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THE HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INDUSTRY AFTER COVID-19: EFFECTS ON THE HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INDUSTRY AND STRATEGIES FOR SURVIVAL

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ABSTRACT

The novel coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic has disrupted people's lives and business operations across the world on an unprecedented scale. Many governments have taken drastic measures, including travel restrictions and closing recreational facilities that attract large crowds. These movement restrictions, coupled with a looming financial crisis, have paralyzed operations in the tourism and hospitality industry and forced many businesses to scale down or completely shut down their operations. This paper discusses the effects of the pandemic on the tourism and hospitality industry and strategies that could help businesses to survive during the pandemic.

Keywords: *Tourism, Hospitality, COVID-19 pandemic, Effects, Recovery.*

1. INTRODUCTION

The COVID-19 pandemic has disrupted operations in many sectors, including the hospitality and tourism industry across the world on an unprecedented scale. The outbreak of coronavirus followed by the declaration of the World Health Organization that the disease had become a pandemic, most nations had to take drastic measures to curb the rapid spread of the disease. The virus, which affects the respiratory system causing mild to severe symptoms, is spread from an infected person or surface to healthy individuals when they were in close physical contact. Thus, the first measure that was taken by most governments was to restrict the movement and interaction of people, especially in public places. Countries that recorded many cases declared full lockdowns, which meant movement in and out of the countries was also restricted, where other countries have issued travel bans to areas that have been identified as hot spots of the virus. The travel restrictions drastically reduced domestic and international travel, paralyzing the transport industry across the world. The impacts on the hospitality and tourism industry have been adverse, with many businesses in the sector closing down and recording high losses. The pandemic has revealed the vulnerability of the hospitality and tourism industry to such unprecedented occurrences and raised the need for effective strategies to be established to enable the

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sector to survive through this pandemic. This paper explores how the COVID-19 pandemic has impacted on the hospitality and tourism industry and suggests several strategies that can be considered for the survival of the industry.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Effects of COVID-19 on the Hospitality and Tourism Industry

The impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism and hospitality industry can be observed in all regions of the world. When the virus was first reported in November 2019 in Wuhan, China, most countries did not consider it a significant health issue. However, by March 2020, the virus was rapidly spreading across the world, claiming thousands of lives and overwhelming the health systems of even the most developed countries like the U.S., Italy, and Spain. The rising number of deaths sparked panic globally as healthcare experts pushed to implement more drastic measures to curb the spread. Most governments shut down all social facilities, including hotels and restaurants, to minimize interactions in public places and slow down the spread of the virus. As a result of government directives to close down social facilities, many people avoid traveling and opt to stay at home and within their countries. In countries where no directive was given to close down hotels, lodges, and resort centers, low customer turn-out has also been experienced due to the fear of contracting the virus (Ozili and Arun, 2020). Other measures limiting the number of people that can be served in hotels and restaurants have also decreased the number of daily customers that hotels and restaurants can serve. Therefore, the stay-at-home advisories and movement restrictions by governments may have caused more people to avoid public spaces like restaurants hence fewer customers sought services in hotels and restaurants.

The economies of most nations have been negatively impacted by the pandemic, raising fear of a possible financial recession. With many businesses scaling down or completely shutting down operations and employers laying off their staff or imposing pay cuts, the level of disposable income has drastically decreased. The tourism industry is primarily driven by disposable income and business operations; hence a decline in the two directly translates to a decrease in operations in the tourism and hospitality industry (Camilleri, 2018). Uncertainty surrounding the pandemic and when a possible vaccine or cure could be developed has also made more people reluctant to spend more on tours and other recreational activities. As more people take precautions to cushion them against a possible financial crisis, fewer people are spending on tours and expensive hotel reservations. Many hotels reported cancelled reservations either because most clients could not travel following the travel restrictions or because of government advisory for all individuals to avoid public places.

Lending transactions and liquidity have significantly decreased during the pandemic as most lenders have slowed down or stopped new lending. Investors in the tourism and hospitality industry have been affected by this move as they cannot access loans to finance business expansion and operations. Lenders increasingly adapted a conservative underwriting approach in response to the market slowing down, which has forced many investors in the hospitality industry to put investments on hold (Didier et al., 2020). Some of the companies that had started expanding their operations on a global scale have been forced to cancel their plans either after investors withdrew funding or due to the uncertainty of when the global economy might recover from the impacts of the pandemic. Growing fears that the pandemic might trigger a financial recession that could be worse than the 2008 crisis has also contributed to the decision by most lenders to avoid lending to businesses in sectors that are more vulnerable to financial crises. As early mentioned, tourism relies on the availability of disposable income, which in the event of a financial crisis will be drastically reduced. The economy may take years to recover from a recession, making it difficult to predict when the tourism and hospitality industry will also recover.

The major players in the tourism and hospitality supply chain, including international hotel chains, airlines, and cruise companies, have been forced to lay off a significant percentage of their staff and scale down their operations across the world. The decision to lay off staff and implement payment cuts has been applied to reduce the costs of operation following the drastic decline in the revenues earned by the companies. Travel bans imposed by most countries have also forced airlines to cancel flights to hundreds of destinations across the world. As a result, the airlines have grounded most of their airplanes and sent their staff on paid or unpaid leave, depending on the employment contracts. Disruption of the tourism and hospitality supply chain has caused most players in the sector to incur massive losses, some fearing that they may never recover even after the pandemic. Airlines have been the most affected among the leading players in the supply chain, with some airlines already filing for bankruptcy. British airline FlyBe filed for bankruptcy on March 5, 2020 (Business Insider, 2020). Not only does this reflect a drop in global travel, but it also implies that the sector might take longer to recover from the effects of the pandemic.

The ban on international transport disrupted the supply of critical commodities such as food products, which are essential in the hospitality industry. Most international hotel chains and restaurants offer diverse delicacies to their customers, which are imported from different parts of the world. However, after the ban on international travel, it became difficult to import these products from the countries where they are produced. The situation was made worse by the scaling down operations by major airlines, which made it difficult for suppliers to transport their products to the markets (Ozili and Arun, 2020). Some of the products were being imported from third world countries that lack the financial and infrastructural

resources required to put in place safety measures that would enable travel restrictions to be lifted. Thus, businesses in the hospitality industry have been forced to seek alternative means of getting the products, which has also raised the cost of operation. Suppliers have been left counting losses after failing to find ways to transport their products to consumers. For instance, the flower industry, which largely relies on the tourism sector, has been affected by the ban on international transport resulting in losses amounting to millions of dollars. Other suppliers dealing in perishable products such as fruits and vegetables have been forced to incur heavy losses on storage as the products cannot be transported on a daily basis as they were before the pandemic. The overall effect has raised concerns that suppliers might opt to stop dealing with products that are essential in the tourism and hospitality sector and seek other markets that are not too vulnerable to crises.

The virus is believed to have originated from the city of Wuhan, China, from where it rapidly spread causing disruptions in the country, which is one of the largest economies in the world. As a result of the disruptions in the production processes in China, significant interruptions have been experienced in the global value chains. China also holds a significant role in the global tourism industry, with Chinese tourists spending an estimated \$277 billion in 2018 (Ugur and Akbiyik, 2020). After the Chinese government imposed complete lockdowns, the mobility of Chinese tourists, as well as international mobility, was significantly disrupted as major airlines that rely on the routes within the country were forced to shut down or seek alternative routes that could have increased the cost. An increase in costs translates to higher expenses for tourists; hence even those who could have travelled had opted to cancel their plans owing to the high expenses.

2.2 Current State of Hospitality and Tourism Industry

The hospitality industry is slowly recovering from the COVID-19 pandemic in most countries. The number of new cases has started to decline, indicating that the peak has already been attained, and the pandemic could end soon. However, health experts have warned of a possible second wave that could be worse than the first wave and have called for a careful reopening of the economy. While the easing of restrictions paves the way for businesses to resume operations, the pandemic continues to exert significant impacts on how businesses in the tourism and hospitality industry operate (Gursoy and Chi, 2020). Hospitality businesses have to comply with the guidelines given by the government to promote the safety of customers and workers. Some of the measures include decreasing the number of customers who can occupy the restaurants simultaneously by increasing the distance between each table and increasing safety protocols such as measuring customers' body temperatures before entering the premises. Other businesses have chosen to only offer take away services (Sigala, 2020). Without a vaccine or effective treatment and prevention of the virus,

many experts have suggested that the reopening of sit-down restaurants is less likely to attract customers (Gursoy and Chi, 2020). A study by Gursoy et al. (2020) found out that more than 50 percent of individuals are unwilling to start going to sit-down restaurants during this period. Additionally, the study reveals that most people feel it is not safe for them to travel and stay in hotels during this period.

In countries where less draconian measures have been taken to restrict people's movements, a shift in preferences for tourists has been observed. Initially, most businesses in the hospitality industry mainly targeted large and densely populated areas that also attracted visitors and international investments. However, such places have now been considered to be too risky and susceptible to significant impacts of crises; hence tourists and investors have started to consider areas that were initially perceived as less attractive and are sparsely populated. In several places, investors in tourism and hospitality have already started implementing plans to develop their businesses in areas that are sparsely populated and less likely to be impacted by such crises in the future to the same extent as businesses in densely populated areas have been affected during this pandemic (Sigala, 2020). By setting up tourist destinations in these areas, businesses have been able to increase their competitiveness in the hospitality industry. The establishments have also presented an opportunity for investors to capitalize on the current situation that has forced many people to stay at home. As people look for a way to escape boredom at home, the hotels and restaurants established in areas that were previously considered to be less attractive are now offering solutions to those seeking an escape from the stressful situation caused by the pandemic. Therefore, while the pandemic has negatively impacted on the business establishments in the more attractive and sought after places, it has created an opportunity for investors to develop areas that had been considered to be less attractive into competitive tourist destinations.

International and national hotels and other businesses in the hospitality industry have been forced to seek emergency loans in preparation for a possible recession. Hotels in the U.S. reported an estimated \$1.5 billion loss within the first quarter of 2020, with the figure projected to increase as the virus continues to paralyze the economy (Sigala, 2020). While laying off staff might have been a short-term solution to cutting the costs of operations, some of the hotels have opted to retain their staff owing to the high cost of training and recruiting competent staff and the low likelihood that a solution that would enable the reopening of the economy might soon be found. Additionally, laying off staff is not always considered a solution to high costs of doing business as it may result in other unprecedented costs such as legal suits and negative publicity for organizations that fail to support their staff during the pandemic. Therefore, several businesses are currently relying on lenders for emergency loans to keep their premises operational.

2.3 Strategies for Survival of Businesses

The COVID-19 pandemic had dealt a significant blow to the tourism and hospitality industry. However, the pandemic may also present an opportunity for players in the sector to develop new strategies to survive during such events. The pandemic has revealed weaknesses in the sector that make it vulnerable to global crises and challenged hospitality scholars to look into different ways to strengthen the industry. The focus should be on improving operations during this period and laying the foundation for recovery after the pandemic. The impacts of the current crisis are of a higher magnitude than any crisis experienced before, making it difficult to apply previous conceptual and theoretical frameworks effectively. Therefore, new knowledge is required to provide better insight into how operations in the industry can be transformed to cater to the emerging customer needs during this period (Gursoy and Chi, 2020). The new strategies should not only focus on recovery but also on how the sector can be reimagined and reformed to overcome future unprecedented occurrences like pandemics. Additionally, there is a need to develop better methods for predicting the impacts of pandemics and other events on the tourism industry. This section suggests several strategies and measures that can be put in place to help the industry to survive this pandemic as well as be better prepared to overcome similar incidences in the future.

Throughout history, crises have been perceived as change triggers; however, no crises have so far triggered significant transformations in the hospitality and tourism industry. Masco (2017) states that crises have been utilized as political tools to improve the existing structures and reduce the risk of social mobilization. Change can be selective, and so far, most crises have not had any significant impacts on stakeholders in the tourism and hospitality industry, including local communities, tour companies, international hotels and other employers, and tourists. The degree of change initiated after a crisis depends on how the stakeholders have been affected by the crises. The COVID-19 pandemic has so far affected all the stakeholders on an unprecedented scale, triggering the need for change in the industry.

2.4 Possible Strategies for the Industry to Survive the Pandemic

2.4.1 Promoting Domestic Consumption

Several countries have managed to minimize the spread of the virus and initiated phased reopening of their economies. However, infections have continued to surge in other countries, making it difficult for governments to reopen their borders to international tourists. While most businesses in the hospitality and tourism industries rely on foreign customers, the pandemic presents an opportunity for businesses to shift their focus to domestic customers and consider tailoring their services to address the

needs and wants of local customers. Considering that most people are still afraid of traveling to foreign countries, the best hope for the hospitality and tourism industry would be to change their target market (Gursoy & Chi, 2020). One of the strategies that tour companies and hotels have adopted to encourage domestic consumers is giving offers and discounts to attract more clients and make it affordable to most people. Lowering the costs of services and products in the hospitality industry also considers the economic impacts of the pandemic that has lowered the amount of disposable income for most people. Most hotels and tour companies that served foreign tourists also had higher rates since most of their clients were wealthy individuals. However, during the pandemic, the companies have to reconsider their rates and make them affordable for the domestic consumer. Establishing a robust domestic consumer base will not only help businesses in the tourism and hospitality industry to survive during this pandemic but will also ensure that the businesses continue to thrive during the low seasons after the pandemic.

Sports and cultural events are some of the main tourist attractions in most countries. While it may be difficult for foreigners to tour countries and watch these events, local governments can establish protocols to increase domestic viewership and participation in such events. Countries such as New Zealand have already started phased reopening of their economies and resumption of sports activities such as the rugby league (Hamilton et al., 2020). In England, the Premier League has resumed, although the debate on whether fans should be allowed into the stadiums is still on. Other countries can also consider opening sports and cultural events to the residents, especially in places where the spread of the virus is under control, and the government has put in place adequate measures for identifying and handling new infections. The main concern for most people is their safety when they tour various sites, attend events, or go to hotels and restaurants. Thus, local governments could partner with stakeholders in the industry to put in place measures to promote the safety of all individuals in the sector. Additionally, domestic tourism could improve the assessment of the effectiveness of current measures to promote the safety of tourists, making it easier for businesses to convince foreign tourists that it is safe to tour the country.

2.4.2 Cutting on Operational Costs

The pandemic has caused a decline in operations in almost all businesses across the world. As a result, most sectors are recording declining revenues and some counting losses. The tourism industry is one of the worst-hit sectors and is projected to register a decline of about 78 %, reflecting a loss of close to \$1.2 trillion and jeopardize nearly 120 million jobs that are directly created in the industry (Sigala, 2020). Surviving during this period requires businesses to make some hard decisions to cut on the cost of operations. This includes renegotiating salaries for the staff, which could result in pay cuts to lower the wage bill as well as sending some of the staff on unpaid leave.

Laying off staff may not be the most pleasant decision for any manager, but during such situations, tough decisions have to be made for the sake of the businesses' survival. Since the number of customers that hotels, restaurants, and tour companies are serving has drastically reduced, it would be challenging to maintain a large workforce without incurring losses. With the current projections that it may take years for many businesses to recover from the impacts of the pandemics, it would be necessary to start taking drastic measures to cut on the costs of operation as soon as possible. The decision may not be difficult for most companies in the industry that usually hire seasonal employees who are only paid when they work during the high season. For instance, Marriott International has had to place a large number of its hourly workers on furlough during this period (Nicola et al., 2020). Nevertheless, businesses need to find ways of supporting their employees during the pandemic.

The second strategy for cutting operational costs involves closing down business outlets in high-risk areas where the cost of offering services during the pandemic exceeds the revenue earned. For instance, due to government directives on the number of customers that businesses can serve within a given period and the safety measures required to protect workers and customers from contracting the virus, the cost of operation has significantly increased. Therefore, in areas where the revenue earned is not sufficient to cater to the cost of operations, it would be advisable for the business to consider halting its operations temporarily until the situation improves. Alternatively, business operators could consider raising the costs of the products and services offered, but given the economic hardships that most people are going through during this period, rising prices may not be a good strategy for compensating for the low sales. In places where one business has several stores or premises, the management can consider closing down some of the premises and centralizing operations in one or two establishments with the highest capacity to serve the customers and earn sustainable revenues. As the number of infections gradually reduces, and people start gaining confidence to use sit down restaurants and other recreational facilities, businesses can slowly reopen the premises that were closed down. Didier et al. (2020) state that businesses should consider hibernating to minimize losses and ensure that they operate at the minimum costs necessary to survive through the pandemic. Hibernation can be an alternative to borrowing loans to sustain normal operations in a business (Didier et al., 2020). Otherwise, it would be pointless to run a business that is incurring losses at this period, given the uncertainty on when the pandemic might end.

2.4.3 Seek government and commercial assistance

Most governments have put in place measures to cushion industries that are vulnerable to the impacts of the pandemic. One of the measures has been to offer government-backed loans or grants to businesses to help them cover the deficits and

minimize the need for drastic measures such as layoffs. Many international hotel chains have already applied for emergency loans and a bailout from government agencies and commercial banks to cover the losses incurred during this period. On March 5, 2020, Hilton Worldwide informed lenders that they would borrow \$1.75 billion as a precautionary measure to help the business maintain flexibility under the current state of uncertainty in the world market (Nicola et al., 2020). In the U.S., businesses in the hospitality industry have requested financial aid from the government worth \$150 billion to maintain their workforce and remain operational (Nicola et al., 2020). Other governments worldwide have also established emergency funds for the most affected sectors, including the tourism and hospitality industry, to help them survive through the pandemic. Thus, business owners in the tourism and hospitality industry can organize with their governments and lenders to provide financial assistance to sustain operations during the pandemic.

2.4.4 Shifting the focus of research in the industry from the traditional practices to new systems and logic.

Research on crises has focused mainly on the impacts and features of the crises. While this approach is useful for finding short term solutions to the problems caused by a crisis, it may not be sufficient for finding long term solutions for overcoming similar events. Therefore, researchers in the tourism and hospitality industry must shift their focus to identifying the gaps in the current structure that make the industry vulnerable to events such as the pandemic. This also involves identifying the social structures through which crises emerge (Barrios, 2017). While most crises are considered unpredicted events, there are specific patterns that stakeholders can observe in the social structures that could point out to a possible crisis. Establishing a means that can be used to warn stakeholders of a possible crisis could be a great way of ensuring that players in the tourism industry can start putting measures to shield them from possible impacts of the crises. One of the factors contributing to poor preparation among the stakeholders are the gaps in social structures that make it difficult for the stakeholders to pick up the warning signs of a crisis early enough. Improving and developing new knowledge on crisis preparedness and management is dependent on the efficacy of the prediction tools hence the need to develop more reliable tools for predicting the impacts of future crises.

New ways of minimizing the vulnerability of the tourism and hospitality sector to socio-economic, environmental, and political risks are essential for improving the industry's resilience and ability to recover from crises. Novelli, et al. (2018) studied how crises and outbreaks impacted the tourism industry and concluded that the industry has developed resilience and can recover from similar events. While the conclusions made might have been accurate based on the history of previous crises, the COVID-19 pandemic has been unprecedented, impacting not only the short-term

operations of the industry but also triggering long-term transformation and structural changes of the hospitality and tourism industry. The focus should also be on developing strategies of preventing the spread of economic shockwaves triggered by such outbreaks on the global multidimensional and interconnected systems to minimize the vulnerability of the industry (Sigala, 2020). Failure to curb the spread of such impacts on the interconnected systems could easily trigger a global recession that would further paralyze the industry. Otsch (2020) described the COVID-19 pandemic as “a crisis of the economized world” whose origin is found in the growth-paradigm. Otsch’s description points out that the role of globalization and the interconnection of different sectors across political borders has increased the spread and impacts of the pandemic. While the intersection of different sectors was seen as a way of strengthening the tourism industry, it has now emerged that such a move also increases the industry’s susceptibility to global crises.

Tourism research should also focus on motivating, inspiring, and educating all stakeholders in the sector on the need to develop new structures rather than trying to recover to the “old” successful system. The industry has been affected because the old system failed to put measures that could cushion it against the impacts of a crisis. Therefore, rebuilding the old system would imply retaining the weaknesses that made the sector susceptible to socio-economic and environmental crises. Therefore, researchers and scholars in the tourism and hospitality sector need to find new perspectives and strategies that would end the notion that tourism is an unsustainable industry during crises and encourage them to develop ways of shielding the industry from the impacts of such. Higgins-Desbiolles (2020) encourages tourism scholars and researchers to rethink pre-assumptions and notions which portray neoliberal capitalism as the only effective system of succeeding and consider alternative ways of development and success in the industry. Such notions have only created desperation in the industry, making people believe that there are fixed ways for solving socio-economic and environmental crises. The COVID-19 pandemic should challenge stakeholders in the tourism industry to rethink the motivating factors and driving forces in the sector and how new systems that are more resilient can be established.

3. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The tourism and hospitality sector is one of the worst-hit by the COVID-19 pandemic with the socio-economic, political, and socio-cultural impacts of the pandemic worsening the situation for stakeholders in the sector. Mobility across the world has been brought to a near standstill for months, with government and health experts advising people to avoid traveling as much as possible. The move by most governments to put countries or significant cities on lockdowns and directives for businesses to shut down all social and recreational facilities have further crippled the tourism and hospitality industry on an unparalleled scale. Economists have already

raised concerns that the pandemic is likely to offset a global recession that could be worse than that of 2008, raising fear among lenders and investors to avoid lending to hotels and tour companies owing to their vulnerability to crises. Other vital sectors vital for the survival of the tourism and hospitality industry, such as airlines and cruise companies, have been forced to halt their operations, making it difficult for tourists to visit various destinations across the world. As a result, stakeholders in the sector have incurred massive losses with no clear information about when the crisis might end. However, this pandemic can also be viewed as a fertile opportunity to transform the tourism and hospitality industry. The pandemic can also bring an end to the idea that the sector is unsustainable during crises. Tourism and hospitality researchers can use this opportunity to identify the gaps in existing systems and structures that increase the sector's vulnerability and develop new strategies and approaches to make the industry more resilient to crises. Research in the tourism and hospitality sector should also shift from focusing on how to rebuild operations based on the old systems to identifying new knowledge and approaches that can be used to create new systems.

