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Nayak, B.

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Abstract

Purpose – *this paper considers the Eurocentric conceptualisation of risk, which reinforces language, culture and business practices that are in conflict with Africa's own traditional business methodologies". It attempts to identify the rent-seeking methods and resource-seeking strategies that sustain the hegemony of global corporations in Africa.*

Design/methodology/approach – *the paper explores nonlinear historical narrative around the concept and construction of the idea and language of risk. It follows discourse analysis to identify how the Eurocentric concept of risk was exported and incorporated within the language of international business in non-Western business traditions. The fundamental research question driving this paper is: to what extent does the conceptualisation of risk perpetuate the African continent as risk-ridden?*

Findings – *the rent and resource-seeking strategies employed by multinational corporations (MNCs) are central to 'manufactured' risks, and this negatively creates impact for post-independent Africa. Whilst the state is inconsistent in its approach to dealing with this crisis, global corporations continue to do business, extract resources and expand their capital and market base in Africa.*

Originality/value – *the philosophical basis of risk and its historical foundations in the African context are presented. Neo-colonial business methods, languages, cultures and strategies are explored and consideration is given as to how African governments could address the issue of co-option, as well as how to respond to the risks arising by MNCs' business practices. The paper adds to the theoretical narratives by arguing that when considering entry into the marketplace, MNCs must ensure they integrate African perspectives (native categories) into their operational strategies. Moreover, management practitioners might consider addressing the essential topics of language, culture, business systems and business practices using ethnomethodological lenses.*

Paper type – Conceptual paper

Key words: Eurocentric, manufactured, risk, resource-seeking and co-option

Introduction

Contemporary international business (IB) literature that explains the strategic behaviour of MNCs encompasses the resource-based view of the firm (Penrose, 1959a; Peteraf, 1993; Prahalad, 1990), internalisation (Rugman and Verbeke, 2004) and the internationalisation

1 theories (O'Rourke and Williamson, 2001). Whilst these concepts are explicit in their
2
3 consideration of political and institutional factors, little is said about the created risks that
4
5 effectively frame the perception of emerging economies as risk-prone. There is currently a
6
7 relatively low volume of research investigating the Eurocentric approaches that multinational
8
9 corporations (MNCs) adopt in order to seek resources and gain rents within the African
10
11 context. Therefore, the main objective of this paper is to explain how MNCs preserve the
12
13 motives of the colonial agenda of the West, and also begins to demonstrate the fact that the
14
15 introduction and integration of culture, language and educational systems were specifically
16
17 crafted in order to acquire and maintain control of African resources, even after
18
19 independence. The key research question is to what extent does the conceptualisation of risk
20
21 perpetuate the idea of the African continent as risk-ridden? To answer this question, nonlinear
22
23 historical narratives around the concept and construction of the idea and language of risk are
24
25 considered. In doing so, discourse analysis is utilised in order to explore the way in which the
26
27 Eurocentric concept of risk was exported and incorporated within the language of
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29 international business (IB) in non-Western business traditions including Africa (Fairclough,
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31 2003).
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39 In exploring the extent to which the conceptualisation of risk perpetuates the African
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41 continent as risk-ridden, this paper is organised and proceeds by, firstly, exploring the way in
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43 which the post-industrial Western European business model, fundamentally conflicts with the
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45 African concept of conducting business. Secondly, it attempts to explain how the language
46
47 and methodologies of international business, inherently produces risk and uncertainties
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49 within post-independent Africa, which it continues to struggle to deal with. Thirdly, it argues
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51 that whilst inward foreign direct investment (FDI) has produced good results in other
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53 emerging markets, the resource-seeking (Dunning and Lundan, 2008) nature of MNCs
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55 operating in Africa rather develops risk, thereby creating winners and losers in the African
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3 marketplace. This is a consequence of MNCs seeking to maximise profit at the expense of
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5 supporting (native programmes such as) the Millennium Development Agenda and the
6
7 Sustainable Economic Development goals of African economies (Freer, 2017). Finally, the
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9 paper concludes, by discussing the wider social policy and practical implications, and the
10
11 agenda for future research. We proceed by examining how pre-and post-colonial business
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13 models have shaped the practices, language and culture of international business (IB).
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15

