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Defining Pop-up Stores

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Keywords

pop-up stores; pop-up retailing; ephemeral retailing

Abstract

Purpose of the research: *The purpose of this paper is to define pop-up stores.*

Design/Methodology: *Adopting an exploratory research design, semi-structured interviews and field observations were undertaken with brand managers of different types of pop-up stores and at different industry levels in Lebanon.*

Results/findings: *A pop-up store is guided by a clear strategy to meet specific objectives using available resources. Research findings highlight a clear distinction between pop-up stores developed by newly established brands and mature brands in terms of purpose and function. The two brand classes can each manifest in four types of pop-up stores: pop-up as a distribution channel, pop-up as a communications channel, pop-up as a distribution and communications channel and pop-up complementing a distribution channel.*

Practical implications and conclusions: *This study qualitatively explores brand managers' understanding of pop-up stores, their perceptions and their uses in the Middle Eastern market; a market that hasn't yet been explored in academic research related to these types of stores. It presents, defines and contextualizes a pop-up store and anchors it among new types of retail formats.*

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Introduction

The business of pop-up

The development of environmental and social factors coupled with the customer's everchanging consumption preferences and how they wish to consume greatly affect retail formats; they mutate previous or older formats and morph them into context-relevant ones; pop-up stores are the latest examples. This paper aims to define pop-up stores and to explore available types that can be adopted by different brands.

Pop-up retailing has captured the attention of brands through the past decade, and they have become "more than just trends"; their implantation throughout the years has given them a considerable weight and an interesting dimension. To illustrate their success, the pop-up industry has reached a 10-billion-dollar figure, according to the "Pop-Up Republic", a brand-property matchmaking agency. Since the organization's set up in 2012, more than 30 000 retail brands and restaurants have registered on the company's website to search for adequate spaces to set up their pop-up stores.

Other short-term leasing companies such as Go Vacant (Go Vacant, 1999), Storefront and Appear Here specialize in finding temporary properties for brands who wish to engage temporary retail; this demonstrates the extent to which brands needed to rethink their distribution strategies. Finding a temporary location is now easily performed with the three-step process, as Storefront communicates on its website: "Choose a location, connect, launch your project" (Storefront, n.d.).

A "Business Insider" article (Kim, 2016) revealed that Amazon, an e-commerce giant, is doubling its points of sales with forecasted plans to invest in up to 100 pop-up stores in American commercial spaces. Such an announcement draws attention that major online retailers, like Amazon, are marrying their virtual presence with a physical one, and thus embarking on a new winning relationship. Most pure

players that engaged in pop-up stores have noticed an increase in sales during the event's lifetime (Kim, 2016 and Addady, 2016).

These types of stores are not restricted to fashion brands; pop-up hotels, restaurants, and parks are all around us (Mandelbaum, 2013). Initially, the definition of pop-up shops was attributed to small merchants, in towns or countrysides, who set up playful temporary installations, infiltrated into the retail landscape and closed down once their proposed merchandise was sold out. Pop-up stores are conceived in different forms and formats, different sizes and can be found in diverse locations: A concession (store in a shop), a gallery or an event space, a kiosk or stand in a mall or department, a motorized vehicle, a hangar or inflatable balloon or modular structure or a vacant space at the street level; the most popular format so far (Boustani, 2021).

The evolution of pop-up stores

The origin of the term "pop-up" (Stephens, 2012) is traced back to an event that was observed by American managers who were visiting Japan. The "pop-up" pioneers observed Japanese customers queuing for hours to get hold of a limited-edition item. Once the stock sold out, the store was simply closed before another stock or brand arrived (Gagliardi, 2012 and Hutchison, 2009). This was the key element to shaping the pop-up concept in Los Angeles. The phenomenon gave birth to short-term leasing online platforms where brands could find spaces that meet their requirements for pop-up stores.

A pop-up store seems to equally benefit the customer and the retailer: To the former, it engages a feeling of superiority, excitement and happiness by providing fully sensorial experiences, and giving brands the chance to manifest in different locations. To the latter, the advantage is minimizing risk (Dean, 2012), controlling the cost of set-up, testing or experimentation and stimulating a considerable movement of stock.

The attractiveness of, and the attraction to pop-up stores lies in their limited duration and the imprecision of their life span (Shopify, n.d.); this is one of their characterizing advantages. "Here today, gone tomorrow" or, "now you see it; now you don't" (Economist, 2009) reflects the urgency that motivates customers to take instant actions due to the probability of not finding the pop-up tomorrow. This keeps taking people by surprise (Koch, 2006), engaging and inciting them (Kerr, 2007) to visit "clandestine stores" (Dean, 2012) before they disappear. Seasonality plays a key determinant (Shopify, n.d.) in the conception and later on pop-up stores' success. It is during times when customers are most vulnerable to take any action, such as exploring, tasting, trying, participating and purchasing, that putting a pop-up store upfront seems most relevant.

While an ephemeral store can be characterized by its "portable" distribution concept (Losif, 2015), it can also serve as a communications tool, delivering the brand's promise to customers (Shopify, n.d.); it is characterized by its strong abilities to reflect a concept and transport it to the audience. A major benefit is that mounting or dismantling pop-up stores (Hallisy, 2006 and Ryan, 2008). This phenomenon opens up a new, unconventional and inexpensive form of retailing (Carapiet, 2009). These stores serve all types of brands, especially digital natives, as they give them the ability to "take a physical form".

Despite the many advantages of pop-up stores, they can have some shortcomings. If relied on as a sole brand distribution channel, a pop-up store can not necessarily support the brand's sustainability, due to its short duration. Moreover, the impact of these stores may disappear if the concept lasts a long time or if the same concept is repeated several times. Besides, there is only a short period to generate profits from a specific ephemeral store and thus making it very difficult for a brand to generate profitable outcomes assuring the brand's survival and sustainability. Finding a location or securing the right lease for the pop-up is not easy especially when the brand has limited budgets but still aims for popping up at a particular location and a specific period (Tomlinson, 2014).

Crucial to a pop-up store's conception is the choice of location. It can help in giving the store more visibility and facilitate customers' accessibility. A particularly strategic location can attract competition and transform a site into an attractive destination. When it comes to selecting a location, a pop-up store can choose to appear in abandoned sites that it eventually revives and reinvents (Horne, 2014), locations that it creates (Daily Star, 2015) or locations that happen to be in attractive neighbourhoods.

Brands couple up efforts to draw customers into the pop-up store by sharing with them important information on social media platforms (Marciniak & Budnarowska, 2009). Once at the location or the

event, customers get in touch with the brand as well as other customers and can revert to social media sites to share or comment about their visit to the pop-up store. It seemed that e-commerce would negatively affect the presence of traditional (physical) stores or push them to redefine their offers. Nevertheless, it seems that the development of new physical formats support, complement or revitalize, online stores (Diegel, 2014) by injecting novelty and reducing dullness (Fortini, 2004).

A pop-up store is considered a communications tool that the brand relies on to trigger positive word-of-mouth (Boustani, 2019). Some consider that it is an alternative marketing communication approach that the brand employs for strategic or tactical reasons and tailors to individuals who are actively seeking new and lively retail experiences (Sherman, 2008).

The difference between pop-up stores and traditional stores

When comparing a pop-up store to a traditional store, an interesting aspect stands out: a pop-up store resembles an event that amazes and entertains thanks to animations and activities that it offers. The Cambridge dictionary defined the pop-up as a store that opens suddenly and for a short period, taking advantage of empty spaces (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.) and creating friendly moments of socialization with customers and amongst customers; it is an event to which the customer is invited to and in which he participates and feels privileged. The traditional point of sale, on the other hand, becomes a stable anchor that efficiently manifests, and on a regular rhythm, an exhaustive offering answering to customers' desires (Klépierre & QualiQuanti, 2015). For brands and retailers that are looking for "casual" marketing strategies, the choice of pop-up stores supports them with introducing new products and expanding their offerings.

The pop-up store is a "quirky" store allowing the brand to keep its independence in terms of physical look and representation; it can move its display and equipment as much as needed, where needed (Newton, 2017) and go to meet customers instead of urging customers to visit (Girish, 2016). It generates a feeling of urgency in the sense of "get it while it lasts" and therefore, drives instant actions from them. With pop-up stores, brands can personify, give form or even validate in "real-time" ideas, concepts or communications that have been shared giving customers an in-depth understanding of the brand's value proposition.

Gilles Lipovetsky's postmodern philosophy explains that: "in the new economy of capitalism, it is about soliciting emotions, stimulating emotions, dreaming, feeling and entertaining" (Lipovetsky & Serroy, 2016). Today's customers relate pop-up stores to happy and entertaining shopping experiences as they are constantly presenting animations and surprises (Influencia, 2015). They visit pop-up stores to live a unique and different shopping experience (Filsler, 2011). As customers are looking for new experiences on one hand and brands are investing in providing customers with experiences, on the other hand, ephemeral is becoming a "structural principle" (Picot- Coupey, 2012).

Research aims

A clear understanding of the pop-up store, in terms of what it is or where it stands amongst retail channels or other brand channels, has not yet been fully explored in academic literature. There seems to be a blurry delineation of the concept confusing the conceptualization of the term. Moreover, there is no definition for pop-up stores and many concepts could be interchangeably found across literature; however, definitions serve a given description of these store types given a particular time, environment or situation.

Despite pop-up store diffusion and adoption by many brands and retailers, very little academic literature studied the topic. These studies focused on the context of fashion and luxury brands, on pop-up stores as a foreign operations mode or as an international development network. Moreover, studies have tightly connected pop-up stores to experiential marketing and have attempted to explain the phenomenon of exciting customers rather than look at pop-up stores from the brand's organization stand. The literature review detailed each of these concepts by drawing a line from a starting point to an ending point interlinking with pop-up stores. Thus, we are faced with the problem of understanding the true definition of a pop-up store and being able to know where it stands within the marketing or distribution channels.

Methodology

Due to the nature of the situation at hand, an exploratory study seemed most relevant. Employing semi-structured interviews (Alexander, et al. 2018) and field observations (Rudkowski, et al. 2020), valuable data was collected from different brand managers and entrepreneurs who have actively engaged in pop-up stores in Lebanon. Brands have been actively installing pop-up stores in the city of Beirut; however, the market had not been explored by academics yet. This study aims at discovering and exploring (Frisch, 1999) common practices of Lebanese brand managers with regards to their understanding and usage of pop-up stores.

Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews are best suited for an in-depth understanding of a given subject (Lunardo, et al., 2012 and Sabote & Ballester, 2011). They are credible sources of data collection and are used in exploratory studies (Mencarelli, 2008 and Fosse-Gomez & Özçaglar-Toulouse, 2009), empirical studies (Mayrhofer & Roederer, 2009), or interpretive studies (Lemoine, 2010). A relatively heterogeneous sample was interviewed (Lunardo, et al., 2012) during December 2015 and January 2016 in Beirut, Lebanon: a diversity of respondent profiles, ranging from high-end speciality stores to low-end ranges, across retail sectors. A total of 15 brand managers (30% managing emerging brands and 70% managing mature brands), having directly worked on a pop-up store project or having supervised a pop-up store project, were interviewed. The conversation was led by a revised semi-structured interview guide. After having taken permission to record the interview, the average time of exchange on the topic was 28 minutes. Data collection stopped when gathered information became repetitive; at this point, a semantic saturation level was achieved (Frippiat & Marquis, 2010).

In situ-Observations.

Semi-structured interviews made it possible to grasp the nature of the ephemeral stores, their interests and the reasons why managers are adopting them. Observation guides made it possible to approach, with further precision, the manifestation of brands through pop-up stores and their relationship with customers. These complementary methods (Poncin & Garnier, 2012) were associated to lead to a complete reading of the subject at hand.

In-situ observation helped to describe a pop-up store and its specificities (Evrard, et al., 2009). Our objective was to link together the threads related to the concept, the theme, the selection of products, the brand representatives, the crowd, the place, the location and so on (Bonnin, 2003 and Ghosh & Craig, 1983). After having visited the pop-up stores in Beirut, between the period of December 2015 and January 2016, we have filled in the observation grids (Evrard, et al., 2009) with notes that were collected during the visits (Pomodoro, 2013). All photos taken in each of the stores were also saved to be considered in the analysis.

Semi-structured interviews and in-situ observation enabled us to triangulate collected data (Picot-Coupey, 2014) as they displayed different and varied points of view. All collected data were digitally recorded and transcribed; double translations, French/English or Arabic/English, were performed when necessary. All pictures were digitally saved and organized under the relevant observed store's name, date and location.

We refer to established brands and establishing brands in the remainder of the paper: The former represents brands that have been on the market for a long time and have considerable recognition, and the latter refers to start-ups or brands in the process of development.

Pop-up store classifications and characteristics

What defines a pop-up store is its ability to reflect a specific season, respond to timing and adapt to a given location. Concerning the (establishing or established) brand's identity and position on the market, a clear strategic direction separates the pop-up store's course from being independently used as a distribution channel, a communications channel or both, and can be inscribed amongst multiple brand distribution channels.

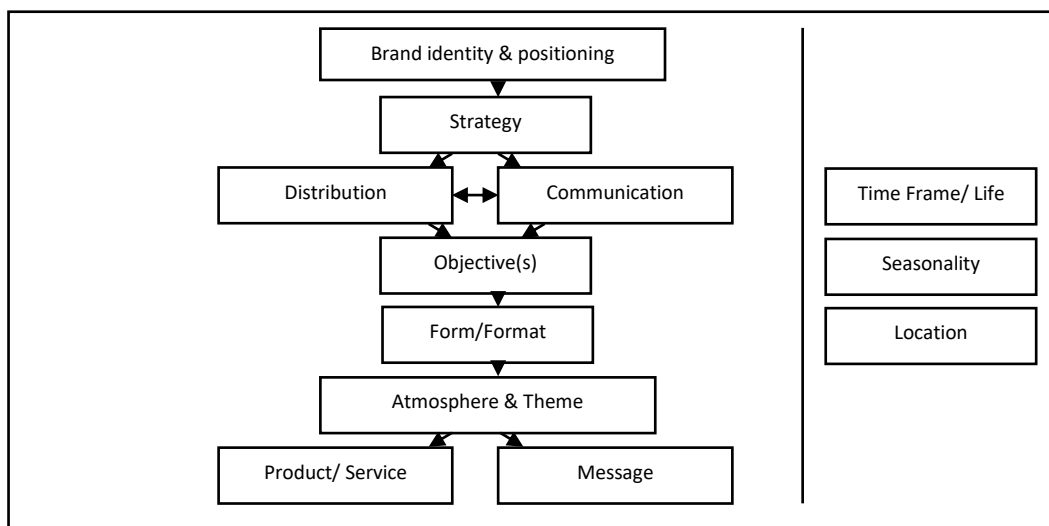
The strategy is then operationalized with a set of objectives, such as testing, experimenting, triggering actions or advancing an experience. The pop-up store's chosen format reflects the brand's identity and the strategic discourse, and will, in turn, inspire the environment, atmosphere, and theme. Displaying

products or services, or simply proposing a space with messages answers to the initial brand pop-up store's *raison d'être*. The pop-up store's descriptive and characterizing aspects refer to its limitation in time, the location it adopts and the seasonality during which it appears.

Pop-up store characterising features

Even though there are many common practices between different brands at different industry levels and with different positioning, our study highlighted a typology that puts forward two brand classes: establishing brands and established. The first type, establishing brands, looks at those brands in their early life cycle and who have minimal resources or no resources. They tend to operate haphazardly, opening space for trial and error. The latter is reserved to mature brands who can operationalize their resources with greater flexibility. Established brands are focused on their approach; they inscribe it in a long-term plan that considers the pop-up as part of other channels (whether online or offline) that it owns.

Figure 1- Defining pop-up stores



Common to both types of brands are customer-centricity. Customer behaviours guide brands, along their life cycle, in all aspects related to strategic decisions (Bauer & Auer-Srnka, 2012). A clear strategy directs brands into “what” actions are needed to be taken followed by “how” they will be applied. At both ends of the spectrum, setting up a pop-up store considers how the store format's atmosphere is going to be designed and what will be proposed in the atmosphere (Alexander, et al.2018). Knowing that it has to respect a given time, seasonality (Zola, 1999 and Bishop & Williams, 2012) and choose a relevant location (Moore & Fairhurst, 2003).

At an early stage of the brand's development, distribution and communications activities aim to gather the highest number of consumers to create brand awareness (Surchi, 2011, Picot-Coupey, 2014 and Russo Spena, et al., 2012). They also announce its presence on the market and gain eventual recognition and positive associations. Mature brands focus on a specific purpose when developing a pop-up store. They operationalize all brand elements at all touchpoint levels to speak the same language. This results in greater efficiency and effectiveness.

Information gathered from the exploratory study showed that an establishing brand's purpose is to engage in pop-up stores to “create a momentum”, as they need it to connect with consumers and try to engage in a relationship with them. Pop-up stores help establishing brands explore distribution or communications channels; as at early stages, they seek maximum visibility. They also help establishing brands in exploring the physical space and evaluating it before making decisions related to the possibility of moving to a permanent physical location. Mobility and access to new markets bring to light a brand to customers, competitors or potential buyers and investors. Pop-up stores allow a novice brand to take the

extra mile and seek expansion opportunities outside of its comfort zone, whether locally or across borders, in different formats and so on.

A pop-up store shrinks the time between information sharing, customer response, and merchandise movement. We are keen on differences between brand business models, seniority on the market and the maturity level it has reached. Nevertheless, what is apparent and common amongst established brands is the clarity in terms of vision when it comes to working with pop-up stores. These brands go to where customers are, they search for a well-thought location considering customer dwell and accessibility. They conceive a pop-up store to attract, capture and turn heads; it could be a communications medium by its rights or can be a channel through which an offering is proposed to customers. When a brand's strategy is inscribed in multi-channel or omnichannel retailing, the pop-up store's atmosphere becomes a crucial touchpoint connecting customers to the brands' social channels, online stores, physical stores and so on. The availability of funds and willingness to invest in a pop-up store affects its form, atmosphere and the extent to which a customer experience is designed.

This research classifies pop-up stores as establishing brands and established brands, whereby the first-class looks at brands that are at a very young phase of the life cycle and the second has already reached maturity. A brand's resources are the main dividers to developing a pop-up store: capabilities, expertise and capital. The purpose and function refer to objectives a pop-up store aims to meet and the relevant ways it will employ to do so.

	Driver	Purpose (What)	Function (How)	Approach
New/Developing brands	"lack" of resources	Create a momentum	Advance an experience & socialise	Short-term
		Explore a new channel	Create excitement and desirability	
		Expand opportunities	Intrigue	Test/Experiment/Learn
Mature/Established brands	"operationalization" of resources	Location availability	Advance an experience & socialize	Long-term
		Attention-grabbing	Trigger (specific) action	
		Communicate	Create a buzz/ Trigger word of mouth	Test/Experiment/Learn
		Sell/ Move stock	Create a hype	

Table 1- Categorization of Pop-up Stores

Positioning pop-up stores

The malleability that a pop-up store presents to brands makes it less of a conformed retail format. Depending on the brand's nature, identity, and strategic decisions, it chooses to position the pop-up store under its communications channel, distributions channel or simultaneously under both channels. Operating as a pop-up or operating with a pop-up? By "nature of the brand" we mean whether the brand is an online or offline operation or operates with various distributions channels. Pop-up stores are implanted to serve the brand's strategy to either exist as a sole physical format, as a supporting physical format or as a complement to its digital presence.

Literature explained the origins and nature of pop-up stores and the triggers that led to their development. It presents cases describing how pop-up stores support and complement digital brands, how pop-up stores are used to expand into other markets, how pop-up stores are exploited to promote

and distribute, simultaneously, seasonal lines in seasonal locations or meet up potential buyers and customers during yearly calendar events (Langlois, 2002; Vandaele, 1986 and Niehm, et al., 2007).

Pop-up stores allow shrinking the time for customers to move between several brand distributions channels and thus consolidate several touchpoints (Jain & Bagdare, 2009) in one place and a defined time frame. The brand can disseminate a message through different communications channels (online and offline), repeat the message on the pop-up store's site, propose products and services along with team support onsite, and allow customers to instantly have feedback and share it with others (onsite, online or by propagating word-of-mouth).

The pop-up store's atmosphere is equipped with all facilitating information (website address, social site addresses, QR codes, hashtags, weblinks, physical store addresses, contact numbers or email addresses). In cases when the pop-up is purely intended to communicate a message without displaying any merchandise, it will still use different tools to move the customer between its various channels, such as its store, website, social sites. A pop-up store is a unique tool in its rights. It can be manipulated according to the brand's needs, conditional to following a defined strategy and set to achieve specific objectives.

Brand categorization	Purpose and function	Typology
New/Developing brands	Concept/Identity	Pop-up as Distribution Channel
	Pop-up's positioning	Pop-up as Communication Channel
Mature/ Established brands	Strategy	Pop-up as Distribution & Communication Channel
	Objectives	Pop-up Complementing Distribution Channel(s)

Table 2-Typology of Pop-up Stores

A brand is encouraged to "dress up differently" when popping up in different locations. Respecting the brand's idea is key to presenting the pop-up store's format and design; even if the brand represents itself in different looks, they should all project a unique identity: the ephemeral store must be coherent and congruent with its identity; it must speak the same language across all brand touchpoints, including pop-up stores. The choice of elements composing the pop-up store's atmosphere is of major importance as it is the point of direct contact between the brand and the consumer. Product choice, light, music, installations, decorations; all "saying the same thing".

Conceiving, communicating and launching the ephemeral store at the right time and in the right place attract the (desirable) consumer profile and entices him to visit. It is at the moment of the consumer's contact with the atmosphere that he will interact with the brand and experience feelings of joy and excitement. Those who are most interested in the offer (in case it is presented) will buy or spend more time examining the space, spend time learning, or just spend a pleasant interacting with the space or with others. An important duality becomes more apparent; the brand wants to create an appealing environment with which the customer can interact, and the customer desires to interact with the brand's environment and derives a positive outcome. Noticeably, the social dimension appears to be of major importance for both the brand and the customer.

