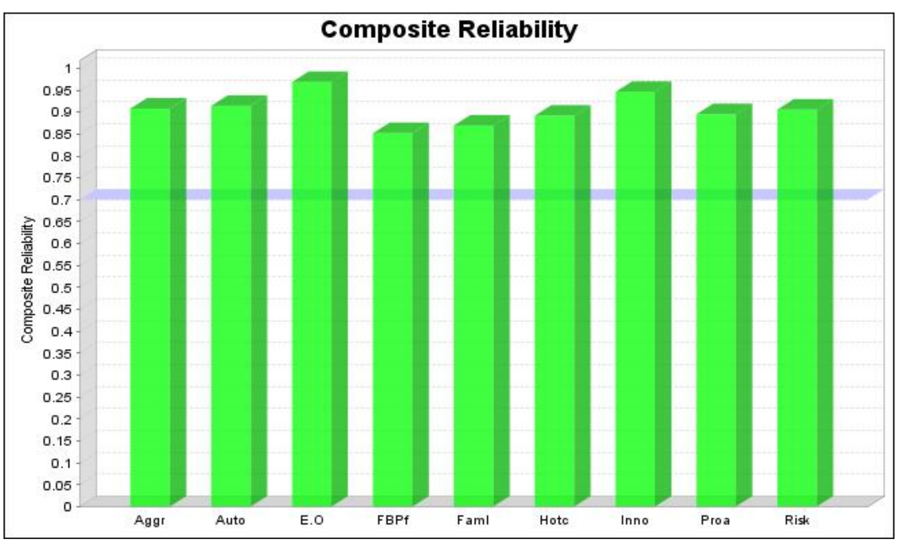


Figure 4.10: Model estimation

Source: Field survey (2020).



Source: Field survey 202

Table 4.5: Discriminant Validity (Fornell and Larker)

	Aggr	Innov	Auto	EmSat	Faml	HoCl	HoR	Proa	Risk	SvQl
Aggr	**0.873**									
Innov	0.714	**0.860**								
Auto	0.712	0.734	**0.825**							
EmSat	0.706	0.666	0.702	**0.791**						
Faml	0.666	0.641	0.748	0.538	**0.78**					
HoCl	0.669	0.497	0.602	0.337	0.538	**0.672**				
HoR	0.633	0.619	0.604	0.586	0.580	0.548	**0.656**			
Proa	0.602	0.544	0.512	0.545	0.601	0.592	0.551	**0.609**		
Risk	0.533	0.509	0.541	0.566	0.466	0.472	0.474	0.570	**0.581**	
SvQl	0.466	0.421	0.509	0.456	0.307	0.477	0.515	0.541	0.537	**0.566**

• The diagonal are the square root of the AVE of the latent varaiables and indicates the highest in any column or row