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SUSTAINING LOCAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH ENABLING SOCIAL FINANCING INSTRUMENTS IN EU MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES

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ABSTRACT

In post-crisis EU landscape, EU Mediterranean countries are making steps in alleviating the burdens that citizens have carried at individual and collective level by restructuring their economies and re-designing social protection measures. Social and solidarity economy (SSE) is also a sector that despite its growth and positive impact towards vulnerable groups during the crisis has also seen several impediments in its development most notably regulatory and financial obstacles and an uneven development of the sector among E.U. countries.

In this new landscape, endogenous local development and the sustainability of the sector relies not only on active social networks and generation of social capital, but also on stable and recurring funding sources, as it is necessary to respond to the financial needs of social economy actors and operators in the current and next E.U. programming period (2021-2027), so as to sustain the emerging dynamic of SSE. The paper addresses the pivotal role of social financing in supporting social economy organizations endeavors and presents an overview on the different forms of development of the social investment initiatives that are taking place in Portugal, Spain and Greece.

Keywords: Social Entrepreneurship, Social Finance, Social Investment, Social Entrepreneurship Fund, Social Finance Market.

1. INTRODUCTION

According to the European Economic and Social Committee, there are 2.8 million social economy enterprises (SEE) and organisations in the European Union, which employ about 13,6 million people and account for 8% of the European Union's (EU) Gross Domestic Product (EESC, 2017:2). They operate and use market and non-market resources (human, land, financial, energy, services, capital) at the local level, generating growth and employment and "their financial viability depends on the efforts of their members and workers to secure adequate resources" (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010:239). The conceptualization of social finance in terms of supporting social enterprises (SEs) initiatives and local development in this paper, concerns SE "whose purpose is to achieve a social mission through the use of market mechanisms" (Ebrahim et al, 2014:82) and their distinguishing characteristic is the "primacy of the

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social mission” (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010:18) and the creation of social value, than the generation and maximization of profit and the creation of economic value.

By the onset of the crisis onwards, SEs which are also known as “social business”, “social-purpose business” or “social-driven business” organizations (EASME, 2018:15) are promoted by the EU as a response towards correcting social and regional imbalances throughout Europe, whereas the social economy sector as a whole has been recognized as one that “has weathered the economic crisis much better than others and is gaining increasing recognition at European level” (Council of the EU, 2015:2) for its output. However, like all market operators, SEs need liquidity, financial support and access to capital, so as to finance and sustain their commercial activities, production of services and goods. In order to meet the increasing demand for financial support and services by SEs and their difficulty in accessing external finance sources, together with the shortage on the supply of debt and investment finance observed during the crisis, the EU has embarked during the last decade on a concerted effort to strengthen the operation of its internal market by setting up a regulatory framework together with the development of financial mechanisms and instruments, which target directly and specifically the social economy sector (SEE) and SEs in particular.

This paper aims at discussing the emergence of a social finance market in Europe as an outcome of the need to support sustainable local development, with a specific focus on the adopted initiatives and the development of financial instruments in EU Mediterranean countries that were hit hard by the crisis such as Portugal, Spain and Greece.

2. FINANCING SOCIAL ENTERPRISES - THE EMERGENCE OF THE CONCEPT OF SOCIAL FINANCE

Social Enterprises (SEs) have a landmark feature, an outstanding capacity to combine the social with the financial element. What distinguishes them especially from private sector organizations and firms is that they aim at generating revenue, so as to use it for social causes, rather than to maximize it (distribution towards their target groups, share among members, reinvestment in further projects or resources such as equipment or premises) for their stakeholders. Despite the fact that SEs may find themselves “at risk of losing sight of their social missions in their efforts to generate revenue, a risk referred to as mission drift”¹ (Ebrahim et al, 2014:82), they

¹ Defourny & Develtere refer that, “co-operatives in the industrialized countries have in many instances changed so much that they are practically indistinguishable from mainstream private enterprises and that their ties with not-for-profit associations seem to have completely disappeared” (Defourny & Develtere, 1999:20). Their observation points out that mission drift in social economy organizations isn’t a new phenomenon and may be according to Conforth, the outcome of “market pressures and resource dependences” (Conforth, 2014:9),

may also find themselves in conditions of “losing customers, selling at prices not covering the(*ir*) costs”, (Defourny & Nyssens, 2010:238, *parenthesis added*), “confronted by a decrease of public grants” (*ibid*, 2010:238) and “public subsidies and to the limits of private grants from foundations”(*ibid*, 2010:231).

In other words, they may experience severe and unexpected shortages of resources either financial or human and their overall activity and mission is at great risk to fail, especially in “times of fiscal constraint, (*where*) these sources may become more limited than in the past” (Moore et al, 2012:117, *parenthesis added*), as was the case witnessed during the recent economic crisis, where many SEs have ended or down-sized their operation, due to lack of resources and the non-existence of an enabling environment supporting their operation.

Considering the identified gap in the financing of social enterprises’ activities, together with the rising demand for financial resources, as a result of the growth of the SEE during the last two decades and especially since the onset of the economic crisis, the EU has introduced a number of programs and mechanisms, in order to: **i**) establish a supporting institutional and financial framework for SEs and **ii**) to promote social entrepreneurship as a field which advances social innovation, active citizenship, employment (focusing particularly in vulnerable and marginalized groups) and sustainable development.

In fact, it can be argued that the difficulty that SEs have been witnessing in accessing capital and development finance from traditional financial institutions such as commercial banks and investment companies (demand side), together with the constrains on government-based funding, especially during the crisis, has given rise to the so called ‘finance gap’ of SEs from the supply side of finance institutions, whereas at the same time the concept of *social finance* has emerged together with alternative funding initiatives and “social enterprise investment” (Nicholls, 2010:82)².

The idea and practice of channeling financial resources towards the attainment of social goals is not a new phenomenon and maybe attributed to numerous cases in modern history, which involve a form of a lending organization from the one side (religious institutions, foundations and non-profit institutions) and organizations or persons as beneficiaries on the other. Although financing social enterprises consists a young field of research³ and no universal definition exists for the concept of social finance, it seems that most definitions stress and have in common the principle of the attainment of social, environmental and financial returns through the use of investment capital and financial resources.

¹‘commercialization’ of activities or even “through less visible changes to working practices or the nature and quality of the services the organisation provides (*ibid*, 2014:4).

² According to Torfs and Lupoli, rough estimates of the financing demand from the side of SEs in Europe, may rise up to 513, 1 million Euros per year (EIF, 2017:10).

³ Or even a “sub-field of social entrepreneurship” (Kickul & Lyons, 2015:83).

According to Rizzi et al, *social finance* refers to “a set of alternative lending and investment approaches for financing projects and ventures, requiring generating of both positive impacts on society, the environment, as sustainable development, along with financial returns (Rizzi et al, 2018:805). On the other hand, Perilleux defines *social finance* as the domain of “financial institutions, products, or practices whose goal is not solely the profit maximization but the seeking of other benefits as well, such as social, ecological, or ethical outcomes. This involves a wide spectrum of initiatives ranging from large institutions such as social or alternative banks to small informal initiatives such as savings groups, and includes microfinance as well as collaborative finance (social crowdfunding)” (Perilleux, 2015:285). On the same ground, *social finance* may be conceptualized as “the deployment of financial resources primarily for social and environmental returns, as well as in some cases, a financial return” (Moore et al, 2012:116) which “addresses three separate but interconnected aspects of what we call the social capital market – the supply of capital, the demand for that capital, and the intermediaries that link the two” (Harji & Hebb, 2010:2).

Social finance encapsulates the notion of the investment of capital for the generation of social and financial value (*social investment*) and concerns capital raising towards social enterprises, impact investment funds and private sector companies and operators, as long as they aim at generating positive and measurable social impact, along with financial gain (*social impact investment*). It fundamentally encompasses the demand and supply functions and dimensions of the market and it can thus be “demand driven, growing out of the capital needs of social enterprises” (Harji & Hebb, 2010:3) or “supply driven, with a focus on the investor as the primary actor” (*ibid*). It may be argued that the structuring and supply of social finance has a great significance and impact for the development and growth of the social economy sector, as it “can stimulate social innovation because the investment typically challenges the institutional logics associated with conventional investor rationalities” (Moore et al, 2012:116), whereas it “supports social entrepreneurship and innovation directly throughout its development, adoption, and implementation stages” (*ibid*).

3. THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN EU SOCIAL FINANCE MARKET AND THE EU FINANCIAL FRAMEWORK FOR SOCIAL ENTERPRISES

Among the key actions that the EU Commission has proposed in its 2011 Communication on the “Single Market Act. Twelve levers to boost growth and strengthen confidence” (Commission, COM/2011/0206, final) was the establishment of a European framework that will support the development of social investment funds and the channelling of funds towards the social economy sector. As mentioned in the previous section and according to Harji & Hebb (2010), a social capital market involves three inseparable and interconnected domains:

- a) The demand of capital,
- b) The supply of capital and
- c) The Intermediary organizations or “Intermediation” (Nicholls, 2013:165)⁴, which “bring lenders and borrowers closer together and stimulate reciprocity in lending relationships based on social values” (Perilleux, 2015:297).

During the last decade, the demand/supply gap of social enterprises has been among the main issues in EU policy agenda⁵. Through its landmark Social Business Initiative (SBI) that was implemented on 2011, the EU Commission “has placed the social economy and social innovation at the heart of its concerns” (Commission, COM/2011/0682 final) and set the foundation for the establishment of an institutional and regulatory framework that would efficiently support social economy organizations. SBI included eleven (11) key actions, however special significance for the development of the social financing market are the following:

Action 1: It forwarded a European regulatory framework for *social investment funds*, to facilitate access to the financial markets for social enterprises.

Action 2: It encouraged the development of *microcredit* in Europe, through the Progress Microfinance Facility, during the programming period 2007-2013⁶.

Action 3: It has set up the *EU program for Employment and Social Innovation (EaSI)*, so as to provide easier access to funding for social enterprises.

Action 4: It fundamentally put social enterprises in the map of EU Structural Funds, by establishing the financing of social enterprises as an ‘investment priority’ of the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and European Social Fund (ESF)⁷ (Commission, COM/2011/0682, final).

⁴ Nicholls also points out the same conceptualization regarding social finance markets, pointing that “In social finance, as in mainstream finance, the market is structured by three interlinked elements: supply, demand and intermediation” (Nicholls, 2013:165).

⁵ Access to finance, Access to markets, Better framework conditions, New technologies and Social innovation are the 5 pillars identified by the *'Groupe d'experts de la Commission sur l'entrepreneuriat social'* – GECES, when it was first established as part of the EU Commission SBI on 2011 and its work continued from 2018 onwards by the Expert Group on Social Economy. Improve access to finance and EU funding for social economy enterprises and organisations is the 5th among the 10 proposals included by Social Economy Europe organization in their Memorandum, towards EU political parties in May 2019 EU elections.

⁶ Support for finance through microcredit, continued in the framework of the EASI programme in the 2014-2020 period. However, the Interim Report of Progress Microfinance revealed that, while it “has clearly been effective in increasing access to and availability of microfinance for microenterprises, it has been less effective in doing so in the social economy” (Commission, 2015:55) with only 4% of participating micro-borrowers identifying their organizations as ‘social enterprises’ and with 14 participating intermediaries referring that “social enterprises represent less than 25 % of their portfolio” (Commission, *ibid*:54).

⁷ https://ec.europa.eu/growth/sectors/social-economy/enterprises_en, accessed 10/11/2019.

Despite the fact that “social investment markets are still under-developed in most EU Member States which lack a specific policy and a regulatory framework for supporting social enterprises” (EIB, 2016:7), evidence regarding the development of an EU wide social financing infrastructure with the characteristics and functions of the market are in place. On the demand side for finance and supporting services are social economy and third sector organizations such as Social Enterprises, Social Start-ups and Charities⁸ and on the supply side are social financial institutions such as Social Investment and Social Impact Funds, Cooperative and Ethical Banks, Venture Philanthropy Funds, Crowdfunding Platforms and Community Development Financial Institutions. Supply side institutions may also act as intermediary organizations and they “focus on a social mission or include a social mission among other commercial activities” (*ibid*, 2016:14). The main function of financial intermediaries is the linking of “investors and final recipients and balance the trade-off between social responsibility, financial returns and sustainability” (IFISE, 2019:23) and may include Commercial banks, Credit unions, Savings Banks, Foundations, Social Equity Fund providers, specialised microfinance intermediaries and Government bodies or agencies (*ibid*, 2019:24).

There are substantial differences, however, both in theory and in practice regarding the financing of social economy organizations and enterprises. Modern portfolio theory assumes that an investor will take on increased risk only if compensated by higher expected returns, however in a social investment “investors might be willing to reduce their financial return expectation as they wish to support the social services provided by the social enterprise” (Spiess-Knafl & Jansen A., 2013:27). In addition, and according to Spiess-Knafl & Jansen, ‘traditional pecking order theory’ might also not be applicable to social enterprises, due to the conflicts in internal financing, occurring when public funding “lead to a reduction of private funds which is called the crowding-out effect” (*ibid*, 2013:28) or because grants maybe considered as ‘not repayable’ in terms of financial returns.

The supply side of social financing market in the EU has seen an expansion, despite the slow-down of the economic activity due to the economic crisis, both in terms of new supporting mechanisms, as well as, on the development of new financial instruments for financing SE operations. A Financial instrument is “a *form of support* that incorporates the use of the selected product, its combination with other forms of support such as grants, and the chosen implementation option” (IFISE, 2019:13). Main financial instruments established under the SBI and during the present 2014-2020 programming period include:

➤ **The EU programme for Employment and Social Innovation (EASI)**

⁸ It is estimated that “early-stage social enterprises wishing to scale” their impact, require funding between 100.000 to 500.000 Euros (Commission/OECD, 2016:12)

The EU programme for Employment and Social Innovation (EASI) is managed by the European Investment Fund (EIF) and is an EU level financing instrument “founded in the context of the Europe 2020 strategy, to support the EU's objective of high-level employment, guarantee adequate social protection fight against social exclusion and poverty and improve working conditions” (EIF, 2017:12). Through its Microfinance/Social Entrepreneurship axis (3rd Axis), which accounts of 21% of the total budget of 919M€, that is 193M€ of the programme, it supports: **i)** the development of social enterprises by facilitating access to finance, **ii)** vulnerable groups who want to set up or develop their business, **iii)** micro-enterprises through loans and **iv)** microcredit providers (financial intermediaries) through guarantees.

Particularly for micro-credit providers, EASI has developed the *EASI Guarantee Instrument*, which is specifically dedicated to microfinance and social entrepreneurship. One of its key objectives is to increase the availability of and access to finance for vulnerable groups wishing to launch their own enterprises, micro-enterprises and social enterprises, both in their start-up and development phases.⁹ By the end of 2016, twenty five (25) guarantee agreements have been signed by with financial intermediaries for social entrepreneurship for a total amount of 43,4 million, so as to cover subsequent loans towards SEs, for up to 500,000 (EIF, 2016:5).

➤ **European Social Entrepreneurship Funds (EUSEF)**

The European Social Entrepreneurship Funds (EUSEF) have been established so as to facilitate access to funding for social entrepreneurs. Regulation (EU) No 346/2013 prescribes uniform requirements and conditions for managers of collective investment for the marketing of qualifying social entrepreneurship funds to eligible investors across the Union. However, “as of April 2016 only 5 EUSEF funds were notified to ESMA¹⁰” (EVPA, 2018:1) and this led to two consequent amendments of their regulation¹¹.

According to the central database of managers of Social Entrepreneurship Funds, from May 2014 until November 2018, eleven (11) EUSEF European Social Entrepreneurship Funds have been established channeling funds towards the EU

⁹https://www.eif.org/what_we_do/microfinance/easi/easi-guarantee-instrument/index.htm, accessed on 10/11/2019.

¹⁰ European Securities and Markets Authorities

¹¹ **1st Amendment:** Regulation (EU) 2017/1991 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2017 amending Regulation (EU) No 345/2013 on European venture capital funds and Regulation (EU) No 346/2013 on European social entrepreneurship funds.

2nd Amendment: Regulation (EU) 2019/1156 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 June 2019 on facilitating cross-border distribution of collective investment undertakings and amending Regulations (EU) No 345/2013, (EU) No 346/2013 and (EU) No 1286/2014 (Text with EEA relevance).

Member States and they are based: 2 in UK, 2 in France, 3 in Germany, 2 in Finland, 1 in Spain, 1 in Netherlands¹².

➤ **Social Impact Accelerator (SIA) instrument.**

The Social Impact Accelerator (SIA) is the first Pan-European public-private partnership addressing the growing need for availability of equity finance to support social enterprises. It operates as a fund-of-funds, managed by EIF and invests in social impact funds, which strategically target social enterprises across Europe. The SIA has managed to raise until 2015, 243m Euros¹³ and is principally channeling funds towards social impact financing aiming at achieving a measurable social and/or environmental impact.

➤ **EFSI Equity Instrument**

The European Fund for Strategic Investment Equity Instrument provides access to financing for SMEs, Social Enterprises and Social Sector Organizations established or engaged in entrepreneurial activity in EU Member States during their entire lifecycle, from the pre-commercial phase up to their expansion and growth stage of development. Through EFSI, the European Investment Fund provides, for the first time, investments with the intention to generate a social impact, targeting social enterprises and social sector organisations, whereas the EFSI Equity Instrument is deployed in the form of the Expansion and Growth windows¹⁴.

The contribution of Investment Funds (EIF, EFSI) and instruments in the development and growth of SEs has become more evident during the last years. Beyond the emergence of new financial instruments and institutions in the social finance market, the Structural Funds of ESF and ERDF are pivotal in the channelling of funds and the development of financial instruments supporting social entrepreneurship and the development of the “social finance space” (Branch, 2019)¹⁵. ESF and ERDF support local development, social investment at government level and social entrepreneurship by providing financing and channelling funds through member states National Operational Programs (OP). They have achieved a substantial contribution of funding and development of financial instruments for social purposes amounting by the end of 2017, to “557 million Euros of Operational Programs in

¹² https://registers.esma.europa.eu/publication/searchRegister?core=esma_registers_eusef, accessed on 12/10/2019.

¹³ https://www.eif.org/what_we_do/equity/sia/index.htm?lang=-en, accessed on 12/11/2019.

¹⁴ https://www.eif.org/what_we_do/equity/efsi/index.htm, accessed on 12/11/2019.

¹⁵ <https://www.pioneerspost.com/business-school/20191028/accelerating-change-eu-policy-maker-s-perspective-of-social-finance>, accessed on 9/11/2019.

funding agreements in 7 Member States of which 361 million of ESF come from ESF” (Commission, 2018:112).

ESF is also funding the landmark for research and innovation Horizon 2020 program, which channels funding for social innovation¹⁶, financing public, private and social entrepreneurs and third sector organizations. Another EU program, the Programme for the competitiveness of enterprises and small and medium (COSME) has also recently engaged in financing social endeavours. Following the European Social Economy Regions Pilot (ESER) in February 2018, aimed at raising awareness and building networks of social economy stakeholders, the EU Commission through its Executive Agency for Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (EASME) has launched the “Social Economy Missions” calls for funding projects, that will accelerate the development and acknowledgement of particular aspects of social economy at regional and local level and enhance its inter-regional dimension.

The above analysis stipulates and attempts to reinforce the argument that the mechanisms and institutions of a social finance and investment market in the European Union have emerged especially during the period of the global economic crisis. According to the EU Commission, “in most European countries, there is already a social enterprise and social finance market, however nascent or young” (Commission, 2016:6) and with different development and characteristics from one country to another. It may be argued that the efforts for the establishment of an EU-wide common institutional and regulatory framework for the financing of social enterprises and social economy operators through the deployment of social financial institutions and instruments, have led to the development of an EU “social enterprise financial ecosystem” (EIB, 2016:11) with actors (including all non-governmental and specialist support networks and organizations) along the demand/supply spectrum interacting and creating social and economic value, generating growth and employment and promoting sustainable development.

4. SOCIAL FINANCE AND INVESTMENT INITIATIVES IN EU MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES

The proliferation of social financing instruments and mechanisms does not automatically imply neither that the supply/demand gap has been effectively encountered in the EU nor that SEs and social economy organizations have sufficient access to appropriate information about social finance opportunities on the one hand and the capacity to become recipients of the financing products (*investment readiness*) and services available on the other. Although EU regulations and establishment of financial instruments in the framework of the European Social and Investment Funds (EFSI) are common for all EU member states, there is diversity among the instruments

¹⁶ <https://www.socialchallenges.eu/en-GB/community/4/About>, accessed on 10/11/2019.

and mechanisms used and deployed among EU countries, partly depicting the different regulatory frameworks and the various social enterprise business models and forms of social economy organizations operating in each country. Particularly, regarding the three countries in concern, there is also a marking difference regarding the use of the available financing instruments such as the EASI or the focus on certain aspects of social entrepreneurship such as social innovation.

Although, the first laws establishing social economy organizations were enacted in countries of South Europe and the Mediterranean, such as Spain¹⁷, Portugal¹⁸, Italy¹⁹ and Greece²⁰, “European countries where social investment markets are seeing the strongest emergence include Belgium, Germany, Netherlands and the UK” (Commission, 2015:90), with another study placing France and Italy among the leading countries (Rizzi et al, 2018:805). In the following section, a brief reference on the different instruments and programs used in financing social enterprise activities in three European Mediterranean countries will be presented namely Spain, Portugal and Greece, in order to highlight the variations of methods and mechanisms of financing SEs and provide an overview of the development of the social finance markets in Southern Europe.

➤ Spain

According to the Spanish Social Economy Employers’ Confederation (CEPES), there are as of 2018, about 42.140 social economy organizations in Spain of which 281 are Social Integration Enterprises, 670 Sheltered Employment entities and 19.954 Cooperatives, which undoubtedly consist a strong feature of Spanish economy²¹. It is estimated that the social economy sector accounts for 10% of Spain’s GDP. However, despite the fact that there is a growing number of impact investment funds in the country, the “supply of capital for impact investment in Spain is still limited and as a result, the financing needs of social enterprises are often left unfulfilled” (Ruiz de Munain, 2019:11) and the use of instruments such as “Social Impact Bonds and Pay-by-Results are (*also*) limited” (*ibid*, p.12, *parenthesis added*).