The pop-up store itself becomes an entity that the brand deliberately manipulates and shapes to distribute and/or communicate the brand's products, services or information, to achieve specific objectives. It acts as a vivid, dynamic, bubbly format that engages, surprises and delights customers and that brand managers consider as a "happy event."

Discussion of the findings

With a clear purpose in mind, an established or establishing brand uses the pop-up store to explore or add up to its existing distribution channels or to create a brand happening at a given moment in time. The pop-up store becomes itself the medium, a source of stimulation (Bonnin, 2006) and a brand representation conceptualizing its identity and personifying its character. It provides the space and means to interact and get closer to customers, conveys a message, and when needed, allows transactions and exchange to take place. In any of the reasons leading to the adoption of a pop-up store, they have to

funnel down to the finality of meeting a brand's strategic objective (Pontier, 1988) and advancing a customer experience (Sohier & Bree, 2014; Roederer, 2012; Babin, et al., 1994 and Filser, 2008).

"Experiences" are the result of an individual's interaction with a given object in a given situation (Jain & Bagdare, 2009); they requisite consumer interaction and active participation (Pine & Gilmore, 1999 and Carù & Cova, 2003) in a given context (Srinivasan & Srivastava, 2010). When there are fewer investments to creating experiential environments (Russo Spena, et al., 2012 and Kim, et al., 2010), minimal interactions will be notably experienced by customers (Antéblan, et al., 2013). The experience's valance in a pop-up store varies in function of the experiential context and its ability to provide grounds of contact between an individual and the brand.

Understanding the brand experience seems to differ along the opposite sides of the spectrum. This draws attention to establishing brands, having fewer investment capabilities in hand, and who are less able to create experiential outlets allowing customers to develop experience, as opposed to established brands. The pop-up store becomes one of the brand's touchpoints (Surchi, 2011) that guarantees, due to its characteristics, a direct relationship and interaction between the brand and customer to finally lead to memorabilia (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Even though it is a common discourse to say that pop-up stores deliver experiences, they would be less able and capable to do so without considerable investments for conceptualization, establishment, and operationalization of the pop-ups format.

It seems optimistic that a newly established brand, with minimal resources, creates an experiential environment that can induce a customer experience (Taube & Warnaby, 2017). For newly established brands, offering a brand experience through a pop-up store looks at proposing to customers something different and new (Picot-Coupey, 2014). However, it seems that these brands are not offering something that customers perceive as "new"; rather, they are portraying something "new"; something that the brand has not done beforehand and that goes beyond utilitarian consumption (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). If customers don't see the value in the brand's offering, then they will be less inclined to take positive action towards the newly established brand's pop-up.

Having a unique feature, flexibility, and malleability, the pop-up store's attribution under distributions or communications relates to the initial purpose that a brand has thought of to meet a specific objective: pop-up stores become a means to an end. Established brands value the fact that a pop-up store elicits customer emotional reactions. This is linked to the understanding that the store's conception, its ability to appropriate customers (Bonnin, 2002) and the offering's presentation should elicit emotional reactions. Emotional reactions should lead to positive behavioural reactions, such as purchase response and an increase of the time spent in the pop-up store.

Creating demand through a pop-up store falls under the logic of coordinating effects amongst several brand distribution channels and paving the way for customers' active participation through and within (Cardoso, et al., 2013 and Hart, et al., 2000). The pop-up store could be considered as a tool to communicate when a brand operates with different distribution channels or could be used as a means to sell if the (established) brand is hoping to promote a specific offering (Lowe, et al., 2018).

Customers might have different experiences throughout the pop-up store's life. The large majority of pop-up stores communicate before the happening, during and after the pop-up store's implantation. It is not a rule of thumb that a customer's experience is consistently maintained across all stages of the pop-up store; it can alter between positive or negative valance along the way. Established and establishing brand managers refer to the brand's positioning to set up a clear pop-up strategy. They look at all aspects and stages of the pop-up store's development and realization to meet all set objectives.

Limitations and future research avenues

This study, being carried out on the Lebanese market may reflect local specificities. It would be interesting to collect data from European, American and Asian markets to identify similarities or differences related to pop-up stores. Given the exploratory nature of our research, conclusions drawn deserve to be put into perspective. Indeed, our study has limited external validity due to the size and composition of our sample. The study could also be repeated in Lebanon, to examine the phenomenon across several geographical areas and take across borders of other Middle Eastern countries; this to confirm findings related to the pop-up store typologies and to be able to compare them to typologies that could be relative to other markets.

In the context of our study, the number of interviews has been stopped as soon as we reached a semantic saturation threshold. In cases when there might be a possibility to explore points of view of other pop-up store brand managers operating in different geographical areas, we could hope to find other discourses enriching information about pop-up retail. Previous studies have put forward pop-up store categorizations in a fashion-related context. Four conceptual and theoretical categories were identified (Pomodoro, 2013): “a concept brand store, a community store, a test store and a sustainable temporary store”. After having defined and classified pop-up stores, we put forward a typology for pop-ups: depending on the brand’s class and under the guidance of a clear strategy and defined objectives, four types of pop-up stores can be identified: The pop-up store as Distribution Channel, The pop-up store as Communication Channel, The pop-up store as Distribution Channel and Communication Channel and finally, The pop-up store as a complement to the distribution channel.

The qualitative data collection’s synthesis highlights pop-up store characterizing features on the Lebanese market: A pop-up store is a creative platform through which the brand put forward a retail format designed to innovatively serve a previously established purpose. It is the pop-up store’s idea (or concept) that is central to its design. Future studies related to the understanding of pop-up stores suggest collecting qualitative data for an extended period. This allows gathering a greater and varied amount of information to examine and study. Pop-up stores are highly concentrated in the area of Beirut, Lebanon; no other pop-up stores have been reported in other Lebanese cities during the time of the study. Therefore, other representations in other major cities might have led to observing different store formats and varied interpretations.

Conclusion

Despite the adoption of pop-up stores by brands and their integration in brand retail strategies, there is still ambiguity around the definition of pop-up retail and a pop-up store. This research aimed to put forward a definition that clarifies the nature and utilities of pop-up stores.

An establishing or established brand, with a clear identity and positioning, draws clear objectives that it aims to meet from its communications or distributions strategy. The choice of the pop-up store’s format and shape reflect the brand’s identity and will directly influence the pop-up store’s atmospheric conception, the choice of products and the communicated message. Fundamental to any pop-up store is its implantation at the right place, time and with the perfect timing.

The eccentricity of pop-up stores makes them more appealing to customers and entices brands to reinvent the retail environment and experience. This research highlights the importance of conceiving pop-up stores with attention to brand identity and their integration with brand distribution and communications practices. It also emphasizes the importance of planning the pop-up store in such a way that makes it relevant and appealing, here and now. Retailers can highly benefit from pop-up stores as they help them meet commercial or non-commercial objectives. However, this does not mean that pop-up stores will be a winning solution for any brand and at any time. Careful planning of pop-up store applications and an understanding of efforts that have to be made at all brand levels are not to be overlooked.

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Role of fashion as a form of therapy among women with disabilities in South African

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Keywords

body image, disability, fashion, women with disability, Johannesburg, South Africa.

Abstract

Purpose: Previous studies have highlighted the important role, fashion can play on one's cognition and behaviour and how one's body is impacted, especially people with disabilities. Due to the inconclusive results on the topic, we decided to undertake an empirical study in South Africa to determine how fashion can be used to help women with disabilities to deal with issues of body image, low esteem and negative mindset.

Literature review: The study reviewed the literature on body image and disability, body image and fashion as well as on fashion therapy and body image.

Methodology: The study adopted a qualitative research design while interviews were used as means of primary data collection. Data analysis was done by means of coding the participants' responses before conclusions were drawn about the participants' views. Findings: Findings reveal that fashion can help women with disabilities to deal with the issues related to low self-esteem and body image.

Implications: The study ends with recommendations to include other segments of the disabled community in the study, as well as to expand the study in the other parts of the country. The study adds a tremendous knowledge of how to better treat people with disability.

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Introduction

Many women with disabilities are experiencing body image and low self-esteem issues in their living environments. This has led to the development of studies on how disabilities affect body image and how women with disabilities, especially those between the age of 20-35 use fashion as a form of therapy. In South Africa, "disabilities" is an umbrella term used to define impairments, activity restrictions or both, that individuals may face over a long-term or recurring period (South African Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998). In support of this definition of the Act, the South African Human Rights Commission (2017) stipulates those impairments may be of a physical and/or mental nature, where a physical impairment relates to "a partial or total loss of a body function or part of the body" while a mental impairment is a condition which impacts one's "thought, processes, judgment or emotions".

Consistent to the above definitions and in line with the current study, Tiwari and Kumar (2015) described the concept of body image as relates to the "perceptions" individuals have of their bodies, often relating to physical features, impacted by society one's body image has the ability to affect their mental health and "well-being".

Venkatasamy and Saravanan (2015) postulate that not enough research has been conducted to investigate how fashion can be used as a therapy, specifically to the people with disabilities. Generally, fashion is used for artistic, cultural, communication, political and various other reasons, and despite its significant amount of potential it has to help women with disabilities, it is rarely used for the betterment of the society.

However, as stated by Son, Kim, Lee and Lee (2015), this distant attitude towards the therapeutic role of fashion has started to shift its position in society as many have noticed the positive impact that fashion now has on people's "attitude, behaviours and emotions". Son *et al.*, (2015) go further and explain that

fashion is also used as a form of “grooming” to better physical appearance acts therapeutically, as it improves body image; therefore, impacting one’s mental health in a positive way.

This study aims to make a contribution in the way people understands disability among women, and how fashion can be used to deal with issues that affect those women with disabilities in South African context.

Literature review

In situations where individuals have visible impairments, one’s body image is often negatively impacted as they are often discriminated by society and seen as imperfect for not looking like a non-disabled person, therefore, causing individuals with disabilities to feel embarrassment and self-loathing, as their emotions towards themselves are moulded by societies opinions about them (Taleporos & McCabe, 2002). Regardless of this old literature, the core of their work about human behaviour, body image and disabilities still remain relevant as it is still on par with recent research stating that self-image is directly related to one’s “mental health” (Shpigelman & HaGani, 2019:2-3).

Based on the positive impact that fashion has on individuals, it is safe to say that the discipline of fashion could potentially be used to make positive changes in one’s body image, improving the state of mind individuals with disabilities have about themselves. It is also possible that the use of Fashion Therapy (FT) could not only have an impact on women with disabilities but also on society and its way of viewing people with disabilities.

Body Image and Disability

Grogan (2006); Cash and Smolak (2011); and Bailey, Gammage, van Ingen and Sarcone (2017) contend that “body image is a construct with cognitive, behaviour, and emotional elements as they relate to physical appearance”. This suggests that body image is a result of the way one thinks, feels and acts, in connection to the way that individual looks.

Taleporos and McCabe (2002); Shakespeare, Gillespie-Sells, and Davies (1996) speak about how people with physical disabilities are immediately shamed by society due to their conditions. This results in these individuals to look down on themselves and poor self-esteem. Based on the poor body image formed by the cynical impact society has on women with disabilities, their “cognition, behaviour, and emotions” suffer. These women with disabilities are trained to see themselves the way society perceives them, linking back to Sarcone (2017).

Furthermore, Taleporos and McCabe (2002) and Mayers (1978), postulate that women with disability need to be trained to look at themselves in a full-length mirror and working toward seeing themselves as attractive and not as the ugly creature that some societies had pushed them to believe they were. A woman with a disability can uses fashion to feel beautiful and confident, gradually building on her body image and self-esteem. By using fashion for these reasons, she is training herself to believe that she is beautiful, thus relating to FT.

Body Image and Fashion

Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017) speak about the psychology of clothing and how fashion has a positive impact on one’s mental health, self-esteem and therefore, one’s body image. Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017) and Turner (1993), report that the embodiment of clothing could act as a “social skin”, as clothing impacts one’s body image and mental health. The “social skin” implying that fashion can be used to better one’s body image. Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017) also express that the feel of specific clothing or accessories can evoke memories in people with mental disabilities. By evoking memories in people, the garment or accessory is likely to act as comfort for individuals, allowing them to develop confidence and an improved body image. Sarcone (2017) cites Tomas and Marron (2016) and McDermott, Mullen, Moloney, Keegan, Byrne, Doherty, Cullen, Malone, and Mulcahy’s (2015) work to explain that fashion is used as a “canvas” where individuals can express themselves, and can; therefore, relate to the “social skin”, where individuals can use clothing to express themselves in a confident manner.

Additionally, Son et al., (2015) posit that fashion influences one’s “attitudes, behaviours, and emotions”, while Sarcone (2017) explained that one’s body image is influenced by one’s “attitudes,

behaviours, and emotions". Both authors, together with Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017) substantiate one another in their works, as they all link and correspond with one another.

In a different view, Mair (2018) expresses that the ideals of beauty change with time and that many "people want to match the ideals of their time and culture". The incurred poor body image is because their disabilities differentiate them from what society deems normal and attractive. Irrespective of whether individuals are able or disabled, the urge to fit in with current times relates to one having a sense of security. Therefore, a better self-esteem and body image is related to fashion conformity, as fashion acts as an outward appearance and "social skin", which is substantiated by Turner (1993), cited in the work of Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black (2017:19), and Masuch & Hefferon (2014:235).

Fashion Therapy and Body Image

Son et al., (2015:114-115) cites Horn and Gurel (1981) and Thompson (1962), expressing that FT is a form of "psychotherapy". Therefore, FT could potentially enable individuals with disabilities to improve their body image and self-esteem through the use of fashion, as fashion has the ability to change the appearance of people. FT, as a form of "psychotherapy" could be successful if used by women with disabilities to improve their body image. Literature substantiates that FT can be used to enhance one's body image, as fashion influences how one acts and thinks (Adam & Galinsky, 2012:918-919). The influence on one's mind and behaviour impact their body image and self-perception (Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black, 2017:18-20).

Revisiting what Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017:18-20) expressed in Body Image and Fashion, clothing that is of significance and comfort to someone with a disability could improve their self-confidence and mental health. These improvements are due to the clothing acting as a comfort-zone for them. The clothing, therefore, allows the individual to feel confident and happy in their skin (Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black, 2017:18-20). Turner (1993) cited by Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017:19), states that fashion as a "social skin" could impact one's body image and psychological state. This impact confirms that fashion can act as a form of therapy for women with a disability.

Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017:18-20) reports further that one can be reminded of memories by the touch and feel of garments and accessories. If women with disabilities use fashion that has happy and positive memories attached to it, as the memories would then influence the behaviour and emotions of the individual, potentially acting as therapy Sarcone (2017), and this ties in with what the aim of the study is. The work of Sarcone (2017) can be useful in the development of this study as it touches on the psychology of body image; as well as, body image and fashion, allowing for a deeper understanding that is valuable to the study.

Moody, Langdon and Karam (2018) cite Moody et al., (2009, 2010) and Kang, Johnson and Kim (2015), substantiating the theory that one's behaviour, emotions and cognition are potentially impacted by fashion, overall having the ability to shape the "well-being" of the user. Again, this literature works to prove the theory and objectives being researched in this study, as FT can be used to better one's emotions, cognition and actions, which in turn has a positive impact on one's body image.

Research methodology

The study being conducted is of a qualitative nature, since the purpose of this study is to gain rich, meaningful information which helps develop understanding to improve and better individuals and society. Being psychology-based research, the methodological choice used in this study is qualitative, as the study uses qualitative approach to investigate and find understanding around, fashion, body image, therapy and people with disabilities (Creswell, 2014:4).

The research strategy

Due to the nature of this study being qualitative, implying that the study is looking for accurate, unbiased and meaningful data, verifies the choice of using a survey as the research strategy. By means of interviews, the study used the narrative research strategy where participants re-counted their stories about their experiences of living with disabilities.

Population

The population of this study are women with disabilities in Johannesburg, between the ages of 20-35. This population is unknown and difficult to quantify without official South African statistics.

Sampling

The sample group chosen to represent the population for this study is based in the workplace of Progression, where all learners have either a physical or mental disability. The sample technique used in this study is the convenience technique, due to the sample group being based in the workplace, collecting data only from those willing to participate (Alvi, 2016). The convenience technique is appropriate for this study as the research is based on women with disabilities, which is majority of Progression's learners. The sample group is women aged 20-35 years and are all residing or working in Johannesburg. All participants have been diagnosed with a long-term disability by a medical practitioner, of which, their medical notes confirming their disabilities are verified and checked by the employers. The sample size chosen to represent the group of women with disabilities is approximately 30 respondents, as the sample group needs to be large enough to provide an accurate, reliable and relevant representation of the population it is representing.

Data collection and analysis

In this study, data is collected by means of interviews. Once the data has been collected, the data was analysed with colour coding, according to the question, and the answers to each question were coded by a key. Lastly, each question was coded by a shape according to which category the questions and answers fall. For instance, each category such as "user-psychology", "body image and disability", "fashion and therapy", and so forth would each have their colour, as data analysed can be colour coordinated according to the categories. Once coded, the categorised data were analysed, and the coding were reviewed, funnelling down the data and ensuring that only what is relevant is being used. The reviewing and funnelling of data occurred at least three times to ensure a thorough analysis of data. Notes were made during the coding process, probably on sticky notes as reminders of meanings, and concepts that are being brought up or carried through the research. Once the coding process was complete, the data was interpreted, and any qualitative findings were displayed visually to enable easy reading and analysis for the reader. Ways in which data were visually represented are by tables, diagrams and charts.

Questionnaire Development

There was no existing questionnaire to fulfil the purpose of this study. Therefore, the interview schedule was a self-designed. The point of departure was the identification of gaps in the literature, from which the questions were formulated.

All questions were developed to answer each research question; as well as, to fulfil the research objective and purpose. In this process, the questions were carefully worded and phrased to prevent any unethical issues, leading questions or misunderstanding. All questions were drafted and developed while writing out the literature review and research objectives. The questions were written as drafts, from which they were continuously revised and edited until they were at satisfactory level.

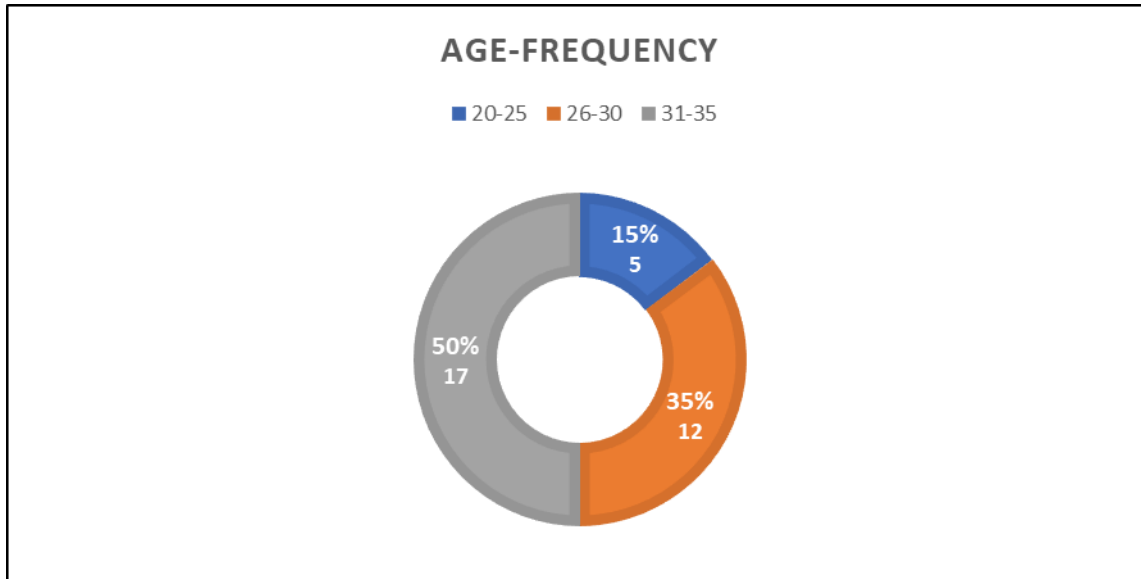
Lastly, the questions are re-arranged to create a logical and smooth flow. The questionnaire is deemed valid as it has been reviewed and approved by experts in the field. These experts had assisted in the process of revising and modifying questions, ensuring that the questionnaire aids in achieving all objectives of the study. Furthermore, the review process ensured that all questions were in line with the literature review and objectives being studied.

Findings/results and their discussions

Participant's identities

This study intends to identify and explore, through the views of women with disabilities, if fashion can be used as a form of therapy to improve the body image of women with disabilities. The participants in this study represent all types of disability, as the study does not focus on the distinction between physical and mental disabilities. In this study, 34 participants between the 20-35 we surveyed, where 50% of participants were in the age range of 31-35, 35% aged between 26-30, and only 15% of participants were aged 20-25 (as seen below).

All participants either work or reside in the Johannesburg region. This geographical data is evident in question 2; as well as, by the survey being conducted in the workplace (Progression). All participants are learners at Progression and therefore is evident that they have a professionally diagnosed disability (as a medical certificate is required for a learnership position at Progression).



This chart shows the age group statistics of participants and the frequency of each age group.

The impact of disability on body image

Majority of the participants believe that their body image is not affected by their disability, this could be a result of the fact that many individuals have dealt with and accepted their body image; however, it seems that many participants did not understand the term body image, despite being provided with the definition. This misunderstanding seems apparent as many participants speak about the actual appearance of their body, rather than the way they view and feel about their body and appearance. The potential misunderstanding could cause participants to answer out of context, therefore, creating an error in the data. Additionally, many participants stated that their body image is not affected by their disability as their disability is not physical and visible; therefore, they are not judged by society. This finding relates to Taleporos and McCabe (2002) who state that those with more significantly visible disabilities are prone to a substantially poor body image due to the barriers formed against them in comparison to those with milder or non-visible disabilities. Lastly, many participants stated that they deal with their body image by looking after their bodies and health, which could make them feel better and, therefore, improve their confidence and body image. Individuals that have and are still dealing with their body images relates to Taleporos and McCabe (2002) citing Mayers (1978), who speaks about training oneself to feel beautiful and confident

On the contrary, many participants expressed that their body image does affect their self-esteem and body image, mostly due to many of these participants having significantly visible disabilities (Mayers, 1978 cited in Taleporos and McCabe, 2002:972-973). Additionally, many explained that over time, they had acquired their disability, making them feel self-conscious. Furthermore, individuals have experienced physical changes in their appearance over time, which can be the result of the inability of some participants to move enough or due to the physical changes caused by their disability. As reported by Grogan (2006); Cash & Smolak (2011); Bailey, Gammage, van Ingen and Ditor (2016) cited in Sarcone (2017), such changes in their appearance due to their disability can cause a significant drop in an individual's body image as "body image is a construct with cognitive, behavioural, and emotional elects as they relate to physical appearance".