16 17 **The adoption of Western European business models in Africa**

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20 In order to understand the extent to which pre-and post-colonial African countries are
21
22 currently experiencing neo-colonialism through inward foreign direct investment (FDI), it is
23
24 important to start by looking critically at the map of the continent and carefully examining
25
26 the way in which the imperialists demarcated the individual states. The identification and
27
28 examination of these contextual problems are crucial because they are the rudiments that
29
30 have characterised the conceptualisation of risk by MNCs operating in Africa. Most
31
32 importantly, these contextual factors perpetuate the idea that African countries are risk-
33
34 ridden; therefore, the way risk is assessed and managed in the African context emanate from
35
36 an established view created by colonialisation.
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41 The pre-and post-colonial map shows that, firstly, large modern cities were founded and
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43 developed for the purposes of natural resource extraction. Secondly, transport links were
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45 created to provide ease of access to ports for the enablement of foreign trade, but not for trade
46
47 within Africa. Thirdly, colonialists established and maintained governments or
48
49 administrations that were trained and prepared to manage these two activities for the benefit
50
51 of their imperialist agenda (Ager, 2005). Moreover, the demarcation of cities and regions in
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53 Africa during the colonial era created scattered populations, whereby some cities and
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55 countries were likely to generate the resources needed to sustain a government institution,
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3 along with the social structures needed to support them, or were left for the purpose of rustic
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5 farming (Clapham, 1996).
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8 To a large extent, imperialists established the territorial structures which they assumed, from
9
10 their own experience, to be necessary and indispensable elements of maintaining their
11
12 hegemony. In this regard, writers such as Clapham (1996) and Ayres (2012) agree that the
13
14 boundaries created through colonisation, irrespective of whether they meant anything to
15
16 Africans, were critical in order to maintain and regulate future competition at the global level.
17
18 In addition, education in Africa was fashioned throughout the territories to provide the skills
19
20 needed to operate within a modern society for which the imperialists maintained control. The
21
22 subsequent changes to the global system in the middle of the 20th century enabled several
23
24 African countries to attain independence, along with a combination of domestic and
25
26 international conditions. Suffice to note that the 20th century ushered in a period of new
27
28 political order such as democratisation, decolonisation and nationalism. Furthermore, the
29
30 discovery of new communications and transportation technology, along with space
31
32 exploration, shaped the way multinational corporations (MNCs) conducted their business
33
34 activities (Huntington, 1993; Hewitt, 2014; Radice, 2014).
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40 Consequently, the newly independent nations in Africa (NINA), which projected themselves
41
42 as an economic powerhouse after they won the struggle against imperialism, unfortunately
43
44 did not realise that the already entrenched models of administration and languages of doing
45
46 business followed the imperialist pattern as there was no alternative in Africa. In fact, the
47
48 Eurocentric way of doing business (language and culture) that defined the activities of MNCs
49
50 were rarely guided by any concern for the identity of indigenous states, societies and regions
51
52 in Africa. Understanding these origins is important; because Africa's political, institutional,
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54 economic, financial and sociocultural structures were severely affected during European
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56 colonisation. For example, the Ubuntu philosophy, which underpins every business
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3 transaction in the African context, is influenced by communalism and human kindness. This
4
5 is in direct opposition to the profit maximisation and shareholder-driven philosophy of doing
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7 business in the West (Amaeshi *et al.*, 2006; Chang, 1997; Keay and Adamopoulou, 2012;
8
9 Sekerka and Stimel, 2012). In addition, Ackroyd and Murphy (2013) found that the
10
11 reorganisation of the processes of capitalist production has helped the international elites to
12
13 sustain their hegemony through intellectual property rights, therefore reinforcing
14
15 neocolonialism and perpetuation of risk in Africa.
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18 19 **The concept and language of risk**

20
21 The idea, concept and language of risk derive from philosophical lineages that conceive
22
23 societies as internally homogeneous and externally distinctive and bounded objects. The
24
25 language used in such accounts reveals the framework employed during the industrial
26
27 revolution within Western Europe. Such conceptual narrative and methodological analogy,
28
29 which have been the bedrock of multinational business activities, reduces societies as single
30
31 nation states (Wolf, 2010). In fact, Gubrium and Holstein (2002) suggest that how the social
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33 world is experienced is partly created by language, as well as being the mechanism by which
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35 perspectives are conveyed.
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40 The post-industrial Western European way of doing business, including language and
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42 methodologies, theories and concepts have their historical specificities. Further, these
43
44 peculiarities and depositories have their ideological origins (Freeden, 1996; 2005).
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46 Considering the evolvement of globalisation, Skinner (1978; 1998; 2008) argues that these
47
48 idiosyncrasies change not only to address the challenges of new circumstances and new deeds
49
50 of MNCs, but also within the legacies of the past. Factors influencing inward FDI into Africa
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52 and the multi-motives of MNCs have therefore been no different (Nyuur, 2012; Jakubiak and
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54 Kudina, 2008; Grubel, 2014). The narrative and concept of risk, its method of assessment and
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56 the language to represent it within international business in Africa originated with the
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3 European colonisation of the continent. Risk perception indexes and ratings compare
4
5 European business models with Africa, indicating that bureaucracy and weak enforcement of
6
7 rules create negative stereotypes which induce country and regional effects (Adams *et al.*,
8
9 2014). This aspect of the Eurocentric worldview dominates the theory and practice of
10
11 International Business, not only in Africa, but around the world, whereby everything is
12
13 measured in terms of economic growth, inherently attributing levels of risk to the duality of
14
15 progress and backwardness.
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19 The colonial educational system, however, and the subsequent normalisation of colonial
20
21 language and methodologies of doing business created the postcolonial Africa in terms of
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23 practice and production of knowledge (Chakrabarty, 2001) where indigenous ways of doing
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25 business, its language, methods, theories and strategies, were submerged within the
26
27 conventional European practices. It is imperative, therefore, to incorporate, innovate and
28
29 integrate African perspectives on business risk, since the rent-seeking methodologies and
30
31 wider business culture of MNCs operating in Africa, do not reflect the traditional African
32
33 business practice. These are some of the reasons why it has been difficult for African
34
35 countries and its businesses to maintain its uniqueness, whilst assimilating it within the
36
37 western European theoretical traditions of analysing risk in international business practice.
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39 This precursor may to some extent help to explain the oscillating nature of Africa's march
40
41 towards prosperity.
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47 In examining the relationship between language and the culture of Western business
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49 methodology, from which risk and uncertainty arise and from which post-independent Africa
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51 struggles to deal with, it is possible to identify the sources of risk for the African continent, as
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53 defined within international business circles.
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Theoretical and conceptual trends to identify risk