Although social economy organizations have during the crisis “faced a drastic reduction of 11 per cent on average in public subsidies” (Lopez-Arceiz, 2017:2) and the finance gap for “microfinance and social entrepreneurship combined has been estimated at about 700-750million Euros” (de la Mata, 2019:4), initiatives and the

¹⁷ ‘Social initiative cooperative’ (1999).

¹⁸ ‘Social solidarity cooperative under Cooperative Code (Law No. 51/96), adopted in 1997.

¹⁹ ‘Law on social cooperatives’ (381/1991).

²⁰ ‘Law 2716/99 (article 12) creating Limited Liability Social Cooperatives’ (Koi.S.P.E.).

²¹ https://www.cepes.es/social/statistics&e=number_institutions_evolution, accessed on 13/11/2019.

development of financial instruments from the supply side confirm the emergence of a rising social finance and investment market.

According to de la Mata, “Spain is the EU member state where the EaSI Guarantee Instrument has been most used, with 6 transactions signed with 4 intermediaries, 3 in the field of microfinance and 3 focusing on social entrepreneurship” (de la Mata, 2019:4). In addition to the EaSI Guarantee Instrument, other social finance tools and programs employed in the Spanish social finance market include:

◆ **Solidarity Mutual funds (SMFs)**

Solidarity Mutual funds (SMFs) are financial products that have as an investment goal of their savers and investors, the implementation of a specific social mission or fund a social impact project, together with the generation of profit for them and the facilitating bank or credit union. There are at present eight (8) SMFs in Spain, which support the economic and social activities of 951 social economy organizations (Lopez-Arceiz et al, 2017:7).

◆ **The Project “MARES - Resilient urban ecosystems for a sustainable economy”** is a 5.999.509million Euros project, with the EU’s European Regional Development Fund contributing 4.799.607million Euros, through the “Urban Innovative Actions” Initiative for the 2014-2020 programming period. The project is deploying the models and values of the social economy to generate economic activity and create jobs, as well as improving employability among the unemployed and people at risk of social exclusion²².

Cooperative banks such **Caza Laboral Popular- CLP**, supporting the Mondragon Network²³ funding needs and the development of new cooperative organizations and **Cajamar Caja Rural** as the largest agricultural cooperative bank in Spain with more than 40.000 employees, providing and contributing at local development in Spain's regions are key players in channeling funds and enable the development of the Spanish social economy sector.

²² https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/en/projects/europe/supporting-growth-in-madrids-social-economy, accessed on 13/11/2019.

²³ The Mondragon network comprises the largest worker cooperative in the world (102 cooperatives and 261 companies in total). It has 67.000 employees in Spain, about 82.000 in Europe in sum (2018) and has invested about 28m Euros towards activities with a social impact (2018).

➤ Portugal

Despite the fact that in Portugal, the “Social Economy Law” (June 2013), excludes market-oriented organizations and thus social enterprises, from being considered part of the Social Economy Sector, there are significant developments regarding the deployment of social finance instruments providing financing solutions to social economy organizations (SEOs). There is an estimate of “55.000 SEO’s in Portugal with around 216 social entrepreneurship (until February 2015) initiatives” (IES-Social Business School, 2016:16)²⁴, whereas the funding needs of the social economy sector in Portugal is estimated at net 750m Euros (Portuguese Social Investment Taskforce, 2015:4). In December 2014, Portugal has pioneered “in the use of ESF for financing the full life cycle of social innovation and social entrepreneurship projects” (EIB, 2018:7), and the establishment of the Social Innovation Initiative (SIB). The Portuguese SIB is “allocating 150 million (*from*) ESF with two main goals: to finance social innovation and social entrepreneurship projects and to promote the necessary ecosystem for its future sustainability, creating a social investment market” (EIB, *ibid*:9, *parenthesis added*). It includes the development of four social finance supporting instruments:

◆ Capacity-building for Social Investment

It is financing instrument that aims to improve the organisational and management competencies of organisations and teams directly involved in social innovation and social entrepreneurship projects. It provides grant support up to EUR 50 000 (in the form of vouchers) to finance small capacity-building plans. (EIB, *ibid*:11).

◆ Partnerships for Impact

It is an ESF grant structured as venture philanthropy financing, leveraging other social investments to support high potential and high impact projects. It provides a grant support of at least 50.000 Euros to finance, during the first one to three years, projects that intend to further develop proven social innovation concepts – innovative products, platforms or services to help solving societal problems (EIB, *ibid*:13).

²⁴ Law No 18/2015 4th March, relating to ‘Venture Capital, Social Entrepreneurship and Specialised Investment (Venture Capital Law)’ made it possible “for the first time in Portugal to use retail social investing to catalyse private funding towards social enterprises”, <https://evpa.eu.com/nexus/portugal> accessed on 13/11/2019.

◆ **Social Impact Bonds (SIBs) program**

The Social Impact Bonds program consists of a grant support to pay for *validated* outcomes achieved by specific social innovation projects in an area of public policy - Employment, Social Protection, Justice, Health and Education (EIB, *ibid:14*).

◆ **Social Innovation Fund**

Portugal is one of the first countries in the world to set up a fund for Social Innovation²⁵. SIF provides “access to finance for Social Economy organisations (SEO) and social start-ups involved in social innovation and social entrepreneurship projects” (EIB, *ibid:16*) Debt finance and Equity²⁶.

Other programs and instruments in the Portuguese social finance market include:

◆ **Social Investment Lab**

The Social Investment Lab is the first social finance intermediary in Portugal, founded in October 2013. It is a social investment intermediary that brings together social organizations, investors and public sector towards finding innovative solutions for social problems (Miguel, 2016:13).

◆ **Social Invests program**

The Social Invests program²⁷ is 12,5 million Euros program funded by ESF and implemented by CASES -António Sérgio Cooperative for Social Economy and addressed to:

- Private institutions of social solidarity.
- Mutuels.
- Cooperatives.
- Local development associations.
- Other social economy non-profit entities.

It provides up to 100.000€ with up to 1,85% interest rate.

²⁵ <https://www.fis.gov.pt/en/what-is-the-sif/>, accessed on 13/11/2019.

²⁶ <https://www.fis.gov.pt/en/sif-debt-how-it-works/>, accessed on 13/11/2019.

²⁷ <https://www.cases.pt/programas/social-investe/#>, accessed on 14/11/2019.

➤ **Greece**

Like many EU countries there is a supply/demand gap concerning the financing of the social economy sector in Greece and SEs in particular. Lack of finance is considered “one of the main hindering factors for the development and growth of social enterprises in Greece” (Commission, 2016:17), however indications of an emerging social finance market for SEs are evident. According to the General Registry of Social and Solidarity Entities, as of October 2019, there are about 1.303 active social enterprises in Greece²⁸, which due to the recent economic turbulence that hit the country, find it extremely hard to scale and invest on the growth of their activities. Beyond the very limited development of financing mechanisms and instruments in the country, SEs find themselves “also largely excluded from access to mainstream public support schemes (*which is*) aimed at SMEs in general” (*ibid*, 2016:17, *parenthesis added*). According to British Council survey, financing for social enterprises is more likely to come “from the private sector rather than the state or local authorities” (British Council, 2017:62), whereas Greek social enterprises “are more likely to receive donations, project-based grants or in-kind donations than receive repayable loans and mortgages” (*ibid*, 2017:63).

Recent developments in establishing supporting financial structures and instruments for the financing of social economy organizations and SEs in Greece include:

◆ A 7,5million Euros **Microfinance Guarantee Agreement** signed in May 2016, between the European Investment Fund (EIF) and the Cooperative Bank of Thessaly (CBT) under the EaSi program, facilitating financing in the form of loans for up to 25.000 Euro micro-entrepreneurs, including cooperatives and social enterprises²⁹. EIF is also supporting the **SEE GR project**, which main objective is “to develop and establish the Greek Social Enterprise Guarantee Fund that suits the needs of social enterprises in Greece”³⁰.

²⁸ [https://kalo.yeka.gr/\(S\(asmyz4b1qbfgvkflsbbpfkaj\)\)/login.aspx?ReturnUrl=%2f](https://kalo.yeka.gr/(S(asmyz4b1qbfgvkflsbbpfkaj))/login.aspx?ReturnUrl=%2f), accessed on 10/11/2019.

²⁹ https://ec.europa.eu/commission/news/eu75-million-eu-financing-micro-entrepreneurs-greece-under-juncker-plan-2018-jul-04_en, accessed on 13/11/2019.

<https://bankofkarditsa.com/site/index.php/el/proionta-ypiresies/easi>, accessed on 13/11/2019.

³⁰ <http://www.see-gr.eu/site/index.php/en/>, accessed 13/11/2019.

◆ **EU Structural Funds**

Through the ESF and ERDF about 164,5million Euros have been assigned and channelled towards social and solidarity economy organizations for the period 2014-2020, for the provision of grants, the development of supporting structures and establishment of financial instruments and institutions (Commission, 2016:72). According to Law 4430/2016 (article 10), a ‘Social Economy Fund’ has been instituted, whereas the ESF funded action “Centres Supporting Social and Solidarity Economy”, will channel 11,3 million Euros towards social enterprises for in 2019-21³¹.

◆ **Third sector microfinance initiatives**

Action Finance Initiative is a microfinance provider organization in Greece targeting the combat against social and financial exclusion, providing loans up to 10.000. It was founded in 2014, by Action Aid Hellas and Adie³².

The People’s Trust is a non-profit organization, which supports entrepreneurs who do not have access to other sources of funding. It provides micro-grants to entrepreneurs who wish to either create a new business, or grow an existing business, with grants up to 10,000 Euros as starting capital³³.

◆ **Crowdfunding**

Give and Fund is a crowdfunding initiative with a substantial record of funded projects through its OneUp platform³⁴. It is an online hub for individuals, startups NGOs and companies active in CSR initiatives, who wish raise capital in an economic, safe and transparent way for people and organizations with a social cause.

◆ **Cooperative Banks** in Greece consist key actors for local and regional development providing solidarity financing and loans towards entrepreneurs. Chania Cooperative Bank recently became a member of the European Federation of Ethical and Alternative Banks and Financiers (FEBEA)³⁵. The seven (7) operating Cooperative Banks in Greece, despite their rapid development only hold a small percentage of the Greek credit market.

³¹ <https://www.espa.gr/el/Pages/ProclamationsFS.aspx?item=4009>, accessed on 14/11/2019.

³² <https://www.afi.org.gr/en/funding>, accessed on 14/11/2019.

³³ <https://www.thepeoplestrust.org/en/what-we-do>, accessed on 14/11/2019.

³⁴ https://www.oneup.gr/giveandfund/homepage?request_locale=en, accessed on 14/11/2019.

³⁵ <http://www.epixeiro.gr/article/127835>, accessed on 14/11/2019.

◆ Establishment of the **Hellenic Development Bank**, (replacing the National Entrepreneurship and Development Fund), Law 4608/25.04.2019, where in Article 1, par. 3 among its 10 goals, goal no (9) is “the promotion of social and solidarity economy”.

◆ The **Hellenic Fund for Sustainable Development (ETVA)** is the only mutual fund in Greece dispensing investment funds based along with financial, social and environmental criteria.

5. DISCUSSION

Recovering from an economic crisis has not been an easy path, regardless how strong or weak one’s economy was during its outbreak and evolution. For countries that have sought for external funding and support, as was the case for the three EU Mediterranean countries in perspective, reversing high poverty (including child poverty and material deprivation), unemployment and youth unemployment rates³⁶ (including NEETs rates)³⁷ and reducing social inequalities has and still is an ongoing challenge that needs to be met. During the crisis, SEOs has conducted to “preserve employment in traditional sectors, create new employment in emerging sectors, and provide structure to new professions that are at risk of informality and exploitation” (ILO, 2017:16). However, the institutional arrangements and the development of supporting mechanisms for their financing differ from country to country and lead to the development of a social finance market with no homogeneity.

In this paper, beyond the analysis on the emergence of social finance in scientific discourse and its practical application at the EU setting, a brief overview and reference to social financing initiatives and tools was displayed, which included three EU Mediterranean countries that were hit by the crisis and implemented measures to support their social economy sector especially regarding its financing. Among the three countries reviewed in this paper, in Portugal and Spain there is a larger use and deployment of EU instruments than in Greece, as well as, a larger number of financial tools developed in funding SEOs. It seems that during the crisis, both Spain and Portugal have moved towards social investment and innovation strategies and consequently the development of supporting frameworks for their social economy

³⁶ Greece has the highest youth unemployment (under 25ys) rate among the EU 28 member states rising to 33,2% during the 2nd quarter of 2019, followed by Spain 32,8% and Italy 28,7%, while in Portugal it is 19,4% (Eurostat).

³⁷ As of 2018, among the three EU Mediterranean countries, Spain’s 16,7% NEETs rate has a 7,3% reduction since 2013 where it has reached each peak during the crisis with 24%. Respectively, Portugal 9,9% NEETs rate has a 7,2 reduction from 17,1%, while Greece has the highest reduction of its 30,8% rate on 2013, with 8,5% ranging at 22,3% (Eurostat).

sectors, contrary to Greece where despite the move towards advancing its legal framework and public procurement procedures for SEs³⁸, there is still lack of sufficient social financing instruments, as well as, little use of the EU financing and supporting framework.

During the last decade a great rise in numbers and proliferation of social financial instruments, as well as a significant volume of allocated capital for ventures with social objectives and impacts has been witnessed across the EU, signifying an institutional and structural change both in terms of the functioning of the EU internal market and in terms of a change in the EU socio-economic model of development. Since the establishment of the SBI in 2011 and during the current 2014-2020 programmatic period, the EU through the European Structural and Investment Funds has unfolded its strategy for a more inclusive EU, by specifically supporting the growth and development of the social economy sector. Social enterprises (SEs) and social business organizations have been at the centre of the EU efforts for promoting sustainable development, where the cooperation among corporations and private firms with social enterprises and non-governmental organizations has been consolidated as a feature in this new era of development, which has at its core the attainment of social and environmental goal, along with financial benefits.

Although social finance markets follow a different pace and path of development in EU countries, with marking differences in scope and breadth even in crisis-hit EU Mediterranean countries, which are generally considered as nascent social investment markets, it is evident that they contribute towards the establishment of enabling conditions for SEs to grow and expand their activities and operations. The rapid development of social finance instruments and institutional framework for social investments in the EU has among others surfaced the growing concern of the lack of alternative measures and mechanisms, in cases of public fiscal constraints in leveraging and supplying of funding and private sector reluctance to invest. In this framework, the response at the EU level, is, conducing to evidence of an emergence of an EU social finance ecosystem, that provides enabling conditions for sustainable development, balancing between the public and the private interest in favour of the general interest and well-being.

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³⁸ Law 4412/2016 “Public procurement of works, supplies and services”

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EVALUATION OF SYMMETRY IN HIGH-LEVEL HANDBALL PLAYERS PRIOR THEIR RETURN TO SPORT AFTER AN INJURY IN LOWER LIMBS, THROUGH ISOKINETIC ASSESSMENT OF THE ANKLE AND DYNAMIC BALANCE EVALUATION USING THE STAR BALANCE TEST

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ABSTRACT

Muscular asymmetries in the lower limbs have a harmful role in sports performance and their evaluation is useful returning to sport after an injury. Injuries occur when a lower dorsiflexion - to - plantarflexion ratio and poor dynamic balance, are observed. In this study, isokinetic assessment of the ankle in 90°/s, 120°/s and 180°/s, and the Star Balance Test were performed by 15 handball players. In relation to symmetry no player fully met the criteria of the isokinetic assessment and also, concerning SBT, in two cases was observed asymmetry. Overall, these players were not prepared for a safe return to sport.

Keywords: *Isokinetic Assessment, Star Balance Test, Return to Sport.*

1. INTRODUCTION

From the overall analysis of the injuries, occurring at handball players, it seems that most of them are located in the lower limbs and specifically in the knee, ankle and thigh (Monaco et al., 2019). The most common type of injuries at the lower limbs are sprains, bruises and fractures, as well as ligament injuries which occur mainly in the knee and ankle (Luig & Henke, 2010). These injuries, due to their frequency, create a significant problem in Handball. Very often, these injuries, lead the players involved, to abstain from training and games for a period of more than 7 days. This fact causes problems in a smooth training process (Lindblad, Jensen, Helleland & Terkelsen, 1993).

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The issue of muscular asymmetries in the lower limbs, as a consequence of a previous injury, has been a common subject for many studies, highlighting their detrimental role in sports performance, because muscular asymmetries seem to be a risk factor for injuries (Bell, Sanfilippo, Binkley & Heiders, 2014; Bishop, Turner, & Read, 2018; Hofmann, Ratamess, Klatt, Faigenbaum, & Kang, 2007). In order to assess the rehabilitation of the lower limbs, and also the safe return of the players in the same activity, the asymmetry between the two limbs must be evaluated (Di Stasi, Myer & Hewett, 2013). A complete picture of the asymmetries between the two lower limbs is very useful before returning to the training procedure and significantly reduces the risk of reinjury (Dos Santos et al., 2014).

The purpose of the present study was to evaluate the asymmetry in dynamic balance and muscular strength at high-level handball players, prior their return to sport after an injury at the lower limbs through isokinetic evaluation and Star Balance Test.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Fousekis, Tsepis and Vagenas (2010), the main causes of injuries are asymmetries in muscle strength, proprioception, joint stability, anatomical and anthropometric asymmetries. Asymmetry in muscle activation and balance is an element of potential lower limbs' injury (Baumhauer, Alosa, Renström, Trevino, & Beynnon, 1995; Dos Santos et al., 2014; Knapik, Bauman, Jones, Harris, & Vaughan, 1991; Rauh, Koepsell, Rivara, Rice, & Margherita, 2007; Soderman, Alfredson, Pietilä, & Werner, 2001). Asymmetry between the two limbs, either in strength or flexibility increases the risk of reinjury (Di Stasi et al., 2013; Paterno et al., 2010). Asymmetry can occur either between the right and left limb, or as a difference in ratio between agonist and antagonist muscles of the same limb (Knapik et al., 1991).

Isokinetic evaluation is mainly reported and applied to the knee joint (Moller, Lind, Styf, & Karlsson, 2005). Consequently, studies examining dorsal and plantar flexion of the ankle are very limited (Fox, Docherty, Schrader, & Applegate, 2008). Baumhauer et al. (1995) report that during isokinetic assessment, particularly, in cases where the ankle joint produces greater force during plantar flexion, an increased rate of injuries is observed. Also, increased rate of injuries occurs when a lower dorsiflexion - to - plantarflexion ratio is observed.

For the ankle joint, as a limit for safe return is considered a ratio between dorsal and plantar flexion ranged from 34% to 36% (Baumhauer et al., 1995). Scranton, Whitesel, and Farewell (1985), report a range from 30% to 44% for the same assessment. The same ratio of dorsal and plantar flexion, from 30% to 44%, is also found by Giove (1991). Mc Knight & Armstrong (1997) report that many problems can be hidden behind an injured and unstable ankle joint, even when there is full range of motion and not apparent instability. This is because at that point may underlay muscular asymmetries, unsatisfactory proprioception, and a lack of neuromuscular

coordination. The same researchers reported that the ratio between dorsal and plantar flexion, in their research, was 31.43%.

One of the factors that may contribute to the reinjury of the ankle joint is limited joint control. Theoretically, a joint malfunction can result in reinjury. In particular, this joint's control is reduced, during movements at high speed and on unpredictable surfaces, and also because of the small support base provided by the ankle joint (Goldie, Evans, & Bach, 1994).

Dynamic balance seems necessary for sport activities and may be adversely affected by musculoskeletal injury, illness, head injury or age (Kinzey & Armstrong, 1998). The same authors report that although poor balance is blamed for potential injuries, there are few studies that have reported this issue. In particular, Mc Guin, Greene, Best, and Leverson (2000), as well as Tropp, Ekstrand, and Gillquist (1984), report that poor balance is a factor for lower limbs' injury. Balance evaluation is very important, for assessing an injury and initiating appropriate treatment (Tropp, Odendrick, Sandlund, & Odkvist, 1987; Tropp et al., 1984).

One of the most affordable and fast ways to evaluate dynamic balance, with sufficient validity, is the Star Balance Test (SBT) (Hertel, Miller, & Denegar, 2000; Kinzey & Armstrong, 1998). According to this procedure, the participants should balance on one leg while directing the other. The aim in this test is to disturb the balance on one leg and then to restore it back to the starting point. The type of movement performed during this test is multi-articular and involves both limbs (Kinzey & Armstrong, 1998). Other neuromuscular features such as lower limb coordination, strength, and flexibility are also required. This is because in each direction of the test, different muscles are activated and at different intensity (Earl & Hertel, 2001).

Olmstead, Carcia, Hertel, and Shultz (2002) report that players with chronic ankle instability, during this test, exhibited a significantly less contact distance of the injured limb on the tape measure, than the non-injured one. Also, in the same test, these players showed significantly less contact distance on the tape measure, compared to a healthy population. According to Plisky, Rauh, Kaminski, and Underwood (2006), the short contact distance of one limb on the three axes of this test, is a risk factor for injury of the other limb. According to the same researchers, the Star Balance Test is a reliable option for predicting future lower limbs' injuries. At the same time, this test can be included into any set of tests, in order to evaluate players, prior their return to play.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants

The sample of the study consisted of 15 handball players, nine men and six women. They were all high-level players and competed in teams from Greece's two top divisions (Handball Premier for Men and A1 Division for Women). The mean age of the subjects was 22 ± 3.13 years. All of those who composed the sample of this study had an active presence prior to their injury and they were normally involved in the activities of their teams.

All of those involved in the study were injured in the lower extremities. This injury caused the participants to abstain for, at least, seven days from the team's activities (trainings - games) that means they suffered moderate to severe injuries (Laver, Landreau, Seil & Popovic, 2018). All participants, prior to their participation in the assessments, had the consent of either the physicians, or the physiotherapists, or their coaches to return to full playing activity.