Many participants also expressed that they feel as though they cannot wear certain clothes due to their disability. These small yet significant restrictions on individuals cause them to have low self-esteem and body image, as their disabilities already cause differentiation between them and what society deems 'normal'. Now the differentiation seems more apparent to these individuals due to the struggle of finding fashionable and accommodating clothing (Mair, 2018; Shakespear, Gillespie-Sells, & Davies, 1996:3 cited in Taleporos & McCabe, 2002:971-974).

Influences of society

Based on data collected, the majority of the participants is or has been affected by the way society views them, proving that one's body image and self-esteem can be improved over time. In the same way, Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black (2017:20) reported that many participants feel that society makes them feel as though they are not good enough as "barriers" are formed against individuals with disabilities; therefore, negatively impacting their body image and self-esteem. Some participants were laughed at and made to feel "stupid" as they are "discredited" by society due to their disability (Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black, 2017:18-20; and Taleporos & McCabe's, 2002:972-973). Participants expressed that they are perceived as strange and incapable by society, causing them to lose confidence and self-esteem.

This attitude towards people with disability is, in fact, a violation of Chapter 2, Section 9 (3) and (4) of the South African Constitution which prohibits any individual to discriminate against anybody including people with disabilities.

Similarly, many participants expressed that they battled to adjust to their disability and the way society treats them; however, with much work, they have reached the point of self-acceptance, making it easier for them to cope with their disability and society. This finding proves that there is potential in improving one's body image. These individuals make a point of feeling good as they understand that society has a minimal understanding of disability, helping them attain self-love and an improved body image. For participants that are in the process of reaching this point of self-love and an improved body image, fashion is a good starting point, as one can use fashion as a "social skin" to feel good and confident (Turner, 1993 cited in Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black, 2017:19).

On the contrary, many participants stated that the way society views them have no impact on the way they feel and view themselves. This lack of impact could be due to these participants having a mental or minor physical disability, therefore meaning that it is probable that participants do not receive adverse reactions from society, as society treats them like an abled person (Taleporos & McCabe, 2002:972-973). Additionally, it is possible that participant who was born with their disability have accepted themselves and their disability and deemed themselves beautiful; therefore, not being moved by what society thinks of them.

The impact of fashion on body image

Majority of the participants in this study believes that fashion and body image are related. This finding is evident as participants feel that when they dress up, they feel good; therefore, impacting their confidence and body image. This finding verifies Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017:18-20) who states that fashion has the potential to have a positive impact on one's mental health, self-esteem and body image. Individuals who feel confident when they dress up substantiate the work of Son et al., (2015:114-115) who state that fashion influences one's "attitudes, behaviours, and emotions", possibly meaning that the embodiment of fashion has the potential to change the way one perceives oneself.

Furthermore, more than 90% of the participants said that their clothing choice has the ability to improve their self-esteem and body image. Most participants stated that choosing to wear clothing that makes them feel good automatically boosts their confidence. This confidence boost uplifts their self-esteem and body image, creating a space for one to practice and develop self-love. The created space for the development of self-love directly relates to Mayer's (1978) cited by Taleporos and McCabe (2002:972-973) mirror concept, where a woman needs to train herself to feel beautiful when she looks in a full-length mirror. Fashion can be a starting point for the practice of this concept, as a woman with a disability can view herself in a full-length mirror while wearing clothing that makes her feel attractive and confident.

Additionally, the majority of participants expressed that society treats them based on their fashion, impacting their body image and confidence. These participants expressed that fashion is a reflection of a

person and their character. As women with disabilities, clothing act as a communicator between them and society; therefore, when an individual with a disability dresses up, they tend to be treated better by society, as their clothing portrays a pleasant image of them. Using fashion as a communicator between an individual with a disability and society could relate to the “social skin” theory by Turner (1993) cited by Dimka, Kabel and McBee-Black (2017:19) where individuals use fashion as a “social skin” to portray an image of themselves to society. This image impacts the way society treats individuals with disabilities.

Furthermore, participants express that being noticed and treated well by society improve their body image and boost their confidence, making them feel good about themselves, linking back to the “social skin” theory. Lastly, participants feel that when they are dressed up, society tends to focus more on their clothing rather than their disability, again relating to the “social skin”, where this time the “social skin” can be interpreted as a cover or façade, allowing individuals to show society what they are most comfortable showing.

Moreover, participants feel that clothing made especially for individuals with disabilities could be beneficial for their self-esteem due to many reasons. One reason being, often many physically disabled individuals, grow frustrated as they cannot find clothing that accommodates their disability while being fashionable, therefore discouraging them and lowering their self-esteem. Participants believe that customised clothing for physically disabled individuals provides a variety and easy access to fashionable yet accommodating clothing; therefore, making women feel good about themselves as they do not have to struggle to find clothing.

This finding relates to the work of Mair (2018); Shakespear, Gillespie-Sells, and Davies (1996:3) cited by Taleporos and McCabe’s (2002:971-974) where individuals with disabilities have poor body images due to their disabilities differentiating them from the norms of society. Therefore, due to this differentiation, these individuals have a strong urge to conform to the current fashion, creating an outward appearance that will help them fit in and be accepted by society. By eliminating the struggle and frustration of finding suitable clothing, women will begin to feel more comfortable as the clothing is accommodating their and disability, while acting as a comfort-zone, allowing them to feel confident and happy in their own skin (Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black, 2017:18-20). As well as, confident as they will not have the struggle of finding fashionable clothing and will be able to fit in with the current zeitgeist (Mair, 2018). The comfort and confidence experienced by the individuals will result in an improvement in their body image and self-esteem as they will deem themselves “attractive” and “normal”.

Fashion therapy

With the majority of the participants believing that their choice in fashion can improve their self-esteem, it is evident that fashion can be used as a form of therapy; therefore, FT. FT is used as a form of “psychotherapy”, as one’s behaviour, cognitive state and emotions are impacted by fashion (Horn and Gurel, 1981 & Thompson, 1962 cited in Son et al., 2015:114-115). Participants expressed that when they dress up, they felt confident, therefore, improving their self-esteem and body image. Similarly, many participants said they had used fashion to improve their self-esteem and body image. This use of fashion, where one deliberately uses fashion to feel confident and beautiful is a form of therapy, as fashion influences the way one thinks, act and feels (Adam & Galinsky, 2012: 918-919). This influence on the way one feels thinks and acts impacts their confidence, body image and self-esteem (Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black, 2017:18-20).

Furthermore, participants believe that FT is an excellent place to start accepting their disability, as FT would help them use fashion and clothing to feel beautiful and value themselves more. By feeling beautiful and valuing oneself, the individual begins to gain confidence; as a result, improving their body image and self-esteem. Additionally, participants believe that FT is an excellent way to get participants to step out of their comfort zone and try new styles; thereby helping them to find what they are most comfortable in and what makes them feel most beautiful- in turn, influencing their body image and confidence.

Similarly, participants believe that the way society views them impacts their body image, as society treats them differently based on how they are perceived. Participants believe that what they wear will impact the way society views them; therefore, impacting their confidence and body image. This finding relates to the theory that individuals use fashion to create perceptions of themselves to society. This use of

fashion uses clothing as a “social skin”. The “social skin” creates an image or façade of one’s actual self, influencing the way society views them (Turner, 1993 cited in Dimka, Kabel & McBee-Black, 2017:19).

The “social skin” also acts as a communicator of between the individual with a disability and society, where the individual communicated and shows society only what they want to be seen (Tomas & Marron, 2016; and McDermott, Mullen, Moloney, Keegan, Byrne, Doherty, Cullen, Malone, & Mulcahy’s, 2015 cited in Sarcone, 2017). Fashion as a “social skin” acts as a communicator; therefore, when an individual with a disability dresses up, society tends to treat them with more value and respect. As society begins to value these individuals, they start to feel accepted by society which improves their confidence. This confidence boost influences their body image and self-esteem.

To verify the theory in study, majority of the participants have used fashion to improve their self-esteem and body image. Many participants express that dressing up helped them feel “confident”, “brave”, “beautiful”, “alive”, “comfortable”, and “attractive”, which as a result, impacted their body image and self-esteem. Many also expressed that the way society treated them when they dressed up assisted them with their self-perception and confidence; therefore, substantiating the data discussed above. Additionally, many explained that when they feel down and unconfident, they often dress up or shop for new clothes. This way of dealing with confidence helped participants improve the way they feel about themselves; therefore, impacting their confidence, self-value and body image. Lastly, a few participants have not used fashion to improve their body image and self-esteem; however, some of these participants expressed that they have limited knowledge of fashion but finds the theory interesting and believes that it has the potential to work.

Summary, recommendations and directions for future research

The main objective of this study was to investigate if FT is a viable method to help improve body image amongst women with disabilities. This study aimed to investigate if fashion has a positive impact on women with disabilities; as well as, to explore the link between fashion as a form of therapy for women with disabilities. In this study, literature pertaining to disability and society, disability and body image, disability and fashion, and fashion and body image were reviewed.

From a theoretical point of view, the findings verified the reviewed literature on the effects of disability and society on body image, and the potential use of fashion as a form of therapy.

As a result of the findings, it was found that societies views of them impact individuals with disabilities. Therefore, fashion as a “social skin” has the potential impact an individual’s body image and confidence, as it enabled individuals to cover up and show society only what they are comfortable with showing. Additionally, it was found that individuals with disabilities are treated differently due to their disabilities; however, it was discovered that society reacts to how an individual dress, where they tend to focus more on the clothing than on the disability; as a result, impacting the way they treat and view individuals with disabilities. Furthermore, data showed that participants have been practising FT on themselves, meaning that there is an excellent potential for the professional use of FT amongst women with disabilities.

Lastly, although the sample group of the study is not an accurate representation of the population, the researcher is confident that the aim and objectives of the study have been achieved.

Recommendations and implications

Given the information contained in the body of the literature on this topic, as well as the findings of the current study, the study formulates the following recommendations:

A proper understanding of the factors that affect the body image of individuals with disabilities is required by all members of the society.

A deeper exploration of the design aspects of customised clothing for individuals with physical disabilities.

The establishment of learnership programmes to promote the role of fashion as means of therapy among people with disabilities without any gender, race or age discrimination.

Given the context of the study, it is believed that the study will have a huge impact on the future orientation of fashion designers who focus or get orders from individual with disability. Furthermore, the

findings of the current study will raise the level of awareness among the community that disable people deserve a better treatment and respect so that they can live in dignity.

Limitations and directions for future research

The current study only focused on women with disabilities and in a specific section of the country – Johannesburg. Future research to include men and if possible, covers a broader area of the country.

Secondly, the future studies on the topic should investigate the methods and procedures of how fashion can be used as a form of therapy for individuals with disabilities.

And finally, future research should focus on how fashion can help women with disabilities to overcome the poor body image by means of differentiating between disabilities.

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The business rescue practitioners' professionalism: are we there yet?

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Abstract

Purpose and context: The purpose of the study was to explore the construction of professionalism in a multiple professional bodies (MPB) landscape in South Africa (SA) and demonstrate how this construction can be used to enhance a professional accreditation regime. Professional accreditation has become a prerequisite for business rescue practitioners (BRPs). The Companies and Intellectual Property Commission (CIPC) licensing is linked to multiple professional bodies' knowledge and practices but are not generic. This study was guided by one key question: How do PBs providing BRPs construct professionalism, and to what extent can the existing construction of professionalism facilitate the development of a professional accreditation regime?

Research design and methods: A qualitative research design used required researchers to use four consecutive steps, namely (a) interviewing member services' managers at four professional bodies (PBs); (b) systematic content analysis of codes of professional conduct and policy statements to identify constituent professionalism notions; (c) a systematic search of the literature to identify notions of professionalism mentioned in definitions and explanations of the construct; and (d) analysis of notions of professionalism using the constant comparison procedure to reveal critical themes.

Results: A total of 90 separate notions of professionalism were identified in the 192 scholarly papers included in our study. The identified themes within business rescue practitioner (BRP) professionalism (emphasising relational aspects) point to practitioner dealings with (i) clients (business rescue candidates); (ii) government and others; (iii) the PB; and (iv) oneself to gain the essence of occupation. There is fragmentation between the constructed conceptualisations of professionalism among PBs, leading to an incoherent and inconsistent expert accreditation regime.

Practical implications and value: The results from the indicated exploration steps were used to advance a programmatic framework to construct professionalism in an MPB landscape and set a future research agenda. The results also show that business rescue practitioners' professionalism cannot be attained in a multi-professional body setting with an integrated professional accreditation framework.

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Introduction

Business rescue practitioners (BRPs) have faced allegations of abuse (Text Box 1), and, therefore, professional accreditation has become necessary. The Companies and Intellectual Property Commission (CIPC) licensing of BRPs is linked to multiple professional bodies' knowledge and practices. The CIPC seems to have realised that the institutional erection and embeddedness of practitioners' practices are core to the business rescue acquisition of a professional identity and practice interests. Fatemi, Hasseldine, and Hite (2020) argue that practitioners act with professionalism when they adhere to a code of professional conduct (CPC), and therefore, professionalism is not a principle of ethics. Codes of professional conduct (CPCs) are associated with institutions. The Companies and Intellectual Property Commission (CIPC, 2020) issued continuing professional development (CPD) to enhance professionalism among practitioners from multiple professional bodies (MPBs). The CIPC requires business rescue practitioners to be members

of accredited professional bodies instead of a professional body. Therefore, it is worth exploring the following questions given the present BRP licensing regime:

- How do PBs providing BRPs construct professionalism?
- What is the extent to which the existing construction of professionalism facilitates the development of a professional accreditation regime?
- How should business rescue practitioner professionalism be constructed given the BRP accreditation requirements?

The members of the listed PBs (Table 2) did not train in BRP practices, and the construction of professionalism is bound to be different. Pretorius (2014) contend that BRP is an occupation that emanated from the promulgation of the Companies Act (Act No. 71 of 2008). It was hoped that the BRP profession would emerge because of the implementation of the Act.

Understanding the construction of professionalism among the BRP-supplying professional bodies (PBs) is vital in the learning and development of BRPs. The demand for BRP services (Table 1) prompted a rethink of how BR needs can be met by professionals holding membership with PBs recognised by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and the CIPC. Table 1 shows the number of BRs since 2011. The volume of business rescue work has been growing. Table 2 shows a summary of BRPs registered with different PBs in compliance with the Act's requirements. As of 30 September 2020, four PBs contribute 81% of the registered BRPs. These PBs are the South African Institute of Chartered Accountants (SAICA) (27%), the South African Restructuring and Insolvency Practitioners Association (SARIPA) (22%), the Law Society (20%) and the Turnaround Management Association of South Africa (BRA-SA) (12%). Table 2 further shows that 42% of the BRPs on the CIPC register were not linked to any of the listed PBs. In terms of the regulations, the unclassified BRPs must apply through the recognised PBs. This move supports the use of professionals in BR work, and by extension, professionalism should have a shared constructed meaning.

Table 1: Business rescue case and volume of work

Month	Years							Total	Mean
	2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015	2015-2016	2016-2017	2017-2018		
April	0	30	39	24	42	25	16	176	25
May	5	45	50	39	33	40	27	239	34
June	28	26	37	34	21	36	43	225	32
July	25	23	47	43	67	40	23	268	38
August	38	59	49	66	56	45	33	346	50
September	81	55	26	42	34	29	41	308	44
October	27	47	45	44	57	34	33	287	41
November	42	56	28	34	55	32	47	294	42
December	59	18	14	25	21	22	18	177	25
January	67	14	35	31	22	23	25	217	31
February	43	44	31	24	47	28	32	249	35
March	28	50	32	49	38	31	30	258	37
Total	443	467	433	455	493	385	368	3 044	435
Invalid filings	(61)	(27)	(24)	(42)	(12)	(6)	(5)	(177)	(25)
BR ended	<u>320</u>	<u>298</u>	<u>269</u>	<u>250</u>	<u>288</u>	<u>184</u>	<u>82</u>	<u>1691</u>	242
Active as of 31 March 2018	<u>62</u>	<u>142</u>	<u>140</u>	<u>163</u>	<u>193</u>	<u>195</u>	<u>281</u>	<u>1176</u>	

Source: Researchers' synthesis of the CIPC data on business rescue firms.

The constitution of the business rescue practitioner (BRP) occupation in South Africa (SA) occurred with the promulgation of the Companies Act (Act No. 71 of 2008, from now on the "Act"). The legal provisions in the Act took effect on 1 May 2011 and allow practitioners from MPBs (Table 2) to provide

business rescue practitioners' services. The following questions are worth asking: How is professionalism constructed in the MPB landscape of business rescue? What dimensions of professionalism apply to the BRP or the BRP occupation in SA? These questions must be answered for the BRP occupation to improve and reach the intended practice goals.

Therefore, the article's purpose is to explore the constructed meaning of professionalism as an organising framework for the MPBs shouldering BRP work and provide a pragmatic path for the construction and documentation of professionalism. The rest of the paper covers the conceptual framework of professionalism, the problem statement, research design, results and discussion, the emerging conceptual framework for constructing professionalism and conclusions.

The conceptual context of professionalism

Professionalism as an organising framework for the business rescue work is not coherently defined given the multiple professional body context. Professionalism is a meaningful learning and development outcome in professional certification (Macheridis & Paulsson, 2019). Evans (2011) argues that professional standards lead to a notion of professionalism that focuses on practitioner behaviour instead of practitioner attitudes and intellectual capacity development. Sandberg and Pinnington (2009) equate professional competence with professionalism. This seems to be the case in the business rescue context because only members of accredited professional bodies (Table 2) are allowed to shoulder business rescue tasks. Deverell (2021) examines the role of a professional perspective in crisis management, given the need for status and improved power dynamics among practitioners.

Van De Camp, Vernooij-Dassen, Grol and Bottema (2004: 696) contend that professionalism is a multidimensional construct. There is no agreement on how to define professionalism (Arnold, 2002). Evetts (2003) analyses professionalism from a normative value system and ideological power occupation to motivate and facilitate occupation improvement. Evetts (2000: 397) considers professionalism as an evolved practice construct from occupations that are based on technical and articulation knowledge. These studies tend to examine professionalism in isolation of accreditation and competency. The studies deal with the subject professionalism within a specific case of institutional arrangement instead of the unique MPB context of SA. In this instance, professionalism is defined around control and power dynamics in an institution.

The fundamental idea is that competencies must be taught to achieve professionalism. To this end, Montazemi, Siam and Esfahanipour (2008) emphasise specialist knowledge and skills as the critical drivers of professionalism. It has been noted that teaching professionalism is less formal, and that professionalism is a learned behaviour (Henderson, Jackson, Simmons & Edwards, 2012; Wagner, 2012). These arguments are premised on professionalism as a principle of ethics. Learning professionalism may be complicated within the MPB setting, and the advocacy for esoteric skills and knowledge ignores professionalism as a practitioner's essence of being in an occupation discipline.

Studies before 2004 show conflicting definitions of professionalism, and some authors view professionalism as a component of ethics (Shafer, 2002: 272). Making professionalism a component of ethics presupposes that teaching ethics results in training practitioners in professionalism. Other authorities link humility and honesty to professionalism, so professionalism is absent whenever honesty and humility are non-existent (Bartels, Pruyn, De Jong & Joustra, 2007; Henning, Ram, Malpas, Sisley, Thompson & Hawken, 2014; Howard, 2007). Van De Camp et al. (2004) demonstrate that professionalism has three dimensions, namely interpersonal (working towards proper, fit conduct with clients and colleagues), public (fulfilling the demands placed on the profession), and intrapersonal (being able to meet the demands of the profession). It is unclear which of these dimensions apply to the professional bodies and their members servicing the business rescue occupation. The concept of professionalism appears to undergo changes over time and competence-based curriculum become an option in enhancing an occupation's professionalisms (van Mook et al., 2009)

Evans (2011: 855) contends that professionalism has behavioural dimensions (what practitioners perform at work and speaks to the work processes, procedures, work outputs, and competence), attitudinal dimensions (attitudes that considers practitioner perception, assessment, and motivation to work), and intellectual dimensions (practitioners' knowledge structure, understanding, and application). Once again, differences in the construction of professionalism are evident. The question worth asking is

“which construction of professionalism should apply to the multiple professional setting in South Africa?” We agree with the perspective that professionalism is about a practitioner’s essence of being at a workplace. The practitioner’s essence of being perspective emphasises what practitioners do in their working life. In the working life of an expert, we expect experts to develop relationships, deploy improved tools and technology, and create knowledge structures, such as required services, codes governing practice behaviour, and the quality of service or work output.

Table 2: Classes of licensed BRPs as of 30 September 2020

Professional body	Total	Licence class		
		Junior	Senior	Experienced
Association of Chartered and Certified Accountants (ACCA)	2	2		
The Chartered Institute of Management Accountants (CIMA)	6	3		3
Cape Law Society (CLS)	7	5		2
The Institute of Accountants in Commerce (IAC)	6	4	0	2
The Institute of Business Advisors Southern Africa (IBASA)	7	2	3	2
The KwaZulu-Natal Law Society (KZNLS)	5	3	1	1
The Law Society of the Northern Provinces (LSFS)	3	3		
The Law Society of the Northern Cape (LSNP)	20	12	4	4
The South African Institute for Business Accountants (SAIBA)	20	16	1	3
SAICA	98	35	36	27
The Southern African Institute of Professional Accountants (SAIPA)	15	11	2	2
The Legal Practice Council of South Africa	50	31	11	8
SARIPA	77	53	16	8
BRA-SA	43	18	8	17
Total classified licensees as of 30 September 2020	<u>359</u>	<u>198</u>	<u>82</u>	<u>79</u>
Total classified licensees as of 30 September 2019	<u>199</u>	<u>99</u>	<u>52</u>	<u>48</u>
Practitioners not linked to a PB as of 30 September 2019	<u>264</u>	<u>148</u>	<u>52</u>	<u>69</u>
Percentage (30 September 2020)	<u>100%</u>	<u>55,15%</u>	<u>22,8%</u>	<u>22,05%</u>

Source: A research synthesis of CIPC BRP registration list as of 30 September 2020.