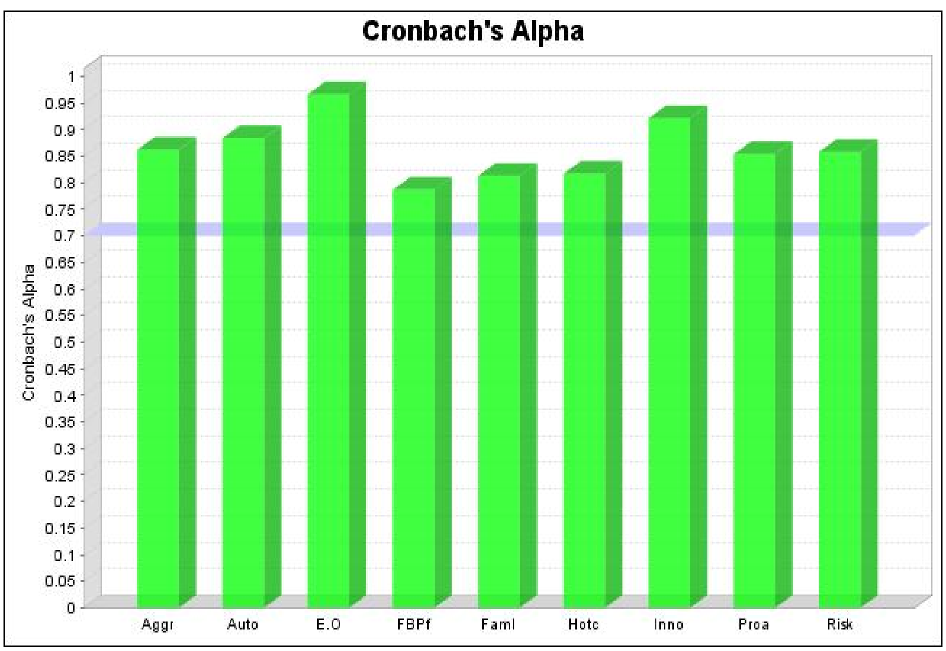


Fig. 4.12: Composite Reliability

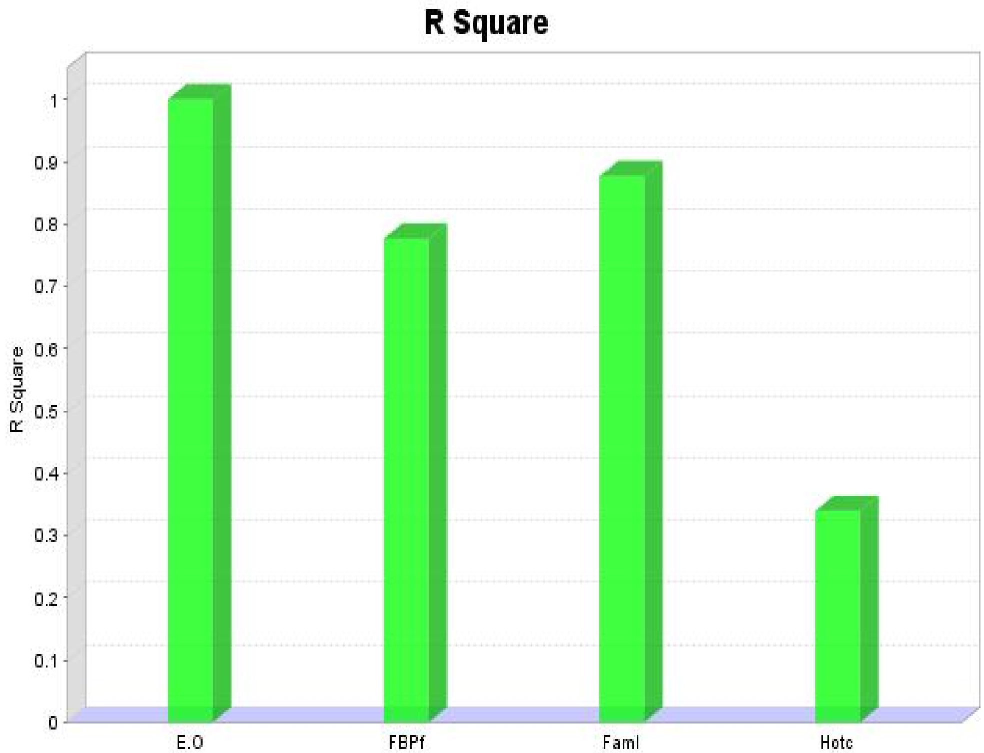


Fig: 4.9 R-square of the EO and HFBP

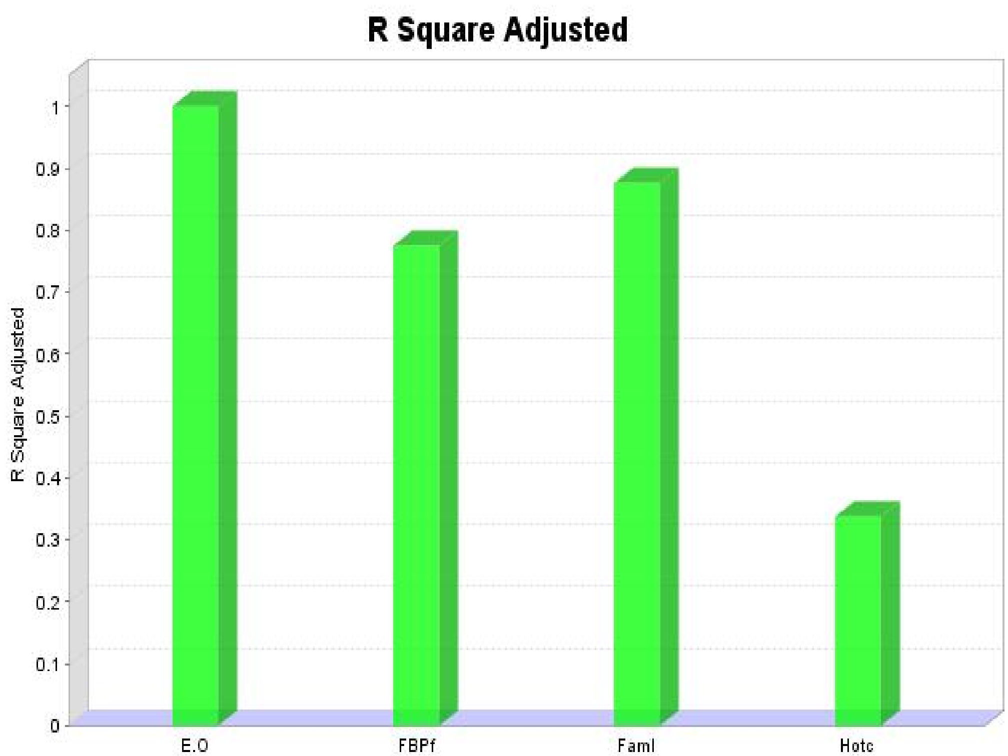


Fig: 4.9 R-square adjusted of the EO and HFBP

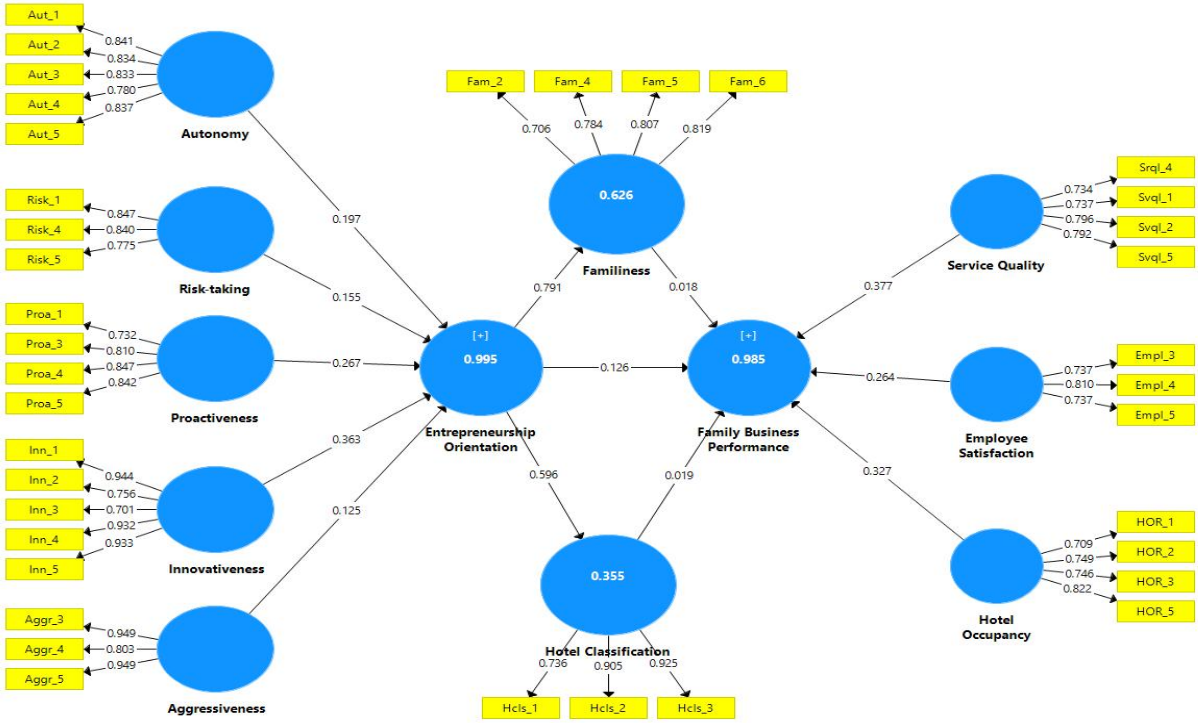


Fig: 4.10 Path coefficient of the model

Table 4.17: q^2 Values of Endogenous Constructs

	Aggr	Auto	E.O	FBPf	Faml	Hotc	Inno	Proa	Risk
Aggr			-0.027						
Auto			-0.033						
E.O				0.231	0.071	0.055			
FBPf									
Faml				0.031					
Hotc				0.035					
Inno			-0.012						
Proa			0.037						
Risk			-0.021						