3.2. Assessments

For the purposes of the present study, field and laboratory tests were performed. Anthropometric evaluations and isokinetic dynamometry were performed in the laboratory, while the Star Balance Test was performed in the field. In addition, during their presence in the laboratory, handball players responded to a questionnaire that included some of their personal information (name, age, team, years of experience with handball, preferred limb etc.).

3.3. Description of the instruments

3.3a Laboratory instruments

A two-meter tape measure was used for anthropometric measurements, while force measurements were performed on the Humac Norm 770 CSMi isokinetic dynamometer (Stoughton, MA, USA) of the Human Biological Performance Assessment Laboratory at SPESS - Aristotle University of Thessaloniki.

3.3b Instruments in the field

Distances were measured with two-meter tape measure.

3.4. Description of tests and measurement procedure

3.4a Lower Limb length measurement.

The test subject was lying supine on the test bed with both legs stretched out. The measuring tape was positioned on the upper part of the measured limb, on the anterior superior iliac spine and on the lower part of the same limb, on the medial malleolus. Two measurements were made at each limb, and if the same value was displayed at both measurements, this value was recorded. If there were any discrepancies in values, a third measurement was performed and the value listed in two of the three measurements was finally recorded. The same procedure was followed on the other limb.

3.4b Isokinetic evaluation of the ankle joint.

In the isokinetic evaluation of the ankle joint a measurement of the flexor and extensor muscles strength was performed at the plantar and dorsal flexion of the foot and at specific angular velocities. Prior to the isokinetic evaluation procedure, the subjects warmed up for 10 minutes on a stationary bike. The subject was then positioned in supine position, with the testing limb at 90° flexion at the knee joint. After that, the adjustment procedure was followed according to the dynamometer instructions, and also the personal data of the subjects were recorded. The subjects were asked to self - report their preferred side (left or right leg) and also to indicate the injured side. The assessment protocol of the present study included three angular velocities: 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec. At each angular velocity, three repetitions of flexion and extension were performed, and the interval between the angular velocity changes was 30 seconds. Prior to the first measurement, three trial attempts were made to familiarize the subject. The same process was repeated at the other limb.

3.4c Evaluation using the Star Balance Test (Y Balance Test).

In the beginning an inverted Y was made, using a self-adhesive tape, consisting of a straight anterior and two posterior diagonal straight lines with a common starting point. The angle formed by the two diagonal lines was 90°. During the measurement the participants had to stand on one leg. The anterior end of the shoe pad of the same leg which was the standing leg, was positioned at the point where the three lines were joined. While remaining on one-legged support, the participants had to try with the other leg to stretch and touch as far as they could on the three lines. Each performance was marked on tape and then measured with a measuring tape. The testing protocol initially included as many test attempts as the participant wanted, while the measurement involved three attempts in each of the three directions, recording the best

of the three. In order for the measurement to be considered valid, the test subjects had to: a) maintain balance on one leg throughout the measurement, b) not to move or lift the standing leg throughout the measurement, c) at no point of measurement standing on two legs, (d) always return the free leg to its starting position after the attempt. If any of the above happened, the attempt was considered void and repeated. The same procedure was performed on the other leg.

Evaluation of the results in order to assess lower limbs balance was done as follows:

$$\text{SRD} = (\text{R1} + \text{R2} + \text{R3}) / 3.$$

$$\text{SBTr} = (\text{ARD} / \text{LL}) \times 100.$$

Where R1, R2, R3 were the results of measurements in the three test directions as recorded. Where SRD was the sum of the three measurements divided by the number of measurements. Finally, where LL was the length of the standing leg which was known from the anthropometric evaluation. The result of this evaluation (SBTr) was a percentage (%) which reflects the total length of the three directions in relation to the length of the standing limb.

3.5. Measurement procedure

All participants began their evaluation in the laboratory, starting with anthropometric evaluation. The purpose of anthropometric evaluation was to measure and record the length of the lower limbs. The isokinetic evaluation of the subjects was then performed. The purpose of isokinetic evaluation was to measure the strength of the lower limb muscles during the concentric phase of muscle activation. All these evaluations (anthropometric evaluation - lower limb isokinetic evaluation) were performed on day 1 during the participants' presence in the laboratory. The next day, the second test was made on the field. So, on day 2, the subjects were assessed using the Star Balance Test (Y Balance Test), after they had warmed up for 20 minutes. The purpose of this evaluation was to measure the balance of the lower limbs, but at the same time, their strength and flexibility also.

3.6. Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics and Correlation analysis were used for statistical analysis of the results. Specifically, the frequency and proportion of the values were used, as well as the mean and standard deviation (SD). In addition, due to the abnormal distribution of the sample, the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used to find statistically significant differences between injured and non-injured limbs. Furthermore, using the t independent test, we analyzed at each limb separately, any differences between the injured and non-injured, that is, right-injured and non-injured and also left-injured and non-injured. Correlation Analysis was also performed to demonstrate the relationship

of the tests to each other. Significance level was set at 0.05 and statistical analysis of the study data was done using SPSS 25.

4. RESULTS

From the sample of 15 players (6 women and 9 men) who suffered an injury in the season concerning our study, they had an average age 22 ± 3.13 years. All of them were high-level players (Handball Premier and A1 Division for women) and had an average body height and body weight 180.46 ± 7.7 cm and 81.73 ± 10.18 kg respectively. These players started to play handball at 12 ± 4 years of age and had a mean of 9.53 ± 3.44 years of involvement with this particular game. In addition, most (11) had been involved with another sport before starting to play handball.

Six players, were back players, four were wings, four were line players and one was a goalkeeper. The majority of these handball players (80%) had more than four training sessions per week, while the rest had no more than four training sessions per week. Most of these specific players (86.7%) had followed all the basic preparation training program of their teams and reached certain fitness levels, before the official beginning of the championship. A total 60% of these players had a participation rate of more than 50% in official games during the season.

4.1 Isokinetic evaluation of the ankle joint

Table 1 shows the results of isokinetic evaluation in the ankle joint, in terms of the ratio of dorsal-plantar flexion, expressed in mean values (M.V.) and standard deviations (S.D.).

TABLE 1: RESULTS OF ISOKINETIC EVALUATION IN THE ANKLE JOINT

| Dorsal Flexion to Plantar Flexion Ratio | | |
|---|-------------------|-------------------------|
| Angular Velocities | Injured DF/PF (%) | Non - Injured DF/PF (%) |
| | M.V. – S.D. | M.V. – S.D. |
| 90°/sec | 40,8% ± 18,3% | 53,06% ± 27,8% |
| 120°/sec | 44,8% ± 20,1% | 55,2% ± 30,4% |
| 180°/sec | 47,6% ± 24,9% | 61% ± 39,3% |

DF: Dorsal Flexion, PF: Plantar Flexion

Analysis of the data revealed differences between the right and left limb. Specifically, at all angular velocities, differences were observed between the injured and non-injured right limbs, via the *t* independent test, since the distributions were normal and the equivalence of fluctuations was satisfied. More accurately, at angular velocities of 90°/sec and 120°/sec *p* was <0.05, while for the angular velocity of 180°/sec, *p* was <0.07. There is an obvious tendency showing that there are differences between injured and non-injured right limbs.

On the contrary, there was no statistically significant difference, at any angular velocity, between injured and non-injured left limbs, through the Mann-Whitney tests, when normality was not satisfied, and the *t* independent test, when satisfied. In addition, it was found that, when the left limb was injured, the mean values of the differences in the DF/PF ratio, between the left and right limb (the right limb showed better mobility) was bigger in all angular velocities. In contrast, when the right limb was injured, the mean values of the difference in the DF/PF ratio, between the left and right limbs was almost the same, that is, they have both the same mobility, with the differences' fluctuation being increased as angular velocity increased. In Table 2 we observe the aforementioned:

TABLE 2: MEAN VALUES DIFFERENCES AND THEIR STANDARD DEVIATION AT DF/PF RATIO IN RELATION TO ANGULAR SPEED AND LIMB

| M.V. & S.D. of the Differences in DF/PF Ratio in relation to Angular Velocity and Limb | | | | | | |
|--|---------|---------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|
| Lower Limb | Left | Right Injured | Left Injured | Right Injured | Left Injured | Right Injured |
| | Injured | 90°/sec | 120°/sec | 120°/sec | 180°/sec | 180°/sec |
| | 90°/sec | | | | | |
| M.V. | -23,71 | -0,4 | -23 | -4,4 | -20 | -6 |
| S.D. | 20,22 | 6,85 | 20,56 | 14,31 | 25,17 | 33,7 |

M.V.: Mean Values, S. D.: Standard Deviation

Table 3 shows the analysis of the results of the isokinetic assessment in terms of the ratio of dorsiflexion and plantar flexion for each limb (injured and non-injured) in relation to normative values.

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TABLE 3: ANALYSIS OF THE EVALUATION OF THE RESULTS OF THE RATIO OF DORSAL AND PLANTAR FLEXION IN RELATION TO NORMATIVE VALUES

Analysis of the Evaluation of the DF/PF Ratio in relation to the Normative Values for the Ankle

| Angular Velocities | In range (Frequency - %) | | Out of range (Frequency - %) | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|---------------|------------------------------|-------------|
| | Injured | Non - Injured | Injured | Non-Injured |
| 90°/sec | 4 (26,6%) | 5 (33,3%) | 11 (73,4%) | 10 (66,7%) |
| 120°/sec | 2 (13,3%) | 5 (33,3%) | 13 (86,7%) | 10 (66,7%) |
| 180°/sec | 2 (13,3%) | 3 (20%) | 13 (86,7%) | 12 (80%) |

Table 4 shows the overall results of the injured and non-injured limbs of the sample, with respect to values in the dorsal and plantar flexion ratios, which are in or out of the normative values range.

TABLE 4: OVERALL RESULTS OF THE DORSIFLEXION / PLANTAR FLEXION RATIO OF THE ANKLE JOINTS OF THE LOWER LIMBS', IN RELATION TO THE NORMATIVE VALUES

| Players | Dorsiflexion / Plantar Flexion Ratios | | | | | |
|---------|---------------------------------------|----------|----------|---------------------------|----------|----------|
| | Injured limbs Ratio | | | Non – Injured limbs Ratio | | |
| | 90°/sec | 120°/sec | 180°/sec | 90°/sec | 120°/sec | 180°/sec |
| 1 | - | - | - | - | + | + |
| 2 | - | + | + | - | - | - |
| 3 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 4 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 5 | - | - | - | - | - | - |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 | + | + | + | - | - | - |
| 7 | + | + | + | + | - | - |
| 8 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 9 | + | + | - | - | - | - |
| 10 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 11 | - | + | + | - | - | - |
| 12 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 13 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| 14 | + | - | - | + | + | - |
| 15 | - | - | - | + | + | - |

The (+) sign in the table indicates a ratio within normative values range

The (-) sign in the table indicates a ratio out of the normative values range

4.2. Balance assessment using the Star Balance Test

Analysis of the data with the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the injured and non-injured limbs ($p = 595$). In addition, Table 5 shows the overall results of the Star Balance Test in percentages, mean values (M.V.) and standard deviations (S.D.) in the left and right limb. Moreover, the same table shows the analysis of the results in relation to the acceptable limit.

TABLE 5: OVERALL RESULTS and THEIR ANALYSIS OF THE STAR BALANCE TEST

| Star Balance Test per Limb | | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------|-----------|------------|-----------------|------------|
| Lower Limbs | Values $\geq 95\%$ | | | Values $< 95\%$ | |
| | (%) M.V. – S.D. | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Left | 92,2% \pm 14,1% | 10 | 66,6% | 5 | 33,3% |
| Right | 91,4% \pm 14,3% | 8 | 53,3% | 7 | 46,6% |

M.V.: Mean Values, S. D.: Standard Deviation

Table 6 shows the analysis of the results of the Star Balance Test per limb, in relation to its condition (injured or non-injured limb) and the acceptable limit.

TABLE 6: ANALYSIS OF THE STAR BALANCE TEST IN RELATION TO LIMBS' CONDITION AND ACCEPTABLE LIMIT

| Limb condition & acceptable limit in Star Balance Test | | | | | |
|---|--------------------|--------------------|------------|-----------------|------------|
| | Results | Values $\geq 95\%$ | | Values $< 95\%$ | |
| Lower Limbs | M.V. – S.D. | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Left injured | 94,1% \pm 14% | 6 | 75% | 2 | 25% |
| Left non - injured | 90,14% \pm 14,9% | 4 | 57,1% | 3 | 42,8% |
| Right injured | 92,5% \pm 13,9% | 4 | 57,1% | 3 | 42,8% |
| Right non - injured | 90,14% \pm 15,8% | 4 | 50% | 4 | 50% |

M.V.: Mean Values, S. D.: Standard Deviation

In addition, the results showed that two (2) participants had different values between the two limbs (asymmetry). In detail, one limb was below the 95% limit and the other was above the 95% limit. Additionally, five (5) participants showed similar values between the two limbs (symmetry), but with values below the 95% limit (poor symmetry). Overall, we had 13.4% asymmetry.

Table 7 shows the overall results of the injured and non-injured limbs of the sample, in relation to the test values which are below or equal to / over, the normal limit, as well as the symmetry of the limbs.

TABLE 7: OVERALL RESULTS OF THE BALANCE ASSESSMENT OF THE LIMBS IN RELATION TO THE NORMAL LIMIT AND THEIR SYMMETRY STATUS

| Evaluation of the balance and the symmetry between limbs with the Star Balance Test | | | |
|--|---------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| Players | Injured Limb | Non – injured Limb | Symmetry of the limbs |
| 1 | + | + | + |
| 2 | + | - | - |
| 3 | + | + | + |
| 4 | + | - | - |
| 5 | + | + | + |
| 6 | - | - | + |
| 7 | + | + | + |
| 8 | + | + | + |
| 9 | + | + | + |
| 10 | - | - | + |
| 11 | + | + | + |
| 12 | + | + | + |
| 13 | - | - | + |
| 14 | - | - | + |
| 15 | - | - | + |

The (+) sign in the table indicates value equal to / over the limit and symmetry between the two limbs

The (-) in the table indicates value below the limit and asymmetry between the two limbs.

4.3. Correlation analysis of Star Balance Test & Isokinetic Assessment

From the correlation analysis between the SBT and the isokinetic assessment of the ankle, it was found that for the left injured limbs at 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec, the results from the non-parametric correlation analysis due to abnormal distribution of the two variables, with the Spearman correlation coefficient, showed that there was no strong relationship between the tests. At 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec we had $r_s = 0.06$ and $p = 0.88$, $r_s = 0.012$ and $p = 0.97$, and $r_s = 0.38$ and $p = 0.35$, respectively.

Concerning the relationship between SBT and isokinetic assessment of left non-injured limbs at 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec, results from non-parametric correlation analysis due to abnormal distribution of the two variables with the Spearman correlation coefficient showed that there was no strong relationship between tests. At 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec we had $r_s = 0.03$ and $p = 0.93$, $r_s = -0.10$ and $p = 0.81$, and $r_s = -0.12$ and $p = 0.78$, respectively.

Moreover, for the relationship between SBT and isokinetic evaluation of the right injured limbs at 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec, the results of non-parametric correlation analysis due to abnormal distribution of the two variables, with the Spearman correlation coefficient showed that there was a strong relationship between tests. At 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec, we had $r_s = 0.09$ and $p = 0.81$, $r_s = 0.2$ and $p = 0.62$, and $r_s = 0.00$ and $p = 1$ respectively.

Finally, for the relationship between SBT and isokinetic evaluation of the right non-injured limbs at 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec, results from the parametric analysis of the correlation due to normal distribution of the two variables with the Pearson correlation coefficient, showed that there was no strong relationship between tests. At 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec, we had $r = 0.42$ and $p = 0.34$, $r = 0.33$ and $p = 0.46$, and $r = 0.35$ and $p = 0.43$, respectively.

5. DISCUSSION

Concerning the ankle joint, as reported by Goldie et al. (1994), rehabilitation in this joint should aim to restore it to its normal level so as to eliminate the possibility of reinjury prior to engaging in activities requiring high speeds. The present study evaluated the ratio of flexor and extensor muscles to dorsal and plantar flexion of the ankle at both limbs. The assessment was made at three angular velocities, 90°/sec, 120°/sec and 180°/sec. The ratio of flexor and extensor muscles of the ankle joint was recorded and evaluated in order to investigate any asymmetries between them.

More specifically, from the results it appeared that at 90°/sec we had a total mean $46.93\% \pm 23.05\%$. At 120°/sec we had a mean $50\% \pm 25.2\%$ and at 180°/sec we had $54.3\% \pm 32.1\%$. The results of the present study are not consistent with those of Baumhauer et al. (1995), citing average ratio of flexors - extensors 36%, Mc Knight & Armstrong (1997), with an average 31.43%, and Park & Kang (1987) who cited 34%.

They have a small discrepancy in the maximum values with the results of Giove et al. (1991), who reported values from 30% to 44% and Scranton et al. (1985), with values of 30%-44%, suggesting this as an acceptable range for return to play. However, they are consistent with the results of Sepic, Murray, Mollinger, Spurr, and Gardner (1986), who report values of 50%. In addition, data analysis using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the injured and non-injured extremities.

Regarding the behavior of the right and left limbs from the results, a differentiation was observed between the two extremities. More specifically, at all angular velocities, at the right limbs, there were differences between the injured and non-injured right limbs. As reported by Baumhauer et al. (1995) who examined team sports (lacrosse, football, and hockey), the injured limbs in the ankle joint, show differences with the non-injured in the DF/PF ratio values. In the present study, this fact was observed only in the right limb. One possible explanation is that in our research, we assessed exclusively handball players who mostly stated the right hand as the preferred one (12 out of 15) and used the left limb for the most frequent technical - tactical element of handball, which is shooting (Çetin & Balcı, 2015; Hatzimanouil, 2017). This limb, as reported by Xaverova et al. (2015), although mostly used in jumps when throwing in handball, is not the mostly preferred limb in handball. Therefore, the participants in our study showed better rehabilitation of their injury in the limb mostly used in this sport, that is, the left, in comparison with the right limb, which is often not used in this type of movement (jumps when throwing in handball), although it is the preferred one.

Also, when the left foot was injured, the mean of the difference in the DF/PF ratio between the left and right limbs was bigger, with a clear image in favor of the right limb at all angular velocities. Briefly, the right limb had better mobility. This is probably due to the fact that the preferred limbs exhibit a higher degree of skillfulness in comparison to the non-preferred. Therefore, because the right limb was mainly reported as the preferred limb in this sample, and had greater skillfulness, it therefore had greater mobility. This is also concluded by Miyaguchi & Demura (2010), that, there is a tendency for the right limb to dominate in movements that require skillfulness, irrespective of whether the limb performing the mostly required movements is left or right. The fact that there are differences between the more and less skillful extremities is also mentioned in the research by Fort - Vanmeerhaeghe et al. (2015). An additional factor is the increasing fluctuation of the ratio per angular velocity when the right limb is injured. This indicates that in high speed movements, the difference in the DF/PF ratio between left and right limbs is not constant. This case therefore reveals and expresses an instability in the movements resulting from the fluctuations in the differences.

Regarding the percentage of limbs that were within normative values range, according to the results, it appeared that at 90°/sec we had 21 cases out of 30 (injured

and non-injured limbs) out of range. At 120°/sec we had 23 cases out of 30 (injured and non-injured limbs) out of range and at 180°/sec we had 22 cases out of 30 (injured and non-injured limbs) out of normative values range.

In relation to symmetry and whether the players under evaluation were able to return safely to the same activity, according to Table 4, no player fully met the criteria of the isokinetic assessment of the ankle joint, for a safe return.

In the balance assessment using the Star Balance Test, each limb was measured separately. A result was considered positive when the measurement result was greater than or equal to 95% of the length of the measured limb. According to Plisky et al. (2006), this test can be incorporated into measurements before playing season starts, to predict the probability of injury to the lower limbs. Still, these authors suggest that it can be used in any set of tests for return to sport after injury. The same researchers also report that, in order to make the study of this assessment more effective, then, the relationship of this assessment should be evaluated in relation to the specific lower limb injuries. According to the results of the present study, we have found that at 12 limbs, five left and seven right we had negative results in terms of dynamic balance.

In addition, observing both limbs we found that, the uninjured ones had more results out of the normative values range (7 limbs) than the injured ones (5 limbs). This is probably due to the fact that during their recovery, most of the players paid more attention to the injured limb and less attention to the non-injured. In addition, we observed that SBT performed well in terms of limbs' percentage with values above the normal limit of 95% and also in terms of the symmetry factor. In total, in only two cases was observed asymmetry, which leads us to conclude that concerning the SBT test, most players met the criteria for a safe return to the same activity. One possible explanation is that dynamic balance, and especially its training, is a constant parameter in lower extremity rehabilitation programs.

Analysis of the data with the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the injured and non-injured limbs. With regard to the correlation analysis performed, in order to examine any relationships between the various measurements, no high correlation was observed in all comparisons. Therefore, there was no high linear relationship between measurements.

6. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, we would say that from the isokinetic assessment of the ankle joint at all three angular velocities used, in terms of symmetry and whether the players under evaluation were able to return safely to the same playing activity, none of them fully met the criteria for a safe return to play. On the contrary, at the SBT test most players performed well on both limbs with values above the normal 95% limit as well as on the symmetry factor. Probably these players made extensive use of the dynamic

balance in their recovery programs. Consequently, all the players of our sample, met the criteria of the aforementioned assessment, for a safe return to sport.

Overall, we would say that the players under evaluation, were not fully ready for their safe return to sport, due to a lack of muscle strength, although they exhibited good dynamic balance.

The present research study, aimed to contribute to the issue of the assessment of asymmetry and in addition to the readiness of handball players upon their return to the same competitive activity. Nevertheless, there are some future proposals for further investigation of this issue, namely, to carry out the specific study in a larger sample and for a longer period of time, beyond one season in order to study any re-injuries. Also, to increase the number of tests with additional measurements (Creighton et al., 2010; Greenberger & Patterno, 1995; Skandalis, 2020).