Problem statement

Text Box 1 highlights complaints to the CIPC and shows unacceptable acts perpetrated by BRPs. The CIPC has since worked with PBs to develop the business rescue CPD policy (CIPC, 2020). The following questions are worth asking: How has professionalism been constructed among BRP-supplying PBs? Does the constitution of the business rescue CPD policy lead to shared professionalism among practitioners from different PBs? There is no consensus on the meaning of professionalism. Consequently, the construction of professionalism must be understood among the BRP-supplying PBs so that the public can understand what professionalism means within the BRP occupation. Professional bodies are institutions that can enact practices (Hwang & Colyvas, 2011). The lack of consensus on professionalism is bound to affect the criteria of professional standards that can direct the BRPs’ work and mitigate against unprofessional acts (Text Box 1).

The current exploratory study sought to take the first step to document constructed professionalism and build mechanisms to direct the BRP professional accreditation regime. The unprofessional acts cited in Text Box 1 read together with the business rescue CPD policy, show that professionalism is lived in every occupation as a practitioner’s essence of being in a work context. Practitioners develop professionalism, and it cannot be enforced as a performance contract from a regulatory body (Evans, 2011).

Research design

Yin (2018) contends that research purpose and questions are the starting points to formulate a research design. The study explored the construction of professionalism within the work of BRPs. The professional bodies supplying practitioners are thirteen, and only four of them contribute about 81 per

cent of the currently licensed practitioners. This exploration precedes the development of a professional accreditation framework (including a certification) that supports the intents of the Companies Act (Act No 71 of 2008). Firstly, we interviewed (semi-structured) the dominant PBs' representatives to document the professionalism theme from their perspective. This approach is premised on the institutionalist perspective on professional work and existential ontology (Muzio, Brock, & Suddaby, 2013; Sandberg & Pinnington, 2009). Interviews with the representatives of PBs were complemented by content analysis of the four CPCs from the four PBs. The CIPC's business rescue CPD policy requires accredited PBs to meet out sanctions against their members for misconduct. The disciplinary regime for a PB is contained in the enabling law or CPC.

Text Box 1: Signs of unprofessional acts from engaged BRPs

Complaints raised with the regulator (CIPC) were concerning:

- abuse of power, position, and control
- practitioners were accepting irrecoverable corporate assignments
- unjustifiably high fees charged
- inadequate communication with business rescue companies
- non-compliance with the timelines of the Companies Act (Act No 71 of 2008)
- failure to operate within the terms of the approved business rescue plan
- business rescue costs increased the cost of liquidation
- inclination towards liquidation option instead of business rescue as liquidation is well understood by the current practitioners.

Actual complaints received by the regulator were regarding:

- dishonest in all business rescue matters (fees and claims) with no regard for creditors
- undisclosed contents of the business rescue file
- biased because of conflict of interest between being the attorney of record and the BRP on the relevant assignment
- fraudulently signed documents as clients never even see the affidavits/paperwork that their signatures are found on refusal to take calls from clients
- unqualified administration staff in BRP offices used to discuss matters with clients

Source: Adapted from the CIPC (2013). Do all answers rest in the skill set of the business rescue practitioner?

The qualitative content analysis of the four CPCs was followed by a content analysis and mapping of the literature on professionalism. We analysed scholarly literature to gauge the extent to which the PBs' construction of professionalism is supported by international literature and to respond to the second research question. Table 3 summarises the research design, as complemented by a detailed description of the design elements.

In attempting to answer the research questions, we were conscious of our own beliefs, philosophical inclinations, and operational values. These assumptions influenced how the research was conducted. The researchers' ontological stance embraced the researchers' views on the nature and spirit of the investigative activity and reality. The researchers investigated a socially constructed phenomenon in the MPB landscape. The MPB setting creates a reality that depends on the actors in the business rescue and other incidental. Therefore, we assumed that the practitioners supplying PBs contribute to the notions of professionalism through their participation in the CIPC's business rescue liaison committee. We sought to establish recurring mentions of professionalism themes. Our research curiosity was to explore the construction of professionalism as the basis to ground the development of a professional accreditation framework. The incoherent construction pointed us to the need for a pragmatic formation of the investigation process. The business rescue CPD policy demonstrates the importance of professional competence and requires accredited PBs to organise and monitor CPD for their members.

Researchers' theory of knowledge (epistemology) encapsulated how one can discover underlying principles about social phenomena and demonstrate knowledge (Wahyuni, 2012: 69). Notions of professionalism are bound to have subjective meanings, and we focused on the details of the situation as we attempted to understand the reality behind the pieces of data obtained from different sources. The

details are with representatives of the PBs and other official documents addressing professional standards matters. Our personal experience with a business failure and the training of graduates seeking professional certification ignited our interest in the phenomenon. As academics and experienced business rescue consulting, we prefer realistic regulatory regime directing practices. We designed data-gathering methods to moderate against possible biases arising from our background.

Research methods

The research design followed in this current work is summarised in Table 3. The nature of the research question dictates the use of qualitative research procedures. Qualitative research procedures are apt to unearth and develop insights into the phenomenon under study, primarily when the phenomenon is poorly understood (Kolsaker, 2008: 515; Yin, 2018). Professionalism is poorly defined for meaningful application to the BRP occupation. Therefore, qualitative methods were deemed suitable to explore the construction of professionalism. The study had four components to it. The first component was interviews with member services managers/CEOs of the four PBs supplying 81% of registered BRPs. The interviews were guided by an interview instrument (semi-structured) that was shared with the informants before the day of the virtual meeting. The representatives of the PBs completed the data collection instruments to gauge the scope of the study. One of the researchers scheduled a virtual session, which lasted 2 hours, to discuss the informants' responses in the data collection instrument and other documents issued by the professional body. The instrument covered aspects such as the existence of a CPC, support provided to the members serving as BRPs, a professional development regime, a disciplinary and sanctions regime, the scope of professional services rendered, higher education courses offered to trainees, and the definition of professional responsibilities. The responses captured from the informants are summarised in Table 4, as complement by empirical responses from the completed data collection instrument.

Table 3: Research design

<i>Component</i>	<i>Description</i>
Problem	There are conflicting and incoherent applications of professionalism among BRP-supplying PBs.
Research question	How should professionalism be constructed for BRPs in an MPB setting?
Context	The regulated BRP regime emerged in the SA setting after the promulgation of the Act. BRPs drawn from multiple PBs can apply for practitioner licences. The CIPC has noted unprofessional acts perpetrated by the BRPs. The socialisation of BRPs from different PBs is not the same, and therefore, the construction and application of professionalism can vary.
Propositions*	Increased interest in professionalism has not been accompanied by a coherent construction and application of professionalism. Service standards and tasks dictate the notions of professionalism and can be used to manage the fluidity of the construct in a MPB setting.
Phenomenon investigated	Business rescue practitioner professionalism
Unit of observation and analysis	Phrases used in the CPCs and scholarly literature on professionalism. Responses from representatives of PBs.
Methodology	Constant comparison approach using semi-structured interviews with representatives of PBs and a search of scholarly literature.
Logic linking the data to the propositions	Practitioners embrace a sense of being in a workplace. BRPs can construct professionalism to gain a practitioner essence of being in the business rescue occupation. A practitioner's essence of being can be gained from the needs served and tools used to serve. Practice tools emerge from institutions serving the interests of practitioners. Practitioners use CPCs and ethics to discern acceptable standards because the CPC should reflect a practitioner's essence of being at a workplace and within the community of practitioners. Sensemaking, premised on a practitioner essence of being in an occupation, should help the researcher investigate and document the construction of professionalism.
Criteria for interpreting the findings	The constant comparison approach creates themes that show emerging notions of professionalism and their relationship to the professional accreditation regime.
<i>Source: adapted from Yin, R. K. (2018). Case study research and applications: Design and methods (6th Ed). London: Sage publications Limited.</i>	

We complemented the interview results with content analysis of the CPC and policy statements published by the four PBs. The content analysis of the CPCs and published policy statements established evidence of common themes used by the four dominant PBs in the BRP space. The relevance of the

publicly available documents was confirmed during the semi-structured interview with representatives of the four PBs. We used an iterative process to classify statements reflecting notions of professionalism. The emerging notions of professionalism or phrases were used to do a literature search in the third component of the study. We examined the policy statements appearing on the selected PBs' websites for specified thematic content or other professionalism expressions. This consideration of thematic content was necessary to establish consistency between a PB's policy statements and the associated CPC. The results of this process are summarised in Table 5.

The third component dealt with document content analysis of the literature on professionalism. We selected literature from databases with a wealth of scholarly literature on professionalism published from 2005 to 2020. The qualitative content analysis of scholarly literature provided us with an abundance of publications on the subject and an opportunity to interrogate professionalism as perceived in the international community within economics, law, and management. The search of scholarly literature and content analysis occurred over eight months. The choice of the period 2005–2020 was informed by the fact the CIPC should have considered the professionalism construct that was most recent (five years old or less) to inform regulated BRPs when the Act was promulgated in 2008 and implemented on 1 May 2011.

The third component of the study proceeded in two phases to achieve the necessary rigour and attach more context to the interview results (Table 4). We studied literature to discern notions of professionalism cited in the definition and accounts of the concept in each selected article. We then scrutinised the notions of professionalism using the constant comparison procedure to uncover the themes within the identified essentials of professionalism. The results are shown in Table 6. The study of literature was to help ascertain if the professional bodies notion of professionalisms was consistent with what was covered in the scholarly work.

The fourth component of the study was to integrate the results of the preceding study components to advance a framework for the construction, investigation, and documentation of occupation professionalism. The pragmatic framework is an important output of this study and provides a foundation for future research work. The MPB could have its own ways of constructing professionalism and those ways need to be structured. An integrated framework was needed to help the accredited bodies converge in their construction of notions of professionalism. The convergence point targets a BRP professional accreditation framework. The validation of the notions of professionalism can be expected to occur through the adoption of a professional accreditation framework. The present study did not validate the various notions of professionalism.

The literature quest entailed searching in the EBSCOhost and the JSTOR databases for articles published from 2005 to 2020. EBSCOhost and JSTOR are multi-disciplinary digitised libraries with an abundance of peer-refereed work. The business rescue occupation attracts practitioners from different disciplines. Scopus and Web of Science databases were not used because these are indexing and citation databases that focus on international journals. The search headings were premised on the results identified in the first and second components of the study. The topics we identified in the interview results with informants from the four PBs helped shape the search topics. The CPC's interview results, and content analysis revealed what PBs envisage practitioners to acquire through learning and development processes.

The search headings, therefore, included 'professionalism and attitude', 'professionalism and independence', 'professionalism and ethics', 'professionalism and identity', 'professionalism and honesty', 'professionalism and commitment', 'professionalism and education', 'professionalism and integrity', 'professionalism and competence', 'professionalism and objectivity', 'professionalism and services', 'professionalism and responsibility', 'professionalism and altruism', 'professionalism and humanism', 'professionalism and regulation', 'professionalism and probity', 'professionalism and confidentiality', 'professionalism and values', 'professionalism and education, and 'professionalism and judgement'. This search process yielded the articles in the bibliography and assembled as supplementary materials to this write up.

Data analysis after coding

The coding of the notions of professionalism provided ground to examine possible themes of professionalism using the constant comparison approach (Kolb, 2012: 84). During the first component of the study, we compared data from the interviews. We asked questions about what value information was concerning the CPCs and policy statements or enabling legislation. We identified different feature categories (notions) and magnitudes from the data. The constant comparison approach entailed an iterative aspect process of scrutinising and comparing diverse notions of professionalism from different informants, CPCs, and scholars to provide emerging themes. The emergence of a theme was evident from recurring examples across data. We then examined the emerging themes in the literature in relation to the results of the interviews with PB representatives and the content analysis of the existing CPCs of the four PBs used in the BRP process. The representatives of the PBs and the researchers discussed discrepancies in the CPCs to examine how professionalism should be constructed in the BRP space. The results are in Table 7. We tested whether an emerging picture of professionalism was valid and whether additional aspects should be explored and added during this process. There was no need to add other informants from other PBs as no new notions of professionalism would have emerged.

Results and discussion

Professionalism and associated elements from interviews

Different continents have different approaches to professionalism, as evident in the overemphasis of character traits of professions in the United States instead of professional behaviour and attitudes (Van Mook et al., 2009). Trait theory has thrived side by side with the social closure strategies that advocate for professional occupations to demonstrate professionalism through (1) exercising self-control as exercised through autonomy, collegiality and exceptional knowledge and expertise (Bell & Cowie, 2001); (2) commanding esoteric expertise learned through prolonged training after high school (Freidson, 2001); (3) performing professional tasks that have a social value (Pareto, 2017); (4) admission members seeking to influence notions of social value (Askary, 2006); and (5) using ethical codes to regulate professional practice (Wright, 2008).

Because of the recognised continental differences in the construction of professionalism in the literature, we held interviews with representatives of four PBs whose members serve as BRPs. Table 4 presents the unpacked results of the interviews with the representatives of four PBs. The interviews show that the BRP occupation lacks a specific qualification with learning outcomes addressing a BRP service delivery package and tasks. The knowledge base and structure are likely to disintegrate among the different BRP-supplying PBs. However, we noted that the PBs had initiated efforts to offer short courses as part of CPD events. The short courses are non-credit bearing and do not contribute to certificates of competence.

The TMA's SA chapter distinguishes itself as the only PB whose members focus on BRP-related work. The other PBs offer BRP-related services along with other services as defined in their respective CPCs. The SARIPA members were historically known for liquidation services. Because BRP-related work is in addition to the other services offered by PBs' members, the PBs have worked on a policy that encourages collaboration among the members of various PBs to offer and enforce uniform CPD events (CIPC, 2020). The common CPD events present an opportunity to practitioners to take a step of faith to develop an integrated professional accreditation framework.

The CPD events are designed to develop practitioners' knowledge of the BRP field and its tools. The selected PBs relies significantly on practice notes from the CIPC (the regulator) and have not developed practice tools to enhance members' practice standards. For example, there was no mention of an engagement letter and business rescue plan as practice tools. Published training materials for learning and development are non-existent. Those interviewed battled to refer the researchers to a textbook relevant to the BRP discipline. The BRP discipline continues to be treated like any other business advisory service in the SAICA's member handbooks.

The accountancy and legal professions have three-year traineeship requirements for candidates seeking professional certification. The trainees who enter traineeship agreements gain practical training within legal or accountancy practice firms. The practice firms in these fields do not concentrate on BR

services. The value of developing pipeline talent through mentorship contracts was acknowledged but has not been adequately extended to the BRP occupation. The list of licensed BRPs from different PBs is accessible. However, no attempts have been made to link trainees to licensed BRPs to be mentored on BRP matters. This situation is likely to limit the development of a pipeline talent in BRP matters. The absence of a mentorship arrangement could be compounded by the acknowledged lack of a competency framework from the PBs providing learning outcomes for BRPs.

The selected PBs lack established standards and practices to manage and control the quality of work expected from BRPs. The legislated checks and balances linked to stakeholder participation and the need for an aggrieved party to petition the high court in instances of practitioner misconduct are relied on. The four PBs contacted do not provide a peer review mechanism for practitioners working on a business rescue assignment. The CIPC commands inadequate capacity to do inspections of BR engagements performed by licensed practitioners. This is unlike the regulator of auditors and attorneys. Those interviewed noted that the CIPC is the regulatory body for the licensed BRPs and may be required to undertake quality control tasks regarding the work of licensed BRPs.

PBs have adopted different processes of professional socialisation (the acquisition of values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge) relevant to BRP culture. The process ranges from drawing members from accredited teaching faculties at recognised higher education institutions to CPD events to experiential training. Two PBs contacted use short courses (CPD events) as a mechanism for practitioners' socialisation relevant to BRP work. CPD events for BRPs' socialisation do not equate to socialisation during higher education training at accredited teaching faculties in higher education institutions.

Members of two PBs of the four major professional bodies concentrate on liquidation and business rescue as their unique area of work. The legal and accountancy PBs embrace the work done by the SARIPA, including bankruptcy and insolvency, and TMA-SA as business advisory services. The situation diminishes the uniqueness of the selling proposition of the practitioners from the accredited bodies.

Professionalism and associated essentials from codes of ethics

There is representative literature on how to analyse CPCs. Notably, Gaumnitz and Lere (2002) investigated the content of CPCs for professional organisations representing the economics, law and management disciplines of accountancy, human capital, computer information technology, risk management, marketing and sales, operations management, and real estate. Gaumnitz and Lere (2004) built on their 2002 study to formulate a systematic framework for analysing CPCs using a numerical presentation to reflect six attributes of CPCs. These attributes of CPCs pertain to thematic content, tone, and structural form (level of detail and shape). This study is interested in substance over the structural forms of professional codes of conduct and PBs' policy statements that impact occupation practice. We employed centring resonance and textual analysis. Resonance and textual analysis use linguistics theory to assess main concepts, their influence, and their interrelationships (Canary & Jennings, 2008; Dooley, 2016). The centring resonance and textual analysis is a transcript analysis method that can be applied to hefty quantities of printed text and transcribed dialogues (Corman et al., 2002). Centring resonance and textual analysis differ from the conventional word occurrence-based approach to the text. The centring resonance and textual analysis employ ordinary language processing abilities to formulate a model of text (Barbosa, Freitas, & Ladeira, 2017).

Table 5 presents the results of the analysis of the four CPCs and explores whether qualitative analysis of the four CPCs shows common values. This also enabled us to establish how individual PBs have used the CPCs to frame professionalism. We found that three of the PBs do not refer to corporate turnaround or business rescue as a core area of service for their members; their scope of services tends to include services other than BRP services. The PBs have made no attempts to reference the legislated rescue requirements in their respective CPCs. In addition, matters regarding the professional appointment, acceptance, and termination of BR engagements are not explicitly highlighted to address unprofessional acts like those in Text Box 1. None of the four CPCs analysed allows practitioners specific discretion powers regarding professional fee determination.

Fundamental ethical principles for professional conduct covered in the analysed CPCs included integrity, fairness, honesty, confidentiality, technical competence, and independence. Yiu (2008) contends that professional ethics are linked to professionalism as standards of professional behaviour. Therefore,

professional ethics go beyond the legal and individual moral standards to embrace tort (negligence) law evident in the requirements for competence and duty of due care. The reviewed CPCs emphasise social values, enhancing trust by avoiding conflict of interests, and professional responsibilities, such as collaboration, self-regulation, and mutual respect.

It is evident from Table 5 that professionalism within an occupation is constructed with reference to work outputs, the work done, practices shouldered, attitudes in dealings with others, and intellectual underpinnings, such as knowledge base, structure, acquisition, degree of evidence-based reasoning, comprehensive understanding of knowledge, and build-in problem-solving mechanisms. The notions of professionalism as constructed from Table 5 point to the need for professionalism in every occupation. Professionalism comes to life whenever practitioners shoulder work practices to provide a defined work output or service. All four CPCs offer a scope of professional services. This finding is consistent with Evans's (2011: 855) contention that professionalism is about a practitioner's "essence of being" in a work context. Ethics can, therefore, be seen as an ingredient of professionalism, and the latter should not be treated as an ethical principle.

Professionalism and its essentials from the selected literature

We completed the search for literature using key phrases to access the relevant literature. We qualitatively analysed the contents of the selected articles. We examined the references of the articles chosen for missing scholarly articles. The selected articles were further sorted using an inclusion criterion that required the selected article to be relevant to the field of economics, law, and management. Articles relating to health professionals, engineering, and architecture were excluded. In addition, the selected articles had to contain a description or a definition of professionalism. We were able to identify distinct definitions and meanings attached to professionalism and its essential elements. The adopted selection process resulted in 192 scholarly articles related directly to the aim of our study and are included in the bibliography. The list of references only contains sources that are cited in the text write up. Descriptions in the selected literature are referring to 'integrity and competence' as 'values in professionalism' compelled us to code 'competence' and 'integrity as distinct notions of professionalism.

Content analysis of the selected articles established that scholars lack a shared definition of the notion of professionalism. Several articles listed professionalism as a principle of a code of ethics. The explanations offered for the nature of professionalism are diverse in their cited components and their descriptive details. Instances in which professionalism was defined in a sentence concerning CPCs or ethics were noted. Other scholars offered more than four components of professionalism. We found only 117 cases where constituent notions of professionalism were covered in the articles. In 75 cases, the constituent notions of professionalism were taken for granted and had to be inferred from the context in which they were raised. There are instances where notions of professionalism were taken for granted. We found less than explicit definitions of professionalism in articles dealing with professional ethics education as they assumed a shared understanding of professionalism as a principle of professional, ethical conduct.