Source: Field survey 2020

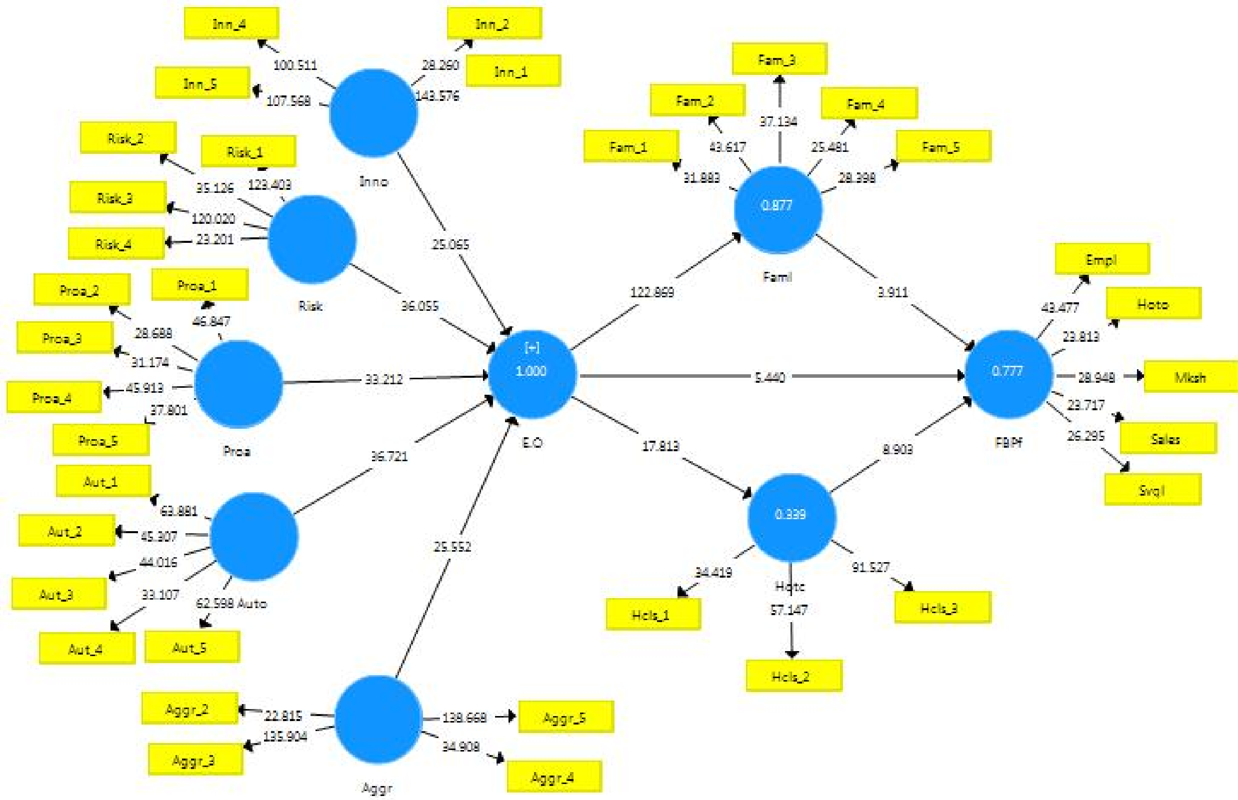


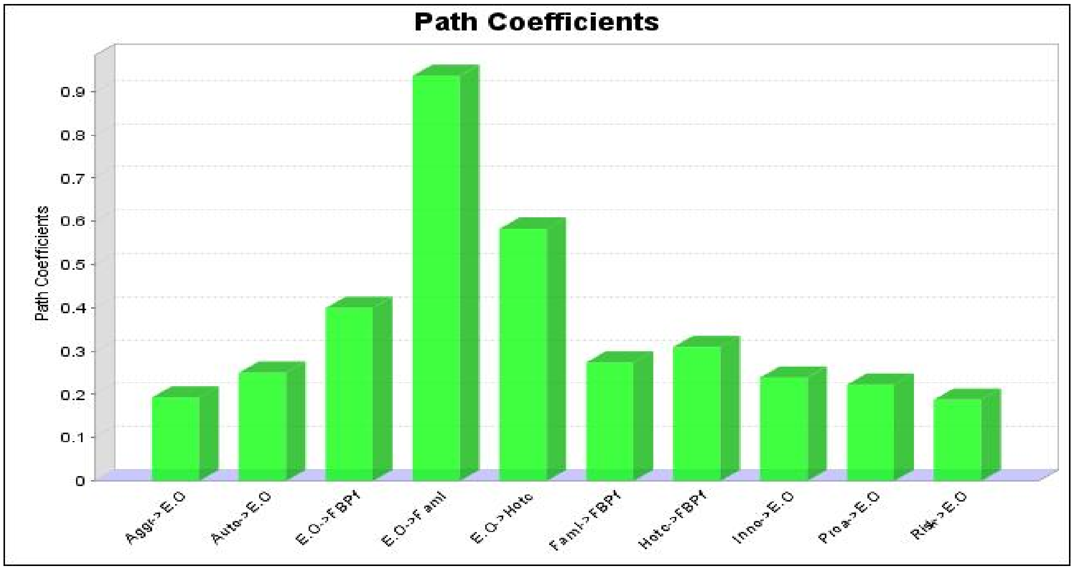
Fig 4.14: Path coefficient model after deletion

Source: Field survey 2020

Table 4.18: Path Coefficients Hypotheses Testing

Hyps	Relationship	Std(β) Beta	Std Error	T Statistics	Decision	Confidence Interval 0.05	0.95
Ho1	Aggr ->E.O	0.192	0.008	25.552*	Supported	0.178	0.208
Ho2	Auto ->E.O	0.249	0.007	36.720*	Supported	0.237	0.263
Ho3	Inno ->E.O	0.239	0.009	25.064*	Supported	0.221	0.258
Ho4	Proa ->E.O	0.223	0.067	33.212*	Supported	0.211	0.237
Ho5	Risk ->E.O	0.188	0.005	36.054*	Supported	0.178	0.198
Ho7	E.O ->Faml	0.936	0.008	122.869*	Supported	0.919	0.949
Ho6	Faml -> BP	0.274	0.071	3.911*	Supported	0.144	0.421
Ho5	E.O ->Hotc	0.583	0.033	17.812*	Supported	0.515	0.642
Ho9	Hotc -> BP	0.309	0.035	8.902*	Supported	0.239	0.376
Ho10	E.O -> BP	0.398	0.074	5.439*	Supported	0.252	0.542

**p<0.01,*p<0.05



Source: Field Survey 2020

Figure 4.15: Path coefficients of the model in bars

Table 4.19: Indirect Relationships for Hypothesis Testing

Ho	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	T Statistics	Decision	95% Confidence Interval 0.05	0.95
H11	E.O ->Faml ->FBPf	0.258	0.066	3.893*	Accepted	0.135	0.395
H12	E.O ->Hotc ->FBPf	0.180	0.021	8.685*	Accepted	0.139	0.221

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Source: Field survey 2020

Table 4.2: The central tendency and dispersion analysis

Constructs	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dev	Variance
EO Autonomy	1	4.4	2.48	2.4	1.6	0.87789	0.771
EO Risk-taking	1	4.4	2.6117	2.6	2.2	0.71577	0.512
EO Proactiveness	1	4.6	2.5741	2.4	3	0.84888	0.721
EO Innovativeness	1	5	2.4717	2.2	1.8	0.9733	0.947
EO Aggressiveness	1	4.6	2.618	2.6	2.6	0.88219	0.778
Familiness	1	4.4	2.5161	2.4	2.4	0.74701	0.558
Hotel Classification	1	4.6	2.7849	2.8	2.6	0.85213	0.726
Service Qaulity	1.2	4.4	2.5576	2.4	2.2	0.80394	0.646
Employe Satisfaction	1.2	4.4	2.4288	2.4	3.2	0.67542	0.456
Hotel Occupancy	1	4.2	2.4873	2.4	2	0.74275	0.552

Table: 4.14 Mediation analysis

Exogenous	Mediation Analysis	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	VAF *(Indirect / Total)*	Mediation Result
EO (Autonomy) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.002	0.017	0.118	No Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0.000	0.017	0.000	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.002	0.018	0.111	No Mediation
EO (Risk-taking) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.003	0.016	0.188	No Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0.000	0.015	0.000	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.003	0.016	0.188	No Mediation
EO (Proactiveness) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.003	0.01	0.300	Partial Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0.000	0.007	0.000	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.003	0.01	0.300	Partial Mediation
EO (Innovativeness) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.002	0.029	0.069	No Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0.000	0.028	0.000	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.002	0.029	0.069	No Mediation
EO (Aggressiveness) on FBP	Familiness as Mediator	0.003	0.022	0.136	No Mediation
	Hotel classification as Mediator	0.001	0.019	0.053	No Mediation
	Both as Mediators	0.003	0.022	0.136	No Mediation

Table: 1.2 Format of the thesis

Chapters	Title of the research
Chapter one (Introduction)	Background of the study, Statement of the research problem, Aim & objectives of the study, Research hypotheses, Significance of the study, Basic assumptions, Limitation of the study and Definition of terms
Chapter two (Literature review)	Concept of Family Business The Concept of Entrepreneurial Orientation (E.O) Theories of family business, Empirical Review & Firm performance
Chapter three (Research methodology)	Research design,Population and population frame for the Study Sample Size and Sampling Technique, Measurement of variable, Psychometric Properties of the Research Instrument, Method of Data Analysis, Statistical Model Specification
Chapter four (Result & Discussion)	Descriptive statistics, Evaluation of measurement model, Evaluation of the structural model, Hypotheses testing, Mediation analyses, Control variable analyses, & Discussion of results
Chapter Five (Conclusions & Recommendations)	Conclusion, Recommendation & Suggestion for further research