During the 1990s, the language and concept of risk broadened its scope by moving beyond technical consideration of the engineers and the natural scientists (Krimsky and Golding, 1992). Early 1990s research around risk was dominated by the Risk and Culture approach of Douglas and Wildavsky (1982) as well as the Risk Society approach of Beck (1986, 1992). Both approaches used to define risk were based on the etymological distinction between risk and uncertainty, which led to the growth of research on the culture of risk. In this regard, Lash (2000) introduced systemic risk, whereas Japp (1996) promulgated the significance of scientific risk assessment. Subsequently, Aven (2016) introduced the strategy for the efficient management of risk in international business. It is interesting to note that the scientific approaches to risk assessment and management are technocratic and reductionist in nature because they effectively disregard the diversities and complexities of the African marketplace. In addition, the conceptual and etymological distinction between risk and uncertainty is meaningless, because risk contributes to uncertainty, which inevitably contributes to risk; the two concepts move together. The assessment and management of risk needs, therefore, to be studied together and any attempt to study these two concepts separately, under western European tradition, is reductionist. These theoretical approaches and challenges continue to dominate different debates around the concept of risk in international business (Miller, 1992; Beck, 1998; Aven, 2016).

These theoretical trends in the conceptualisation of risk in different forms are expressions of certain culturally specific national circumstances within Western Europe (Dingwall, 1999). The risk society thesis is based on Giddens' concept of reflexive modernisation. Giddens (1990:38) defined reflexivity as *social practices that are constantly examined and reformed in the light of incoming information*. It is also interesting to note that Lizardo and Strand (2009) agree that recent globalisation scholars seem to have interchanged the concept of risk

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2
3 with the notion of *fortuna* whereby international business activities are predetermined by an
4
5 order established by traditional cosmologies of modern capitalism. Such conceptualisation
6
7 has exposed African societies to risks without any kind of insurance by the multinational
8
9 corporations, whose primary motive of entering the continent is resource-seeking.
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11
12 Warren (1999) and Löfstedt (2009) conceptualised the idea of risk as an absence of trust in
13
14 élites and institutions. The absence of trust, therefore, creates both institutional and
15
16 reputational risk (Hood *et al.*, 2001; Power, 2004, 2007). The reality of institutional and
17
18 reputational risks propagates distrustful, individualised and dis-embedded citizens, which
19
20 accelerate crises of legitimacy, credibility, accountability and sustainability of states and
21
22 governments (Lyons, Lowery and De Hoog, 1992). It is important, therefore, to measure the
23
24 management of risk and uncertainty based on communicative action (Habermas, 1972). The
25
26 statistical and scientific methods which were developed to calculate risk have, therefore,
27
28 presented the African marketplace as risky and unsafe to do business (Aven, 2016). Such
29
30 classifications, which actually sought to assess the level of risk on the African continent, have
31
32 in reality reduced its potential to a natural resource-rich continent. Consequently, Africa has
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34 become known primarily for resource-seeking FDI and the recent trends of Chinese
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36 investments in Africa only re-affirms the picture the imperialist have carefully created.
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42 This paper argues that uncertainties are lived experiences of people within a social, political,
43
44 economic, cultural and religious context. Tulloch and Lupton (2003) argue that the individual
45
46 experiences of the social processes of risk perception may lead people to adopt a broad range
47
48 of unclear or contradictory views about the magnitude of risk. All studies and advances in
49
50 the scientific approach to risk assessment and its management as outlined in the work of
51
52 Aven (2016) remain, therefore, exclusive to the African society, as well as its uniqueness and
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54 concerns. These studies do not seem to engage with the complexities of African society and
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56 business culture. Any attempt to mask the complexity of the social experience of risk
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3 perception in rigid conceptual abstractions may lead us further away, rather than towards a
4
5 more intimate understanding of how risk conceptualisation perpetuates Africa's difficulty in
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7 its walk towards prosperity. In a related study, Koukpaki (2014), categorised uncertainty and
8
9 risk factors in the African context. He argued that uncertainties are influenced by unknown
10
11 outcomes, missing data and information as well as ambiguities in the marketplace. These
12
13 factors are pertinent because the way MNCs assess and predict risk is often based on the
14
15 language of ambiguity. Consequently, MNCs seem to be key contributors of the reputational
16
17 and commercial risks confronting Africa in the 21st century (Koukpaki, 2014).
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22 In the UK, for example, small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) amounted to 99.3% of
23
24 all private sector businesses in 2016. Total employment in the SME sector stood at 15.7
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26 million, accounting for 60% of all private sector employment. Moreover, the combined
27
28 annual turnover of SMEs hovered around £1.8 trillion, which represents 47% of the entire
29
30 UK's private sector turnover in 2016 (ONS, 2016). In another example, Muenjohn and
31
32 McMurray (2016) indicated that SMEs accounted for 99% of all business institutions, 75% of
33
34 total employment and 40% of Thailand's GDP. The questions, therefore, are why is Africa so
35
36 dependent upon multinational corporations to provide jobs (see Ahiakpor, 2010; Smith, 2013;
37
38 Assié-Lumumba, 2006)? To what extent does the conceptualisation of risk perpetuate the
39
40 African continent as risk-ridden? And how do we objectively determine risk and develop
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42 methods to manage uncertainties? Answers to these questions will undoubtedly enhance our
43
44 understanding and appreciation of Eurocentric methods of risk and uncertainties within
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46 international business.
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51 International business is not only about demand, supply, and pricing but also about the
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53 conditions in which production, distribution, and consumption take place. It is about
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55 understanding these conditions under which the market operates both as a process and as an
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57 organisation. It is central to understanding these conditions to be able to unpack the
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3 specificities of risks in the African marketplace and develop a strategy to sidestep it. The
4
5 Eurocentric approach developed by Beck (classifying some societies as risk-prone) has
6
7 therefore failed to adequately define the relations and interplay between institutional
8
9 dynamism and social reflexes on the one hand and self-referentiality and critical reflection on
10
11 the other (Elliott, 2002). The Eurocentric approach to risk analysis is a limited and self-
12
13 serving myopia that creates different forms of conflict due to its resource and rent-seeking
14
15 strategy of doing business in the peripheries of Africa. Faria (2014) argues for a trans-modern
16
17 pluriversal perspective that would allow for many worlds and many bodies of knowledge to
18
19 co-exist to reflect the actual realities of today within the context of historical experience. The
20
21 rent-seeking business strategies create risk both in the short-term and long-term objectives of
22
23 international businesses within Africa. To understand the extent to which Africa has been
24
25 described as a risk-ridden continent, the next section explicates how MNCs manufacture risk
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27 as they seek to utilise their core competencies and resource capabilities.
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32 **Associated risks of rent and resource-seeking strategies of MNCs**