Table 4: Synthesised results from the semi-structured data collection instruments

Item	Law Society	SAICA	SARIPA	TMA-SA
Contents of current syllabus and its relevance to BRP. [Dealings with the PB: What is the knowledge structure, the understanding and acquisition of esoteric knowledge and skills]	Legal aspects of business rescue are addressed in courses dealing with business association laws.	Accredited universities offer specific accountancy qualifications. No content on business rescue.	No qualification because membership open to more than one specialisation. Reference made of the University of Pretoria's (UP) one-year Certified Rescue Analyst qualification	No specific qualification offered by the university. Reference made to the Certified Rescue Analyst qualification provided by UP

Item	Law Society	SAICA	SARIPA	TMA-SA
Unique selling proposition from the PB. <i>[Dealing with others in a distinguishable way]</i>	Legal services: Litigation, notary, and conveyancing.	Chartered accountancy focussing on audit assurance, tax, and business advisory. Business rescue falls under business advisory	The SARIPA reckons to be the largest PB in SA in the BR occupation and participates in insolvency and restructuring activities worldwide.	Business rescue and BR services. Affected parties preferring TMA-SA
Distinguished services offered by the PB. <i>[Dealings with work tasks and services]</i>	Legal services as defined in the legal practice Act. Members undertake work according to a client's brief.	Auditing, accounting, independent review, management consulting, and financial management. Members undertake work according to the letter of engagement and plan	The SAQA recognises SARIPA for its insolvency and rescue services. Members have been appointed in BRP matters to date.	Members off BRP services. The BRA-SA is a professional association and does not take on work done by lawyers, accountants, auditors, etc., outside the BR process. Members undertake work according to a rescue plan
The PB's support to members serving as BRPs. <i>[Dealings with the PB]</i>	Relies on practice notes issued by the CIPC. Ensuring good standing of members to meet accreditation requirements.	CPD help members gain insights into BRP practices, prepares a letter of good standing for the member to obtain BRP licence, disciplinary for misconduct, monitoring the CPD activities.	Regular webinars on BR practices, practice notes and case law updates.	There are numerous practice notes covering topics that range from initiating business rescue, reasonable prospect to the charging of fees. Tools for planning, reporting to court and CIPC emerge from CIPC practice notes.
Practice tools available to members serving as BRPs. <i>[Dealing with work tasks: How services are rendered]</i>	The CIPC-developed practice notes and circulars. Rescue plans as per the Act.	The CIPC-developed practice notes and circulars. No specific tools used as in the case of audit assurance. Rescue plan as per the Act.	The members rely on the CIPC-developed practice notes and circulars. Rescue plan as per the Act.	CIPC-developed practice notes and circulars. Members prepare rescue plans to guide BRP assignments.
Support training materials are known and used in the development of members practising as BRPs. <i>[Dealing with the PB: Knowledge understanding and acquisition]</i>	Case law book, relevant legislation.	Members use any available course materials used in CPD events.	Detailed courses presented at the University of South Africa (UNISA) and UP.	There are no specific recommended textbooks. There is a certified rescue analyst course that BRA-SA developed with UP. A good book is "Corporate Restructuring: From Cause Analysis to Execution by David Vance".
Established training contracts and mentorship	No mentorship or traineeship	None. The SAICA has a register of	Current mentorship is not	No formal mentorship programme.

Item	Law Society	SAICA	SARIPA	TMA-SA
on BRP-specific matters. [Dealing with work tasks and services: Development of skills to the quiddity of BRP]	agreements specifically addressed BRP matters.	BRPs, which is published, and trainees can use it to establish contacts with accomplished membership for mentoring.	formalised because aspiring young BRPs are welcome to the SARIPA for assistance to identify mentoring opportunities.	Mentorship occurs with the UP course that covers business finance, tax, law, business management, and professional ethics
Established standards and practices to manage and control the quality of work expected from BRPs. [Dealing work tasks and services: What is the required work behaviour]	Seeking a second opinion on matters in which the practitioner lacks competence.	The CPC (requirement 113) requires that the BRP not undertake engagements the BRP is not competent to perform unless the practitioner obtains advice and assistance.	Relies on the legislated checks and balances, stakeholder participation and petitions to the high court.	None. Review occurs when instances of misconduct are brought to the fore. The BRA-SA a code ethics and practice standard have been published. These two combined with the accreditation policy are the key policies for quality of work and benchmarking.
Established professional codes and competency framework applicable to BRPs. [Dealings with the public, clients, and others]	Professional principle and Legal Professional Practice Act apply to attorneys and advocates.	The CPC contains requirements dealing with business advisory services. Competency framework exists for chartered accountants without BRP specifics.	The PB does not have a distinct competency framework for those seeking membership.	On the website there is a published code ethics and practice standard. The two documents go together with the accreditation policy, specifying the qualifications required to apply for membership.
Established process of professional socialisation to acquire values, attitudes, skills, and knowledge. [Dealing with others: Perceptions, beliefs and views held; people's values; and people's motivation, occupation satisfaction and morale]	Training of lawyers from accredited faculties and training firms. There is a common platform for CPDs for lawyers.	Training of chartered accountants from accredited schools of accountancy and training firms. There is a common platform for CPD events.	Short courses offered by UNISA, the University of Johannesburg and UP. No limitations to unstructured networking opportunities.	The member accreditation policy refers to conferences, annual BRA-SA events, and the Certified Rescue Analyst course offered by UP. These are used to entrench values, attitudes, and skills.

Source: Researcher's synthesis of data

Emerging themes from the literature and interview results


As seen in Table 6, we recognised a total of 38 constituent notions of professionalism. It is interesting to note that professional ethics, ethical conduct, technical knowledge, professional code, specialised knowledge and expertise, integrity, autonomy, commitment, standards-based work and education, and certifications were highlighted most frequently. The findings are consistent with the perspective that professionalism is about a practitioner's essence of being in an occupation (Kolsaker, 2008). The emerging themes of dealings with clients, dealings with PBs, dealings with the public and dealings with oneself resonate with the perspective of professionalism as a consideration of a practitioner gaining from a work context. The work context (not SAQA-recognised bodies) is what defines work practices and service.

The four emerging themes of professionalisms (Table 7) are linked to the different notions of professionalism reflected in Tables 4, 5 and 6. Table 7 provides a brief description of the themes in column 3. The integration of results in Table 7 shows that professionalism is not about the professional competence that has enjoyed attention from the CIPC, which recently issued a business rescue CPD policy. In Table 5, not all aspects of professionalism are covered across the codes of professional conduct we analysed. The missing aspects led us to argue for the case for a pragmatic approach to the construction of professionalism, which is summarised in Figure 1.

Table 5: Focus of professional codes of ethics and constitutions

Item	Law Society	SAICA	SARIPA	TMA-SA
Scope of professional services	√	√	√	√
Meaning of BR practice or business rescue practice			√	√
BRP tasks outlined				√
Integrity and honesty as ethical principles	√	√	√	√
Objectivity as an ethical principle	√	√	√	√
Professional competence and qualifications	√	√	√	√
Due care and skill exercised during work	√	√	√	√
Professional confidentiality is given as an ethical principle	√	√	√	√
Professional behaviour and reputation	√	√	√	√
Professional independence	√	√	√	√
Conflict of interest discouraged to enhance trust	√	√	√	√
Links to the legislated business rescue requirements				
Public interest and relationship with the PB	√	√	√	√
Links to the PB's constitution and by-laws	√	√	√	√
Membership and subscription fees	√	√	√	√
Disciplinary structures, meaning of misconduct and sanctions	√	√	√	√
Requirements for members to comply with laws and regulations	√	√	√	√
Professional appointment and acceptance (engagement letters and client briefs)	√	√	√	√
The discretion granted in respect of charging professional fees	√	√		
Members are encouraged to seek a second opinion or use third parties on complex assignments	√	√	√	√
Restricted marketing and advertising of services	√	√		

Source: Researchers' synthesis of available codes of professional conduct.

 The matter is not addressed explicitly in the policy and the CPC.

Dealings with clients – Business rescue entities and clients

Dealings with clients recognise notions of professionalism that help the practitioner to provide legislated services effectively. The notions of professionalism in this theme give preconditions for effective and adequate contact with a business rescue entity and its stakeholders. The notions cover the need to have a cordial relationship with the client's business rescue entity. Educating the client on rescue options and the design of plans are essential. A few other notions of professionalism within this theme are relevant to dealings with stakeholders and other team members during a rescue operation. The nature of the work practice may lead to the demonstration of notions of 'dealings with clients' when a practitioner interacts with staff at a business rescue site and enlists the help of other experts.

Dealing with clients relates to what a practitioner does during a business rescue process. Informants referred us to the uniqueness of the business rescue when one of them observed that "yes, the services provided by members in terms of business rescue are distinct from the other services provided. BRPs utilise skills learned from business advisory". We, therefore, expect the notions of professionalisms to include work

processes, procedures, productivity, and skills relevant to the business rescue. A professional occupation comes into existence to render services and outputs that expertly meet clients' needs. To this end, Fatemi et al. (2018: 140) maintain that "most practitioners assume their clients prefer tax-saving strategies, even when not explicitly requested" and undertake tasks that favour clients.

Table 6: Notions of professionalism used scholarly definitions and descriptions

Public interest	45	Public image/prestige/reputation	44
Attitudes	31	Professional appearance/dress code	16
Public trust	44	Confidence	15
Personal values/subjective characteristic	25	Commitment/devotion	77
Work in the interest of clients (focus)	44	Responsibilities	47
Professional ethics/ethical conduct	86	Mutual recognition, courtesy, and respect	30
Professional code	80	Standards-based work and education	86
Substance of specialist knowledge	111	Professional development/continual updating	36
Quality: (dependable) work outputs	45	Evidence-based practice	18
Professional abilities	25	Teamwork and collaboration/collegiality	31
Technical competence/skills	91	Certification/licence	64
Technological (methods of practice)	28	Body of practice	16
Experienced and maturity	26	Accountability	42
Objectivity	21	Accreditation and stringent entry requirements	34
Independence	43	Probity	23
Integrity	73	Honesty	42
Judgement (making decisions in complex situations)	32		
Altruism/social values	29		
Client advocacy	29		
Fairness	32		
Self-regulation/policing/direction	58		
Autonomy	101		

Source: Researchers' content analysis of selected articles published during 2005–2020.

Table 7: Emerging themes from dimensions of professionalism in Tables 4, 5, and 6

Theme	Aspects	Descriptions
Dealings with the associations	Collaborating with a community of experts Competence and specialist knowledge Self-regulation and direction Professional reputation Continuous training and development Certification and licensing Methods of professional practice Mentoring of trainees	The theme is about a practitioner fulfilling the requirements regarding professional commitments to the PB and peers in the BR field. This description emanates from a professional body representative who observed: "we approve training courses for our members. Please refer to our website for details of courses presented at the University of South Africa and the University of Pretoria."
Dealings with clients to provide services (work tasks)	Independent work Competence, due care, and skill Honesty and integrity Dedication and commitment Quality of outputs and services	The theme is about a practitioner fulfilling the work practice requirements of the occupation's purpose, status, specific nature, range, and service levels. To this end, the informant pointed out that: "none

Theme	Aspects	Descriptions
	Evidence-based advice Trusted experts Confidentiality and respect Compassion and polite in relationships Educate clients on options available Respect clients' right of shared decision making Subservient self-interests	<i>of our members is allowed to enter into a service engagement contract without requisite competencies."</i>
Dealings with the public, including government and others	Fairness and transparency Trusted expert Standards-based work and training Mutual recognition and respect Accountability Submission to an ethical code High level of expertise Methodological and thoroughness Technical competence Enhancing the welfare of the society Protect confidential information Commitment to the contribution of business to society Expert authority Autonomy of professional associations	The theme is about a practitioner fulfilling the requirements society imposes on the sanctioned occupation. As one informant observed: <i>"our members serve in the capacities of insolvency and business rescue practitioners. These are government regulated service areas."</i>
Dealings with oneself	Demonstrated maturity Confidence and self-conception Dress code and appearance CPD Value corporate renewal work Unimpaired judgement Professional scepticism Response to stress and self-awareness Critical analysis	The theme is about a practitioner fulfilling the requirements to operate in the BR practice field as a practitioner. To this end, one of the professional body representatives indicated that <i>"CPD events provide endless networking opportunities for self-development."</i>

Source: Researcher's synthesis of research data.

Dealings with professional associations

Dealings with professional associations constitute a theme because the CIPC requires practitioners to be members in good standing with their PBs. In terms of section 138 of the Act, a person may only be appointed as a BRP if a member is a good standing of a legal, accounting or business management PB accredited by the CIPC. The CIPC's requirement, as set out in Notice No. 2 of 2019, is that the pre-requisite to be registered as a BRP is that the person must obtain a letter of good standing from their PB. Representatives of the PBs believe a practitioner dealing with the PB is important given the CPCs and associated relational aspects.

This theme encompasses professionalism notions that pertain to pre-requisites for becoming a member of a PB and remaining in good professional standing. Staying relevant and up to date in the field is as important as gaining admission. To this end, the informants directed our attention to competency by reporting that *"the competency framework contains competencies, although not specific to BRPs, that would be more applicable ensuring admission of new members"*. Some of the notions of professionalism in this theme relate to working with colleagues, undertaking peer review work and CPD events, and contributing to the professional reputation. Other notions within this theme cover structured dealings with colleagues. Most notions are deemed relevant as part of a practitioner's essence of being in an occupational discipline.

Dealings with the public and others

The third emerging theme puts together notions of professionalism that guide a practitioner's dealings, leading to fulfilling the requirements that society, through Parliament, places on the BRP occupation. It deals with standards-based training and work practices and a trusted expert that is not conflicted. An illustration of these notions can be found in the work of Fatemi et al. (2018: 134), who contend that "... codes of conduct apply to all members but ... practitioners, in particular, are cast in a unique role of serving the public interest with their accountability to both clients and tax agencies (among other stakeholders)". One of the informants remarked that: "With regards to mentoring, SAICA is investigating possible options in future to assist with mentoring." This pointed to the fact dealing with others is vital.

Public trust and interest obligate SAQA-recognised PBs to know relevant laws, to undertake practical and transparent self-regulation and to support the development of pipeline talent. Therefore, compared to dealings with the clients' theme, this theme addresses context values and requirements associated with regular professional commitments. In response to ensuring professional commitment, one of the four informants noted that "*the CIPC is the regulatory body for BRPs commitments. This might be undertaken in future, depending on the CIPC's requirements*". This meant that professional bodies did not have modalities to review BRP work carried out by their members to ensure adherence to the professional commitments.

Dealings with oneself

The fourth theme relates to dealings with oneself and addresses requirements that a practitioner must fulfil to operate adequately in the business rescue profession as an individual. The notion of dealing with oneself involves personal characteristics or behaviours that are deemed to impact the way an individual practitioner operates. This theme raises the role of attitudinal behaviour in professionalism as supported by Askary (2006) and Creasy (2015: 24), who argue that professional behaviours are observable actions that demonstrate the expert's appropriate behaviours modelling the appearance, attitudes, self-management, and timeliness in the pursuit of service. An example of descriptions of elements of dealings with oneself are "courage, temperance or self-control, and justice—along with related moral virtues such as humility, integrity, patience, courtesy, modesty, and liberality" (Lail, MacGregor, Marcum, & Stuebs, 2017: 696). Representatives of the PBs expressed the need for practitioner socialisation through CPD events as a vehicle that practitioners can use to gain a sense of belonging to the occupation. Two of the informants pointed to 4 June 2020 SAICA / SARIPA business rescue training event that focused on the consideration that practitioners needed to the COVID-19 pandemic effects as part of self-management."

Towards pragmatic construction of business rescue professionalism construction and documentation

The results from interviews with the selected PB representatives and content analysis of the four CPCs and scholarly literature point to professionalism construction emphasising practitioner essence of being within the occupation. The emerging dimensions of the practitioner essence of being in an MPB context require a professionalism construction and documentation framework.

Figure 1 sets out the programmatic way of constructing, investigating and documenting professionalism to achieve the practitioner essence of being within the BRP occupation. Figure 1 (reading from top to down) begins with an understanding of BRP services and tasks from regulatory requirements in a jurisdiction and the results of interviews with practitioners. Pretorius (2014) recognises the existence of a BRP legal framework used to outline BRP tasks. Purposive interpretation of regulatory requirements can be used to understand and document legislative services and tasks. Results from purposive interpretation can be complemented by the double results from interviews with members of the community of practitioners in the BRP occupation. The suggested process is envisaged to contribute to the inherent nature (quiddity) of professionalism. Occupations exist to serve needs, and fulfilling the needs creates the practitioner's essence of being.

Rajaram and Singh (2018) emphasise the importance of professional competence and confirm the efforts required to identify and develop BRPs' professional competence relevant to practitioners' work and services. The services and tasks are evident from service package objectives, tools, methods of work and work organisation. BRPs' tasks and services can be discerned from the legislative requirements and the CPCs subjected to purposive interpretation during the research process. In the present study, the BRPs' tasks and services were not confirmed by representatives of the four major PBs.

The arrows in Figure 1 show the interrelationships among different framework components. From the top-down in Figure 1, we argue that desired services dictate tasks shouldered by BRPs. These tasks and service packs should help come up with an expert BRP profile and other ingredients of the professional accreditation framework. The tasks shouldered to provide services inform professional competence, which can be used to develop learning and development resources (human capital investments) required to support professional accreditation. Professional accreditation is needed to deal with BRP licensing and to link BRPs to a PB. Therefore, services are required to help define the BRP discipline boundaries for accreditation and certification purposes. The desired CPD regime should fall within the defined BRP discipline boundaries.

It will be unexpected for BRP professionalism to be constructed and developed outside a professional accreditation and certification process and without defining the theory and practice claim covered by the BRP professional certification. Professional training that is informed by a professional accreditation framework and certification activities define the notions of professionalism. Professionalism founded on services, tasks, methods, expertise, and ethics becomes relevant after BRPs have claimed their ability to perform at defined standards, as articulated in the professional accreditation regime. PBs and higher education institutions can facilitate professional learning and development interventions to develop competent BRPs. Dealings with others in learning and development enhance the practitioner's essence of being in an occupation. Therefore, higher education institutions and PBs serve as critical sources of data to develop the professional accreditation regime.

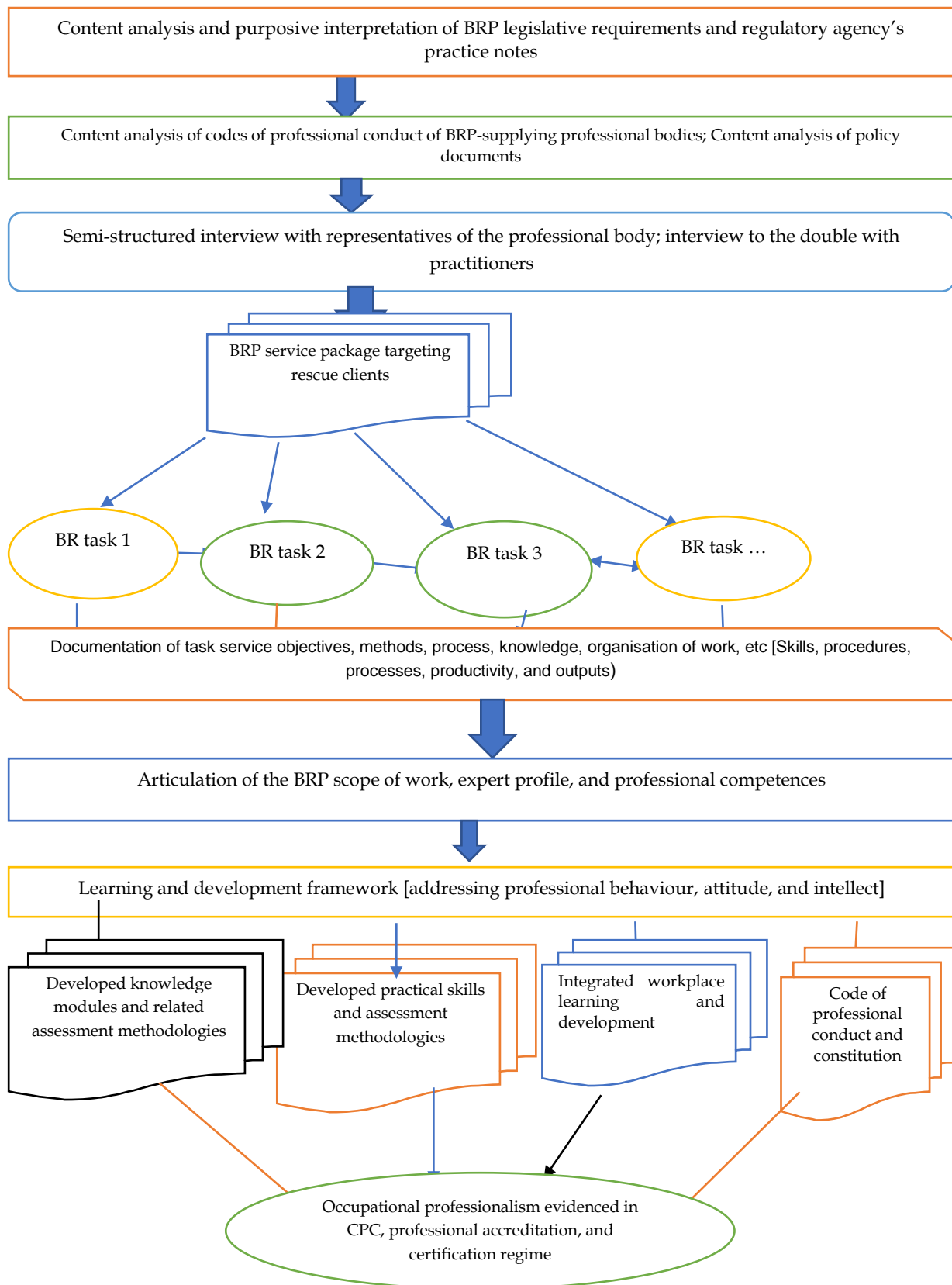
Conclusion

The PBs supplying BRPs construct professionalism differently (Tables 4 and 5). We argued that professionalism is about a practitioner's essence of being in an occupation context. The differences in the construction should be understood against the background of different training backgrounds and socialisation processes of members of different PBs working in the BR space. This finding has implications for exercising professionalism in business rescue assignments. The CIPC, through its regulations and CPD policy (CIPC, 2020), advocates for professionalism in the BRP occupation. However, it remains challenging to understand, identify, construct, and document professionalism in an occupation context with the MPB landscape. Figure 1 summarises these aspects and points to integrated data collection procedures in designing a professional accreditation framework needed to enhance professionalism in the BRP occupation. BRPs are subject to contentions of abuse and, consequently, professional accreditation has become a pre-obligatory to strengthen professionalism.

The emerging relational perspective of professionalism as constituted by a practitioner's "essence of being" in an occupation suggests that the CIPC moves away from specialist knowledge and skills towards a practitioner's dealings with oneself, the public, PBs, and clients. Using such elucidations of professionalism lead to informed choices on professional accreditation, learning and development. The multi-relational aspects of professionalism point to the need to develop a professional accreditation framework. The integrated exploration in the present exposition supports the notion that our understanding of professionalism is fragmented if the BRP fails to link brains and hands power to tools of the trade, needs to be served by practitioners, professional behaviour, and professional attitude to others.