APPENDIX F

List of sampled hospitality firms

	ABUJA	LOCATION
1	Grand Ibro Hotel Annex	34, Sokode Crescent, Wuse Zone 5, Abuja
2	Alphaplus Apartments	No 91 Ebitu Ukiwe Street, Jabi, FCT
3	Centurion Apartments	30, Kitwe Street, Wuse Zone 4
4	Lakewood Luxury Apartments	5 Margaret Thatcher Close off Queen Elizabeth Street, Asokoro.
5	Tranquil Mews Boutique Hotel	Plot 1079, Behind Julius Berger Head Quarters, Off Ngozi Okonjo Iweala Way, By Good Tidings Church, Utako
6	Hotel Reno	Plot 1068, Off Nnamdi Azikiwe Express Way, Opposite NICON Junction, Katampe District
7	Grand Cubana Hote	No. 6 Ebitu Ukiwe Street, Jabi
8	The Missouri Hotel	8, Missouri street, off Colorado close Minister's Hill.
9	Rodze hotel	Plot no27, duola street, wuse zone 5,Abuja
10	Villa Picasso	22 Gana Street, Maitama, Abuja. (Opposite Transcorp Hilton Hotel)
11	Top Rank Hotels Galaxy, Abuja	Plot 245, Pow Mafemi, Off Solomon Lar Way, Utako, Abuja, Utako, Nigeria
12	Nest Suites and Spa	No. 12 Beira Crescent, Off Ademola Adetokunbo Crescent, Wuse ll, Abuja
13	Nugget Hotels	Plot 129 Okotie Eboh Crescent
14	HEARTLAND PLACE AND EVENT HOTEL	N0.82 Ralph Shodeinde Street (NEXT TO RIVER'S HOUSE) Opp. Federal Ministry of Finance
15	RALMETON HOTEL	PLOT C70, ROAD 52, BETWEEN MARSHORIA ARENA
16	Pedallo Inn Hotel	Plot 491 A Close Second Avenue By Nepa Road
17	Maz Hotel	15 Lake City Avenue Phase 1, Gwagwalada
18	Sharon Ultimate Hotels	Plot 1710, Tafawa Balewa Way, Area 3
19	Kudina Luxury Apartments	Plot 24, Block V, Federal Ministry of Works & Housing Estate, Gwarinpa
20	Orient Hotel	12 Sudan Street, Wuse
21	Royalton Hotels	16, Gongola Street, Off Moshood Abiola Way, Area 2
22	Chateau de Trybze	51 Suez Crescent Abacha Estate , behind Sheraton Hotels and Towers

23	Tescon Hotel	Plot 338 Lugbe Phase 1 Layout, Airport Road, Abuja
24	Peace Haven Hotel	Plot 112, Gidado Idris Street, Wuye District, Zone 2, Abuja
25	Nera Hotel	No 26 Alex Ekueme Way off Jabi Lake, Jabi
26	Habitat Guest House	2 Stephen Oronsaye Street Off Sa'adu Zungur 4th Avenue Near Setraco Gate
27	Summit Villa Hotel	On The Road To Efab Estate Behind Sky Bank At Life Camp Junction
28	Rockview Hotel Classic	Plot 194 Cadastral Zone A8 Adetokunbo Ademola Crescent
29	Ayalla hotels	off ahmadu bello way,garki area 11,ibi close behind kia motors,abuja
30	Kriscane Suites	Plot 21, Mamman Shata Street
31	Nippon Grand Hotels	Plot 102 Ahmadu Bello, Kado Express Way, Opp Nest Cash
32	Siman Suites Hotel	Plot 2163 Area 11, Malumfashi Close
33	Auris Court Suites	Plot 550 Cadastral Zone B06 Off VIO Office; Next To Crown Court
34	Dayspring Hotels	Juba Street, Zone 6, Wuse District, Abuja
35	Ville Regent Hotel	Plot 1247, Aminu Kano Crescent
36	New Rendezvous Hotel	21, Plot 188, Makeni Street, Zone 6
37	Pridemark Apartment	12 Borno Street, Area 10
38	Ignobis Hotel	Plot 147 Cadastral Zone 05-07, Gado Nasko Road, Phase 4
39	Residency Hotel	No. 4 Port Harcourt Crescent, Off Gimbiya Street, Area 11 Abuja
40	Cottage Hotel	Berger Quarry Road
41	The Weaver's Hotel	Plot 74 Ralph Shodeinde Street, Ogun State House Opposite Federal Ministry Of Finance/NACA
42	Grace Point Resort Hotel	Kananga Close, Off Yaounde Street, Wuse Zone 6, Abuja
43	Ritman Hotels	11 Ilorin Street, Area 8
44	Prixair Hotel, Maitama	No. 46, Euphrates Crescent, Off Aguiyi Ironsi Stree
45	Crystal Palace Hotel	29, Plot 687, Port Harcourt Crescent, Off Ahmadu Bello Way, Off Gimbiya Street, Area11
46	House 6 Apartment	No. 6 Gashua Close Area 8

47	Frankville Hotel Ltd	FMEV Quaters , (Formerly Nepa Quaters), E10/9076, Karu
48	The Capital Apartments, Abuja	No 4 Tito Broz Off Jimmy Carter Avenue, Asokoro
49	Boardwalk Hotel	No 43b Khartoum Street, Off Accra Street, Wuse Zone 5, Abuja
50	De Franklin Apartments	1, Paul Muotolum Crescent, Plot 1010 Old Gwarimpa Road OffAsba & Dantata Street, Life Camp Abuja
51	Saabhi's Place	Plot 1191, Off Reuben Okoya Crescent, Wuye District, Abuja
52	Ishakool Hotel	No 5, Oke- Agbe Street Off Ladoke Akintola Boulevard, Garki 2
53	Salaam Hospitality	No 26 Femi Adetola Street, Off 7th Avenue, Gwarinpa
54	Choice Guest House	Opposite Vigilante Office, Jahi II, FCT Abuja
55	Valton Hotels Ltd	Plot 1933, Road 9, Apo Resettlement Estate, Apo
56	Ajuji Greenwich Hotel	Plot 1083 Joseph Gomwalk Street, Off Abdulsalami Abubakar Road, Gudu District
57	Idyll Fountain And Gardens Hotels	Plot 4350, Andola S, Wuse, Zone 5.
58	1st Forty Hotel	Plot 38, Aminu Kano Crescent
59	Newton Park Hotel	Plot 2175 Cadastral Zone, 8 Cape Town Street, Off IBB Way, Wuse Zone 4
60	SV Chrome Hotel	No. 101A Ebitu Ukiwe Street, Jabi, Abuja
61	Beverly Hills Hotels	62 Aminu Kano Crescent
62	Amso International Hotels	Plot 85 Yaounde Street
63	Sigma Apartments	1 Embu Street, Off Aminu Kano Crescent
64	Newcastle Hotel	7 Kumasi Crescent, Off Aminu Kano Crescent
65	KINDEA HOTELS	No. 4 Lake Alau Close Off Lake Chad Crescent IBB Boulevard
66	The Grand Mirage Hotel	36 Port Harcourt Crescent Off Gimibiya Street Area 11
67	Gloriana Hotel	No 4-6 Okene Street, Area 2 Section 2, Garki. Abuja
68	Pechez International Hotels	1 Ajesa Street Opp Drum Stix Off Aminu Kano Crescent
69	Peniel Apartments Abuja	Plot 171 Adetokunbo Ademola Crescent, Off IBB Way,
70	Ouupic Royal Suites	House 6 3rd Avenue

71	Rockview Hotel Royale	196 CAD Zone A8 Adetokunbo Ademola Crescent
72	Harmonia Hotel	Plot 896 Gimbiya Street (By Rachel Eye Clinic Center) P.O.Box 11137, Area II
73	Chida International Hotel	Plot 224, Solomon Lar Way, Utako District, Abuja
74	Ibeto Hotels Abuja	34 David Ejoor Crescent Apo, Gudu District Abuja.
75	Vinotel Hotel	N0. 35 Nelson Mandela Street, Off ECOWAS Secretariate
76	Hallal Hotel	Plot 723, Gwagwalada Expansion Layout FRCN Road
77	New Under The Wave Hotel	Opposite Radio House, Kutunku
78	Promel Hotel	Plot 1312 Nairobi Street, Off Aminu Kano Crescent
79	Trafford Hotel	13/14 Wole Soyinka Street 2nd Avenue After PHCN Office, Gwarinpa
80	Luziana Hotels	Plot 206, Okotie Eboh Street, Behind Chisco Transport
81	Paris Le Lodge	Plot 177A, 441 Crescent, CITEC Villa, Gwarinpa Abuja
82	Cosyrest Guest House	Plot 9/10, Customs Layout, Opposite Gwagwalada Specialist Hospital
83	Grange Hill Abuja	Plot A26, Mpape Hills, Abuja, Lagos
84	Jubilee Conference Centre Annex	Plot 455 Jahi District, Beside Canada Garden Centre.
85	Margarettas Classic Suites	Plot 510, Wushishi Crescent (Off Okonjo Iweala Crescent, Utako
86	Jovidat Suite	Plot 518 Olu Arootesu Street , Behind Mr Biggs
87	Tauba	Plot 1001 Ibrahim Tahir Lane, Off Shehu Musa Yaradua Way, Abuja
88	Golden Gate Hotel	2, Tessaqua Street, Off Mombassa Street, Zone 5.
89	Mummy's Guest House	20, Moses Majekodunmi Crescent
90	Nackovad Hotels	Plot 5 Kabale Close Off Sultan Abubakar Way Behind Heritage House, Zone 3
91	Nigerlink Hotels Limited	Plot 4 Malanje Street, Abuja Municipal
92	Palmac Hotels	Plot 2430, Muhammadu Ribadu Street, Near Force Quatrers
93	Some Places Else Hotel	Plot 316, FHA Road, Lugbe Estate Phase Ll