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SELF-EMPLOYMENT OF MUSLIM IMMIGRANTS IN ATHENS: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the level of integration of the immigrant entrepreneurs in Greece. Drawing on data from the Athens 2014 sample survey, using logistic regression analysis it shows that immigrant entrepreneurship behaviour not only is affected by different individual characteristics but also by other factors and mainly by credit constraints and discrimination in accessing a decent job. The results underline negative motives related to the migrants' disadvantaged position and restricted opportunities in the Greek labour market: Entrepreneurship can be a strategy to shift away low-wage job, restrained mainly by credit possibilities and discrimination in accessing the primary labour market.

Keywords: *Immigrant Entrepreneurship, Self-Employment, Logistic Regression.*

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, a growing number of researchers have highlighted the issue of immigrant entrepreneurship in traditionally and newly or infrequently immigrant-receiving countries in Europe (Barberis and Solano, 2018). The phenomenon's crucial importance is mainly determined by the rising number of immigrants and to extensive changes in the labour market¹ and the wider economy (OECD, 2010; OECD, 2020). The growing interest in the phenomenon is also linked to a policy-making trend considering self-employment as a way to integrate new immigrants into the labour market and create new jobs (European Commission, 2016; Ludovicki, 2010; Baycan-Levent and Nijkamp, 2009). Immigrant entrepreneurship is self-employment or the ownership of businesses by immigrants or persons originating from foreign countries (Chaudhary, 2015; European Commission, 2008).

In certain cases, the point at issue is about family enterprises, relying heavily on markets and products serving mainly other co-nationals (Kloosterman and Rath, 2018). Nevertheless, the reality for many immigrant entrepreneurs in many European countries, including Greece, is that they enter mainly in sectors with low entry barriers, low productivity, strong competition and, in turn, a high rate of failure facing high risk of in-work poverty and unemployment (Ludovicki, 2010; Balourdos, 2015; Balourdos, 2014; Balourdos and Petraki, 2012). Namely, many of the business started

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by immigrants from a non -EU country (third country nationals)² are prone to nonsuccess and are short lived (Desiderio, 2014).

One of the crucial explanations of this phenomenon is that in a highly fragmented labour market, experience in employment is primarily achieved by enterprise creation.³ This rationale is also supported by worsening financial conditions in many countries, including Greece and the sharp restrictions of immigrants' employment opportunities, as the sectors in which they found employment were mostly affected (Tilly, 2011; OECD/EU, 2018). In this framework and especially for Greece, many low skilled immigrant workers are forced to self-employment with the expectation to bypass some of the barriers they may come across, in looking for a dependent job (Balourdos and Petraki, 2020; Balourdos and Tsiganou, 2015; Balourdos and Tsiganou, 2013; Balourdos, 2015; Balourdos, 2010; Balourdos, 2009).

This paper tests a variety of factors influencing business ownership among Muslim immigrants in Athens area. It contributes to the limited literature on this area by developing a simple model and logistic regression to find out how variations in selected personal characteristics and market circumstances act together to produce a multifaceted and dynamic ecological system that significantly affects immigrant entrepreneurial opportunities.

The paper proceeds with a brief review on the finding of previous research in Greece and by a section where we concisely summarize the major theoretical perspectives and/or with models explaining immigrant entrepreneurship. After this we shortly describe the data collection method and then we proceed with the results of the analysis and highlighting key findings on the basis of descriptive statistics and results from the logistic regression. Finally, the last section concludes with discussion-lessons learned and the summary of this study.

2. BRIEF REFERENCE TO RELEVANT STUDIES IN GREECE

Though immigrant entrepreneurship has been widely researched in certain European countries, this cannot be said for South European countries which were recently transformed to immigrant destination poles. In Greece for instance, immigrant entrepreneurship is described as a relatively recent emerging area of academic research and still marginal - though rapidly developing – incident (Hatziprokopiou, 2008).

In an early study Lazaridis and Koumandraki (2003) argued that in Greece immigrants choose self-employment as a mean of avoiding discrimination against them. Lianos and Psiridou (2006) examined the causal factors of immigrant entrepreneurship using a sample of 470 cases. They found that the variables “past experience of business activity”, “gender” and “income level” were statistically significant. Other variables such as “education” and “duration of stay in Greece” did not seem to have a significant effect to immigrant entrepreneurship.

Piperopoulos and Ikonou (2007) in Thessaloniki investigated push factors to entrepreneurship, emphasising the significance of family and community networks in providing market opportunities, business information and labour. Halkias et al. (2009) studied the entrepreneurial strategies of Albanians in Attiki with an emphasis on institutional limitations. They identified a vicious circle of conflict between immigration and business regulations.

Labrianidis and Hatziprokiou (2010) investigating on immigrant entrepreneurship in Thessaloniki, portrait four different types of entrepreneurs: “Disadvantaged” survival entrepreneurs,⁴ “Integrating” value entrepreneurs,⁵ “Ethnic” entrepreneurs⁶ and “Migrating” entrepreneurs.⁷ They also stated that the overall deficiencies of the Greek public sector and the rigidity of the entrepreneurial framework impose additional hindrances to immigrants’ business attempts, common among indigenous Greeks, which may be difficult to tackle. Particularly, the absence of a coherent and realistic migratory policy allowing for long-term residence, ongoing institutional discrimination and the fragmentation of legal provisions along “ethnic” lines, constitute insuperable barriers to migrants’ entrepreneurial activity.

Finally, Bela, Papadopoulos and Karasavoglou (2014) using simple descriptive statistics, we examined the relation among demographic data and motives of immigrant’s entrepreneurs with the perceived situation of their enterprise. The sample consisted of 62 immigrants from the prefectures of Kavala and Drama. The results showed that the successful entrepreneur activities from immigrants is positively correlated to their economic status in the origin countries, the number of family members-employees, the need of autonomy and the liking toward entrepreneurship. Difficulties in the pronunciation of the Greek language seem to be negatively correlated with the perceived situation of their enterprise.

The empirical studies on immigrant self-employment suffer from definitional and methodological ambiguities. Studies in Greece, mainly rely on surveys where the immigrant self-employment status is self- assessed and thus, not based on a more objective or official and wider accepted definition. Besides, the data collection procedures differ substantially.

3. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF IMMIGRANT ENTREPRENEURS

During the last decades, due to globalization processes associated by a diversification of immigration flows, from the point of view of motive, economic and legal status, education, gender, and geographic origin (i.e., increasing possibilities of communication and travelling), political conflicts etc. immigration patterns have significantly changed, influencing among others, entrepreneurial activities undertaken, while creating new challenges to researchers, policy makers and social activists, especially in European countries. Under these surroundings, the topic of research in

entrepreneurship that has drawn a substantial attention in recent years is identifying two different motivations for start-up business: “opportunity” and “necessity” entrepreneurship (Dheer, 2018; Fairlie and Fossen, 2018; Neymotin, forthcoming).⁸ The first category, by choice, start a business in the pursuit of higher income expectations and profit, more flexible work schedule, personal aspirations and human capital availability or when they see a business opportunity (Fairlie and Fossen, 2019).

Necessity-based entrepreneurs, start a business as a way to compensate for a lack of other options of employment. Their decision may also depend on insufficient language skills, unemployment, professional downgrading or unrecognized qualifications, unfavorable working conditions, long working hours, unpaid overtime labour, economic recession, poverty or in work poverty etc. (Jamaludin, et. al., 2020; Chrysostome and Arcand, 2009).

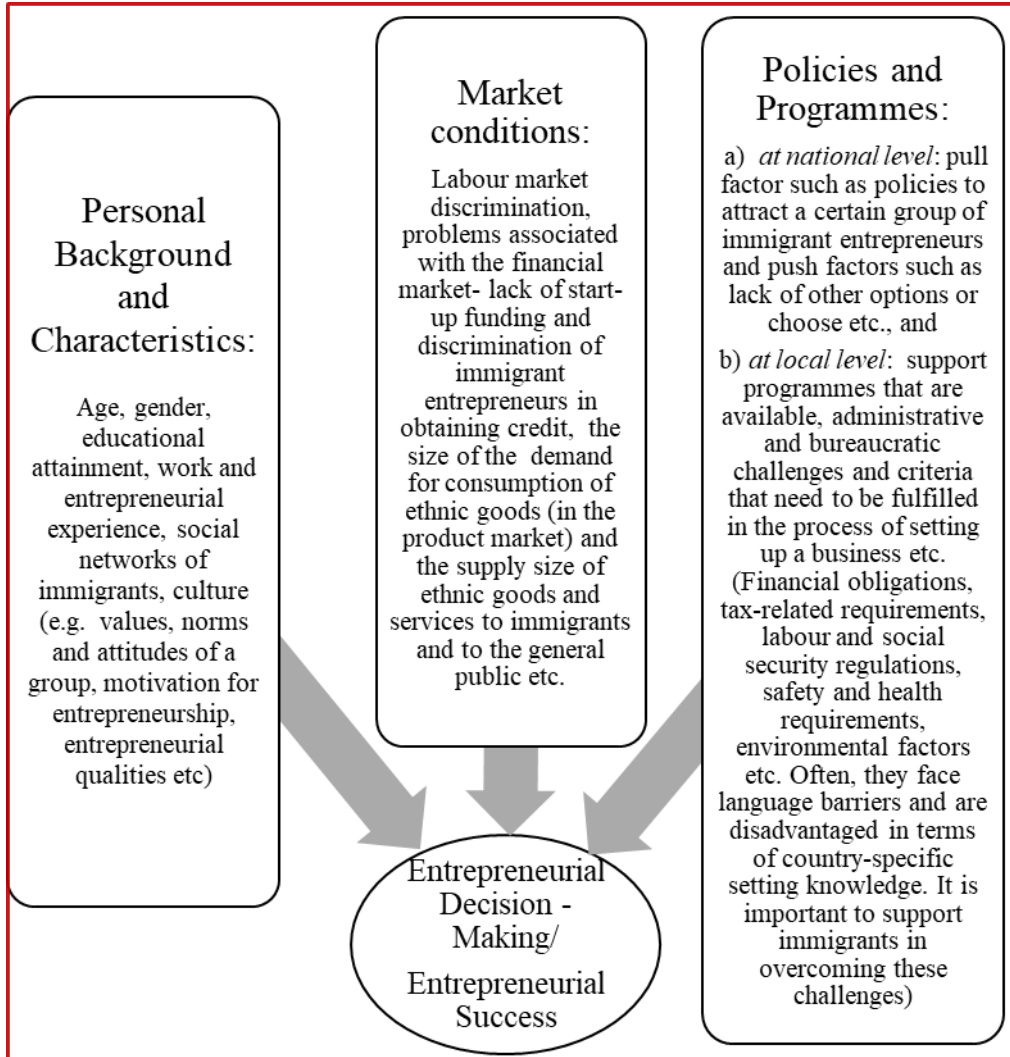
In certain circumstances, the entrepreneurs themselves usually lack any officially recognized educational qualifications which funnels them to particular economic activities, with low entry barrier. Often, they rely on informal support networks (e.g., family, relatives, friends) for start-up capital or labour and typically cater to low-end or secondary markets and, hence, mainly compete on price. These kind of immigrant entrepreneurs thus offer cheap goods and services while also creating jobs in formally deprived urban areas where joblessness and/or in-work poverty are frequently widespread (Kloosterman and Rath 2018, p.104).

Marchand and Siegel (2014, p. 7), state that the wide variety of factors that play a role in entrepreneurial decision making can roughly be divided into three distinct categories: Market conditions, Personal Background and Characteristics, Policies and Programmes (Figure 1).⁹

Even so, Ohlsson et. al. (2012) point out, that only a very limited number of studies attempt to examine the last mentioned approaches through quantitative means. Subsequently, Collins (2002) refers to an experimental phase and the elaboration of these more complicated approaches in a few descriptive pilot or case studies. Cooney, et.al. (2011, p. 4) further state that: “*The notion of Islam and entrepreneurship remains relatively under-researched in the world of academic entrepreneurship literature, although a number of recent studies have begun to address the particular challenges faced by Muslim entrepreneurs*”.

This is also the case in Greece where scientific research is only beginning to grapple with the social, economic and political effects of immigration. In particular, not only relevant data is restricted but there is a limitation of comprehensive studies on enterprise activity among the foreign population of the country while the study of Muslim immigrants is still in its infancy.

**FIGURE 1: FACTORS INFLUENCING ENTREPRENEURIAL
DECISION-MAKING AND SUCCESS**



Source: Adopted from Marchand and Siegel, 2014, p. 7.

4. DATA, LIMITATIONS AND SOME DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The data is derived from a field work,¹⁰ conducted by the Greek National Centre for Social Research in the broader Athens area¹¹ from November 2013 to January

2014, by means of face-to-face interviews. A detailed pre-structured questionnaire was used; pilot tests were also employed, while detailed interviewers' training also took place. The sample consisted by 154 Muslim immigrants (32 entrepreneurs/self-employed)¹² no older than 61 years of age. Despite significant efforts, women represent only a marginal percentage in the sample (3.2%). Probably, women's participation in business is strongly influenced by religion and family issues. Muslims are traditionally more conservative than other religious groups, in their attitude towards women working outside the home and resulting in the lower contribution of Muslim women to the family budget (see for example, Basu and Altinay 2002; Brieger and Gielnik, 2020).¹³

Table 1 shows that, self- employed immigrants from Egypt or other countries (India, Jordan, Albania, and Palestine) have the highest mean age (more than 45 years), followed by immigrants from Bangladesh and those from Pakistan (more than 40 years).

Most entrepreneurs in the sample have lived in Greece for more than 10 years while those from Egypt and Pakistan have the highest mean duration of stay in Greece (more than 21 years). As regards to the mean years spend in education, self-employed from Egypt and Bangladesh appear to have the highest value (near 14 years), followed by individuals from Afghanistan and Pakistan, whereas the differences among the two categories are less pronounced.

As far as business activity is concerned, almost one third of the Muslim immigrants that are currently employed stated they have their own business or their own job (32 persons), while 49 (32%) are either looking for a job or are inactive. The rest are wage or salary workers.

Turning to self-employment by year of establishment, almost 60% of the businesses have been established within the last 5 years, while more than 72% have been established during the last 10 years. For the vast majority of the sampled entrepreneurs, this was their first business, and only a few cases stated that their business is in collaboration with others. Given the crisis of the country, this could be a rough indication of necessity' entrepreneurs, driven by push factors into entrepreneurship because other options for work are absent.

A structural constraint is the access to the kind of financing necessary to start a business. The following are the major sources of the start-up capital used as reported by Muslim immigrant entrepreneurs.

- An overwhelming majority (75%) reported making use of personal savings.
- A significant percentage (37%) stated that family members and relatives assisted, while bank loans scored the lowest (9%).

Examining the data in more detail we notice that immigrant entrepreneurs own a wide range of stores in specific sectors such as wholesale shops, restaurants, mini market, tourist office, video clubs, mobile telephones etc. More precise Muslim owned businesses in greater Athens area operate across a broad range of typically small sized

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industries (Figure 2). Namely, the ICT sector account for 31% and the wholesale/retail sector for 24% (mostly owned by Afghanistansians). The 6% of Muslim owned businesses operate in the restaurant / food sector which is not in line with immigrant business ownership trends in other countries.¹⁴ Tourist / travel/shipping office accounts for a significant part of Muslim businesses (9%) with the owners of mini market or super market manufacturing also accounting for 9%. The 'other' category (15%) comprises respondents that made their businesses in the service sector (e.g., hairdressing, laundry etc.) and even the ownership of pet shop. Probably the criteria they use are based on low cost with activities that are addressed mainly in their community, therefore not requiring special skills.

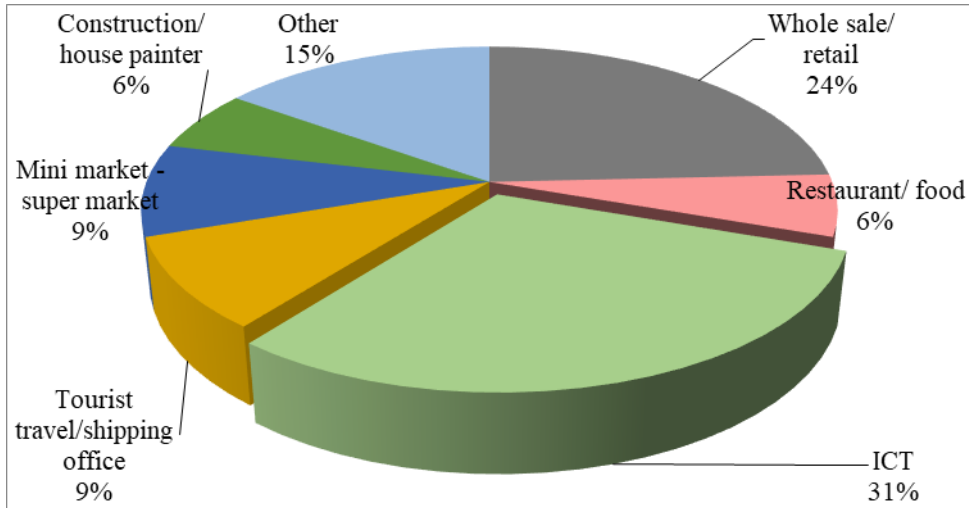
In the context of the recent economic crisis and the high levels of unemployment in greater Athens area, it is important to understand if Muslim immigrant entrepreneurship is a potential response, or the only option of economic inclusion, to an otherwise deteriorating secondary labour market. Analyzing the answers given as the first reason to the open question: "Name two reasons why you have chosen to be self-employed –entrepreneur", we find a significant percentage of self-employed Muslim immigrants, supporting the so-called survivalist approach. The great majority self-declared that they choose self-employment because they value independence or autonomy, being one's own boss (47.5%), while other's (32.5%) labour market choices are rather necessity driven, i.e., resulting from lack of other opportunities, discrimination etc. The employment security motivation (10%) can be similar to necessity-motivated entrepreneurship. Only a low percentage (10%) answered that the main reason for self-employment is 'to earn money'.

**TABLE 1: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF IMMIGRANT POPULATION,¹⁵
BY NATIONALITY**

| Nationality | Percentage | | Mean age | | Mean duration of stay in Greece | | Mean years of education | |
|-------------|---------------|-------------------|---------------|-------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| | Self-employed | Not self-employed | Self-employed | Not self-employed | Self-employed | Not self-employed | Self-employed | Not self-employed |
| Egypt | 31.3 | 68.8 | 45.40 | 41.20 | 22.60 | 21.00 | 13.75 | 14.60 |
| Afghanistan | 15.8 | 84.2 | 33.17 | 28.66 | 11.83 | 8.16 | 12.67 | 9.32 |
| Bangladesh | 21.1 | 78.9 | 41.75 | 32.93 | 15.50 | 10.53 | 13.75 | 10.71 |
| Pakistan | 24.4 | 75.6 | 40.00 | 32.00 | 21.40 | 7.43 | 12.33 | 10.60 |
| Other | 17.5 | 82.5 | 45.14 | 31.79 | 22.86 | 13.75 | 14.14 | 13.03 |
| Total | 20.8 | 79.2 | 40.90 | 31.93 | 19.38 | 10.97 | 13.20 | 11.27 |

Source: Athens sample survey – 2014

**FIGURE 2: INDUSTRY PROFILE (SECTORS OF ACTIVITY)
OF MUSLIM OWNED BUSINESSES**



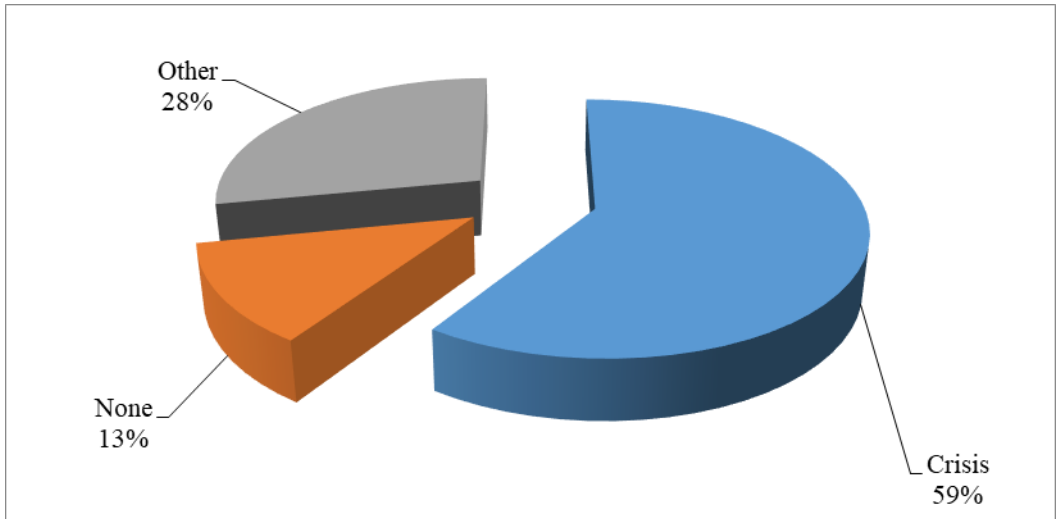
Source: Athens sample survey - 2014

Finally, we also examine the question: “*how do immigrant entrepreneurs perceive changes in the opportunity structure and how do they cope with difficulties?*”

Namely, the perceived changes (or difficulties) in the opportunity structure were partially examined by stating to the respondents the following question: ‘*Looking back, to what extent did you run into an obstacle or difficulty during the creation of the enterprise?*’¹⁶ Also, a supplementary open question was deliberately used, because we wanted to give the entrepreneurs enough space to think about the formulation of their problems: ‘*what were the main two problems which you experienced during the operation of the business?*’ Analysing the results, we find that 37.5% of the respondents stated that they experienced ‘quite a bit’ or ‘very much’ difficulties during the establishment of the business, while one out of four stated ‘not at all’.

As a final point, we underline that most of the problems that had been experienced by respondents were related to the economic crisis (61.3%).¹⁷ Namely, the economic crisis is perceived by the great majority of the respondents as a negative phenomenon as only a low percent (12.9%) said that they had not experienced any problems (Figure 3).

FIGURE 3: MAIN PROBLEMS OF RESPONDENTS



Source: Athens sample survey – 2014

The factors related to the decision to become an entrepreneur-self-employed are analysed further using logistic regression analysis.