The article's essential contribution is to interpretatively explore the constructed meaning of professionalism as an organising framework for the MPBs shouldering BRP work. It provides a pragmatic path for the construction and documentation of professionalism (Figure 1). It also enhances the professionalism literature by exploring how the concept is understood and socially constructed within the scholarly literature and in the present non-generic context. We examined notions of professionalism within an existing MPB landscape from the perspective of a practitioner's "essence of being" in an occupation to enhance BRP professionalism in an integrated way.

Figure 1: Pragmatic construction and documentation of professionalism



Source: Constructed from researchers' synthesis of interview results, content analysis of legal prescripts, content analysis of scholarly literature.

Implications

The multidimensional aspects of professionalism led us to explore a pragmatic approach to construct, investigate, and document professionalism in the BRP occupation (Figure 1). Our examination revealed that a practitioner dealing with the client (given services required), the PB, the public and others, and oneself contribute to a practitioner's essence of being in the work context. The defined dealings are relevant in the delineation of the BRP as a discipline worth professional and academic pursuit. We conclude that professionalism is a multidimensional construct and relational within the MPB occupation setting. The multidimensional aspects are in designing a professional accreditation framework to create a uniform basis of practitioner learning and development.

The different PBs are not bound up with similar socially constructed notions of professionalism. Some of the PBs have a history of providing business consultancy services alongside other services. These PBs have notions of professionalism that reflect the business rescue profession as an additional service that add to their members' already embraced notions. Moreover, the social construction of professionalism is linked to the practitioner's essence of being at the workplace, which starts with higher education training. Therefore, the notions of dealings with clients, government, and others, PBs, and oneself in the context of the business rescue profession cannot be divorced from the past. Models of BRPs' tasks and services are based on the legislated requirements, and practitioners' explanations of practices, ethics and values are key to the refinement of the BRP occupation. The findings of the study point to the need for a pragmatic framework to help construct, understand, document, and investigate what constitutes professionalism in the BRP occupation. Theories on professionalism and professional competence emphasise specialist knowledge, skills, and work performance to the exclusion of a practitioner's essence of being in the work context.

Limitations of the study and directions for future research

Currently licensed BRPs were not interviewed. The conclusions were derived from interviews with the PBs' representatives and content analysis of CPCs and scholarly literature. Therefore, detailed interviews for double and purposive interpretation are needed to provide a grounded basis to construct, understand and investigate professionalism as an organising framework for practitioners drawn from MPBs. Purposive interpretation is pertinent to future research because the BRP occupation is a regulated practice. The understanding of BRP practices requires purposive interpretation of the legal prescripts on the BR process.

Practitioners in communities of practice have not been used to suggest how professionalism can be enacted comprehensively through experience. Furthermore, investigations are needed to establish professional trajectories regarding occupational practice specifics, including business rescue strategies and turnaround risks. Another aspect worth investigating is how PBs vary in practising business rescue management and how this reflects the more comprehensive international practices. An additional issue is to investigate the degree to which professionalism is the fundamental vehicle for enhancing professional practices in emerging fields. Such investigations may require a historical exposition of a practitioner's essence of being through different stages of an occupation's evolution.

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Modelling owner's physiognomies & incitements for the adoption of enterprise application architecture for supply chain management in small and medium enterprises: A case of Capricorn District Municipality

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Keywords

Enterprise application architecture, owner's physiognomies & incitements, security architecture design, small and medium enterprises, supply chain management, and theory of reasoned action

Abstract

The adoption of enterprise application architecture (EAA) for supply chain management (SCM) in small and medium enterprises (SMEs) was influenced by the owner's physiognomies and incitements (OPIs) on a routine basis. The study employs a quantitative approach based on a linear regression model, which uses diagnosis tests "Cronbach's Alpha, normal distribution, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test" that makes descriptive statistics possible on Pearson correlations, analysis of variance (ANOVA), Pearson's Coefficients, and linear regression. The study examines whether OPIs affect the adoption of EAA for SCM in SMEs within Capricorn District Municipality. The paper exploits the original data set of 310 SMEs, targeting predominantly both SMEs' owners and managers to run linear regression models with the dependent variable "actual adoption of EAA" and independent variable "OPIs". A novel piece of authenticity for the models is the incorporation of OPIs within the SCM activities and whether there were any, collaborative influences affecting the adoption of EAA. The findings have a bearing on SMEs' SCM growth strategies, directed towards the technology acceptance model.

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Introduction

The Owner's Physiognomies & Incitements (OPIs) plays a significant role in the adoption of EAA for SCM within SMEs. Numerous algorithms are used for programming enterprise systems for SCM in the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4thIR). According to Stok, Renner, Allan, Being, Ensenauer, Issanchou, Kiesswetter, Lien, Mazzochi, Monsivais, Stelmach-Mardas, Volkert & Hoffmann (2018), entrepreneurs who are passionate about surviving difficult times, although internal and external environmental obstacles manifest with minimal economic benefits, manage SMEs that survive with a coherent overview that requires effective synthesis of the existing knowledge across different disciplines. Focusing on the OPIs is an essential principle that induces perceived attitudes on three dimensions, such as alternative user-base solutions, resistance to change, and technological aversion (Merritt, 2019; Law Insider, 2019). Since many researchers focus on corporate sectors, the current literature on the adoption of EAA for SCM in SMEs is severely underdeveloped (Hazen, Kung, Cegielski & Jones-Farme, 2014; Iyamu & Mphahlele 2014; Ingram 2018). According to Ghosh (2015a), Ghosh (2018b), and Jenkin (2016), SMEs with self-leadership benefit from a positive creativity climate that leverages synergistic creativity and innovation to provide a long-term competitive advantage. As a result, SMEs should regard themselves as ideal EAA for SCM adapters since they operate in a challenging, diverse, and competitive world of business expertise. SMEs in Capricorn District Municipality has numerous challenges, including a lack of financial viability, a lack of formal education, and a lack of technical skills.

There is a wake-up call for SMEs to invest in technology infrastructure for effective SCM operations, such as insourcing, process outsourcing, and so on (Poba-Nzaou, Raymond & Fabi 2014; Ticlo 2018). By

considering the economic nature of the environment in which SMEs operate, there is a need to consider critical issues for a better environment for EAA adoption. It consists of reliability, excellence, value, expertise, problem-solving skills, continuous improvement, support, a positive attitude, a global reach, and strong relationships that lead to optimum production within SMEs (Bowman 2020). In today's competitive business world, customer relationship management systems (CRMS) assist enterprises in growing by developing relationships with their customers through loyalty and customer remembrance developed for SCMS and long-term connections (Cognite, 2018).

Statement of the research problem

Increased demand-driven sales planning triggers mechanisms in other operations. This is an issue for a synchronised SCM in SMEs in meeting increasingly high customer-service demands, which is a major concern among SME owners and has piqued the interest of scholars. There are numerous questions with exceptional responses based on OPIs that influence EAA adoption. As a result, many small and medium-sized business owners are unaware of the nature and purpose of EAA. The quality of EAA's SCM is surrounded by many assumptions and forecasts, which contribute to a significant failure rate in SMEs due to inadequate SCM. A large number of researchers support this problem statement (Power, 2008; Morosan 2011; Schulz & Dankert 2016). This could be an indication of SMEs' reluctance to adopt EAA because of OPIs changing aspects in; decision support systems, regulatory laws, and dynamics in biometric systems (Stok *et al.* 2018; Broughton 2018; Hendricks 2018). In a study, Valasseri (2019) finds that only 95% of organisations face challenges with the technology they have chosen to strengthen their business objectives.

Aim

The purpose of this paper is to provide a conceptual theoretical framework based on OPIs for the adoption of EAA in SMEs within Capricorn District Municipality, as well as to assess the extent to which it occurs.

Objectives

The key objective is to examine whether the physiognomies of the owners influence the adoption of EAA in SMEs for SCM.

Subsequently, the secondary objective is to explore hidden parameters that would make it possible to unambiguously, predict orthodox procedure to produce the result of specific characters within the adoption of EEA in SMEs for SCM.

Literature Review

Theoretical review: Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

The existing literature focuses on user conduct when using EAA. Aside from the circumstances surrounding EAA adoption, the TRA and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) specify a limited number of psychological factors (Dillon & Morris 1996a; Albarracn, Blair, Johnson, Fishbein & Muellerleile 2001). In this study, the term TRA is broadly defined as the predictive validity for establishing the predictive validity as a comprehensive model of behaviour (Blair, Johnson, Fishbein & Muellerleile 2001; Dillon & Morris 2018b). This theme came up, for example, in discussions of a number of deterrents to EAA adoption, including intention, attitude toward behaviour, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and behavioral-normative control beliefs (Albarracn *et al.* 2001). The TAM is based on the TRA and predicts employee behaviour in specific situations and circumstances, such as the adoption of EAA for SCM (Ajzen & Fishbein 1977; Stam, Stanton & Guzman 2004; Hui, Cau, Lou & He, 2014). Furthermore, Ajzen (1991) asserts that TRA implies that a person's behaviour is determined by their intention to act in some way because of subjective customs. Other authors, including Albarracín *et al.* (2001); Camadan, Reisoglu, Ursavas and Mcilroy (2018) and LaMorte (2018) alluded to a limited number of psychological variables that can influence a behaviour, such as intention; attitude toward the behaviour; subjective norm; perceived behavioural control; and with behavioural, normative and control belief. Silverman, Hanrahan, Haung, Rabinowitz, and Lim (2016) argue that by integrating systems science, agent modelling and simulation, knowledge management architecture, and domain theories, EAA adoption could be

facilitated. TRA distinguishes two types of perceived behavioural control that can have a direct predictive effect on behaviour via two distinct mechanisms (Ajzen, 1991):

Keeping intention constant, an employee with higher perceived behavioural control is more likely to try harder and persevere for a longer period of time than an employee with lower perceived control; and

People may have accurate perceptions of their level of actual control over their behaviour.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Omale (2019), "In the past, subjective norms created several other options with the persuade for subjective norms that created several other options." Adopting a business-outcome-driven EA programme will help to strengthen a normative belief that supports the persuasive.

Increase the motivation to comply with a norm that supports the persuasive goal.

Reduce a normative belief that opposes the persuasive goal, start with business architecture.

Reduce the motivation to comply with a norm that opposes the persuasive goal and determine organisational design.

Create a new subjective norm that supports the persuasive goal, determine skills set and staffing, and determine governance and assurance; and

Remind the audience of a forgotten subjective norm that supports the persuasive goal, determine business value metrics and construct a charter.

These arguments, taken together, provide important insights into TRA, assisting enterprises in predicting the acceptability of a tool based on internal factors such as perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. Furthermore, to identify the hardware and software modifications for ease of use for both internal and external users, which must be introduced into the system in order for it to be acceptable to users.

Conceptual review

Much of the recent literature on SCM focuses specifically on the use of EAA. EAA entails the process of exemplifying the coordinating-computer paradigms by incorporating an organisation's information technology assets to form the computing infrastructure that sustains business goals (McComb, 2004). This section summarises the literature review that was used to structure the variables in the questionnaire for this survey. One of the global issues that SMEs face is the adoption of EAA. There is a significant relationship between OPIs and the use of EAA for SCM operations such as insourcing, processing, and outsourcing (Smit 2017; Herman & Stefanescu 2017), which determine the highest level of efficiency (Sebetci 2019). According to the literature, SMEs face challenges in the following areas: distribution network configuration, access flexibility, number of participants, geographical allocation, suppliers' networks, manufacturing facilities, distribution centres, warehouses, customer relations, and distribution strategies (Nair 2010; Stet 2014). This means that without EAA, neither SCM success nor production efficiency will be provided. According to Hon and Lui (2016), SMEs' owners are increasingly realising the value of integrating their psychographics and behavioural motivations, as well as their creativity. It is thus critical for SMEs that have been transformed into modern enterprises to study the environmental supply chain dynamics and understand how the disruption-driven ripple effect may influence the dynamics of the bullwhip effect (Dolgui, Ivanov & Rozhkv 2019).

SMEs are seeing transformation in technology innovation by aligning innovation with agility. Furthermore, SMEs gain a competitive advantage in SCM by developing a statutory framework that defines all of the roles, responsibilities, and relationships involved in program management and information technology operations (Asetpartners 2018). Chang, Lakovou, and Shi (2019) contend that a smart investment in blockchain could reduce the level of uncertainty and risk associated with the use of EAA for SCM. With the growth of EAA, SMEs are looking for application software that will provide them with a customised and one-of-a-kind experience that will be faultless in perpetuity. Furthermore, current SMEs are the adopters seeking an EAA program that will prepare them for effective SCM (Bawa, Buchholz, de Villiers, Corless & Kaliner 2017). SME owners who have adopted EAA: EAA has enormous value in SMEs, particularly in terms of application performance smoothing, high scalability, and flexibility, easy integration of new features, cost savings, decreased development time, and high security (Le 2020; Pavlenko 2021). With the innovation-driven environment stretching far beyond traditional cyber, regulatory, operational, and financial challenges, SMEs should become more technologically oriented

(Briggs, Buchholz & Sharma 2020). According to Spence (2020), one of the most interesting developments in cognitive technology in recent decades has been the growing recognition that perception/experience is significantly more multimodal than other SMEs had realised. Dissatisfaction with the traditional approach in SCM drove the implementation of EAA. The main factors influencing the adoption of EAA for SCM in SMEs cost marginalisation through offshore development and total cost of ownership considerations (Schmidt, 2013). Using the lens model as a framework, Gifford, Hine, Muller-Clemm, and Shaw (2002) investigated the relationship between the enterprise physical qualities of buildings, the perceptions of "attractive" and "pleasurable," and the subject's overall assessment. According to the findings, both groups based their emotional assessments on completely different building elements. SMEs, on the other hand, are becoming more traditional in their approach to SCM, while SCM partners on facilities are becoming more prominent. Researchers and enterprise practitioners are drawn to EAA adoption for the following reasons: simplicity, succinct but not imperceptible, standardised way of doing things, outstanding supporting tools, short feedback loops, expressiveness, and excellent third-party packages (Young 2012).

Based on cost considerations, it is believed that the adoption of EAA is a critical factor in the performance of SMEs in SCM. Employee productivity surpasses cost, business speed outperforms employee productivity, and security outpaces business speed (Settle 2019). Furthermore, it was discovered that the implementation of EAA in many developed and developing economies has increased customer satisfaction and changed the way SMEs approach their internal and external activities. A well-designed enterprise architecture enables SMEs to achieve consensus from all internal and external stakeholders. This is achieved through support planning, change facilitation, complexity management, risk reduction, and technical debt minimisation, all of which are the goals of any well-designed architecture (Menezes 2020). Physiognomies and incitements: It has been discovered that the adoption of EAA that provides the features of a well-encyclopaedic SCM in trendy, sustainable, and self-regulating ways with a computerisation guarantee is effective. However, Ashanti (2018) classifies twelve EAA criteria for SCM activities in SMEs that are linked to quality work output:

Application Performance Review – Application performance review encrypted in EAA aids in SCM tasks by evaluating its performance and scalability attributes via the application's performance characteristics, which are determined by the application's architecture and design (Daya 2019; Le 2020). On completion of EAA, the process of agile model specification and parameter estimation could be executed for possible adoption of EAA. Suggestion from the implementation of EAA suggests that OPIs when combined with APR, improve SCM performance.

Scalability Web Application – Scalability Web application is encoded in a website that assists SMEs in dealing with any marginal increase or decreases in production facilities for a gradual or abrupt surge, without interfering with end-user activities and with the ability to rapidly intensify the load in SCM (Daya 2019; Le 2020). One major theoretical issue that has dominated the field for many years concerns the implementation of the continuous-flow model that offers stability whilst facing high demand. In general, it appears that SWA could handle any increase in users and load, whether gradual or abrupt, without disrupting end users' SCM activities.

Interoperability Syntactic (IS) - Interoperability syntactic is considered for disseminating message successfully with tools that provide syntactic interoperability for formatting standards in SCM, also known as structural interoperability (Lewis 2019). To date, there has been little agreement on what continuous flow model could offer the level of stability in SCM in high demand market-facing minimum fluctuations. These definitions suggest that IS allows multiple systems to exchange data from different locations; however, the interface and programming languages may differ. Nonetheless, as interoperability becomes more common, proactive sharing of implementation concepts and practices is essential for SMEs to be more agile in their SCM activities.

Usability – According to the findings of a study conducted by Capilla, Kazman, Romera, and Carrillo (2020), the organisation of numerous usability mechanisms appears helpful for end-users by offering compatibility of mobile systems that promote satisfaction during the engagement with the system and thus in SCM. One major issue in early OPIs research concerned the custom configuration model that provides custom configurations at both manufacturing and assembly phases. This has the implication that

it describes a system's ability to provide users with informed conditions when confronted with risk in software applications such as schedule risk, budget risk, operational risk, technical risk, and programmatic risk.

Reliability – The reliability of SCM considers the aspect of the system that is responsible for the system's ability to continue operating under predetermined conditions (Tomaney 2010). The reliability of SMEs in SCM is envisioned as a distinct field of specialisation that guarantees applications that are developed to supply essential SME's functionality in a reliable, predictable, and cost-effective manner without compromising essential features such as availability, performance, and maintainability (Sha 2020). The issue has grown in importance in light of recent developments in efficient chain-model that focus on competitive markets. The importance of OPIs, supported by current findings that software reliability modelling denotes that in a matured EAA, the results obtained by applying appropriate models to the problem such as size and complexity of code, characteristics of the development process used, education, experience, and training of development personnel, and operational environment.

Availability – In this context, availability includes a number of components that work together to ensure continuous service for a given period in SCM. It also covers the response time to end-user queries in SCM with available systems that are highly responsive when connected to the internet. Furthermore, the absence of flaws with a level of usability has no bearing on the operations of SMEs (Jevtic 2018). One observer has already drawn attention to the paradox in the fast chain model for enterprises that are flexible and have a marginal short-life cycle. According to the findings of the OPI investigation, application-specific key performance indicators such as timed application uptime and downtime, number of completed transactions, responsiveness, reliability, and other relevant metrics determine EAA availability.

Security Architecture Design - Security Architecture Design denotes that the level of security architecture in modern information and communications technology systems is critical, which is controlled by architect specialists on technical elements for secure SCM (Kien 2020). Questions are raised about the safety of prolonged use of a flexible model that provides an opportunity to satisfy high-demand peaks and manage long periods at low volumes. Furthermore, the security architecture's robust elements, as well as the design of the proactive portions, rely on full and consistent design to ensure that incident detection, response, and recovery do not interfere with SCM activities. While this study did not confirm OPIs, it did partially substantiate SAD's focus on the selection and composition of components that form the foundation of SMEs solutions, with a particular emphasis on their security properties.

Maintainability Applications – In reference to maintainability applications, EAA necessitates the upkeep and testing of standards that accelerate change in order to acquire or maintain a competitive edge, making SMEs aware that a high-profile system failure could result in both lost income and failure to meet the market target in SCM (Tomany 2020; Wayner 2020). In many MAs', a debate is taking place between EAA and SC concerning operations reference models that assess waste, establishes standards, and encourages continuous improvements in the SCM system. Maintainability applications to make description an advantage in those who use the maintainability analysis, which provides calculated information on various aspects of owner's physiognomies and incitements.

Modifiability – Enterprises that modify EAA in SCM determine the system's ability to influence a single item, which may be difficult, if not impossible if a number of actions rely on it (Wayner 2020). Mäkitalo, Taivalaari, Kiviluoto, Mikkonen & Capilla (2020) propose that system developers build and reuse code modules in SCM for future changes to a systematic algorithm. The controversy about scientific evidence for OPIs has raged unabated for over a century with Supply models are similar in so many ways because they all have similar goals that include marginalizing costs, reduce risk, satisfy the-end-users, enhancing productivity. For the first time, this study demonstrated that an analysis of modifiability strategies structured to predict future changes revolving the software system on cost of change and embedded in enterprise concerns for predicting future changes.

Testability – Testability for EAA in SCM refers to the level of accountability for carrying out tests, measured against predetermined criteria and result in a fully functional system (Wayner 2020). This concept has recently been challenged by OPIs studies demonstrating the architecture of a typical enterprise resource planning system that includes connectivity, web-enablement, modelling, and

optimization. One major theoretical matter that has dominated the field for many years' concerns; information technology infrastructure that involves; interface devices and technology, auto-ID technology-communication system, technology, and system architecture for SCM. The analysis of OPIs performed has expanded our knowledge of testability if the software artefact is high, as discovering faults in the system would be easier at that time.

Reusability – Reusability is concerned with the ability to reuse a specific component or encrypted in SCM on assets associated with EAA that scale an opportunistic design (Mäkitalo et al. 2020). The causes of OPIs have been the subject of intense debate within the scientific community where; cost savings, informed purchasing decisions, reduction in RSA downtime, message-pops notifications, and increased productivity are of paramount importance in SCM. As it reflects design features that enhance its suitability for reuse, the methods used for this reusability are applied to other applications elsewhere in the enterprise operations.

Supportability – The ability of EAA and the system to provide useful information for identifying and resolving problems in SCM through enterprise operations is referred to as supportability (Settle 2019). The issue of supportability has been a controversial and much-disputed subject within the field of application architecture that prompt the understanding of information technology service and support processes that nature competitive advantage creates efficiencies and add value to the business. Taken together, these delineations suggest that supportability may play a role in promoting the adoption of EAA for SCM in SMEs.

Research Methodology

In this study, a quantitative survey method was developed to collect primary data. Created and tested a questionnaire to ensure data accuracy and the intended results. Self-administered questionnaires with a Likert scale were used to collect data. A total of 310 people were chosen using a non-probability sampling method. Questionnaire design: The questionnaire was composed of Likert scale questions and respondents were given five possibilities from rating scales with a range of described classifications that reflected a variety of responses. Each set of questions was designed to achieve the study's research objective(s). As a tool for framing questions, coding, and analysing data, the Likert scale performed admirably. There was no ambiguity in the questionnaire development to ensure that respondents had a clear understanding.