94	Yaban Hotel	21 Alexandria Crescent, Off Aminu Kano Crescent
95	Aneio Hotels Limited	Plot 396 Augustus Aikhomu Way
96	Diamond Suites Hotel	19, Moses Majekodumi, Utako, Along Edo Line Transport,
97	Georgio Hotel And Resort	2 Asa Street By Salt Lake Off Gana Street
98	Roses Hotel	Plot 816, Off Dunamis Church Road, By Old Secretarat, Durumi District, Area 1
99	Prixair Hotels, Wuse	14 Cotonou Crescent Off Bissau Street Behind Former Nitel Head Quarters
100	Madugu Hotels	18 Ebitu Ukiwe Street Jabi
101	Lamond Hotels	1 Buchanan Crescent
102	Crown Princess Hotels	53 Lome Crescent Plot 1760 Beside Standard Organization, Wuse Zone 7
103	Belvoir Hotel	73 Lome Crescent, Opposite Omega Hotel
104	Peace Royal Resort	Plot 88, 43 Crescent 4th Avenue
105	Hemas Hotels	No 2 Adamu Fika Street, Life Camp
106	Brickland Residence	32 Kinshasha Street Opposite Foreign Affair Quarters Back Of Primary School.
107	Akalaka Guest House	13 Younde Street
108	Grand Island Guest House	58 Cut Close, Off Sultan Dansuki Way, Welder Bus Stop, FHA
109	Roop Hotels Limited	Off PHCN Road, Phase IV, Kubwa, Abuja, FCT
110	Algos Suites	Plot 106 Commercial Layout, Byazhin Road
111	SeaDry Suites	FCDA Extension III
112	Daniel Suites	Kilometers 82 Sultan Dasuki Way, PW
113	Pine Crest Exclusive Hotel and Suites	2 Ringim Close Off Yola Street, Area 7
114	Zizi Apartment Abuja	115 Emeka Anyaoku Street, Area 8 Garki
115	Stonehedge Hotel	1041 Kur Mohammed Street, Central Business District, Abuja
116	Cowrie Guest House	No 1, Zanyabelo Street, Jikwoyi Road Dugudna, Off CBN Quarters Junction, Karu
117	Shindna Guest House	No 1 Peshe, Karu Village, Karu, Abuja
118	CJ Planet International Hotel	Plot 598, Durumi Road, Off Old Federal Secretariat, Area 1
119	Satellite Hotel Bwari	Plot 201, Ushafa Bwari Road
120	Rovak Guest Inn	Johnson Street
121	Gold Touch Grand Hotels	1 MTN Road, Phase IV
122	Ivy Constellation Hotel	007 Lagos Crescent, Off Gado Nasko Way

123	Summer Guest House	Plot 125 Gado Nseko Road, Abathoni
124	Regico Guest Inn	No. 1, NYSC Orientation Camp Road, Off Zuba Way
125	Leredo Hotel	Julius Berger Quarry, Along Jikoko Road, Amac, Mpape
126	Nando Guest Inn	Along FRCN Road, By Abbatoir Curvet
127	Dera International Hotel Limited	Along Prison Road, Kuje Area Council, Kuje, Abuja
128	Dokidiri Hotel Limited	1 Jikwoyi Road, Next To Karu Market Opposite Karu Primary School
129	Amanda Guest Inn	4 Lumumbashi Street Ibrahim Abacha Estate
130	Peace Court Hotels	9, Kabale Close, By Heritage House, Off Sultan Abubakar Way
131	Palasa Guest Inn	Plot 1 GRV, Old Market Road, New Kutunku
132	Palace Hotel	Plot 1507, Yedsaram Street
133	Pamadas Guesthouse	13/14, Agulu Street, Dawaki
134	Park Place Hotel	Plot 22, F. Okotie Eboh Crescent
135	Galilee Mission Guest House	Christian Street, Karu Site Behind Nepa Office And Noble Clinic
136	Pinda Valley Resort	32 Oke Agba Street Off S.L Akintola Boulevard Garki 2
137	Cijel Residence	No. 2 Asaba Close, Area11
138	Moit Guest Inn	1st Avenue, 6 Road, FHA Estate, Phase
139	Ideal Holiday Home	Plot 696 Ubiaja Crescent ,
140	African Safari Hotels	Plot 16, Mekong Crescent, Off Euphrates Street,
141	Regal Lodge	16E Road, F.H.A Estate, Airport Road
142	Rita Lori Hotels	Plot 473 Ahmadu Bello Way
143	Ugo Martins Apartment	Plot 20A, Opposite Babangida Market,
144	Kabiru Hotel	Plot 21 S.L. Akintola Boulevard Zone Ll Garki POBox P.O.Box 3446
145	Ozas Suites And Garden	5, Itsekiri Way , Off Yoruba Way,
146	Rami Guest Inn	Zuba Road, Opposite Peace Park
147	Amazonia Guest House	Plot 612A, End 22 Road, Lugbe, Abuja, Nigeria
148	Finco Guest Inn	24, Off Berger Quarry Road, Abuja
149	Peace Guest House	Katampe 1, Abuja, Mpape
150	Fayina Hotel Ltd	Plot 525 Zaudan/Saburi Four Bed Rooms,
151	Casa De Lucy	Plot 585, David Jemibewon Crescent, Behind Apo Legislative Quarter Zone E, By Jimeta Filling Station, Gudu District, Abuja
152	Disney Hotel And Resorts	Plot 238 Cadastral Zone, Beside GTBank

153	Masi Hotels & Suites	1 Masi Close, Behind MTN Mast, Wumba Apo,
154	Stanzel Grand Resort	Plot C103, Along A Close, Off 1st Ave., Behind Fidelity Bank, Gwarinpa Est
155	Casa Valleta Guest Apartment	47. Iya Abubakar Crescent, Jabi
156	New Gate Lodge & Hospitality	2, Sankuru Close, Off Rima Street, Maitama
157	Soul Lounge & Suites	5 Gado Nasko Road
158	Grand Valley Hotel	Plot C39, Sultan Dasuki Way, Phase 2, Site 2, Kubwa,
159	Cubana Suites	20 Yadseram Street, Maitama,
160	Kapino Suite	Plot 128 Aminu Kano Crescent, Wuse 2
161	Hotel Millennium	Plot 1906 Sokode Crescent, Off Dalaba Street, Micheal Okpara Way
162	Berkshire Hotel (Asokoro)	7, Mousa Traore Street, After Ecowas Building By Thomas Sankara Street, Asokoro
163	Sinoni Lodge	40 Birao Street
164	Day Spring Hotel	Plot 4 Juba Street
165	Excel Hotel	Plot 28 Okemesi Crescent, By Old CBN, Off Mohammed Buhari Way.
166	Pauliham Hotels	Plot 520, 1st Avenue, Opposite Naval Quarters
167	Vilanda	Plot 862, Kachiyako Layout, Garki Road Kuje,
168	Ene Senior Guest Inn	Back Of Crush Rock, Abuja, Gwarinpa
169	Apex Holiday Resort	Plot 42 Apex Avenue Phase 1 Layout, Nyanya