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34 Rent-seeking approaches consist in the use of MNCs' resources to maximise economic gain
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36 from their activities (Tollison, 1982). Whilst rents are a perfectly good profit maximisation
37
38 concept, global corporations have utilised their competitive advantage to seek excessive rents
39
40 by creating entry barriers into industries in order to sustain their hegemony (Dunning and
41
42 Lundan, 2008). Examples of MNCs that lobby governments to provide remarkably long
43
44 tenure operational licenses and tariff protection are prevalent in Africa (Kolk and Lenfant,
45
46 2010). Resource-seeking MNCs, on the other hand, are usually prompted to invest abroad to
47
48 acquire specific resources of a higher quality at a lower cost than could be obtained in their
49
50 home country. There are three main types of resource-seeking MNCs. Firstly, those seeking
51
52 physical resources. Secondly, those seeking plentiful supplies of cheap and well-motivated
53
54 unskilled or semi-skilled labour, and finally, those prompted by the need to acquire
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3 technological capabilities (Dunning and Lundan, 2008). To understand the associated risk of
4 rent and the resource-seeking strategy of MNCs in Africa, we present a review of three time
5 periods. Firstly, the period of 1880s to the 1890s; secondly from the 1890s to the 21st century
6 and thirdly, the dawn of the 21st century.
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12 The period 1880s to 1890s witnessed European nations such as Belgium, Britain, France and
13 Germany turn Africa into colonies following a formal partition at the Berlin conference. The
14 Act provided these Western nations with the legitimacy to govern Africa economically,
15 politically and militarily, based on their spheres of control, allowing them to gain full access
16 to Africa's natural resources. During this period, the core functional activities, such as human
17 expertise, capital and technology needed to produce goods and services were provided by
18 western companies (Frynas and Paulo, 2006). FDI was not particularly important as most
19 activities of MNCs were based around the importation of raw materials and exportation of
20 finished products.
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33 The increased activities of MNCs in Africa, following the independence of most African
34 states, were motivated by the acquisition of strategic assets which were monopolised for the
35 ultimate advancement of the West as Headquarters of the MNCs became the principal actors
36 of global influence (Ciabuschi *et al.*, 2012). For example, Frynas and Paulo (2006) confirmed
37 that in Anglophone Africa, a Shell-BP venture was given an effective monopoly on oil
38 exploration and production in Nigeria, and a colonial ordinance stipulated that only British oil
39 companies were permitted to obtain oil licenses. This allowed Shell-BP to establish and
40 maintain their dominance, leading to their subsequent multi-nationalisation in oil production.
41 Moreover, in Francophone Africa, French oil production dominated the oil industry even
42 after independence. The Gabonese and Algerian governments were forced to sign a guarantee
43 that French oil companies would receive preferential treatment, granting them concessions
44 for several years (Frynas and Paulo, 2006).
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3 Having recounted the past, it is clear that the contemporary picture of MNC activities in the
4
5 21st century in Africa was focused on seeking rents and resources and they consequently
6
7 behaved as *classic Gerschenkronian latecomers*, whereby Gerschenkron (1962) explained the
8
9 strategic decisions of German and American MNCs that rapidly employed their core
10
11 competencies to maximise their fortunes. These giant corporations, according to Vernon
12
13 (1971) were responsible for striding across national borders and reducing nation states into
14
15 subservient entities. Driven primarily by market forces, pitiable corporate social
16
17 responsibility practices and corporate failures ranging from labour rights, environmental
18
19 neglect, coupled with severe and deadly community oppositions have earmarked the
20
21 operational credentials of MNCs operating in Africa. Radical economists such as Lall and
22
23 Streeten (1977) also shared the view that MNCs were used by colonial powers as instruments
24
25 of economic exploitation, political instability in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and the primary
26
27 cause of environmental damage, mainly due to their motives for profit maximisation. In
28
29 addition, there are many empirically observed forms of tax avoidance by MNCs operating in
30
31 Africa and other emerging markets (Gravelle, 2009).
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37 In a related study, Sikka (2003) confirms that UK and US MNCs engage in income-shifting
38
39 strategies in an attempt to maximise revenues whilst minimising taxes. MNCs operating in
40
41 Africa overprice their imports to avoid corporate taxes and under-price their exported goods
42
43 and services in order to allocate profits to the various parts within their own group of
44
45 companies. Consequently, by the end of the decade, the majority of African countries would
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47 celebrate their 50th independence anniversary whilst simultaneously dealing with the risks
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49 manufactured by MNCs operating in their countries.
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53 At the dawn of the 21st century, MNCs became more closely associated with the concept of
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55 globalisation, which highlighted how connected the world has become for businesses that
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57 have developed the resources needed to exploit opportunities. Some MNCs had whole or
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3 partial ownership of companies abroad, whilst others entered overseas markets by procuring
4 existing companies or setting up new international business ventures. African governments
5 hoped to benefit from this process to sustain economic growth and development. Following
6 the dwindling economic growth in Africa at the turn of the century, host governments
7 projected their countries as an attractive FDI location due to the supposed benefits. In fact,
8 some governments relinquished revenues that could have been extracted from corporate taxes
9 and duties with the belief that employment generation, diffusion of an entrepreneurial culture
10 and other forms of benefits borne out of innovation and international competitiveness would
11 be realised. The economic reform programmes and structural adjustments handouts which
12 were given by the Breton Woods Institutions, to be implemented by several African
13 countries, in most cases also failed to account for local contexts (Aryeetey *et al.*, 2005).