Questionnaire development

In this section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to provide information on the OPIs, as well as the actual adoption of EAA questions. Originally, the questionnaire included eight mandatory categories, used in this publication from the OPIs (table 1) as well as the actual adoption of EAA (table 2).

OPIs & incitements questions

To measure OPIs, a questionnaire was, developed and six constructs were tested. The respondents requested to express their experience about the following aspects on OPIs on the adopting EAA for SCM.

Sigma Notations	Please tick an appropriate box (✓) from 1.1 to 1.6.	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Moderate (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1.1)	Demonstrate passion for being successful with the business.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.2)	Try out new ideas in the business.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.3)	Set goals and guidelines to achieve them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.4)	Demonstrate passion for hard work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.5)	Ignore distractions and focus on the immediate challenges.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.6)	Demonstrate “fight back” when problems threaten.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Table 1: Owner's Physiognomies & Incitements

Source: Author Conceptualisation

Actual adoption of enterprise application architecture questions

Respondents provided their assessments and opinions on the following assertions regarding the actual adoption of EAA for SCM.

Sigma Notations	Please tick an appropriate box (✓) from 2.1 to 2.6	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderate	Agree	Strongly Agree
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.1)	Information Technology improves my job satisfaction.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.2)	Information Technology supports all aspect of my job requirement.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.3)	Information Technology allows me to accomplish more work than in manual process.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.4)	Information Technology simplifies my day-to-day activities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.5)	Information Technology highlights technical errors for me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.6)	It makes workflow straightforward.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Table 2: Actual adoption of enterprise application architecture

Source: Author Conceptualisation

Stability Diagnostic Tests

Normality test for variables

The evidence, which was tested using the descriptive statistical technique for the OPIs, was arranged to contribute to a further statistical examination of the Linear Regression model. As shown in Table 3 and Figure 1, the Cauchy normal distribution was transformed into asymmetric distribution with well-behaved tails. This is indicated by a mean (μ) @ 22.81, standard deviation (σ) @ 3.263, and the N @ 310.

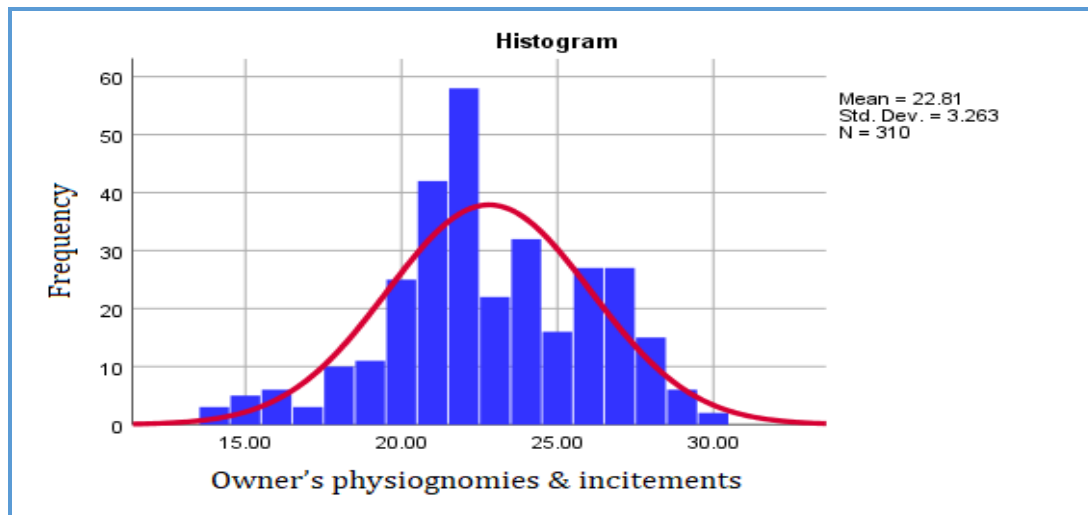


Figure 1: Normal Distribution on Owner's Physiognomies & Incitements

Source: Author Conceptualisation

OPIs resulted in a positive skewness of -.196 and Kurtosis of -.141. Kurtosis is zero for the standard normal distribution, negative Kurtosis for a "peaked" distribution, and negative Kurtosis for a "flat" distribution. The Kurtosis figure should be close to zero, and the value of -.141 indicates that it is a normal distribution that is slightly skewed to the left. As the μ is 0.228 and the median is 0.220, the distribution is symmetric. This means that the model has the best match for homoscedasticity.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality of OPIs

Table 3 shows the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for the normality of OPIs, which show that they do follow a normal distribution, $D(310) = 0.123$ which is greater than $p = 0.05$.

Table 3: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test on OPIs

Tests of Normality									
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk			Median	Skewedness	Kurtosis
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.			
Owner's Physiognomies & Incitements	.123	310	.000	.974	310	.000	22.000	-.196	-.141
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction									

Source: Author Conceptualisation

The confirmation process led to the conclusion that the OPIs were statistically examined using a Linear Regression Model to examine the relationship between the OPIs and the Actual Adoption of EAA in SMEs for SCM.

Research Findings

Pearson Correlations on OPIs and actual adoption of EAA

Table 4 demonstrates the results on correlations between OPIs and Actual Adoption of EAA. The p-value is near zero at " $<.001$ " with the required value set at 0.05. The statistical technique "ANOVA" tested the hypotheses between the dependent variable, namely, Actual Adoption of EAA, and the independent variable, namely OPIs indicated in Table 1.

Table 4: Pearson Correlations on OPIs and actual adoption of EAA

Pearson Correlations			
		Actual Adoption of EAA	Owner's Physiognomies & Incitements
Actual Adoption of EAA	Pearson Correlation	1	.185**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	310	310
Owner's Physiognomies & Incitements	Pearson Correlation	.185**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	310	310
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Source: Author Conceptualisation

Pearson Correlation Coefficients are .185, indicating a positive relationship between OPIs and Actual EAA Adoption. The association findings indicate that, in general, there is a positive relationship between OPIs and the actual Adoption of EAA with the sign change in mind.

ANOVA on OPIs and actual adoption of EAA

Table 5 confirms the ANOVA results for OPI scores and Actual Adoption of EAA. The independent variable is known as OPIs, and the dependent variable is known as Actual.

Table 5: ANOVA on OPIs and actual adoption of EAA

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	122.708	1	122.708	10.925	.001 ^b
	Residual	3459.563	308	11.232		
	Total	3582.271	309			
A						
a. Dependent Variable: Actual Adoption of EAA						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Owner's Physiognomies & Incitements						

Source: Author Conceptualisation

Adoption of EAA. The general F-statistic is significant ($F = 10.925$, $p < .001$), thus signifying that the model accounts for a significant proportion of the variation in the adoption of EAA for SCM in SMEs. Since the exact significance level is $.001 < \alpha$ at $.05$, the results are statistically significant. The alternative sub- H_{a1} that; "OPIs affect the adoption of EAA for SCM in SMEs" is accepted, whilst the sub- H_{01} that; "OPIs does not affect the adoption of EAA for SCM in SMEs" is rejected.

Pearson Coefficient on OPIs Incitements and Actual Adoption of EAA

Table 6 shows the coefficient results for OPIs and Actual EAA Adoption. The t-test was used for testing because both samples had similar mean values in the mean @ 22.81 (as shown in Figure 1: OPIs have a normal distribution, and Table 3: The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests on OPIs and actual EAA adoption).

Table 6: Pearson coefficients on OPIs and actual adoption of EAA

Pearson Coefficients								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	B
1	(Constant)	19.486	1.346		14.47	1		
	Owner's Physiognomies & Incitements	.193	.058	.185	3.327	.001	1.000	1.0

a. Dependent Variable: Actual Adoption of EAA

Source: Author Conceptualisation

In conditions where the predicted \hat{Y} consists of Perceived Attitudes towards the Adoption of EAA and OPIs with the score = $19.486 + 0.193x$, then the t-test shows that the \hat{Y} constant a = 0.193 and the \hat{Y} constant b = 19.486 are significantly different from zero. The independent t-test could be used to determine the confidence interval of the coefficient, in case the 95% confidence interval for the t-test is [14.476, 3.327].

Linear Regression on OPIs and actual adoption of EAA

Figure 2 shows the results on \hat{Y} = assembled as Actual Adoption of EAA, where; a = y-axis intercept, b = + slope and x-axis intercept are OPIs. This work naturally progressed to analysis.

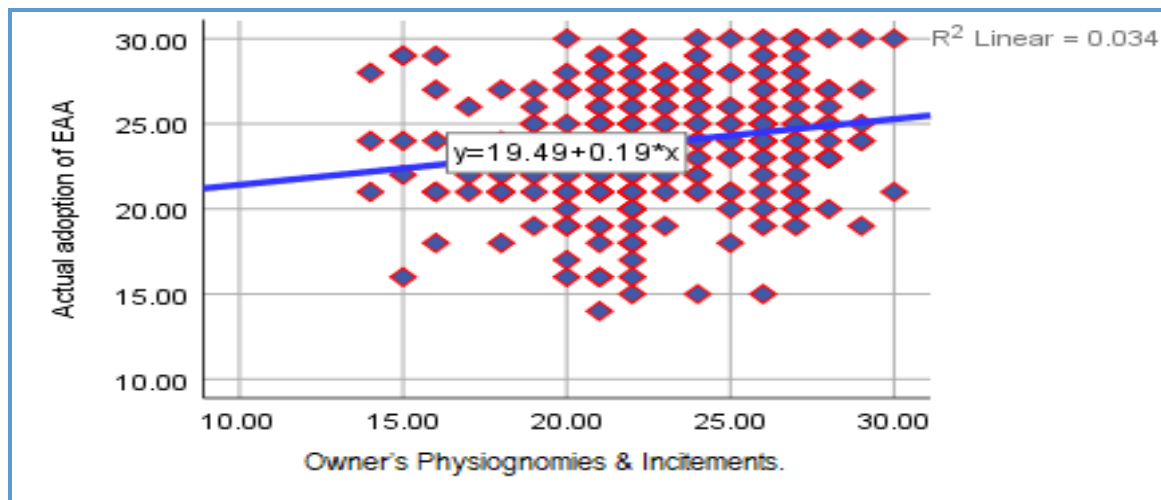


Figure 2: Linear Regression Model on OPIs and Actual Adoption of EAA

Source: Author Conceptualisation

The relationship between OPIs and actual SCM EAA adoption in SMEs. The R^2 value is 0.034 of the variances is being accounted for in this scatter plot from the independent variable, as OPIs. The positive

linear regression satisfies three of the best-fit model's assumptions, as shown in Figure 1. The linear regression where; $\hat{Y} = 19.48 + 0.19 \cdot x$. The slope of +0.19 will bring the same increase in \hat{Y} . The $R^2 = 0.034$ indicates that the level of variation in the prognostic variable could be described by variation in the independent variables. Moreover, the R^2 is converted to r as; thus, $\sqrt{0.034} = 0.184 \approx 0.185$ which is confirmed in Table 4 for Pearson Correlation Coefficients. This validates that the model is adequate with a positive slope and the model is of a positive fit between OPIs.

Implications

The findings contribute to the expansion of theoretical knowledge bases while also providing findings that will be of interest to SME owners, managers, and external SCM partners. However, the findings are limited to a single investigation using stratified random sampling. The sampling method allowed the researcher to choose each component from a specific group of SME owners and managers as targeted participants. The combination of findings lends some support to the conceptual premise that OPIs have improbable characteristics that influence SCM activities and EAA adoption. The implications of these outcomes highlight the complexities of EAA adoption, as highlighted in some discussions (Giovannoni & Maraghini, 2013; Grigoriu, 2014; Faircloth, 2014; Arbesman, 2015). However, a significant flaw in this argument is that EAA algorithms and cost structures pose a challenge to SMEs seeking to theorise this phenomenon.

Limitations

There are several limitations to the study. First, while IRM is known in South Africa and internationally as a leading enterprise architecture value provider and authorised Sparx Systems Enterprise Architect license reseller, only a few SMEs will benefit from preferential procurement scores from level 2 Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) status (Sparks Systems and Enterprise Architect, 2020). Second, it requires SMEs to determine which techniques will be used in practice to encourage EAA compliance (Foorthuis, van Steenberg, Mushkudiani, Bruls, Brinkkemper & Bos, 2020). Finally, it is possible that a large number of SMEs with ethical practices that comply with government regulations will be able to adopt EAA for SCM.

Conclusions

According to the findings of this study, OPIs influence the adoption of EAA for SCM in SMEs in Capricorn District Municipality. Both psychographic and behavioral incitements have a significant impact on general perceptions and attitudes, which may increase interest in EAA for SCM adoption in SMEs. Risk-averse SME owners will suffer significant losses in SCM unless they retract from the bleeding edge and are new-fangled. Hidden variables could be analogous to the relationship between OPIs (for example, collective and operational vulnerabilities) and mechanisms (the gestures of the individual traits).

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The impact of leadership style on employee motivation in the automotive industry: A British perspective

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Keywords

Leadership styles, employee motivation, autocratic leadership, democratic, laissez-faire, situational leadership, transformational and charismatic leadership style, automobile industry

Abstract

Purpose: The effectiveness of leadership is critical at all levels of the organisation. Different organisations use a variety of leadership styles and methods to improve employee performance by inspiring them and providing them with adequate opportunities. The research purpose is to examine the impact of leadership styles on employee's motivation in the automotive industry in the United Kingdom.

Methodology: The researchers used a deductive approach in conjunction with the quantitative method to determine the study's outcomes. A sample of 100 people was used for primary data using a questionnaire-based survey. Subjects are from the automotive industry, and the survey was carried out online.

Findings: According to the results, Democratic Leadership Style (DLS), Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS), Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS), Situational Leadership Style (SLS), Transformational Leadership Style (TLS), and Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS) are among the six study variables that are highly significant in terms of employee motivation. Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS) and Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS) were determined to be the study's less significant variables (CLS). The findings suggest that there is a positive relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation.

Conclusion and study implications: The findings of this study can be used to develop strategies and achieve goals by developing and implementing a good leadership style. Transformational leadership is important, and leaders and managers should strive to demonstrate it in their daily activities. This study's findings have both academic and commercial implications. Leaders should use suitable styles and an inclusive and equitable incentive scheme to motivate employees by setting expectations.

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1. Introduction and background

Nowadays, organisations and the growth and survival of a community are critical for an individual's daily performance and job function. Organisations were founded to address social issues and engage in communal activity. Human beings primarily drive organisations. They commit their entire time to organisations and assist them in achieving their goals. As a result, without management, human development, and efforts and the outcomes of these efforts, achieving the objectives is not achievable. Given that the presence of humans is the core concept of the organisation, the most fundamental action that must be performed to accomplish this is to retain employees and assure their psychological and professional fulfilment throughout their employment (Mullins, 2007).

Throughout human history, whenever a person has functioned as a leader, the expansions and variations brought about by people and organisations have been attributed to that person's leadership. Historically held leadership is a vital component of the foundations of human civilisations, and it is also a critical component of effective management. It becomes evident when seen as a function. Each business requires strong leadership to achieve its objectives. Because effective leadership is a vital component of

enhancing a company's performance, a company's success or failure is defined by the effectiveness of leadership at all levels of the organisation. Shirzad, Kebriya, and Zanganeh (2011) discovered that leadership consists of the beliefs, attitudes, and talents to influence others to fulfil company objectives. As a result, performance will impact staff morale (Shirzad, Kebriya and Zanganeh, 2011).

Leadership effectiveness is crucial at all levels of the organisation (Duckett and Macfarlane, 2003). Leadership is vital for all organisations because it is critical for improving their overall performance to fulfil objectives. To manage colleagues well, the manager must possess the essential abilities and tactics and increase employee motivation and job happiness. Given that people constitute an organisation's engine, this can significantly boost the organisation's performance (Yukl, 2001). An organisation's leadership style significantly impacts its employees' level of engagement and dedication (Obiruwu, 2011). To increase employee motivation and inspire employees to contribute to company goals, it is also vital to encourage them (Chi, Lan, and Dorjgotov, 2012). Managers should employ a variety of leadership and management styles to maximise efficiency, which needs diverse leadership techniques for the powerful symbol in achieving departmental objectives. Similarly, commitment to the organisation and performance are inextricably tied to leadership style (Hueryren Yeh 2012).

This research aims to look into the effect of leadership styles on employee motivation in the automotive industry context. Key objectives are:

1. To define the concept of leadership style and the various leadership styles used in the automotive industry.
2. To assess the importance of employee motivation and its impact on organisational performance.
3. To evaluate the relationship between leadership style and employee motivation.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Leadership: key concepts

Many previous researchers have used the term "leader" to refer to someone in command of a group of people (Yukl 2001, Musunguzi et al. 2018)). In certain circumstances, a person can be a leader if he can influence and remain essential to his partner to achieve the organisation's primary goal. According to Yukl (2001), the cliques may include the leader's close relatives or friends, as well as the leader's subordinates. To become a leader, you must first gather a group of followers eager to follow you. People will follow anyone who can provide them with the resources they require to realise their dreams and desires. A leader has authority over their cliques or coworkers, allowing them to influence their behaviour. As a result, leaders have power and influence over others, respect their followers, and contribute to the group's and organisation's goals (Nwachukwul, 2007). According to Bernis (2009), a leader has authority over individuals who have the power to impose their views and behaviours on others or those who follow them.

Prentice (2004) asserted that leadership is associated with achieving organisational goals by managing and structuring their cliques, colleagues, and associates' resources to achieve a common goal. Other experts defined leadership as an attempt to lead or direct the formation of clubs and the completion of a specific undertaking for the common good (Fiedler, 2009; Zenger and Folkman, 2002). According to Smylie et al. (2005), leadership is exercised by a person who has defined tasks and task-oriented ideas and acts as a critical "function" in relationships with other leaders, followers, and situations.

2.2 Leadership Styles

Autocratic leadership style

Certain researchers use authoritarian leadership to describe autocratic leadership Zenger and Folkman, 2002; Smylie et al., 2005). Autocratic leaders wield enormous power and influence to manipulate others. Because they have authority over their followers, authoritarian leaders provide specific and concise instructions for completing tasks. As a result, assuming that autocratic leadership is used in negative leadership is not always correct (Dyczkowska and Dyczkowski, 2018). Most medium and small businesses employ this leadership style (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2008). Authoritarian leadership never allows workers to make decisions and keeps a distance from followers. They believe that to be a leader in person or a group, and one must keep a distance from the individuals (Egwunyenga, 2010). Many academics believe that most totalitarian regimes do not pay enough attention to socio-emotional aspects of

organisations, such as group cohesion and the promotion of cohesiveness as a fundamental component in social life cycles (Yukl, 2014).

Democratic leadership style

Employees are considered when making decisions in this leadership style. Igbaekemen and Odivwri (2015) are known for their bravery, intellect, fairness, competence, inventiveness, and honesty, as well as their largely positive democratic leadership. Leaders with this personality type offer options and assistance to their followers. Democratic leadership, also known as participatory leadership, stands for, as the name implies, fair participation, inclusion, and self-determination; however, it is not to be confused with individuals who hold elected positions of power (Igbaekemen and Odivwri, 2015). Accountability, active participation, collaboration, and delegation of duties and responsibilities are how democratic leaders establish authority. The democratic leadership's duties within the organisation include distributing responsibilities and fostering group debates. Accepting personal responsibility for the organisation, accountability for their choices, wanting to preserve their collective's self-determination and independence, taking on the role of leader when required or appropriate, and cooperating with leaders are all responsibilities of democratic followers (McShane et al., 2009).

Leaders with a laissez-faire attitude

According to Luthans (2011), laissez-faire leadership is defined as the abdication of responsibilities and the refusal to participate in the motivational process. On the other hand, Robbins and Judge (2013) agree with Luthans (2011) and reach the same conclusion. Laissez-faire leaders are uninterested in the efforts of their followers and coworkers. Leaders who employ a laissez-faire leadership style are frequently regarded as passive. Their attribution has a negative impact on their followers' performance (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Laissez-faire leadership styles appear to be a passive type of leadership, according to Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008), who agree with the previous point. People with this leadership characteristic are more likely to keep their followers at a social distance. Businesses suffer because of this long-distance relationship between leaders and followers. When you consider that they will be avoiding the followers, they will be less likely to be confronted with company requirements and management goals than they should be, limiting the possibility of a company operating at total capacity. According to Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008), laissez-faire leadership is characterised by a "lack of leadership."

On the other hand, Wong and Giessner (2016) believe that this type of leadership is advantageous. The effectiveness of their actions is determined by their followers' assessment of their leadership qualities. Even though some leadership literature considers laissez-faire leadership a lousy leadership style, there may be a follower who thrives and is drawn to it (Hinkin and Schriesheim, 2008). Certain followers may view increased responsibilities and decision-making authority as part of being empowered. They see all their responsibilities and autonomy as opportunities to improve themselves by exceeding their superiors' expectations. According to Chaudhury and Javed (2012), laissez-faire leadership can benefit an organisation when leaders and followers are both equally motivated and knowledgeable in their fields.

Situational Leadership Style

Although behavioural theories have helped propose and express potential leadership styles, they have failed to guide what constitutes effective leadership in various situations (Bolden, 2004). Some scholars believe that no single leadership style is all-encompassing or appropriate for every manager in every case or circumstance. As a result, situational theories were developed to demonstrate that the appropriate style is heavily influenced by the circumstances, personnel, task at hand, organisation, and other external factors. According to Fielder (2009), there is no such thing as a one-size-fits-all leadership strategy; instead, a thorough examination of the situation should be used to determine the leadership style. Fielder (2009) went on to differentiate between task-oriented managers and those who prioritise interpersonal relationships. Job-oriented managers, he claims, are more focused on the task at hand and perform better in situations where there is already a structure in place that promotes camaraderie or team spirit, defined duties, and either solid or weak leadership styles.

Managers who prioritise relationships outperform others and have a more participative leadership style. Furthermore, they are thought to perform admirably when the job is unstructured. Still, they hold a

high position of power and when the figurehead relationships fluctuate between good and bad, and the job is unstructured. Such leaders appear to be more directive in their leadership style.