	Kogi	Address
1	Avoni Hotel	Utite, Okene
2	Azi - Ajibade Guest House	Opposite Okene Club Ebogogo Adavi
3	Blossom Hotel	Along Ganaja Road Lokoja
4	B'view Hotel And Suites	After Old Living Faith Church, Lokogonma. Lokoja
5	Classic Guest House	Nagazi Eba Ogaminana, Kogi
6	Cliff Hotel	Opposite Ganaja Junction, Behind Diato Filling Station Lokoja
7	De-hilltop Guest House	Anyoke Layout G R A P.O Box Okene
8	De-villa Guest House	Lafia Road, G.R.A Okene
9	Diato Hotels	Plot 4 Aliu Attah Road Near NTA Roundabou
10	Drinana Comfort Hotel	Gowon's Quarters, KM 4 Ajaokuta Road Anyingba
11	Gamji Hotel	Okene-Lokoja Expressway
12	Garuyi Hotel And Suites	Lokoja/Abuja Road Okene
13	Graj Hotels	Jerry Agbaji Close Hill Top Haven, GRA Lokoja

14	Habour Bay Annex	Along Iyale Road, Anygba
15	Halab Guest House	Opposite Kogi Diagnostic Hospital, Anyigba
16	Hotel Charvid	Charvid Close, Opposite LGA Prim. Sch., Lokongoma Phase 1
17	Kekere Guest Palace	76/77, Oziwaya Street, Okene
18	Kesty Hotel	Ganaja Road, Behind 200 Unit Lokoja
19	Kewon Hotels	2, Ajara Road, Lokoja
20	Motel 5	Km 159, Abuja- Okene Express Way, Felele, Lokoja
21	Nataco Hotel	GRA, Lokoja, Kogi State
22	New Royal Hotel	Ganaja Road Lokoja,
23	Olympic International Hotel	74 Felele Road Lokoja
24	Omegah Riverbank Hotels	Marine Quarters, Adankolo Lokoja
25	Optimum Pleasure Hotel	Along Lokoja Road Kabba
26	Otal Hotel And Filling Station	Check-Point, Okene Auchi Road, Okene
27	Otis Hotel	112 Ayetoro Gbede, Surulere Quarters, Ayetoro Gbede
28	Papinda Luxury Hotel And Suites	New Living Faith Street, Phase 1, Lokoja
29	Paradise Hotel	Anwokwu Area 1, Anyigba, Dekina
30	Pathway Hotel	Patigi Road, Egbe Lokoja
31	Rio Hotels and Suites	KM 12 Okene-Lokoja Road, Adjacent FCE Okene
32	Rock Garden Hotels	Rock Garden Avenue, Off Micheal Olobayo Housing Estate, 200 Units
33	Saatof Hotel	26 Muritala Muhammed Way, Adankolo Junction, Lokoja, Kogi State, Nigeria
34	Salok Hotel	Kabba Junction, Ogaminana
35	Salx Hotels	Salx Way By Army Signal, Opposite Phase 2
36	Sambel Guest Inn	Zone 8 Road, Onisaba Muhammed Road Lokoja
37	Siay's Libra Plaza Hotel	48/50 Good Shepherd Street, Oju-Ore
38	Temeke Hotel	Sarki Noma, Lokoja
39	Villa-u Hotel (okene)	Ohinoyi Road, GRA Okene
40	Virgin Garden Hotel	Idah Express Way, Ajaka
41	White House Hotel	28, Balewa Road, Ankpa, Kogi State
42	Suitorial Hotel	Zone 8 Road, Besides new stadium Lokoja
43	Nostalgia Hotel	5 Nostalgia Avenue, lokongoma phase 2 lokoja
44	Hilltop paradise Hotel	Behind Ostrich bakery along living faith way
45	Ava Hotels	13 Aliu Ibrahim Attah Road Lokoja
46	Billy Guest Inn	Okene-Kabba Road Ogaminana
47	Kings' Lodge	Inechi, Ihima- Okene road.

	NIGER	LOCATION
1	DAYAMAZ GUEST INN	Tunga, Minna

2	Desert Prince Hotel	Along Doko Road, Bida, Nigeria
3	DOKO INTERNATIONAL HOTEL	City Gate Mx Tudun Wada South Minna
4	Dolphin Hotel	Oyus, Kwamba, Nigeria
5	Double Tee Guest Inn	Off Suleiman Barau Road, Suleja, Nigeria
6	Gold Touch Garden Hotel	Suleiman Barau Road GRA, Suleja, Nigeria
7	Goodway Hotel	Behind Inec office, Tunga, Tudun Wada South, Minna, Nigeria
8	Grasa Hotel	Kwamba, Nigeria
9	GURARA SUITES	Opposite House of Assembly Quarters Minna
10	Hamson international Motel	Near General Hospital, Kontagora, Nigeria
11	Had resources	Tunga Minna.
12	HASKE HOTEL LIMITED	Nitteco Road Tunga.
13	IfyJoe Guest House	Sayako Area, Minna, Nigeria
14	MAIRUWA HOTELS	Shiroro Road Tudun Wada South Minna
15	MAR-HABAN HOTELS AND SUITES LIMITED	6ASalisu Saidu Road Minna
16	Masfala Hotel	Opp. Technical College, Kwambe, Suleja
17	MASTER CLASS HOTEL&SUITES	Tudun Wada South Minna.
18	MOTOWN HOTEL .	Zungeru Road Tudun Wada South Minna
19	NASFAH HOTEL	Tudun Wada South Minna.
20	Pioneers Guest House	Suleja-Bakin Iku Rd, Kwamba, Nigeria
21	Prime View Guest House Annex	Bida, Nigeria
22	PRINCESS AZ-ZAHRA LODGE	Zarumai Road minna.
23	Rahmat Court Guest Inn	Opposite Federal Polytechnic, Bida.
24	Royal Suite	Ramatu Dangana Estate GRA, Bida.
25	SADIA HOTEL	No 6/7 Sadia Avenue Minna.
26	Safara Motel and Accomodation	Kontagora, Nigeria
27	SAFTEC HOTELS	Plot 5450, Along Broadcasting Road,, Minna
28	Saftel Hotel	Along Broadcasting Road, Minna, Nigeria
29	Saidah Guest Inn	Off Suleiman Barau Road, GRA, Suleja, Nigeria
30	Sandaco Motel	Suleja, Kwamba, Nigeria
31	Sarafina Hotel, Suleja	Suleiman Baru Road, Suleja, Nigeria
32	Sirloy Hotel	S.K.P 196, Minna, Nigeria
33	Sogbafo Guest Inn	Abuja Road, Cirico, Bida, Nigeria
34	SOGBAFO GUEST INN CHANCHAGA.	Opposite ECWA Church/Mechanic Junction Chanchaga
35	Soggi Hotel	Off Talba Crescent, , Tunga,
36	Ubandoma Lodge	federal polythenic, Bida, Nigeria
37	VAGOSH HOTEL	Dutsen Kura Gwari Minna
38	WHITEHILL LUXURY HOTEL MINNA	No.2 Hassan Nagogo street off shiroro road Chanchaga Minna
39	Yankees Hotel	Plot 46, Suleiman Barau Road, Suleja, Nigeria
40	YANNA HOTEL	Western Bye Pass Minna