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28 Historically, the bulk of foreign direct investment has originated from industrialised
29 economies. Since MNCs from the US invested in Europe before 1939, and Japanese MNCs
30 began to locate to advanced economies in the 1980s (Ferner *et al.*, 2004), their mode of
31 operation became the fulcrum upon which the development of the theories of multinational
32 corporations depended. New models and philosophies of FDI in the 21st century were partly
33 fuelled by the resource-based protagonists (Penrose, 1959a; Peteraf, 1993) which focused on
34 its benefits without much consideration of the impact. In a related study, Rugman and
35 Verbeke (2004) supported the Penrosian ideology and further extended it by arguing that the
36 key actors in the globalisation process primarily consisted of the largest MNCs from the
37 Triad countries, and that it was home to most innovations in several industries and markets.
38 The operations of these corporations also included the three largest markets in the world for
39 new products. In examining the extension of the RBV theory, the factors that underpin the
40 successful expansion of MNCs includes their international network, knowledge intensity,
41 efficiency and scale, economic gains and the increasing scope for tax reduction through
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3 transfer pricing. In fact, Buckley and Casson (1976); Johnson, (1970); Rugman and Verbeke
4
5 (2003) concur that internalisation occurs only to the point where the benefits equal the costs.

6
7 However, industry-specific factors, regional-specific factors, nation-specific factors and firm-
8
9 specific factors, with a focus on the ability of the management to organise an internal market
10
11 remain the key parameters relevant to the internalisation decision.

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14 Recent thinking on theories of the multinational corporation have recommended new
15
16 explanations of the dragon multinationals, whose aim and motive of internationalisation
17
18 differs from the traditional MNCs. This category of businesses is the most enterprising yet
19
20 profitable MNCs from fast developing economies such as China, India, Brazil and Mexico. In
21
22 this theory, Matthews (2005) argues that firms that internationalise rapidly engage clever
23
24 adaptation of multiple connections created within the global economy. The dragon
25
26 multinationals help to expose the weaknesses and limitations of the traditional accounts of
27
28 MNCs, and the existing theories and frameworks that sought to validate their activities in
29
30 Africa and other emerging economies. In the same vein, the multiple motives of the dragon
31
32 multinational and Chinese investors in Africa, and the development implications, need
33
34 critical examination. The phenomenon has been a source of both optimism and concern, since
35
36 their characteristics are quite dissimilar from those of the traditional FDI countries. Whilst it
37
38 is not disputed that MNCs (whether from America, Europe or Asia) exist in order to
39
40 maximise revenue, and that every transnational activity would therefore be based on that, the
41
42 more positive publicity that it has enjoyed to date should be presented alongside the arising
43
44 risks created by MNCs as a result of their resource-seeking behaviour which effectively
45
46 perpetuates the neo-colonial agenda in Africa.