Transformational Leadership Style

The term "transformational leadership" refers to leadership that affects both people and their social systems. As a result of these tactics, likely changes in followers occur, resulting in a future leader (Kendrick, 2011). Furthermore, transformative leadership appeals to workers' moral principles. This will eventually raise awareness and mobilise the energy of followers to transform institutions (Yukl, 2014). Transformational leaders inspire followers to feel trust, affection, loyalty, and admiration for them. Transformational leaders inspire their followers to go above and beyond what is expected of them. According to Yukl (2014), leaders influence followers in three ways: first, by increasing their understanding of the importance of job outcomes; second, by persuading people to put their interests aside for the good of the team or organisation; and third, by activating higher-order needs.

Charismatic Leadership Styles

In times of societal crisis, a leader's charisma is typically demonstrated when they rise with bold ideas and offer imaginative solutions to their followers. Charisma is fuelled by a set of personality traits that only leaders have, and the average person does not. According to Conger et al. (2009), charisma is a distinct personality trait that leads to charismatic leadership. However, both the followers' and the leader's distinguishing characteristics can have an impact on a leader's charismatic characteristics. Willner (2008) discovered that charismatic leadership is determined by perception rather than personality or environment. Simply put, it all comes down to how followers perceive their leader, not what the leader does to foster the charismatic bond. Willner (2008) went on to say that two factors influence the development of charisma in leaders and followers. It all comes down to the connection. Employee

2.3 Motivation

Over the last two decades, leadership and motivation appear to be two business themes that have gotten a lot of attention (Schaffer, 2008). "motivation" is commonly used to define leadership (Orozi Sougui et al., 2017). For attaining corporate goals, enthusiasm is a powerful motivator. As a result, it's plausible to assume that addressing individual needs can lead to personal excitement Haque, Haque, and Islam (2014). They also claimed that motivation requires addressing employee demands while simultaneously accomplishing organisational goals. Motivation is a process by which people participate in voluntary actions in the desired direction and stick to their goals and priorities (Ramlall, 2004). Motivation levels vary from person to person, and even within the same person, motivation levels might behave differently depending on the situation (Judge and Robbins, 2013). As a result, they propose a three-part synergy for motivation. These are a person's abilities, tendencies, and persistence in completing goals. When we look at these three characteristics individually, we can see that none of them can stand alone without the help of others. When it comes to intensity, unless the force is channelled in a specific way, a high degree of power is unlikely to result in solid work performance. Then there's the issue of perseverance, which influences how long someone can labour. Motivated employees will work if it takes to attain their objectives.

Maslow's (1954) Hierarchy of Needs is one of the most well-known motivational variables in the world, according to Haque, Haque, and Islam (2014). According to Maslow's theory, "people continually seek something, and what they genuinely want depends on what they already have." Maslow categorised human needs into five categories: physiological, safety, love/belonging, esteem, and self-actualisation. Maslow has organised these five criteria into layers from bottom to top: Workers' basic needs are at the bottom of the triangle. Addressing each of the bottom levels means the employee will be promoted to the next layer. Douglas McGregor (1960) was the first to propose the incentive theories X and Y. He identified two distinct forms of human nature. Managers believe that certain employees have a natural dislike of work and that monitoring and managing them in the workplace is crucial to the organisation's performance, according to Theory X. Apart from hypothesis Y, ordinary people are willing to accept and even desire duties because they consider labour as a form of enjoyment and relaxation in the life of an organism.

Frederick Herzberg's (1966) Two Factor Motivation Theory is another motivation-related theory that was introduced in the late 1960s. According to Robbins and Judge (2013), everyone's attitude toward work is equal, and one's attitude toward work can determine whether one succeeds or fails. As a result, Psychologist Herzberg asked people to describe how they felt about their jobs in a specific scenario. Based on the responses, he developed the Two-Factor Theory. There are two requirements in this concept: motivational reasons and hygienic aspects. According to Herzberg's research, the antithesis of contentment is not unhappiness, as previously supposed (Robbins and Judge, 2013). Eliminating unsatisfactory features will not result in job satisfaction. It will just cause you to be dissatisfied.

3. Research Methodology

To carry out the research using quantitative research methodology, a positivistic research philosophy and a deductive approach are used. Secondary research is carried out by examining current and relevant literature to comprehend the concept of leadership, various leadership styles, and critical attributes. The quantitative analysis is based on the survey data. Data collection methods are essential for conducting successful research because they enable researchers to collect data from various reliable sources. Clark and Vealé (2018) portray data collection techniques as an essential stage in completing research activity. To complete the study task effectively, researchers conducted both primary and secondary research.

A questionnaire-based survey with a sample size of 100 is used to collect data, and a simple random sample is used. Because of the current Covid-19 restrictions, data is collected via an online platform. Researchers collect data on study subjects using a Likert 5 scale. It aids researchers in gathering data on respondents' responses based on five criteria (Ebert et al., 2018). A Likert scale is a type of quantitative data that enables researchers to estimate distances between various locations (Tjora, 2018).

4. Findings

4.1 Demographics

Table 3: Age and Gender of the Participants

Your Gender:					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	46	46.0	46.0	46.0
	Female	54	54.0	54.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	
Your Age:					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	29 and below	15	15.0	15.0	15.0
	30 to 39	20	20.0	20.0	35.0
	40 to 49	25	25.0	25.0	60.0
	50 to 59	20	20.0	20.0	80.0
	60 and above	20	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

According to the survey findings, the researchers discovered nearly equal participation of male and female participants in the survey, where people of various ages participated.

4.2 Reliability Test

The reliability analysis was performed to check the internal consistency of the participant responses, and the researcher used the Cronbach's Alpha method to test the internal consistency.

Table 4: Reliability Statistics

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.972	18

The Alpha test results show an Alpha value of 0.972, more significant than the required value of 0.50, indicating that the data collected for this study is internally consistent.

4.3 Leadership Styles

In terms of the autocratic leadership style, most of the participants agreed with the statements. Three statements were asked, and the results indicate that autocratic leaders use their great authority and power to exert control over others, authoritarian leaders wield authority over their followers, they give precise and concise instructions for completing duties, and authoritarian leadership never allows workers to make choices and keeps a distance from followers. In terms of the Democratic Leadership Style, most of the participants agreed with the assertions. Employees are considered when making decisions in a democratic leadership style; democratic leadership represents equitable involvement, inclusion, and self-determination, as the name implies, and democratic leadership practises are much more motivating than the other styles.

Statistics			
	ALS 1	ALS 2	ALS 3
Mean	3.62	3.80	3.86
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4	4	4 ^a
Std. Deviation	1.144	1.092	1.247
Sum	362	380	386

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Table-3: Autocratic leadership style

Statistics			
	DLS 1	DLS 2	DLS 3
Mean	3.73	3.53	3.62
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4 ^a	4	4
Std. Deviation	1.230	1.218	1.144
Sum	373	353	362

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Table-4: Democratic leadership style

In terms of the Laissez-faire Leadership Style, most of the participants in this study agreed with the claims. According to the findings, laissez-faire leadership is an abandonment of duties and a refusal to participate in the motivational process. Laissez-faire leaders are uninvolved in the work of their followers and coworkers, and laissez-faire leadership styles appear to be a passive type of leadership. Regarding the Situational Leadership Style, it was discovered that most of the participants in this study agreed with the statements, with the second most strongly agreeing with the statements. It was found in this section that situational theories of leadership were developed to demonstrate that the conditions strongly influence the appropriate style; the situational leadership style is the leadership style that should be chosen after a thorough analysis of the situation; and using the situational leadership style, the leaders are used to make decisions based on the situation arrived.

Statistics			
	LFLS 1	LFLS 2	LFLS 3
Mean	3.73	3.84	3.80
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4	4	4
Std. Deviation	1.136	1.126	1.092
Sum	373	384	380

Table-5: Laissez-faire Leadership Style

Statistics			
	SLS 1	SLS 2	SLS 3
Mean	3.75	3.64	3.65
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4	5	4
Std. Deviation	1.048	1.259	1.114
Sum	375	364	365

Table-6: Situational Leadership Style

In terms of the Transformational Leadership Style, most participants agreed with the assertions, with the second most strongly agreeing. According to the findings, transformational leadership is a type of leadership that impacts people and their social systems; transformative leadership appeals to workers' moral principles, and transformational leaders inspire their people to go above and beyond what they expected. Charisma is fueled by a few behavioural characteristics that only leaders have and that the average person lacks, charisma is a characteristic that is distinctive to a person and results in charismatic leadership, and in times of societal crisis, a leader's charisma is often shown when he or she emerges with bold ideas and offers inventive answers to their followers.

Statistics			
	TLS 1	TLS 2	TLS 3
Mean	3.62	3.78	3.86
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4	4	4 ^a
Std. Deviation	1.144	1.079	1.247
Sum	362	378	386

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Table-7: Transformational leadership style

Statistics			
	CLS 1	CLS 2	CLS 3
Mean	3.73	3.53	3.57
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4 ^a	4	4
Std. Deviation	1.230	1.218	1.233
Sum	373	353	357

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Table-8: Charismatic leadership style

4.4. Employee Motivation (EMTV)

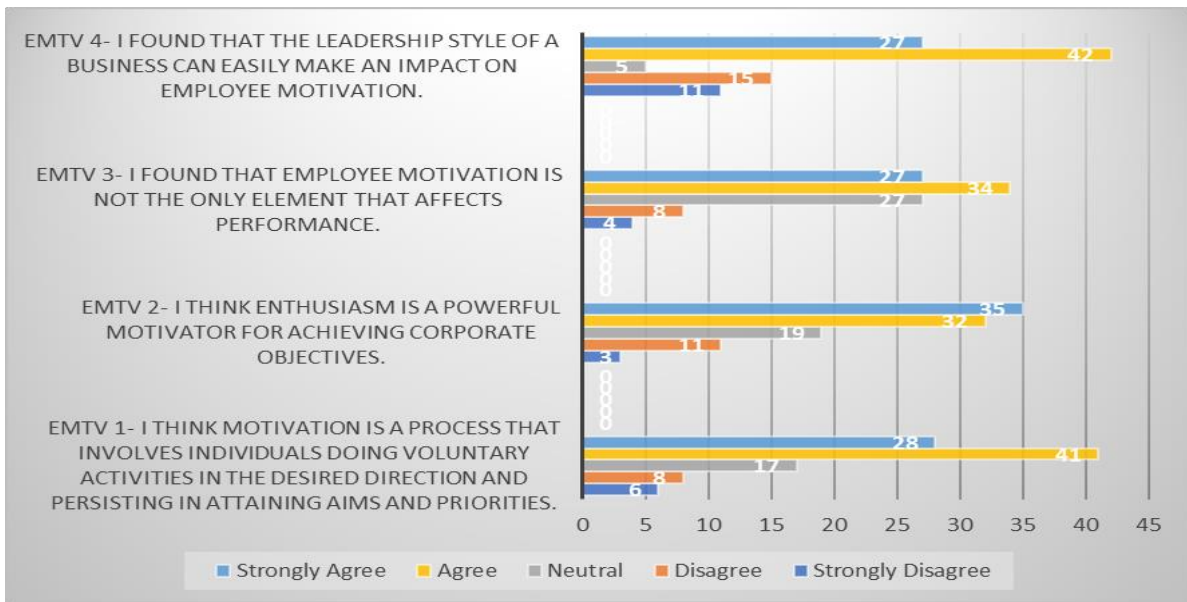


Figure 2: Employee Motivation (EMTV) Frequencies

Regarding Employee Motivation, it was discovered that most of the participants in this study agreed with the statements. The findings also show that female employees are more likely to agree in statements where the age group of 40 to 49 was positive in most cases. However, based on the analysis of the primary data, the respondents were optimistic about these variables. As a result of the survey findings, most employees in the UK automobile sector are satisfied and motivated by leadership style. According to the findings, motivation is a process that involves individuals performing voluntary activities in the desired direction and persisting in achieving goals and priorities. Enthusiasm is a powerful motivator for achieving corporate objectives. Employee motivation is not the only factor influencing performance, and a company's leadership style can easily influence employee motivation.

Table 5: Employee Motivation (EMTV) Statistics

Statistics				
	EMTV 1	EMTV 2	EMTV 3	EMTV 4
Mean	3.77	3.85	3.72	3.59
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	4	5	4	4
Std. Deviation	1.127	1.114	1.074	1.326
Sum	377	385	372	359

The data analysis reveals that the participants had a significant reaction, with most responses being positive. The table shows that the mean value for each assertion is nearly 4 and the median value is 4 in

every instance, indicating that the participants answered positively and agreed in most cases. The standard deviation number also indicates that the variables are evenly distributed in a low to medium range.

4.5 Correlation

The researcher used correlation and regression analysis to determine the relationship between different leadership styles and employee motivation. In the correlation analysis, employee motivation was used as the dependent variable, and leadership styles were used as the independent variables.

Table 6: Correlation Analysis

Correlations							
Dependent Variables	Independent Variables	Section 1: Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS)-	Section 2: Democratic Leadership Style (DLS)-	Section 3: Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS)-	Section 4: Situational Leadership Style (SLS)-	Section 5: Transformational Leadership Style (TLS)-	Section 6: Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS)-
Section 7: Employee Motivation (EMTV)-	Section 1: Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS)-	1	0.626	0.61	0.417	0.823	0.356
	Section 2: Democratic Leadership Style (DLS)-	0.626	1	0.449	0.591	0.695	0.811
	Section 3: Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS)-	0.61	0.449	1	0.419	0.407	0.363
	Section 4: Situational Leadership Style (SLS)-	0.417	0.591	0.419	1	0.404	0.537
	Section 5: Transformational Leadership Style (TLS)-	0.823	0.695	0.407	0.404	1	0.44
	Section 6: Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS)-	0.356	0.811	0.363	0.537	0.44	1

The correlation analysis results indicate that the variables are not highly correlated, implying that they can be used in the regression analysis. As a result, the author performed a regression analysis to understand better the relationship between various leadership styles and employee motivation.

4.6 Regression

The regression analysis has been made to understand the relationship between different leadership styles and employee motivation. Here, the following regression model has been used.

$$X \text{ (Dependent Variable)} = Y \text{ (Independent Variables)}$$

$$\text{Or Employee Motivation} = \text{Leadership Styles}$$

$$\text{Or Employee Motivation (EMTV)} = \{\text{Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS)} + \text{Democratic Leadership Style (DLS)} + \text{Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS)} + \text{Situational Leadership Style (SLS)} + \text{Transformational Leadership Style (TLS)} + \text{Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS)}\}$$

The summary of the findings from the regression analysis is shown below:

Table 7: Regression Summary and ANOVA

Model Summary						
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
1	.918 ^a	.842	.832	.41794		
a. Predictors: (Constant), Section 6: Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS)-, Section 1: Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS)-, Section 4: Situational Leadership Style (SLS)-, Section 3: Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS)-, Section 5: Transformational Leadership Style (TLS)-, Section 2: Democratic Leadership Style (DLS)-						
ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	86.537	6	14.423	82.570	.000 ^b
	Residual	16.245	93	.175		
	Total	102.782	99			
a. Dependent Variable: Section 7: Employee Motivation (EMTV)-						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Section 6: Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS)-, Section 1: Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS)-, Section 4: Situational Leadership Style (SLS)-, Section 3: Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS)-, Section 5: Transformational Leadership Style (TLS)-, Section 2: Democratic Leadership Style (DLS)-						

According to the analysis results, the value of R square is 0.842, indicating a positive relationship between the dependent and independent variables. A one-unit change in the independent variables can result in a 0.842-unit change in the dependent variable. As a result, it was discovered that there is a strong link between various leadership styles and employee motivation.

Table 8: Coefficients of the variables

Coefficients						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.026	.180		.146	.884
	Section 1: Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS)-	-.071	.163	-.071	-.437	.663
	Section 2: Democratic Leadership Style (DLS)-	-.386	.167	-.400	-2.317	.023
	Section 3: Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS)-	.436	.115	.410	3.787	.000
	Section 4: Situational Leadership Style (SLS)-	.442	.132	.474	3.356	.001
	Section 5: Transformational Leadership Style (TLS)-	.419	.155	.409	2.712	.008
	Section 6: Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS)-	.150	.095	.149	1.582	.117
Dependent Variable: Section 7: Employee Motivation (EMTV)-						

Finally, the coefficients of the variables have been determined to determine the study's significant variables. The researcher discovered that Democratic Leadership Style (DLS), Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS), Situational Leadership Style (SLS), Transformational Leadership Style (TLS), and Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS) are the most significant variables among the six variables studied: Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS), Democratic Leadership Style (DLS), Laissez-faire Leadership Style (LFLS), Situational Leadership Style (SLS), Transformational Leadership Style (TLS), and Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS). Again, the study's less significant variables were Autocratic Leadership Style (ALS) and Charismatic Leadership Style (CLS).

5 Discussion

5.1 Leadership Styles

The result is consistent with Jayasingam and Cheng (2009), who stated that this kind of leader controls all actions and choices while restricting personnel's ability to innovate. As a result, this leader attempts to limit employee performance. Employees were given a little opportunity to offer suggestions because they were given a small chance (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). An autocratic leader usually makes choices based on their views and opinions, which seldom include input from followers, and all these leaders maintain complete control over their employees (Zareen et al., 2015).

As a result, the researchers discovered a link between transformative leadership and employee motivation. A favourable connection has also been found in certain areas between transactional leadership style and employee motivation. In their stated views, respondents do not see much of a distinction between transformative and traditional leadership practices. The transactional portion of the conducted interview, on the other hand, followed a distinct pattern. The transactional leadership levels are less linked to each other, indicating that transformational leadership is more successful than transactional leadership at drawing in workers and creating opportunities for motivation. This is comparable to the findings of Jayasingam and Cheng (2009), who discovered that autocratic power had a detrimental impact on employee performance. Puni et al. (2014) and Akor (2014) study back up this claim.

Autocratic leadership, from the other side, has a negative effect on staff motivation. This implies that under an authoritarian leadership style, workers are not motivated. Employees are not affected by charismatic or laissez-faire leadership styles, according to our findings from the interview. It has also been discovered that the situational leadership style does not affect the motivation of any employee. We gathered from the interviews that none of the employees had any experience with these three leadership styles. The findings and consequences of this study provide suggestions for improving a manager's leadership abilities to improve employee motivation.

According to Ojokuku, et al., (2012) this finding is correct. According to the research, under this kind of leadership style, workers are encouraged to believe that the company is there for them and are given more responsibility with very little supervision, which leads to increased organisational efficiency as per Iqbal et al. (2015) as well as Bhatti et al. (2012) study have both given their approval. This kind of leadership promotes innovation, teamwork, and employees are often involved in tasks that improve performance (Verba, 2015). Such leaders don't offer recommendations, but they question other people's views (Iqbal et al., 2015). This leadership encourages all organisation members to participate in the ultimate decision-making process and in all other steps necessary to achieve their goals (Trivisonno and Barling, 2016). This leader's personality is linked to dissatisfaction, a lack of productivity, and creativity (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008). Morreale (2002) claims that the manager fails to lead the team and fulfil their leadership responsibilities. Leaders with this manner maintain a hands-off approach, participating in decision-making only rarely and providing no advice or direction. This conclusion differs from Chaudhry and Javed's (2012) findings, which show a link between laissez-faire leadership style and employee motivation. Nuhu (2010) and Sougui et al. (2016) studies have backed up this assertion.

5.2 Effect of Leadership Styles on Employee Motivation

According to the study's findings, there is a strong positive connection between transformational leadership and employee performance and staff motivation. This same transactional leadership style of the leaders seems to have a significant effect on the degree of motivation of workers, as it relates to the connection between transactional leadership style and employee motivation; it was apparent that there is a tangible tie between the two. The authoritarian style of leadership has a negative effect on staff motivation. The findings of the studies showed that authoritarian leadership does not have a positive impact on employee motivation. One of the study's key findings is that leaders should avoid conduct that resembles authoritarian leadership. Even though this research was unable to find any substantial evidence to indicate whether any leadership styles are a complete waste of time or outright unfavourable, it can be stated without a shadow of a doubt that certain leadership styles are much more effective than others. With careful regard to our previous remark that no leadership style is flawless or all-sufficient, this viewpoint constitutes an essential element of our contribution. Furthermore, businesses should work to

improve their understanding of how their leadership style affects their workers. Choosing the style that best fits the organisation's objectives and the needs/desires of employees would be a welcoming policy that will boost employee productivity and motivation.

6 Conclusion

It may be stated that democratic leadership is the most often used leadership style among direct supervisors in the automotive sector. Furthermore, a modest degree of laissez-faire leadership is used. Autocratic leadership styles boost employee motivation. The results indicate that employee performance improves when an autocratic style is used, although this is statistically insignificant. Democratic leadership is a crucial type of leadership that promotes job execution and staff success. Employees preferred a democratic leadership style placed above a white transactional autocratic leadership as well as a laissez-faire leadership style. As a result, the democratic leadership style received the highest average score of something like the employee motivation measurement over transactional autocratic leadership and laissez-faire leadership style. As a result, it can be stated that increasing democratic leadership style leads to higher employee motivation. Employee performance benefits from a laissez-faire leadership style. Employee motivation in the automotive sector has increased when a laissez-faire style of leadership is used, although this is not statically important.

Employees are usually expected to be loyal to their bosses. Employees' expectations of their leaders, and the preferred leadership styles, were investigated in this research. The study's results and other helpful material in this work will assist in the creation of strategies and the achievement of goals via the development and adoption of a good leadership style. As a result, leaders and managers should be aware of the significance of transformational leadership and strive to demonstrate it in their daily activities. Transactional leadership is indeed a powerful form of leadership. It showed a somewhat favourable relationship with employee motivation at work. Loyalty to the boss and internalisation of supervisor's values were slightly correlated with individualised consideration and active management-by-exception. It suggests that a fair compensation package with appropriate perks is critical for employee-leader interactions and employee motivation. Managers should work with workers to develop an inclusive and equitable incentive system. Expectations should be defined, and if objectives are met, preparations should be made for employees to be acknowledged in return for their efforts. Employees would be more willing to take on additional tasks if they knew their efforts would be rewarded somehow. When mistakes have been made at business, leaders must pay close attention to the faults and the standards that must be met, maintain a note of the errors, and take corrective action as quickly as possible.

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