5. MODELING MUSLIM IMMIGRANT SELF-EMPLOYMENT: LOGISTIC REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Piget (2010) referring to three broad hypotheses (specificity,¹⁸ convergence,¹⁹ disadvantage²⁰) explains that these are not mutually excluded. More precisely he states that (Piget 2010, p. 158): ‘While the earliest international studies on self-employment often picked one over the others, a consensus subsequently emerged that saw these different mechanisms as acting together and to varying degrees on self-employment. This gave rise initially to “interactive” approaches looking simultaneously at the factors of individual predisposition, the possibilities of mobilising community resources, the state of the market and opportunities for entrepreneurship (Waldinger et al., 1990), and subsequently to the concept of “mixed embeddedness” (Kloosterman and Rath, 2001) or “double embeddedness” (Jones and Ram, 2007), stressing the joint importance of the social context of entrepreneurship on one hand and the structural context on the other (Prodromos, 2006)’.

Following Piget (2010) we use a similar approach by linking the available variables in the sample survey with the three above mentioned hypotheses. For example, concerning the *disadvantage* hypothesis one might assume, that labour market drawbacks such as low education, low qualifications or inadequate command

of the Greek language should correspond to a higher propensity for self-employment. Several cultural variables (e.g., nationality) could be positively correlated with self-employment but the reason would be found in discrimination on the labour market rather than the advantages of self-employment.²¹ Choosing self-employment under this hypothesis constitutes a ‘reserve’ or emergency solution. Other referred variables which could support the *convergence* hypothesis e.g., the longer length of stay in the host country, may also be negatively correlated with self-employment in the case of the newcomers (who have been in Greece for a short time).

Our goal is then not to determine which hypothesis applies to Greece. In line with the theoretical (or more empirical) hypotheses described above, the aim is to estimate the influence of several factors/ variables on the likelihood for Muslim immigrant entrepreneurship/ self-employment.

In this perspective, an explanatory model was specified and tested using binary logistic regression analysis. The dependent dichotomous variable is coded 1 for self – employed²² and 0 for wage and salaried, unemployed or inactive.²³

The specific independent factors/variables investigated herein are drawn from the model suggested by Piguet (2010) and other empirical specifications (e.g., Ohlsson et. al. 2012; Ram et al. 2008; Marchand and Siegel, 2014; Brzozowski and Lasek, 2019; Lechmann and Wunder, 2017) that match with the theoretical framework discussed previously.

Initially, we test the significance of individual and household characteristics: age, gender, marital status, household composition (the number of children in the household or the number of persons living in the house).

Lack of human capital (personal resources) is often seen as a push factor into entrepreneurship and fits into the ‘disadvantage theory’. In this perspective the years of schooling, past job experience and several other variables such as individual experience in educational programmes provided outside the school²⁴ and self-perceived health status (subjective evaluation),²⁵ were tested.

Concerning the integration or exclusion (the opposite) factor, Commins (1993)²⁶ presents four dimensions, i.e., exclusion from: the labour market; participation in civil society (certain categories of the population – such as women, ethnic and religious minorities, or migrants – are deprived of part or all of their political and human rights); the services of the welfare state and informal networks (family, relatives, friends and community). In this perspective we use the following explanatory variables:

I. Ability to read or write Greek (subjective evaluation) and length of stay in Greece. Volery (2007) argues that the lack of linguistic competence can lead immigrants to self-employment, while Nilsson and Ellström (2012) point out that the lack of language competence may negatively affect the course of business of the immigrant.

II. A proposed set of immigrant variables denoting political participation or rights awareness, include the following: right to vote in communal election, participation in communal election,²⁷ participating in demonstrations and participation in religious activities.²⁸

III. A material deprivation indicator, defined as circumstances denying immigrants' access to at least three out of the following nine material goods: i) have a car, ii) have a washing machine, iii) have a TV, iv) have a personal computer, v) have a telephone line connection, vi) have a cooker machine, vii) have electricity connection, viii) have heating and iv) have bedroom (other than sitting room).

IV. A variable of the perceived self-reported amount to cover the basic needs of households (PBASIC), given by the interviewees' response to the question: "what is the necessary level of income to cover your household's basic needs?" This variable, which was continuous, was re-coded into two classes: 1= up to €750, and 0= €750 or more. In an ad-hoc basis 1 is the dummy variable set up to represent the "low" level of self-reported amount, 0 is the dummy variable representing the "medium" or 'high' level reported amount.

Housing tenure: 1= owns,²⁹ 0= rents.³⁰ Mestres (2010, p. 44), applying a similar methodology uses housing tenure as proxy for a wealth measure (an indicator variable of property ownership of the residence the individual lives in).

Context-related factors may include individuals' culture-related variables and environmental variables of the host society (Irastorza, 2010). Culture-related variables are described by the place of origin or the nationality of immigrants as follows: Pakistan (a value of '1' for immigrant from Pakistan and '0' for other immigrants).³¹ Subsequently environment variables are determined on the basis of the geographic scope/location of small business establishments in greater Athens.³²

A set of specific variables as further determinants of entrepreneurship showing market conditions, were proposed and tested including the possible discrimination of immigrants visiting tax-office, police, public service and banks-the existence of credit constraints (financial exclusion) to start a business.³³ Also, knowledge about discrimination law, knowledge about organization support for discrimination victims³⁴ and self-perceived work –based discrimination, were examined on the basis of the two following questions; i) Have you personally not been employed because you are an immigrant? Yes =1; No, does not concern me, don't know = 0. ii) Have you personally not been employed because you look like an immigrant? Yes = 1; No, does not concern me, don't know = 0. Also, several variables related to self-employment were tested such as job satisfaction³⁵ and possible participation of family members at the immigrant enterprise.

Finally, policies and programmes significance were assessed approximately on the basis of specific questions concerning the financial source for starting up or funding businesses (e.g., a start-up subsidy/grant, loan from a bank etc.), training seminars aiming at improving the immigrant skills and educational qualifications.³⁶

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The results from a logistic model of the likelihood of being self-employed are shown in tables 2 to 3.³⁷ Column (2) shows the parameter estimates (B); columns (3) to (5) report the standard errors, the Wald statistic³⁸ and the significant level of the estimates; The odds ratio Exp (B) is presented at the last column. We use several combinations of the specified covariates, in order to identify the best model. By doing this, we directly observe the significant factors affecting the Muslim immigrant likelihood of being self-employed.³⁹ In table 2, we notice first the positive and high significance of the “PBASIC(1)” variable: Exp(B) is equal to 6.489, and it is statistically significant ($p = 0.020$), Therefore, Muslim immigrants who have declared low monthly income to cover basic needs of the household are 6.489 times more likely than those in the reference category (medium and high level self-declared income) to be entrepreneurs/ self-employed and do not fall in the other category of the original variable: salaried employed, unemployed or inactive(all else being equal).

According to the same table, the level of job satisfaction positively influences the likelihood of being self-employed ($p = 0.001$); those who self-declared that they are satisfied with their jobs are 5.578 times more likely to be self-employed as salaried employed, unemployed or inactive.

The effect of the variable ‘right to vote to communal election’ is negative: Exp(B) is equal to 0.264, and it is statistically significant ($p = 0.024$); therefore, Muslim immigrants who had the right to participate at the last communal elections are 0.264 times less likely than immigrants who did not have this option to be self-employed. This negative finding is possibly resulting from the fact that only 27% of those who had the right to vote actually did so.

The age variable also has a positive and significant effect on the likelihood of being self-employed: a one-year increase in age changes the odds of self-employed Muslim immigrants by a factor equal to 1.074.

TABLE 2: LOGISTIC REGRESSION MEMBERSHIP OF SELF-EMPLOYED MUSLIM IMMIGRANTS: MODEL 1

| Self-Employed | B | S.E. | Wald | Sig | Exp(B) |
|--|----------|-------------|-------------|------------|---------------|
| PBASIC(1) | 1.870 | 0.805 | 5.394 | 0.020 | 6.489 |
| Job satisfaction: JOBSAT (1) | 1.719 | 0.541 | 10.111 | 0.001 | 5.578 |
| Right to vote to communal election (1) | -1.333 | 0.593 | 5.059 | 0.024 | 0.264 |
| Age | 0.072 | 0.027 | 6.893 | 0.009 | 1.074 |
| Constant | -5.287 | 1.490 | 12.587 | 0.000 | 0.005 |
| -2LL =103.098 Cox & Snell R Square =0.283 Nagelkerke R Square =0.445 | | | | | |

Source: Athens sample survey -2014. Authors estimations using SPSS

In Table 2, we also see that the -2 Log Likelihood statistic⁴⁰ is 103.098. This statistic measures how poorly the model predicts the probability of being employed.⁴¹ The Cox & Snell statistic has the value 0.283 while the Nagelkerke pseudo-R square statistic equals 0.445.⁴²

In Table 3 the ‘Right to vote to communal election’ is omitted, as it became not significant when the continuous variable ‘duration of stay in Greece’ were inserted in the model, instead of the age. We find that a one-year increase in duration of stay in Greece changes the odds of self-employed Muslim immigrants by a factor equal to 1.088.⁴³

It seems that only a few variables are related to Muslim immigrant entrepreneurship status: Job satisfaction, perceived self-reported income to cover the basic needs of the household, duration of stay in the country and age. These variables have been tested in various combinations in order for the model to be significant and have a good predictability. Self-employment may appear as an appropriate option for any immigrants based heavily on the higher level of job satisfaction. Cultural variables (e.g., nationality) and variables indicating personal resources (e.g., education) for their part, play a secondary role in the analysis.

TABLE 3: LOGISTIC REGRESSION MEMBERSHIP OF SELF-EMPLOYED MUSLIM IMMIGRANTS: MODEL 2

| Self-Employed | B | S.E. | Wald | Sig | Exp(B) |
|---|----------|-------------|-------------|------------|---------------|
| PBASIC(1) | 1.990 | 0.785 | 6.429 | 0.011 | 7.316 |
| JOBSAT(1) | 1.331 | 0.489 | 7.424 | 0.006 | 3.787 |
| Duration of stay in Greece (DSTAY) | 0.085 | 0.025 | 11.673 | 0.001 | 1.088 |
| Constant | -4.788 | .879 | 29.674 | 0.000 | 0.008 |
| -2LL = 114.502 Cox & Snell R Square =0.240 Nagelkerke R Square =0.373 | | | | | |

Source: Athens sample survey -2014. Authors estimations using SPSS

The logistic regression results provide a formal affirmation of the different variables considered for explaining self-employment. It emerges from the ‘mix’ of social, economic and institutional processes rather than any ‘innate cultural propensity for entrepreneurship’. These findings tend to support the ‘disadvantage hypothesis’. Muslims become entrepreneurs by necessity and not by vocation, trying to avoid the risk of unemployment and escape from unskilled and uneducated (or their foreign certificates of skills and education are not recognized) paid employment /work positions that is of lower social status and has a higher risk of injury. As we have described previously entrepreneurs by necessity mostly start a small business with low

entry barriers (such as restaurant, food shop, house paint and repair, ICT, personal services, tourism and travel etc).

Generally, Muslim immigrant workers are found to experience significant disadvantage in their labour market outcomes. A lower labour participation in the primary labour market, consistently higher unemployment rates for both sexes and a high concentration in disadvantaged employment sectors and low-pay jobs are also found in previous studies in Greece (Hatziprokopiou and Frangopoulos 2013; European Commission, 2011; Labrianidis, Hatziprokopiou 2010; Noussia and Lyons 2009).

6. CONCLUSIONS

This paper has sought to describe the characteristics of self-employment amongst Muslim immigrants in Athens. It also examined the significance of various (cultural or structural) factors in determining self-employment given the socio-political setting of the country.

Actually, entrepreneurship and self-employment could be a successful strategy to overcome obstacles to enter the labour market, which is supposed to be structured on the basis of an *insider/outsider or dual* dichotomy. Both less and more qualified migrants with lesser or higher professional skills are highly motivated to start a business. However, difficulties and vulnerabilities including no recognition of academic or other diplomas and qualifications and low training opportunities, as well as the lack of financial and social capital invariably relegates them to the bottom of the occupational ladder. Nearly all become entrepreneurs using personal resources and decisions. Most face impediments to be find a job and entrepreneurship is the sole opportunity or the only ‘survival’ solution.

Using our data, we find that the decision to entrepreneurship depends on multiple factors and is not supported by one single hypothesis. Namely, entrepreneurship may heavily depend on the opportunities presented by the host country with respect to labour market structures and regulation and could be a necessity –the only possible solution to enter the labour market. Though immigrants are prohibited by discrimination issues and possible credit constraints to start a business, they choose self-employment expecting also to achieve higher levels of job-satisfaction- a significant factor identified by the logistic regression.

In greater Athens, Muslim immigrants’ business usually comprise of small stores (retailing, wholesaling and restaurants/catering) confined to the secondary informal segment of markets where the network of immigrants provides an opportunity of doing business (even in an informal way) and exchanging information with peers. Normally, enterprises start with a focus on clients from their own cultural group, with traditional products, services and communication channels. Length of stay and ability to read or write Greek and job satisfaction seem to be significant and important in the

decision to commence a business (pull options). Other significant variables were age and duration of stay in the country. The subjective evaluation of the level of monthly income to cover the basic needs of the household to be self-employed also significantly effects the immigrant's employment.

Variables such as marital status, the number of children or the number of persons living in the household, country of origin and homeownership, do not seem to affect significantly the migrant propensity for self-employment.

In conclusion, our analysis confirms the hypothesis that entrepreneurship / self-employment could be an indirect way for Muslim immigrants to avoid increasing difficulties in entering the labour market (e.g., unemployment). They decide to enter into entrepreneurial activities due more to experiences of blocked mobility and strong labour market segmentation.

NOTES

¹ Besides the shift away from employment in large firms to self-employment in small ones, the process of labour market destandardization associated with high unemployment and atypical, secondary or precarious employment positions and in work poverty is of high importance especially in countries like Greece that hit hardest by the recent crisis (Volery, 2007; Balourdos and Petraki 2019; Balourdos and Petraki 2020. Balourdos 2011).

² Defines as any person who is not a citizen of the European Union within the meaning of Art. 20(1) of TFEU and who is not a person enjoying the European Union right to free movement, as defined in Art. 2(5) of the Regulation (EU) 2016/399 (Schengen Borders Code). https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/what-we-do/networks/european_migration_network/glossarysearch/third-country-national_en.

³ Although this does not mean that all immigrant entrepreneurship is solely driven by necessity.

⁴ Entrepreneurship emerges as a survival strategy, a consequence of discriminatory or exploitative conditions in a labour market that blocks alternative opportunities.

⁵ Usually operating in sectors in which they previously worked in dependent employment or in small businesses in the retail or catering sectors, in activities targeting the wider public. While their position might reflect disadvantage in the labour market, the shift to entrepreneurship is typically made after years in Greece and in conjunction with long-term settlement plans.

⁶ Businesses are centred on the co-ethnic community providing products and services from the country of origin.

⁷ Comprises almost exclusively Chinese entrepreneurs, mostly in the clothing trade, who migrate with clear entrepreneurial plans.

⁸ Notably, "pull" and "push" or "disadvantaged" entrepreneurship have also been used in the earlier literature to express more or less similar concepts.

⁹ In the empirical analysis, we also apply more or less a similar framework, for Greece in combination with Piget's approach (2010) described below.

¹⁰ The field work was implemented in the framework of the research project titled "Combating Discrimination in the Field of Entrepreneurship: Women and Young Roma and Muslim Immigrants", which was conducted at National Centre for Social Research (2012-2014) under

the funding requirements of the PROGRESS ACTION GRANTS (JUST/2021/PROG/AG/AD).

¹¹Athens was chosen ad-hoc on the basis of financial restrictions.

¹²Including not only business owners but also self-employed and co-entrepreneurs.

¹³The paper has some limitations that might have affected its output. No reliable sampling frame was available. It was also difficult to convince a number of immigrant entrepreneurs to give an interview. Therefore, the sampling strategy began with establishing contacts randomly in specific localities in the broader Athens area, with key informers/ mediators. These limitations increased the time and the cost of the fieldwork and provide insights for future research (for a full description see Balourdos and Tsiganou, 2015)

¹⁴More than one fourth of the sampled population are nationals of Pakistan (26.6%), followed by those from Afghanistan (24.7%). The respondents from Bangladesh comprised 12.3% of the total, while those from Egypt 10.4%. Nearly 19.5% were from other African countries and 6.5% originate from 'other' Asian or European countries (India, Jordan, Albania, and Palestine).

¹⁵See for example the study of Cooney et. al, (2011) for the case of Muslim entrepreneurs in Ireland.

¹⁶The possible answers were: 'Not at all', 'A little bit', 'Somewhat', 'Quit a bit' and 'Very much'.

¹⁷The answers roughly have been classified in three categories. Namely a category wherein the respondents do not report any problems; a category in which they state a problem because of the crisis (low profit, financial difficulties in raising capital during the period considered, negative annual growth) and a final category with 'other' (discrimination, need for take up loan from the bank etc.).

¹⁸E.g. specific cultural or other features favourable immigrant self-employment.

¹⁹E.g., integration with the native-born population.

²⁰E.g., existence of obstacles in the employment market.

²¹As it could be the case for the specificity hypothesis.

²²Self-employed is built upon the following questions, "You own (alone or with others) your own business/job? Thus, a subjective answer is elicited, according to which both self-employed and entrepreneur apply to people who answer in the affirmative and refer to people who earn a living by working on their own.

²³See Mestres (2010, p. 44) and Irastorza (2010) for a similar method. We use this dichotomy as those who are not actually entrepreneurs, when asked on whether they plan on establishing one business (potential entrepreneurs), in many cases at least half of them answered favourably.

²⁴We use a dummy variable for those who declared participation in such a program.

²⁵Assuming ad-hoc that bad health prohibits labour market activities. This variable is re-coded to '0=bad or very bad', and '1=average' 'good or very good' (the original scale was: 'bad', 'very bad', 'average', 'good' and 'very good').

²⁶See also Balourdos (2015 and 2011) and Balourdos and Petraki (2019).

²⁷Immigrants in Greece have the right to vote in national elections if they have Greek nationality. Immigrants without a Greek passport have been granted the right to vote in communal elections.

²⁸All recoded to 'Yes=1', 'No=0'.

²⁹This category includes also those owning with a mortgage.

³⁰For simplicity reasons we refer to this category as ‘rents’, as only one immigrant declared that the house is subsidised by the municipality and another declared no legal tenancy/ land property.

³¹We also used the same procedure and tested other independent variables for immigrants from Afghanistan, Egypt, Bangladesh etc.

³²Namely the sample of immigrants is drafted at different locations in the center of Athens (=1) and other nearby municipal or neighborhood level areas (=0).

³³All recoded to ‘Yes=1’, ‘No=0’.

³⁴‘Yes=1’, ‘No=0’.

³⁵This variable (JOBSAT) takes the value ‘1’ if the answers are ‘Much, very much and ’0’, for ‘Not at all’, a little or medium declared job satisfaction. This variable also describes (indirectly) entrepreneurial motivation out of dissatisfaction with prior work arrangement.

³⁶‘Yes=1’, ‘No=0’.³⁷Using SPSS.

³⁸The Wald test (and associated p-value) is used to evaluate whether or not the logistic coefficient is different than zero.

³⁹The results presented in respective table include only the statistically most significant results.

⁴⁰Referred also as -2LL or negative two log-likelihood.

⁴¹-2LL is the deviance statistic and it can be thought of as a chi-square value. The smaller the deviance is, the better the model fits the data. If a model fits perfectly, the likelihood=1 and -2LL=0.

⁴²These statistics summarize the proportion of variance in the dependent variable associated with the predictor (independent) variables. The larger R^2 values indicates that more of the variation is explained by the model, to a maximum of 1. The model with the largest R^2 statistic is “best” according to this measure.

⁴³Note that in Table 2 and Table 3 the Hosmer & Lemeshow test of the goodness of fit, suggests the model is a good fit to the data ($p>.05$), which means that it is not statistically significant and therefore our models are quite a good fit. However, the chi-squared statistic on which it is based is very dependent on sample size so the value cannot be interpreted in isolation from the size of the sample.

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PARTIES POLITICS AND GENDER PREFERENCE IN NIGERIAN LEGISLATURE

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ABSTRACT

Law makers on the legislative houses in Nigeria are elected by party member and the electorate. The members of legislative chambers are constituted through competitive periodic elections to represent different interests recognised by the electorate. Interest desiring representation has included gender, environment, economic, religion, political party, ethnic, and many more. While there are diverse interests requiring representation, the issue of gender representation forms the basic interest of the study. The reason is due to the observed predominance of male over female in gender representation in elective governmental positions while the constitution allows for equal opportunity in democracy. The study appraises the role of political parties in gender representation in the Nigerian legislative chambers, and gender preference by the electorate for political parties' performance in legislative elections is analysed. The study, adopts qualitative research design in which data were sourced from secondary sources. The study reveals that political parties do not have any reservation for gender in the presentation of candidates for election. The study notes that the choice of voter is beyond gender. The study concludes that gender issues in election may be one of the many factors influencing voter's decision.

Keywords: Democracy, Election, Gender Preference, Legislature, Party Politics, Senate, State Assembly.

1. INTRODUCTION

Evidence in extant literature on democratic governance has confirmed the continued relevance of political parties to the operation of democracy and access to political positions in the legislative and executive arm of government (Lapalombara & Weiner, 1966; Mair, Müller, & Plasser, 2004; Webb & White, 2007; Heller & Mershon, 2009; Innocent, Yusoff, & Rajanthiran, 2017). Political parties are the platform for the training of potential candidates. Parties' present candidates for elections under their label, canvass for vote for the candidate from the electorates, and after elections, the people delegate the decision-making power of the state to the political party and its candidate in power (Heller & Mershon, 2009; O'Neil, 2010). Hence, representation in government is a function of choice of the electorate and government behaviour (Gerber & Lewis, 2004).

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The conduct of government in a democratic state is by political parties and the free choice of the electorate. Interests are articulated and aggregated by political parties; mobilisation of the people to participate in elections and governance is done by political parties, and democratic government is party politics. Newton and Van Deth (2005) supported the above position that democracy is politically party driven, candidate competition in elections; decision making in the legislature is party activity. The best description of government is a party activity. Political party activities are felt in all ramification of the state because political parties reconcile member of the state regardless of factors segregating the state such as gender, ethnic group, religions, region, interest, and so on. Patterson (2002) argued that political parties direct and strengthen the peoples' vote on various issues of governance.