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49 Vercellone (2008) argues that the rent-seeking approaches of MNCs operating in Africa
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51 emphasise the solution searched for by the capital investments of MNCs, which is to advance
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53 rights to intellectual property in order to collect monopoly rents. Technically, core
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3 competencies transferred would ultimately lead to rent-seeking behaviour in intra-firm
4 contexts as well as transactions with external organisations as proposed by the transaction
5 cost advocates. Rent-seeking activity is governed by self-interest, and leads to the ultimate
6 utilisation of MNC's bargaining power in order to influence market actors to gain and then
7 reinforce their market position. In a somewhat neglected but representative article, Penrose
8 (1959b), in her expanded work, concluded that MNCs make excess profits on their FDI in
9 poorer countries. This is an observation which has received no further empirical attention by
10 the internalisation researchers. This observation which has been echoed by the leading
11 thinkers of Penrose's theory, such as Rugman and Verbeke (2002), who ignite attention and
12 interest because much of the RBV debate has predominantly focused on how firms gain and
13 sustain competitive advantage as argued by Gerschenkron (1962).
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28 It is also observed that the RBV, internalisation, internationalisation and convergence
29 theories have obscured the real risks that MNCs create, because of their divide and rule
30 strategies in emerging markets. These strategies have been highlighted in many studies that
31 decry financialisation and coupon pool capitalism along with benevolent distortions (Froud,
32 Haslam, Johal and Williams, 2001; Zargarzadeh and Loroy, 2013; Calvano, 2007, amongst
33 others). Whilst the culmination of the internalisation theory pulls academic interest away
34 from the impact of internationalisation (see Prahalad, 1990, Birkinshaw, 2000; Rugman and
35 Verbeke, 2005), less and less attention has been drawn to the real institutional, political,
36 economic and regional risks that these MNCs create as they seek to utilise their rare,
37 valuable, inimitable and non-substitutable resources. Recent theories suggest that these real
38 risks are in fact mitigated by the fact that MNCs are also motivated to do good and become
39 good citizens of the planet. Factors influencing this have ranged from corporate social
40 responsibility theories and ethicality of business decisions (Payne, Raiborn and Askvik, 1997;
41 Millar, Choi and Chen, 2004; Abugre and Nyuur, 2015).
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3 Additionally, the problem with the internalisation view, as expressed by authors such as
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5 Rugman and Verbeke (2002), Penrose (1959a); Prahalad and Hamel (1990), is that it fails to
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7 acknowledge the non-remediable issues discussed in modern theories of the MNC. The fact
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9 remains that the implementation of MNCs' business culture and methodologies of business
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11 practice, and their resource-seeking methodologies, have yielded the Africa we see today. In
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13 addition, these theories portray MNCs as fully rational in their motives of transnational
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15 operations. Further, the minimalistic nature of human cognition and subjective utility, as
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17 reinforced by the theory of bounded rationality, enshrines new perspectives on the
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19 manufactured risks of doing business in Africa. Combining the resource-based theory of the
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21 firm in line with the bounded rationality theory, we argue that although the presence of
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23 MNCs in Africa and the whole network of their operations in Africa appear beneficial, by the
24
25 very strategic nature of their rent-seeking and resource-seeking approaches, they aim to
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27 maximise profits and improve shareholders' wealth in order to gain economic and political
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29 power, thereby preserving the neo-colonial agenda of the West (Lizardo and Strand, 2009).
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35 It is significant that there is currently no research being carried out that aims to enhance our
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37 understanding of how and why MNCs manufacture risk in Africa, and how MNCs could
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39 perceive every culture and language as a resource, based on the native categorisation concept
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41 introduced by Buckley and Chapman (1997). In this concept, the authors proposed the
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43 adoption of polycentrism in the conceptualisation and implementation of MNC strategy.
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45 Understanding the local context as perceived through a Western lens is not enough, but rather
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47 the appreciation and reconfiguration of IB strategy based on the emic-etic approach as well as
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49 native language and culture. In their work, Kottak (2002) and Adler (1983) define emic as
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51 meanings specific to a particular language and culture whereas etic features are classified as
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53 being similar to all languages and culture.
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Conceptualising the risks arising out of business practice in Africa

In examining the degree to which MNCs support the global perception of the African continent as risk-ridden, we can consider different types of risks that MNCs create whilst conducting business in different parts of the world. According to Moles *et al.*, (2011), the main risk they create is operational, which emerges from the execution of a company's business functions. Market risk is also created when the actions of resource-seeking MNCs produce a change in the value of the market factors. Although there are different ways of conceptualising risks, Manuj and Mentzer (2008) mentioned that the combination of supply, process, demand and security risk force market actors to behave differently, which determines the overall risk level in certain industries, markets and regions. In a related study, L'Hermitte *et al.*, (2016) cite that there are challenges in ensuring a clear categorisation of risks in the supply chain of MNCs, simply because of the nature of their operations. Risks can be defined from three angles: firstly, from a rational economic perspective; secondly, from the psychological perspective; and thirdly, from the social construction of risk.

From the rationalist view, risk is underpinned by the theory of utility as presented by Krugman (1979). He enshrined the factors that influence monopolistic competition, increasing returns and the global entry behaviour of multinational firms. The theory suggests that MNCs are consistently risk-averse, and in deciding to do business in Africa and will often do their best to avoid losses to the detriment of the continent.

From a psychological perspective, the argument is based on the prospect theory, which also suggests that MNCs operating in Africa adopt a combination of risk and loss aversion strategies at the expense of fundamental corporate socially-responsible practices, as noted by Kahneman and Taversky (1979). From the psychological perspective, there are two components of risk that might influence the MNCs' perceptions: the first is (a) fear factor, which indicates how much the MNCs deal with the potential outcomes of doing business in