	BENUE	LOCATION
1	Queens Hotel.	30, Ankpa Quarter Road, Makurdi, Benue State.
2	Chomagba Plaza Guest House	2419 Kashim Ibrahim Street, Gboko, Nigeria
3	Esse Guest House	N.K.S.T.C, Gboko, Nigeria
4	Comfortuvamo Suites	Akpehe, Abu-king Shuluwa Road, Near E-Police Division, Makurdi
5	Conel Bukasuka Hotel	Makurdi-Gboko Road, Hange, Makurdi
6	Doo Palace Hotel	Father Hunter Street, Makurdi
7	Ejja Hotel & Suites	KM 4, Gboko Road, Behind Redeemed Church, Makurdi
8	Fathers' Moustache Hotel	5 Kashim Ibrahim Road, Ola G.R.A, Makurdi
9	Ginosko Real Hotel	NorthBank, Makurdi
10	Okiky Hotels & Resort	Km 5, Lafia Road, North Bank, Makurdi
11	Olive Castle Resort hotel	Olive Castle Close, off Benson Abounu Street, Hudco Quarters, Makurdi
12	Tyeku Suites and Garden	Ankpa Quarter Road, Makurdi
13	Zaginas Suites	Jumbo Lane Hudco Quarters High Level, Makurd
14	Kalm Beach Hotel	3 Head Bridge, Hausa Qtrs Katsina-Ala
15	Serene Suite	Ataota Girgi street, Makurdi
16	Terenso Hotel	Along Achusa Rd, Nyiman Layout, Makurdi
17	Kismet Hotels	Atom Kpera Rd, Makurdi
18	Mimi Hotel	Low cost housing Otukpo
19	Monatel Hotel	Atom Kpera Rd, Makurdi
20	Madonna Guest Hotel	Benson Abonu Avenue High Level Makurdi
21	Kings' Hotel	10 Abaji Street katsina-Ala
22	Crystal lodge	72 Special force battalion Baracks North Bank
23	Railview Hotel	Opp Safety Corps Office, Makurdi
24	Hotel Jovina	Behind FRSC Office GRA Gboko
25	Ideal Palace	9 Gboko North, Gboko
26	Linson Guest House	17 Balewa Crescent, H/Leve
27	Amedu's Lodge	40 Benson Abaonu Street, High Level
28	Haggai Suites	2/3 Sacred Heart, Close Off Sam Obande Street, Off Old Otobi Road GRA Otukpo
29	Bricks Guest Inn	Opp Safety Corps Office, Makurdi
30	Balixy Guest Inn	Behind FRSC Office GRA Gboko
31	Top class Hotel	9 Gboko North, Gboko
32	Peace Guest Suite	Plot BP 3133 Off Jerome Street, Makurdi
33	Moon Beam Hotel	11, Agba Vange Street, Nyamin
34	Amaco Hotel	7, Ayu Street Agedam, Gboko
35	De patuba hotel	19 Kashim Ibrahim Rd, Old GRA Makurdi
36	Promise land holiday hotel	13 Emmanuel Mende Rd, Makurdi

37	Oyibe hotel and suite	Old otobi rd GRA Otukpo
38	Shekinah place hotel	Hange, Makurdi-Gboko Rd
39	High level guest house	3 Head Bridge, Hausa Qtrs Katsina-Ala
40	Karinya city guest house	Ataota Girgi street, Makurdi
41	Dyako wase hotel	Along Achusa Rd, Nyiman Layout, Makurdi
42	Dream palce hotel	Atom Kpera Rd, Makurdi
43	Etiti Millennium Guesthouse	Makurdi, Benue
44	Morris Guest Hotel	Makurdi, Benue
45	Moon Light Suites	Makurdi, Benue
46	Hillas Hotel	GRA Makurdi
47	Soweto Hotel	GRA Makurdi
48	Cezana Lodge	GRA Makurdi
49	Piwa Hotels	Off afam zungwe street Otukpo

Kwara

	Hotels	**Addresses**
1	Fresh Hotel Limited	Fate road GRA Ilorin
2	Kingstone suite	No 7, Ahman Rd GRA Ilorin
3	Sity Inn	37, Onikanga Rd GRA Ilorin
4	Hotel Mirabilis	Umaru Audi Rd Fate, Ilorin
5	Timbola Venture LTD	8 Commissioner road ilorin
6	Tower Gate Hotel	4a University road Ilorin
7	Nocbul Hotel & Tourism	Adeyemi Adeleye st GRA
8	Rehoboth Guest Hotel	University road GRA Ilorin
9	Success suites	No 5, success street Flower Garden GRA
10	Park guest palace	2, Achimogu street, GRA Ilorin
11	Fem Kem Hotel	1, Police road Ilorin
12	Charis Hotels and garden	Adelodun Rd GRA Ilorin
13	Bliss hospitality Centre	8, Agba street GRA Ilorin
14	Hajo Suites	19, Agba street GRA Ilorin
15	Dolphin Guest Hotel	4, Catchment road GRA, Ilorin
16	Broadway Hotel	6, Umaru Audi road, Ilorin
17	Water view guest house	44, Akanbi Oniyangi Road
18	Bosam Lodge	1, State road off onikanga Ilorin
19	Gavel guest house	Fate road GRA Ilorin
20	Forest guest inn	Forest road, GRA Ilorin
21	Suncity guest hotel	Forest road, GRA Ilorin
22	Choice guest hotel	Lafiagi street Sabo okeIlorin
23	Vineyard Hotel	Off fate road ilorin
24	Annex Hotel	Cementary rd off Onikanga str. Ilorin
25	Amasi lodge	7 Cementary road GRA Ilorin
26	Everton Guest Inn	9 Plantation road GRA Ilorin
27	Safari suites	6, Trinity sch road, GRA Ilorin

28	Kem Lad Guest house	2, Agba police rd GRA Ilorin
29	Vienna Gardens	3, Commissioner Lodge way GRA
30	Jefas Place	2, Asa road GRA Ilorin
31	Intercontinental Harmony Hotel	Tanke Ilorin
32	Dazees' Bovina View Hotel	New Yidi road Ilorin
33	Alpha Hotel	Adewole round about Ilorin
34	Henry George	Adewole round about Ilorin
35	Royal Shekinah Hotel	GRA Ilorin
36	Princess luxury Hotel	Asa road Ilorin
37	Peak Hotel	ita alamu, Ajase Ipo
38	Milestone Hotel	Ajase ipo rd Ganmo
39	Amir Suite	13, Kaduna road Adewole estate
40	Circular hotel	New Yidi road Ilorin
41	Yebubot Hotel	Adewole area ilorin
42	Candidate Hotel	Unilorin Perm site road
43	Pacific crown Hotel	1 Odun Ade estate, Odota
44	White house Hotel	255, Sawmill ilorin
45	Ayalla Suite	Pipeline street Ilorin
46	L'oreel creek Hotel	Hajj Camp, Airport Road Gaa Odota
47	Tafol Hotel & Suite	Ayinla Mogaji Rd, Tanke Ilorin
48	Obama Hotel	Pipeline street Ilorin
49	Picnic Guest Inn	Tanke Ilorin
50	Excellence Guest Hotel	Pipeline street Ilorin
51	Classic guest Hotel	Tanke Ilorin
52	Upral Hotel	Ita alamu, Ilorin
53	Olufoda Hotel	Tanke Ilorin
54	Purple Hills Hotel	Sodik Sulyman Street Ilorin
55	Murgan Hotel	Lafiagi Road, Ilorin
56	Skan Guest Hotel	Opposite State Secretariat, Ilorin

	NASARAWA	LOCATION
1	Crisspark Hotel	Lafia, Nasarawa – 7, Criss Park Street, By Sharp Corner, Lafia
2	Family And Friends Hotel	Keffi, Nasarawa – Opposite Nasarawa State University, Sabon Gari
3	Finetrust Hotel	Nasarawa, Nigeria
4	Glamour Hotels	Abdulrazak Street, Tammah, Nasarawa L.G.A, Nasarawa, Nigeria
5	Godiya Hotels And Garden	Angwa Gade-Keffi Road, Nasarawa, Nigeria