The enacted Nigerian (1999) constitution, in section 1 (2), forbids the existence of government in the country and/or any of the unit in a way contrary to the spirit and letter of the law (FGN, 1999). The legitimate means of assumption and exercise of legislative and executive functions is either by election or appointment. To be elected to a political position, a political party is required to nominate a candidate to contest in the scheduled election. The candidate with the highest number of votes (that is simple majority electoral system) is declared as a winner and presented with a certificate of return by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC). Thus, the candidate is returned as a member of government representing different interest such as the elected position in government, gender, political party, religion, ethnic group, and so on.

Nigerian constitution (1999) while allowing for a federal legislative house equally allows for state legislature. The federal legislative house (also known as the National Assembly) is a bicameral house with the Senate (as the upper house) and the House of Representative (as the lower chamber). Through Section 90, States' House of Assembly was created by the constitution such that each state of the federation has a House of Assembly (FGN, 1999). Section 91 described the composition of the Assembly in States where members range between twenty-four (24) and forty (40) (FGN, 1999). Thus, the numbers of seats are expected to be allocated with the aim of reflecting equality in population attribute of the areas within the state. How do political parties ensure gender representation in legislative houses? Does electorate gender preference influence the performance of political parties in legislative election? The study described the role of political parties in gender representation in legislative houses in Nigeria and analysed gender preference by the electorate for political parties' performance in legislative elections in Nigeria.

The study in accomplishing its purpose was organised into five sections. The study was introduced through section one. Relevant literatures reviewed in section two. Section three describes the methodology of the study. Section four presented and analyse data, and discussed findings. The study was concluded in section five.

1.1. Concept of Political Party

The relevance of political parties to democracy has encouraged a description of what the organisation should entail. With the absence of a generally acceptable definition, scholars have explained the term in the context of their studies. Lapalombara and Winer (1966) defined political parties based on the expected attribute it must exhibit and in differentiating it from pressure groups. Thus, a political party as an organisation must maintain a permanent structure and its existence must not be determined by the tenure of its current leaders, its presence must be at the local level and there is the need for established means of communication, the determination of the leader to hold decision collectively, and the strategy by the association to recruit members to support the manifestoes. It can be presumed from the definition that a political party must be a stable organisation (not changing with leaders), have broad based member, involved member in decision and running of the organisation, and seeks members to support its manifesto so as to control the machinery of the government.

Sartori (1976) defined a political party as a political group that presents candidates for public office through elections. This implies that a political party must have the ambition as to the sponsoring of candidates for political position. This differentiated political parties from political associations. However, the definition of a political party as any party that sponsors a candidate for election may be expanded to include pressure groups. Pressure groups may assume political party function overnight as they may sponsor candidate for the position of choice and win. Patterson (2002) defined political parties as an on-going coalition of interests joined together in an effort to get its candidates for public office elected under a common label. The definition pointed the fact that a political party will continue to aggregate diverse interest in accomplishment of its end, which is the contest of election and controlling of government machinery. Thus, Patterson (2002) noted that a political party must have member who identified with it, hence party operates as a candidate (contesting an election) and an organisation (maintain staff, member, and so on). A political party as a voluntary group of people with shared perspectives on the ways of organising government and controlling the states. Thus, political parties are objective or goal directed. The goal of a political party is on contesting and winning election with the aim of directing the institutions of government.

The Federal Government of Nigeria (1999) defined a Political party as an association which registers in its constitution (and any alteration), name and address of its national office, headquarter of operation (situated in Abuja) with the electoral commission, operate open membership for all member of the country (without restrictions on religion, sex, and so on), and whose name and logo does not bear semblance with any religion, ethnic group, etc. Thus, a political party must be an

association with the aim of unifying the state, promoting democratic principle, and mobilised the people to participate in governance.

Ikelegbe (2013) explained political party as a goal oriented group which aggregates perspective and opinion, and serves as a bridge between the ruled and the ruler. This implies that the goal of a political party is beyond the presentation of candidate for election. The group is supposed to act as a linkage between the people and government. Hence, the issue of representation is influenced by factors.

In this study, a political party is defined as an association of people with shared political interest on contesting and winning election, under a registered umbrella (recognised by the electoral commission) with the aim of forming the government.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Gender Representation in Nigerian Politics

The participation of gender in the Nigerian politics has attracted the attention of scholars' overtime. Agbalajobi (2010), Nelson (2012), Awofeso and Odeyemi (2014), Anyalebechi (2016), Pogoson (nd), Sibani (2017), and Adefemi and Agunbiade (2019) are some of the scholars selected within the space of a decade on issues of gender representation or participation in politics. Agbalajobi (2010) for instance noted that women enjoy demographic strength in that they constitute more than half of the population, perform roles including economic, social, maternal, and so on. It was argued in the study that the reasons for poor representation or marginalisation of women in politics with cultural, religion, traditional, and related practices. The study concluded that while issue of involvement of women in Nigerian politics is an important issue, poor representation of women in politics has promoted poor representation of women in the Nigerian politics.

Nelson (2012) examined factors responsible for the poor participation of women in Nigeria politics. The study identified factors such as the socio-economic condition of women, cultural beliefs, and state centred quota system to limit the involvement of women, violence, and so on. The study suggested a radical approach to the mobilisation of women from the grassroots level. Awofeso and Odeyemi (2014) identified a cultural practice, which has become a systemic issue, has been responsible for poor representation of women in politics despite the chance for all to take part in politics. Anyalebechi (2016) supported the existing view in literature concerning the low representation of women in politics with an attempt to proffer solution to gender problem in the country.

Pogoson (nd) focusing on the 2011 general election in Nigeria against the patriarchal sway and the acceptance of equal status of women with men. It was revealed that women involvement in politics through election runs contrary to the constitution. Thus, it was suggested that the illegality must be reviewed gradually

through dialogue between men and women leaders, increase support for women involvement in politics, inclusion of gender quota system, and so on. Sibani (2017) equally agreed that the discriminatory cultural practice with regard to gender issues is responsible for the preference of male over female in politics.

Adefemi and Agunbiade (2019) evaluated women law makers in state house of assembly of Ekiti, Lagos, and Oyo with the intention of identifying their problems, experiences, and contributions. The problem confronting women legislators are ranged from marital issues, inadequate education, and many more. The study revealed that women law makers take active part in the legislative activities such as debate, sponsoring bills, and many more. Thus, female law makers have contributed to national development and the service of their respected constituencies.

2.2. Voters Choice (of Party and Candidate) in Elections

In democracies, there is the raising concern on factors responsible for candidate choice or preference by the electorate (Kurtbaş, 2015). Effort at understanding the reasons for candidate or party preference in elections encouraged diverse studies; Guber (2001), Singh (2009), Kurtbaş (2015), Dassonneville (2016), Horiuchi, Smith, and Yamamoto (2018), Ogbe (2018), and Chukwujekwu and Ezeabasili (2019) are some of the extant works which have systematically addressed the issues of voters' preference in election. Guber (2001) studied the significance of environmental issues to elections in the United State of America given the raising concern on the issues. Using information from the National Election Study (NES), the implications of environmental concern on the attitude of American electorate choice of political parties and their candidates was examined. The study concluded that environmental concern is not a major influence in electorate choice of candidate and political party in election. Singh (2009) interrogated politics and voter's preference in Australia through the empirical spatial analysis. The study revealed that the electorate and political parties are organized along a unidimensional socio-economic range. Thus, personal factors inclusive of party identification, ideology, geographical location of voter's, and many more informed voter's choices in elections.

Omodia (2010) studied the place of political parties in party politics in the Nigerian fourth republic and discussed the problem of political parties. The study adopted the historical method of analysis to explain how the problem of malfunctioning of political parties has ensued. The study revealed that the gap between the operation of political parties resulted from the party elite and it was a deliberate mechanism to manipulate the masses in accomplishing their interest.

Kurtbaş (2015) using surveying method of data collection evaluated voter preferences in a local election (conducted on the 29th of March, 2009) and observed that out of any ten electorates selected, about one was not concerned with the essence of vote casting. Prior to the elections, about 48.4% of the electorate did little or no

findings on candidate, manifesto, or political parties. On possibility of winning elections, it was observed that out of every four voters selected, about one stated that their preference to cast their ballot in favour of the winning candidate. 28.7% of the electorate identified the factor influencing their decision with the ideology of the candidate. Increase in the level of income, education, etc. equally impacts level of participation in political party activities and involvement in elections. Dassonneville (2016) investigated the relevance of short term factors as a major determinant of voter's choice in elections. The study made use of British election panels of 1992-1997, 1997-2001, and 2005-2010 and revealed that short term factors especially economic issues pose sway on vote choice of voters. Thus, short term factors are gaining more relevance to the understanding of voter's choice in elections.

Olaiya (2016) argued the peculiarity of party system to political practice and development in Nigeria, described the origin and peculiar nature of political parties in Nigeria. The study gathered data from secondary sources and noted that despite the practice of multiparty system in Nigeria, regional influence has largely been promoted through the formation and operation of political party. Gbolahan and Duruji (2017) examined the challenges of multi-party system in Nigeria's fourth republic and appraised the importance of multi-party system to democratic consolidation in Nigeria. Data were harvested from secondary sources. Revelation made by the study identified problem of multi-party system to include the existence of ethnic politics, lack of party ideology, the place of godfather in candidate selection, mass poverty resulting from high rate of unemployment, party defection, and politics as investment by the elite, etc.

Horiuchi, et al. (2018) using conjoint survey experiment studied the Japan's mixed-member bicameral system. While agreeing to the fact that idiosyncratic attribute of politician remains a key factor in election outcomes, the study inquired the most relevant attributes shaping voters' behaviour towards the choice of candidate and also, aim at establishing if the attribute varies across electoral system. The study revealed that qualities of choice by the electorate are not consistent with the features of actual politicians. The study equally established that the choices of voters do not vary across the electoral system whereas the observed feature of politicians differs across systems. The finding established the importance of factors beyond voter's choice. Ogbe (2018) examined the practice of candidate imposition in Nigeria democracy using observation and secondary method of data collection to source for information with and analyse the study with liberal theory of representation. The study made revelation that the imposition of candidate constitutes a threat to democracy in the country as the choices of the people are denied them. The implication of the practice is that people are easily lured into violence.

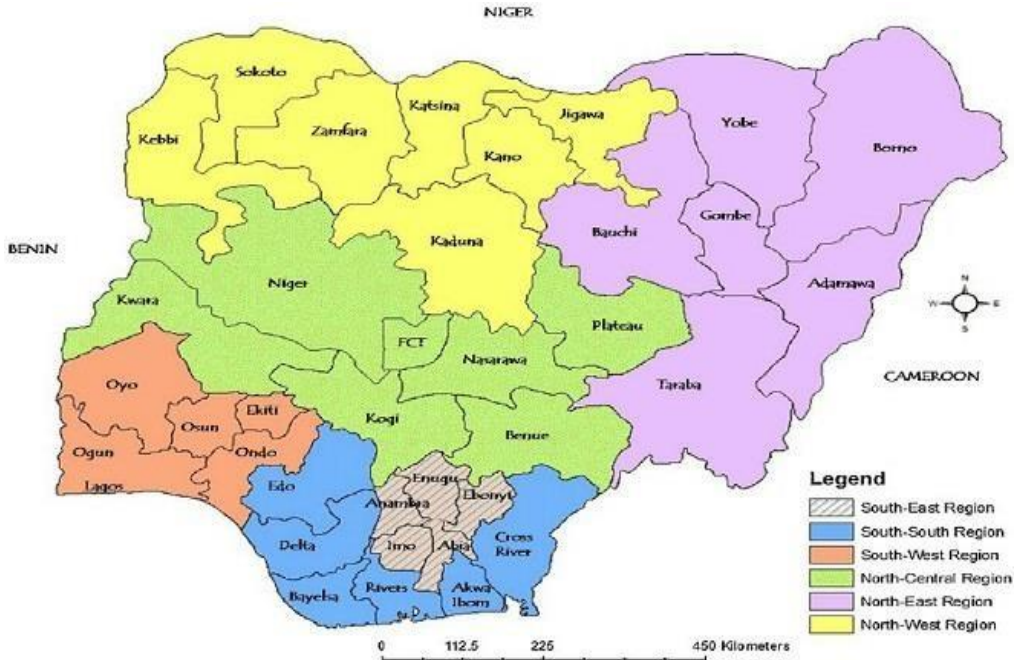
Chukwujekwu and Ezeabasili (2019) examined party politics and the practice of internal democracy (using the People's Democratic Party (PDP) Anambra chapter as a case study) adopting descriptive survey design and to source for data, and the analyses

of data were done through simple percentage and chi-square. In the study, they find out that there is a link between internal democracy and godfatherism. Hence, internal democracy which is supposed to serve as a means of participation in politics is hijacked by the elite. A candidate in politics may not necessary be the choice of the people. Ogunkorode (2019) advocated independent candidacy as a measure to curb the problem of partisan politics. The goal of the study was to identify issues of multi-party and to examine the need for independent candidature in Nigeria. Information was sourced from primary and secondary materials. The argument put forth by the study was that in curbing the challenges of multi-party, there is need for independent candidature.

3. METHODOLOGY

The study adopted qualitative research design in which information was systematically sourced from secondary sources on party politics and gender preference in State House of Assembly (SHOA) and the Nigerian Senate. Using the (2019) SHOA election results and the Nigerian Senate, six States were randomly selected using stratified random sampling; Nigeria was divided into six geo-political zones, namely; North East, North Central, North West, South East, South-South, and South West. From each zone, a state was selected through simple random sampling. Hence, Taraba (North East), Kwara (North Central), Katsina (North West), Abia (South East), Edo (South South), and Ekiti (South West) were states selected from each geo-political zone in the country. The composition of the Nigeria senate (2019) senatorial election was then compared with the State House of Legislature selected. Content analysis was adopted in explanation of data presentation and discussion of findings.

MAP OF NIGERIA SHOWING THE GROUPING OF NIGERIAN STATE ALONG SIX GEO-POLITICAL ZONES



3.1. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of analysis adopted for the study was group theory as developed by Arthur F. Bentley in the book titled ‘The Process of Government’ published in 1908. The formation of any group is based on interests. A political party is a group formed based on the interest of contesting for political power in a democratic state. Contest for candidacy within a political party for election entails diverse interests including gender, candidacy, nation building, and personal urge for political power, among others. To this extent, sub groups are formed within a political party based on societal reality such as gender issues, urge for political power, ethnic, environment, job creation, economic programme, educational policies, etc. and interests compete in the emergence of a political party candidate in any election. Also, there exists youth wing, women wing, contestants’ faction/ support, and so on within a political party. These subgroups influence the decision of political parties on the choice of candidate. The reality within any political party must conform to societal

realities. The consequent contest for political power in the state is done by political power, which are the lawful groups allotted with such functions in any democratic state. The study relies on this theory to explain the subject matter of the study.

3.1. Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of findings

Information's gathered based on the stated objectives', and through sources stated in methodology is presented and discussed in this section.

3.1.1. State of Political Party Candidacy in the Nigeria's Fourth Republic

The conduct of political parties' activities in Nigeria is guided by the provisions of the (1999) constitution with the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) as the execution agency. The (1999) constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, in Section 222 (C-D) for instance, while highlighting the requirement for the formation of political parties did emphasised the registration of the constitution (and alteration) of a political party with the Electoral Commission as part of the criteria for the creation of a party. As such, it sufficed to argue that the constitution of a political party serves as a guideline for understanding its activities. Party constitution makes provision that is consistent with the provision of the constitution (of the Federal Republic of Nigeria). Items including tenure of office for party executive, criteria for candidacy, and many more are contained and defined in the (party) constitution.

The enacted Electoral Act (of 2010) stipulated that the process of selection of a candidate on a political party platform. In Section 87, the Act required all political parties to imbibe internal democracy in the nomination of candidates; the process of nomination of candidate may either be by direct or indirect primary (FGN, 2010). The adoption of direct and indirect primary requires that party members are equally treated and allowed the same right in the process of presentation of a candidate for election, thus, the choice of the people must reflect.

TABLE 1: PARTY PERFORMANCE IN STATE HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY ELECTIONS IN SELECTED STATES IN NIGERIA

| S/N | State | Geo-Political Zone | Size of State Legislative House of Assembly | People Democratic Party (PDP): Seat won | All Progressive Congress (APC): Seats won | All Progressive Grand Alliance: Seat Won |
|-----|--------------------------|--------------------|---|---|---|--|
| 1 | Taraba (see Appendix A) | North-East | 14 | 09 | 05 | -- |
| 2 | Kwara (See Appendix B) | North-Central | 23 | -- | 23 | -- |
| 3 | Katsina (See Appendix C) | North-West | 22 | -- | 22 | -- |
| 4 | Abia (See Appendix D) | South-East | 24 | 19 | 02 | 03 |
| 5 | Edo (See Appendix E) | South-South | 24 | -- | 24 | -- |
| 6 | Ekiti (See Appendix F) | South-West | 26 | -- | 26 | -- |

Compiled by the Authors

TABLE 2: POLITICAL PARTIES PERFORMANCE THE NIGERIAN NINTH SENATE (2019-2023) (see appendix G for details)

| S/N | Political Party | Number of Seats won |
|-----|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) | 39 |
| 2 | All Progressive Congress (APC) | 64 |
| 3 | YPP | 1 |
| 4 | Vacant Seat | |

Compiled by the Authors

The All Progressive Congress (APC) and Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) won majorities of the positions on the Nigerian Senate and the State House of Assembly. Thus, the constitution of APC and PDP were analysed. APC and PDP constitution supported internal democracy as a prerequisite for the selection of the party's candidate for any election. The Article 20 of the APC's constitution for instance demanded that all party positions and nomination for elections shall be by democratic means. Party members are required to take part in the selection of party member. However, it is necessary to take cognisance of the fact that the constitutions neither made special reservation for female nor male party members as contestants.

The People's Democratic Party (PDP) constitution, in Chapter 8 Section 50, required that all election for nomination of candidate shall be democratic. The member of the party must be involved in the process of the election. It suffices to note from the chapter that there was no special provision or consideration for female or male party member for any elective position. It can be argued that based on the above result of gender representation and party constitution that internal democracy is the means for

candidacy of political party and this is the manifestation of party members' and the electorate choice as required in democracies.

3.1.2. Gender preference and Political parties' performance in Legislative Elections in Nigeria

The preferences for gender in elections in legislative house elections in Nigeria legislative elections are summed below.

TABLE 3: GENDER DISTRIBUTIONS IN STATE HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY IN SELECTED STATES IN NIGERIA

| S/N | State | Geo-Political Zone | Political Parties | | | | | |
|-----|---------|--------------------|--------------------------------|--------|--------------------------------|--------|---------------------------------------|--------|
| | | | Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) | | All Progressive Congress (APC) | | All Progressive Grand Alliance (APGA) | |
| | | | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| 1 | Taraba | North-East | 08 | -- | 05 | -- | -- | -- |
| 2 | Kwara | North-Central | -- | -- | 23 | -- | -- | -- |
| 3 | Katsina | North-West | -- | -- | 22 | -- | -- | -- |
| 4 | Abia | South-East | 19 | -- | 02 | -- | 03 | -- |
| 5 | Edo | South-South | -- | -- | 24 | -- | | |
| 6 | Ekiti | South-West | -- | -- | 23 | 03 | -- | -- |

Compiled by the Authors

TABLE 4: POLITICAL PARTIES ON THE NIGERIAN NINTH SENATE (2019-2023) (see appendix G for details)

| S/N | Political Party | Number of Seats won | Gender distribution of seats won | | Percentage of Seats won by political parties (109) |
|-----|--------------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|--------|--|
| | | | Male | Female | |
| 1 | Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) | 44 | 38 | 6 | 40.37% |
| 2 | All Progressive Congress (APC) | 64 | 62 | 2 | 58.71% |
| 3 | YPP | 1 | 1 | ---- | 0.92% |

Compiled by the Authors

4. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The presentation of candidates for elective position is the obligation of political party in any democratic state. In Nigeria, the (1999) constitution confirmed this and the presentation of candidates for political position remains the responsibilities of political parties. The flag bearer for an elective position is expected to conform to the rule of internal democracy as declared in section 87 of the Electoral Act (2010). However, studies such as Gbolahan and Duruji (2017) had identified the problem of multi-party system to include the existence of ethnic politics, lack of party ideology, the place of godfather in candidate selection, mass poverty resulting from high rate of unemployment, party defection, and politics as investment by the elite, etc. Ogbe (2018) studies on the practice of candidate imposition in Nigeria democracy and argued that the implication of such practice is that people are easily lured into violence. Chukwujekwu and Ezeabasili (2019) noted that there is a link between internal democracy and godfatherism in the selection of candidate in a political party and stated that candidate in politics may not necessary be choice of the people. Ogunkorode (2019) advocated for independent candidature in elections in Nigeria to curb the practice of candidate imposition. Contrary to the operation of internal democracy as a means of choosing candidates, other factors as the imposition of candidate by party elite, and so on are issues to contend with. There is the need to look beyond the neutrality of primary election as a major determinant of candidate selection

in democracy, the presentation of either gender may be influenced by party elite among others.

The study noted that there is high preference for male gender in legislative elections in Nigeria. While the studies by Agbalajobi (2010), Nelson (2012), Awofeso and Odeyemi (2014) had blamed the poor representation or marginalisation of women in politics on cultural, religion, traditional, and related practices in Nigeria, thereby confirming the findings, Singh (2009) had argued that personal factors inclusive of party identification, ideology, geographical location of voter's, and many more informed voter's choices in elections. Dassonneville (2016) revealed that short term factors especially economic issues pose sway on choice of voters. Horiuchi, et al. (2018) established the importance of factors beyond voter's choice. Studies by Singh (2009), Dassonneville (2016) and Horiuchi, et al. (2018) refuted the findings of Agbalajobi, Nelson, Awofeso and Odeyemi. Rather, several factors other than culture were identified as a factor influencing voter's choice in election. Cultural factor maybe one of the several factors influencing voters' decision in elections.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The study concluded that Nigeria has a democratic state that has not requirements set aside for the consideration of gender representation in the legislature, rather, elections are held on the principle of interest and winning is determined through simple majority. The view that culture has impacted female preference in election was accompanied as one of the numerous factors that determine elections outcome.