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3 Africa and (b) the control factor, the extent to which the MNCs are in control of the outcomes
4 of doing business in Africa. Applying this theory in the context of Africa, Shapira (1995) also
5 argued that MNCs often discount risks on the basis that they could control these risks by
6 utilising their efficiencies and core capabilities without much ethical consideration.
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12 The social construction of risk, on the other hand, is underpinned by the way in which social
13 groups can develop shared cognitive schema which is defined as core ideas about how the
14 industry works, cause-and-effect relationships and what constitutes a reasonable conduct of
15 business. The extent of agreement about the meaning that is shared can be ephemeral or
16 profound in shaping attitude. Sociologists refer to these shared meanings as institutions.
17 Thus, an institution is a persistently reproduced social pattern that is relatively self-sustaining.
18 Social institutions affect which actions are seen as legitimate. In the world of risk
19 management, MNCs' decision-making processes, therefore, are determined by what is
20 socially determined in the West, which legitimises the risks manufactured in Africa. This is
21 often based on shared cognitive schema, For instance, in the year 2007, the entire African
22 economy declined by 15% (Hillier, 2007). The Central African region, with its inherent
23 human rights violations, inequality, poverty and human suffering, are also hosts to some of
24 the giant MNCs in the history of current economic globalisation. Yet, these corporations
25 continue to announce annual increases in their profits, whilst local economic activities
26 continue to decline. In fact, with regards to the manufactured risks arising as a result of
27 MNCs operating in these parts of Africa, Kolk and Lenfant (2010) state that MNCs have
28 dilemmas about the contribution they can and cannot make in Africa given the different
29 foreign setting. It seems that the more the resource endowment, the more conflict-prone the
30 country becomes (Kolk and Lenfant, 2010; Calvano, 2007; Gu, 2009).
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56 MNCs rely mostly on their government actions to put, broadly speaking, three kinds of social
57 pressure on African governments: coercive, mimetic and normative. The coercive pressures
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3 put on African governments come from socio-cultural endorsements that can be applied if
4 these governments act in legitimate ways according to the Western concept of civilisation.
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7 Weak African governments end up succumbing to poor business deals. This is explained by
8 Boone (1994), Van de Walle (1994), Lewis (1996), Koukpaki (2013) who contend that
9 Africa's decline or stagnation is because African leaders, having inherited artificial policies
10 from colonialism, resort to neo-patrimonial strategies to foster their power and prevent the
11 dislocation of their peasant societies. These neo-patrimonial policies, essentially
12 redistributive in nature, use the resources of the state to pursue their political and personal
13 ambitions of power maximisation.
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24 Clearly, the notion of risk management and control in this sort of setting are non-existent.
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26 The MNCs' investments are welcome without any due diligence on the risks. The mimetic
27 pressures are often based on imitating others as to how they allow MNCs to do business, risk-
28 free in other countries, then sell it to other countries by hiding the real risks. We believe that
29 these mimetic pressures have established roots in the education systems, where the lack of
30 effective educational systems led to non-risk management culture. Akam and Ducasse (2002)
31 confirm this by arguing that education in Africa is confronted with diverse problems: the
32 mimetic western consumerism, low rate of primary education, inadequate education policies,
33 politico-economic crises, lack of educational infrastructure, plethoric student numbers, lack
34 of research, without mentioning the pressure from the West which has characterised many
35 parts of the African continent. To compensate for these deficiencies in the lack of education
36 system, local elites believe that accepting the deals of MNCs could increase employment
37 opportunities, particularly for younger generations.
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55 Normative pressures are underpinned by values and the broader social values which MNCs
56 subscribe to in conducting business in Africa. Normative pressures come from Western
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3 governments who often aim to support their strategic industries. Due to the resource-
4 dependent nature of MNCs, African countries have become vulnerable to such normative
5 pressures, which increase the degree of risk in the region (Asiedu, 2002; Adams *et al.*, 2014).
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7 The basic assumption is that organisations need to acquire their resources by exchanging with
8 others in their environment, and this creates the dependencies. According to Sporn (1999),
9 the scarcity of resources determines the degree of dependency. Assié-Lumumba (2006) takes
10 this one step further, expressing the view that this dependency is to the detriment of African
11 universities who are unable to produce capable elites who have been trained in their own
12 language and culture to negotiate risks as brought up by large MNCs.
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25 **Associated risks of co-option**

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27 During the colonial period from 1880 to 1960, MNCs extracted resources to benefit their
28 colonial industries (Schneider, 2003). The resource-seeking activities of these corporations
29 were primarily focused on natural resources such as gold, diamond and bauxite. Whilst
30 resource extraction was ongoing, colonial governments engaged in market-facilitating and
31 welfare-enhancing activities, including the building of roads and railway infrastructure, in
32 order to facilitate the movement of extracted natural resources, but not necessarily to link
33 countries or businesses for the development of the local economy (Ayres, 2012; Clapham,
34 1996). Apart from the pre-colonial and post-colonial practices, evidence does tend to support
35 the fact that MNCs manufacture risk in Africa in the 21st century. By nature of their strategic
36 motivations, they seek to assimilate and win over the existing cultures with new products and
37 services. Ager (2005) cites an example from France, stating that the French managed to keep
38 a system of relationships to maintain their supremacy over their ex-colonies. France's aim
39 was to maintain privileged relations with its former colonies by ensuring that the French
40 language was used, that education was provided in and through French, and that cultural
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3 activities through the medium of French were available. It is, therefore, almost impossible for
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5 an ex- French colony to reject any business deal from an MNC which has a predominantly
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7 French interest, based on any risk assessment.
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10 The historical relationship was designed to ensure domination of the colonies for their
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12 projected intention and gains. This is evident in the type of administrative and leadership
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14 style, and legacies and development programmes provided by the colonialists in Africa. In
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16 addition, Iheriohanma and Oguoma (2010) indicated that the development structures and
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18 policies by the colonialists never allowed space for the emergent leaders in Africa to revolt
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20 against the structures, or worse still, that these leaders did not realise it was necessary to
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22 reform the inherited development structures to the needs of Africa and Africans. Furthermore,
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24 non-transparent resource management is part of the infrastructure required for efficient neo-
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26 colonial exploitation, whereby the economic and commercial interests of rich countries take
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28 precedence over effective financial control (Blaut, 1973; Verschave, 1998). Duruigbo (2005,
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30 2014), in his extensive research work, confirms that MNCs have been the beneficiaries of the
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32 risks that they create and that the only losers are the small businesses and the citizens of these
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34 countries. As a result of the issues enumerated above, the current claims that Africa is rising
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36 must also be considered alongside the rising levels of debt, as documented by the *Financial*
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38 *Times* (2017). Consequently, the perpetuation of risk negatively impacts on Africa's ability to
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40 improve its financial status.
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46 **Conclusion and implications**