6	Golden City Hotel	Keffi, Nasarawa – Along Abuja Express Road, Angwan Kaje
7	Grandeur Hotel	Karu, Nasarawa – Km 22, Keffi- Abuja Expressway, Kuchiakau II, Karu
8	Grandville Rest House LTD	Karu, Nasarawa – No 8 ,David Efuna Street Behind Karu LGA Secreteriat New Karu, New Karu
9	Ground Square Hotel	Keffi, Nasarawa – Behind High Court 1, Keffi
10	Halifat Sunnah Hotel And Suites	Karu, Nasarawa – 5 Egwe Waziri Street, By A.A Rano Filling Station, Opposite Ibiza Night Club,, Koroduma One-Man Village, Karu
11	Ihidhen Guest Inn	Ang-Kwara, Opposite Police Barracks, Keffi, Nigeria
12	Imam Family Hotel	Keffi, Nigeria
13	Kabadof Hotels	Orozo, Nigeria
14	Nana Guest Resorts	Nasarawa, Nigeria
15	New Hiltop Hotel	Kefi, Nasarawa – Along The Akwanga-Keffi Road, After Oando Filling Station, Keffi, Nasarawa State.
16	New Keffi Hotel	Keffi, Nasarawa – Keffi-Akwanga Expressway, G.R.A, Keffi, Nasarawa State
17	New National Hotel	Akwanga, Nigeria
18	New Perfecta Hotel	Francis Street, Akwanga, Nigeria
19	Ni'imah Guest Palace Limited	Nasarawa, Nasarawa – 8B, Suleman Crescent, Nassarawa GRA, Nasarawa State
20	Noah Block	7, Nigeria House, Wood Avenue, Nairobi, Nigeria
21	Northgate Hotel	Nyanya, Nasarawa – Nyanya Mararaba Check Point By Fidelity Bank Mararaba
22	Ramat Hotel	New Nyanya, Nigeria
23	Ramat Hotels & Suites Ltd	Plot 06 Karu GRA Layout, Karu, Along The Abuja Keffi High Way
24	REO Hotels	Mararaba, Nasarawa – 16 Sani Abacha Road
25	Rimamka Hotels Limited	Mararaba, Nasarawa – Kabayi Road, Mararaba, New Karu
26	Rimoni Guest Inn	Angwan Rikichi, Sabon Ginda, Kokona, Nigeria
27	Roma Zee Guest House	Akwanga, Nasarawa – Box 24, Wamba Road
28	Royal Garden Hotel	Karu, Nasarawa – 60, Old Karu Road
29	SA'ABHI International Hotel	Mararaba, Nasarawa – Austine Byke Estate, By Upland Water, Behind Karu Int'l Market

30	Sada Cruz Hotel	Plot 26, Cadastral Zone, 07-08, By Ashaka Cemmet Bus Stop, Jikwoyi, Abuja.
31	Safahna Hotel	Karu, Nasarawa – Kuchikau, Abuja-Keffi Expressway, Karu,
32	Sanberg Hotels	Abuja-Keffi Rd, New Karu, Nigeria
33	Sandaji Chalets	Lafia, Nasarawa – Jos Road
34	Sawalino Hotel And Suites	Keffi, Nasarawa – Beside NNPC Filling Station, After New Keffi Hotel, Akwanga Road
35	Sawami Motel	Gadabuke, Nigeria
36	Selitone Hotel	Angwa Hashimu, Off Abacha Road, Karu, Nigeria
37	Semen Hotel	5, benjamin aboho street, Karu, Nigeria
38	Shera Agwai Hall	Pathway to Medical Block, Nigeria
39	Shime Spring Guest Inn	Karu, Nasarawa – Conqueror Street, One Man Village, Along Keffi Road, Koroduma, Karu
40	Shime Spring Guest Inn	Conqueror Street, One Man Village, Karu, Nigeria
41	Somai Guest Inn And Garden	Lafia, Nasarawa – Ombi 1 Opposite Naspoly,
42	Sotad Hotel	Lafia, Nasarawa – A 3, Lafia, Nasarawa State, Nigeria.
43	Sunshine Guest Inn	Mararaba, Nasarawa – Battalion 3 Road, Old Karu Road
44	Taal Conference Hotel	Lafia, Nasarawa – Jos Road
45	Tangland Guest House	Ado, New Nyanya/Keffi Road, Nasarawa, Nigeria
46	Tantalite hotel	Nasarawa, Nigeria
47	The Country Suites	Karu, Nasarawa – 4, Chrisfus Crescent, New Nyanya
48	The Global Village Suites	Lafia, Nasarawa – KM 20, Along Abuja-Keffi Express Way, Behind Datino Filling Statio
49	Timan Hill Hotel and Garden	38 Timan Hill Road, Aku Village Base II, Along Aso Road, Opposite Grace of God School, Nasarawa, Nigeria
50	Tino Hotel	Lafia, Nasarawa – Bukan Sidi, Stadium Behind New CBN Site Lafia

	PLATEAU	LOCATION
1	Febuna Hotel	Kwanan Shagari Rd, Jos, Nigeria
2	Finnix Hotel	Beside Total Filling Station, Panyam Jos Road, Shendam, Nigeria
3	Franzy Suit & Lodge	Jos, Nigeria

4	Gamson Guest House	Logbamp, Langtang, Nigeria
5	Gaya Motel & Resturant Ltd	John Shabaya Road, Noura Street, Langtang, Nigeria
6	Gimbiya Suites	Old Legislators Quarters, Off Bauchi Ring Road, Old Lamingo Road, Jos
7	Gordon House Hotel, Jos	17, Zaria Road, Jos, Nigeria
8	Hotel Ronicon	Rayfield Rd, Jos, Nigeria
9	Hotel Samaritan	No 5 Jonah David Jang Way, Opposite New Government House, Little Rayfield, Jos, Plateau
10	Hotel Sumiram and Green Restaurant Ltd	No.1, Secteriate Link Road, beside Benue Link, Below Fly Over, Road to DSTV Office Secretariat Junction, Jos
11	Jossy Royal Hotel	Busa Buji St, Jos, Nigeria
12	Junction Hotel, Mararaban Jama'a	Along Makurdi - Jos Road, Mararaban Jama'a Junction, Jos
13	K Lounge & Bar	Jos Plateau state
14	K-Rocks Hotel	jos plateau state of nigeria mining co-coperationjuntion, Jos, Nigeria
15	Maina Hotel	Liberty Dam Clos, Jos, Nigeria
16	Mamamia Hotels Ltd	2 Lasisi Makanju Street, Jos East, Plateau
17	Maria's Lodge	Tafawa Balewa St, Jos, Nigeria
18	Marvel Hotel & Suites Ltd	No38 Benue Crescent Area1 Section1 Abuja, Garki, Nigeria
19	Miango Rest Home	Miango Road, MRH/Kent Academy, Kwasha Miango, ECWA/SIM, Jos
20	MOI Hotels	# 4 Liberty Dam Boulevard Millionaires Quarters, behind Nigerian film Corporation Jos.
21	Monica Hotel	Jos, Plateau
22	Mononia Hotel, Apata	Jos, Nigeria
23	Moon Shine Hotel	William Street, Jos, Plateau
24	Mountain View Guesthouse	Besides STF & NTA Jos, Yakubu Gowon Way,, Jos, Nigeria
25	Mountains Green Hotel	Tudun Wada Ring Road, Jos, Nigeria P O Box 1556
26	Myemee Hotel	Gazum Junction (Lohmak), Langtang North, Langtang, Nigeria
27	Nabob Guest House	G.R.A, Langtang North, Langtang, Nigeria
28	Naraguta Hotel	Jos, Nigeria
29	New Jos Hotel	A236, Jos, Nigeria

30	Novel Suites and Resorts Ltd.	PLOT 32761, DA GAZU TANG CLOSE, OFF DAGWOM DU WAY, RAYFIELD, P.O.BOX 6147 JOS
31	Novel Suites Resort LTD	Jos, Nigeria
32	One Nigeria Hotel	Bokkos Town, Bokkos, Nigeria
33	Pwangwasa Hotel	112, Opposite GSS Shendam, Shendam, Nigeria
34	Qeesh Apartments	33, Da Chibi Rwang Street, Off Atiku Street, Rayfield Jos
35	Qualer Apartments & Hotels Ltd	3 St. Monica Close, State Lowcost, Rantya, Jos, Jos, Nigeria
36	Rantya Rock Motel	Barakin Akawo, Plateau, Nigeria
37	Riverside Executive Hotel Limited	Jos, Nigeria
38	Rock Heaven	Jos, Nigeria
39	Semshak Hotel	Opp Unijos bauch road campus
40	Sharna Hotel Jos	Jos, Nigeria
41	Shartell Hotels	No. 11 Sheh Street, Rayfiled Road, Jos
42	Soltina Cuisines & Gardens	BY – NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR POLICY AND STRATEGIC STUDIES (NIPSS), KURU, Jos, Nigeria