Appendix A:

Geo-Political Zone:

North-East

State:

Taraba State House of Assembly

Source:

<https://tarabastate.gov.ng/state-hon-members/>

| S/N | Name Gender | Constituency | Political Party | |
|-----|--------------------------------|--------------|-----------------|------|
| 1. | Rt. Hon. Mark B. Useni, PhD | Takum II | (PDP) | Male |
| 2. | Hon. John K. Bonzena | Zing | (PDP) | Male |
| 3. | Hon. Charles Ishaku Audu | Kurmi | (PDP) | Male |
| 4. | Hon. Charles Majjankai | Karim I | (PDP) | Male |
| 5. | Hon. Edward G. Baraya | Karim II | (PDP) | Male |
| 6. | Hon. Hamman'adama B. Abdullahi | Bali | (PDP) | Male |
| 7. | Hon. Tanko Maikarfi | Gassol I | (PDP) | Male |
| 8. | Hon. Pius Sabo | Wukari I | (PDP) | Male |
| 9. | Hon. Saleh Sa'ad | Jalingo II | (APC) | Male |
| 10. | Hon. Barr. Mohammed Bashir | Ngoroje | (APC) | Male |
| 11. | Hon. Umar Yusuf | Gashaka | (APC) | Male |
| 12. | Hon. Nura Dantsoho | Jalingo I | (APC) | Male |

| | | | | |
|-----|--------------------------|-------|-------|------|
| 13. | Hon. A. A. Gambo Mubarak | Bali | (APC) | Male |
| 14. | (Unknown) | Takum | (PDP) | |

Appendix B:

Geo-Political Zone:

North-Central

State:

Kwara state house of assembly member-

Source: http://www.kwha.gov.ng/KWHA/Pages/_1stlegislatureMember

| S/N | Name Political Party | Gender | Constituency |
|-----|--|--------|-----------------------|
| 1. | Rt. Hon. Engr. Yakubu D. Salihu APC | Male | Ilesha/Gwanara |
| 2. | Hon. Adetiba-Olanrewaju R. O. APC | Male | (Oke-Ero) |
| 3. | Hon. Magaji Abubakar O. APC | Male | (Ilorin Central) |
| 4. | Hon. Yusuf Atoyebi Musa APC | Male | (Odo-Ogun) |
| 5. | Hon. Bello John Olarewaju APC | Male | (Lanwa/Ejidongari) |
| 6. | Hon. Jimoh Ali Yusuf APC | Male | (Ilorin East) |
| 7. | Hon. Owolabi Olatunde Razaq APC | Male | (Share/Oke-Ode) |
| 8. | Hon. Babatunde A. Paku APC | Male | (Ipaye/Malete/Oloru) |
| 9. | Hon. Aliyu Wahab Opakunle APC | Male | (Afon) |
| 10. | Hon. Abdulgafar Olayemi Ayinla APC | Male | (Ilorin North West) |
| 11. | Hon. Awodiji Omatayo Felix. APC | Male | (Irepodun) |
| 12. | Hon. Ojo Olayiwola Oyebode. APC | Male | (Oke-Ero) |
| 13. | Hon. Yusuf A. Gbenga APC | Male | (Essa/Shawo/Igboidun) |
| 14. | Hon. Ahmed Saidu Baba APC | Male | (Adena/Bani/Gwararia) |
| 15. | Hon. Awolola Olumide Ayokunle APC | Male | (Isin) |
| 16. | Hon. Abdullahi H. Danbaba APC | Male | (Kaiaama/Wajibbe/) |
| 17. | Hon. Mohammed B. Salihu APC | Male | (Okuta/Yashikira) |
| 18. | Hon. Ganiyu F, Salahu APC | Male | (Omupo) |
| 19. | Hon. Ndamusa M, Guyegi APC | Male | Edu |

| | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|------|-----------------|
| 20. | Hon. Ambali Olatunji Ibrahim APC | Male | (Owode/Onire) |
| 21. | Hon. Popoola S. A. APC | Male | (Balogun/Ojomu) |
| 22. | Hon. Abolarin Ganiyu Gabriel APC | Male | (Ekiti) |
| 23. | Hon. Hassan Abdulazeez Elewu APC | Male | (Ilorin South) |

Appendix C:

Geo-Political Zone:

North-West

State:

Katsina State House of Assembly

Sources:

<https://www.dailytrust.com.ng/list-of-new-members-of-katsina-state-house-of-assembly.html>

<https://www.von.gov.ng/apc-clears-all-state-assembly-seats-in-katsina/>

| S/N | Name Sex | Party | Constituency |
|-----|-------------------------------------|-------|--------------|
| 1. | Ali Abu Albaba Male | APC | Katsina |
| 2. | Hon. Aliyu Sabi`u Muduru Male | APC | Mani. |
| 3. | Hon. Tukur Shagumba Male | APC | Batagarawa |
| 4. | Hon Mustapha Sani Bello Male | APC | Mashi |
| 5. | Hon Muhammad Kwamanda Male | APC | Dutsin-ma |
| 6. | Hon Abdul Jalal Runka Male | APC | Safana |
| 7. | Hon Nasir yahaya Male | APC | Daura |
| 8. | Hon Musa Nuhu Gafiya Male | APC | Kaita |
| 9. | Hon Abubakar Suleiman Tunas Male | APC | Ingawa |
| 10. | Hon Mustapha Rabe Musa Male | APC | Maiadua |
| 11. | Hon Lawal H Yaro | APC | Musawa |
| 12. | Hon Aminu Ibrahim Saeed Male | APC | Malumfashi |
| 13. | Hon Sani Lawal Male | APC | Baure |
| 14. | Hon Abubakar Muhammad Male | APC | Funtua |

| | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------|-----|-----------|
| 15. | Hon Abubakar Suleiman Male | APC | Rimi |
| 16. | Hon Hamza Rimaye Male | APC | Kankia |
| 17. | Hon Ya'u Garba Male | APC | Kankara |
| 18. | Lawal Isa Kuraye Male | APC | Charanchi |
| 19. | Haruna Aliyu Yamel Male | APC | Dutsi |
| 20. | Abubakar Muhammad Male | APC | Funtua |
| 21. | Tasi'u Musa Maigari Male | APC | Zango |
| 22. | Shehu Dalhatu Tafoki Male | APC | Faskari |

Appendix D:

**Geo-political Zone:
State:**

South-East

**Abia State House of Assembly Composition as at
24th March, 2019**

Source:

<https://puoreports.ng/2019/05/11/exclusive-meet-24-abia-assembly-lawmakers-elect-2019/>

| S/N | Name Political party | Constituency | Sex | |
|-----|--------------------------------|-------------------|------|------|
| 1. | Hon. Emmanuel C. Ndubuisi | Bende South | Male | PDP. |
| 2. | Hon. Stanley Nwabuisi | Ikwuano | Male | PDP |
| 3. | Hon. Onwusibe Ginger | Isiala Ngwa North | Male | PDP |
| 4. | Hon. Chikwendu Kalu | Isiala Ngwa South | | PDP |
| 5. | Hon. Solomon Akpulonu U | Obingwa East | Male | PDP |
| 6. | Hon. Thomas Nkoro A.C. | Obingwa West | Male | PDP |
| 7. | Hon. Mandela Egwuronu Obasi | Ohafia North | Male | PDP |
| 8. | Hon. Ifeanyi Uchendu | Ohafia South | Male | PDP |
| 9. | Rt Hon. Kennedy Njoku | Osisioma North | Male | PDP |
| 10. | Hon. Nnamdi Allen | Osisioma South | Male | PDP |
| 11. | Hon. Okey Igwe | Umunneochi | Male | PDP |
| 12. | Hon. Munachim I. Alozie | Ugwunaagbo | Male | PDP |
| 13. | Hon. Paul Taribo | Ukwa East | Male | PDP |
| 14. | Hon. Godwin Adiele | Ukwa West | Male | PDP |
| 15. | Hon. Chukwudi Apugo | Umuahia East | Male | PDP |
| 16. | Hon. Kelechi Onuzuruike | Umuahia North | Male | PDP |
| 17. | Hon. Engr. Chinedum Orji | Umuahia Central | Male | PDP |
| 18. | Hon. Jeremiah Ogonnaya Uzosike | Umuahia South | Male | PDP |
| 19. | Hon Uzodike Aaron | Aba North | Male | PDP |
| 20. | Hon. Chukwu Chijioke | Bende North | Male | APC. |
| 21. | Hon. Emeka Okoroafor | Isuikwuato | Male | APC |

| | | | |
|-----|------------------------------------|-------------|------|
| 22. | Hon. Obinna Ichita Martin APGA. | Aba South | Male |
| 23. | Hon. Abraham Oba Ukefi APGA | Aba Central | Male |
| 24. | Hon. Onyekwere. M. Ukoha APGA. | Arochukwu | Male |

Appendix E:
Geo-Political Zone:
State:
Sources:
assembly-seats/

South-South
Edo state house of Assembly
[https://leadership.ng/2019/03/11/edo-apc-wins-24-](https://leadership.ng/2019/03/11/edo-apc-wins-24-assembly-seats/)

| S/N | Name Gender | Party | Constituency |
|-----|--------------------------|-------|----------------------|
| 1 | Chris Okaeben Male | APC | (Oredo West), |
| 2 | Crosby Eribo Male | APC | (Egor) |
| 3 | Henry Okhuarobo Male | APC | (Ikpoba-Okha) |
| 4. | Roland Asoro Male | APC | (Orhionmwon West) |
| 5. | Nosayaba Okunbor Male | APC | (Orhionmwon East) |
| 6. | Osaro Obazee Male | APC | (Oredo East) |
| 7. | Washington Osifo Male | APC | (Uhunmwode) |
| 8. | Ugiagbe Dumez Male | APC | (Ovia North East 1) |
| 9. | Vincent Uwadiae Male | APC | (Ovia North East 11) |
| 10. | Sunday Aghedo Male | APC | (Ovia South West) |
| 11. | Francis Okiye Male | APC | (Esan North East 1) |
| 12. | Emmanuel Okoduwa Male | APC | (Esan North East 11) |
| 13. | Victor Edoror Male | APC | (Esan Central) |
| 14. | Sunday Ojjezele Male | APC | (Esan South East) |
| 15. | Marcus Onobun Male | APC | (Esan West) |

| | | | |
|-----|-----------------------------|-----|-------------------|
| 16. | Ephraim Aluebhosele Male | APC | (Igueben) |
| 17. | Ganiyu Audu Male | APC | (Estako West 1) |
| 18. | Aliyu Oshiomhole Male | APC | (Estako West 11). |
| 19. | Emmanuel Agbaje Male | APC | (Akoko-Edo 11) |
| 20. | Yekini Idaiye Male | APC | (Akoko-Edo 11) |
| 21. | Eric Okaka Male | APC | (Owan East) |
| 22. | Micheal Ohio-Ezo Male | APC | (Owan West) |
| 23. | Oshoma Ahmed Male | APC | (Estako Central) |
| 24. | Kingsley Ugabi Male | APC | (Estako East). |

Appendix F:

Geo-political Zone: South-West
State: Ekiti State House of Assembly Composition-

Sources: <https://ekitistate.gov.ng/executive-council/legislature/#sixth-ekiti-state-house-of-assembly>

| S/N | Names Gender | Party | Constituency |
|-----|---------------------------------------|-------|--------------------|
| 1 | Rt. Hon. Funminiyi Afuye Male | APC | Ikere I |
| 2 | Rt. Hon. Hakeem Jamiu Male | APC | Irepodun Ifelodun2 |
| 3 | Hon. Gboyega Aribisogan Male | APC | Ikole I |
| 4 | Hon. Tajudeen Akingbolu Male | APC | Ekiti West I |
| 5 | Hon Bunmi Adelugba Female | APC | Emure |
| 6 | Hon. Tope Ogunleye Male | APC | Ilejemeje |
| 7 | Hon. Toyin Lucas Male | APC | Ado I |
| 8 | Hon. Kemi Balogun Male | APC | Ado II |
| 9 | Hon. Lawrence Babatunde Idowu Male | APC | Ikere II |

| | | | |
|----|--|-----|---------------------|
| 10 | Hon. Adegoke Olajide Male | APC | Efon |
| 11 | Hon. Adejuwa Adegbuyi Male | APC | Ekiti East I |
| 12 | Hon. Lateef Akanle Male | APC | Ekiti East II |
| 13 | Hon. Yemisi Ayokunle Female | APC | Ekiti South West |
| 14 | Hon. Olatunji Joseph Male | APC | Ekiti South West II |
| 15 | Hon. Johnson Oyebola Bode-Adeoye Male | APC | Ekiti West II |
| 16 | Hon. Teju Okuyiga Female | APC | Gbonyin |
| 17 | Hon. Abiodun Fawekun Male | APC | Ido/Osi I |
| 18 | Hon. Akin Oso Male | APC | Ido/Osi II |
| 19 | Hon. Aribasoye Steven Adeoye Male | APC | Ikole II |
| 20 | Hon Ademola Ojo Male | APC | Ijero |
| 21 | Hon. Ayodeji Ajayi Male | APC | Ise/Orun |
| 22 | Hon. Femi Akindele Male | APC | Irepodun/Ifelodun I |
| 23 | Hon. Adeyemi Rapheal Ajibade Male | APC | Moba I |
| 24 | Hon. Arubu Michael Male | APC | Moba II |
| 25 | Hon. Awoyemi Reuben Male | APC | Oye-I |
| 26 | Hon. Osatuyi Yemi Male | APC | Oye-II |

**Appendix G:
Nigerian Senate**

| S/N | State | Senatorial District | Ninth Senate (2019-2023) | | Gender |
|-----|-------------|---------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|
| | | | Political parties | Senator | |
| 1 | Abia | North | APC | Kalu Orji Uzor | |
| 2 | | Central | PDP | Orji Theodore Ahamefule | Male |
| 3 | | South | PDP | Enyinnaya Abaribe | Male |
| 4 | Adamawa | North | PDP | Ishaku Elisha Diff Abbo | Male |
| 5 | | Central | APC | Aishatu Dahiru Ahmed | Female |
| 6 | | South | PDP | Binos Dauda Yoroe | Male |
| 7 | Akwa Ibom | North-East | PDP | Basse Albert Akpan | Male |
| 8 | | North West | PDP | Christopher Stephen Ekpenyong | Male |
| 9 | | South | PDP | Eyakenyi Akon Etim | Female |
| 10 | Anambra | North | PDP | Adaeze Stella Oduah | Female |
| 11 | | Central | PDP | Ekwunife Lilian Uche | Female |
| 12 | | South | YPP | Ifeanyi P. Ubah | Male |
| 13 | Bauchi | South | APC | Lawal Y. Gumau | Male |
| 14 | | Central | APC | Dauda Halliru Jika | Male |
| 15 | | North | APC | Bulkachuwa Adamu Muhammad | Male |
| 16 | Bayelsa | East | APC | Degi Eremienyo Biobaraku Wangagra | Male |
| 17 | | Central | PDP | Douye Diri | Male |
| 18 | | West | PDP | O. Lawrence Ewhrudjakpo | Male |
| 19 | Benue | North East | PDP | Gabriel Suswam | Male |
| 20 | | North West | PDP | Emmanuel Yisa Orker-Jev | Male |
| 21 | | South | PDP | Patrick Abba Moro | Male |
| 22 | Borno | North | APC | Abubakar Kyari Shaib | Male |
| 23 | | Central | APC | Kashim Shettima | Male |
| 24 | | South | APC | M. Ali Ndume | Male |
| 25 | Cross River | North | PDP | Rose Okoji Oko | Female |
| 26 | | Central | PDP | Onor Sandy Ojang | Male |
| 27 | | South | PDP | Gershon Bassey | Male |
| 28 | Delta | North | PDP | Peter Nwaoboshi | Male |
| 29 | | Central | APC | Ovie Omo-Agege | Male |
| 30 | | South | PDP | James Ebiowou Manager | Male |
| 31 | Ebonyi | North | PDP | Egwu Samuel Ominyi | Male |
| 32 | | Central | PDP | Obinna Joseph Ogba | Male |
| 33 | | South | PDP | Michael A. Nnachi | Male |
| 34 | Edo | North | APC | Francis Asekhame Alimilhena | Male |
| 35 | | Central | PDP | Akhimienmona C. Ordia | Male |
| 36 | | South | APC | Mathew A. Urhogide | |

| | | | | | |
|----|----------|------------|-----|----------------------------|--------|
| 37 | Ekiti | North | APC | Olubunmi Ayodeji Adetunmbi | Male |
| 38 | | Central | APC | Bamidele Michael Opeyemi | Male |
| 39 | | South | PDP | Biodun Christine Olujimi | Female |
| 40 | Enugu | East | PDP | Chimaroake O. Nnanami | Male |
| 41 | | West | PDP | Ike Ekweremadu | Male |
| 42 | | North | PDP | Godfrey Chukwuka Utazi | Male |
| 43 | Gombe | North | APC | Alkali Saidu Ahmed | Male |
| 44 | | South | APC | Amos Bulus Kilawangang | Male |
| 45 | | Central | APC | Danjuma Goje Mohammed | Male |
| 46 | Imo | East | PDP | Ezenwa Francis Onyewuchi | Male |
| 47 | | West | APC | Rochas okorocho | Male |
| 48 | | North | APC | Benjamin Uwajumogu | Male |
| 49 | Jigawa | South West | APC | Sabo Mohammed | Male |
| 50 | | North East | APC | Hassan Ibrahim Hadeija | Male |
| 51 | | North West | APC | Danladi Abdullahi Sankara | Male |
| 52 | Kaduna | North | APC | Kwari Suleiman Abdu | Male |
| 53 | | Central | PDP | Sani Uba | Male |
| 54 | | South | APC | Dajuma Tella La'ah | Male |
| 55 | Kano | North | APC | Ibrahim Barau Jibrin | Male |
| 56 | | Central | APC | Ibrahim Shekarau | Male |
| 57 | | South | APC | Ibrahim Kabiru Gaya | Male |
| 58 | Katsina | North | APC | Ahmad Babba-Kaita | Male |
| 59 | | South | APC | Bello Mandiya | Male |
| 60 | | Central | APC | Kabir Abdullahi Barkiya | Male |
| 61 | Kebbi | North | APC | Abdullahi Abubakar Y. | Male |
| 62 | | Central | APC | Adamu Mainasara M. Aliero | Male |
| 63 | | South | APC | Bala Ibn Na'allah | Male |
| 64 | Kogi | Central | APC | Oseni Yakubu | Male |
| 65 | | East | APC | Jibrin Isah | Male |
| 66 | | West | PDP | Smart Adeyemi | Male |
| 67 | Kwara | North | APC | Umar Suleiman Sadiq | Male |
| 68 | | Central | APC | Yahaya Yisa Oloriegbe | Male |
| 69 | | South | APC | Ashiru Oyelola Yisa | Male |
| 70 | Lagos | East | APC | Osinowo Sikiru Adebayo | Male |
| 71 | | Central | APC | Remi S. Tinubu | Female |
| 72 | | West | APC | Adeola Solomon Olamilekan | Male |
| 73 | Nasarawa | West | APC | Abdullahi Adamu | Male |
| 74 | | North | APC | Godiya Akwashiki | Male |
| 75 | | South | APC | Tanko Al-Makura | Male |
| 76 | Niger | North | APC | Aliyu Sabi Abdullahi | Male |
| 77 | | East | APC | Mohammed Sani Musa | Male |
| 78 | | South | APC | Muhammed Enagi Bima | Male |
| 79 | Ogun | Central | APC | Ibikunle Amosun | Male |
| 80 | | East | APC | Ramoni Olalekan Mustapha | Male |
| 81 | | West | APC | Odebiyi Tolulope Akinremi | Male |
| 82 | Ondo | North | APC | Robert Ajayi Boroface | Male |
| 83 | | Central | PDP | Ayo Patrick Akinyelure | Male |

| | | | | | |
|-----|---------|------------|-----|----------------------------|-------------|
| 84 | | South | PDP | Nicholas O. Tofowomo | Male |
| 85 | Osun | East | PDP | Fadahunsi Francis Adenigba | Male |
| 86 | | Central | APC | Surajudeen Ajibola Basiru | Male |
| 87 | | West | APC | Oriolowo Adelere Adeyemi | Male |
| 88 | Oyo | North | APC | Buhari Abdulfatai Omotayo | Male |
| 89 | | Central | APC | Folarin Teslim Kolawole | Male |
| 90 | | South | PDP | Kola Balogun Ademola | Male |
| 91 | Plateau | North | PDP | Gyang Dung Istifanus | Male |
| 92 | | Central | APC | Hezehiah Ayuba Dimka | Male |
| 93 | | South | APC | Ignatus Datong Longjan | Male |
| 94 | Rivers | East | PDP | Thompson George Sekibo | Male |
| 95 | | South East | PDP | Barinada B. Mpigi | Male |
| 96 | | West | PDP | Jocelyn Betty Apiafi | Female |
| 97 | Sokoto | East | APC | Gobir Ibrahim Abdullahi | Male |
| 98 | | North | APC | Aliyu M. Wamakko | Male |
| 99 | | South | APC | Shehu Abubakar Tambuwal | Male |
| 100 | Taraba | South | PDP | Emmanuel Bwacha | Male |
| 101 | | Central | APC | Yusuf Abubakar Yusuf | Male |
| 102 | | North | PDP | Isa Shuaibu Lau | Male |
| 103 | Yobe | East | APC | Gaidam Ibrahim | Male |
| 104 | | North | APC | Ahmad Ibrahim Lawan | Male |
| 105 | | South | APC | Ibrahim Mohammed Bomai | Male |
| 106 | Zamfara | North | PDP | Ya'u Sahabi | Male |
| 107 | | Central | PDP | Mohammed Hassan Gusau | Male |
| 108 | | West | PDP | Lawali Anka | Male |
| 109 | FCT | | PDP | Tanimu Philip Aduda | Male |

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