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48 This paper has critically explored the contextual factors in the pre-colonial and post-colonial
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50 eras that affect the ways MNCs conduct business in Africa. Drawing on the methodological
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52 approaches of nonlinear historical narrative, this paper maintains that the language, culture,
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54 and educational system have shaped the language of risk used by MNCs doing business.
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56 These antecedents produce risk and uncertainty for which post-independent Africa struggles
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3 to deal with effectively. The theory and conceptual trends of risk in IB have been reviewed,
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5 and it is clear that risk and uncertainty are lived experiences of people within a social,
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7 political, economic and religious context. In addition, in conceptualising the manufactured
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9 risks arising from business practice in Africa, this paper argues that there is associated risk of
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11 co-option at play. A combination of trans-modern and pluriversal perspective within African
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13 societies and knowledge which reflect the realities of today within the context of the
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15 historical experiences of the African countries.
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19 In view of the issues identified, there are political implications for the nation-states as MNCs
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21 utilise the instabilities and weaknesses of governments on the continent to seek and exploit
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23 resources to maintain their competitive advantage at a global level. In terms of economic
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25 implications, weaker governments cannot have an effective development programme for their
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27 countries, thereby perpetuating a cycle of uncertainty and unemployment, particularly within
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29 younger generations. Economic instability leads to social unrest, whereby governments are
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31 continuously held accountable for the inadequacies in social inequality.
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35 On the theoretical side, given the potential increase of emerging market multinational
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37 activities at the current time, the emic-etic approach and native categorisation could become
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39 the cornerstone of strategic decision-making employed by multinationals operating within
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41 Africa (Buckley and Chapman, 1997; Adams *et al.*, 2017; Buckley, Chapman and Gajewska-
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43 De, 2014). In international business circles, emic is used in the context of being cross-
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45 culturally incomparable, by highlighting the differences between nation states. The etic, on
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47 the other hand, is used as being cross-culturally comparable which reinforces the
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49 convergence argument that business language, cultures and policies around the world are
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51 converging. In this method, the understanding of how local people think, perceive and
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53 classify their world, their rules for behaviour, how they imagine and interpret their world and
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55 the things that surround them should form the basis of the operational strategy for MNCs
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3 entering the African marketplace. Whilst most international business research involves cross-
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5 cultural data, the conclusions drawn from the analysis have focused on interpreting local
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7 languages and culture, attitudinal and behavioural phenomena using Western lenses rather
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9 than anthropological and ethnomethodological lenses (Doz, 2011, Sinkovics, Peng and
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11 Ghauri, 2008).
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14 Understanding these underlying factors could have profound implications for the future
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16 direction of cross-cultural and international business research. Additionally, the polarity of
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18 the investment direction is reversed, making this research timely as IB research begins to
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20 grapple with the current ethical challenges facing emerging market multinationals operating
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22 in other emerging markets. In dealing with risks manufactured by MNCs, the advantages of
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24 treating the emic approach as equally beneficial would undoubtedly lead to future research
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26 that focuses more on *native categories* of the African marketplace as suggested by Sinkovics
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28 *et al.*, (2008); Buckley and Chapman (1997).
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33 This paper extends the current debate on reinventing entry strategies into emerging markets
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35 (London and Hart, 2004; Cuervo-Cazurra, 2012) by arguing that the understanding of the
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37 native categories within the African context by MNCs could enhance new ways of
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39 conceptualising risk. In this sense, the starting point of any theoretical analysis on the risks
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41 arising out of conducting business in Africa must acknowledge the specificities of the African
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43 context in terms of local ideas, knowledge, history, language and methods of business
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45 practice which are different from those in the West. It could mean that MNCs need to see the
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47 African culture, language and philosophy of doing business as a resource, rather than a risk in
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49 itself. In addition, following critical analysis of the internalisation and RBV theories, the
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51 benefit-attention that FDI has enjoyed to date should be presented alongside the
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53 manufactured risks arising from MNCs as a result of their rent and resource-seeking
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55 approaches on the African continent. In relation to this, the classical populist economic
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3 development strategy in African countries, whereby governments remove taxes, provide
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5 subsidies, legitimise and encourage inward FDI when faced with a crisis, frequently produces
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7 economic and political problems as domestic economic interests are usually crowded out in
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9 favour or large MNCs.
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12 On a practical level, it is imperative for African governments to implement a nationalist-
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14 modernising strategy whereby the levels of export from local businesses could initially be
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16 proportioned to the levels of MNCs' resource-seeking activities. This approach would ensure
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18 the proliferation of local business groups that could gain access to local and international
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20 capital in order to maximise local production. In this sense, the government would not have
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22 to deal with the consequences of risk and the associated challenges that emanate from the
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24 flight of capital.
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27 28 29 **Future research** 30

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32 This paper has explored the rational, psychological and social constructions of risk. It would
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34 be advantageous in future research to explore the pressure put upon African governments to
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36 integrate these manufactured risks in the way business is conducted. In addition, a full
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38 empirical and theoretical enquiry to examine the nature of manufactured risk from an African
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40 perspective on the discursive psychological methodology to investigate how African leaders
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42 report on risk, as risk theories in Western-based theories are likely to be exaggerated and
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44 discursively shaped by their own ideals, which do not necessarily apply to the contextual
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46 realities in Africa. The Eurocentric theories and approaches to conceptualising risk in Africa,
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48 its assessment and management methods are limited and subsequently create different forms
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50 of conflict due to MNCs' resource and rent-seeking approaches to conducting business in
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