MANAGEMENT ACCOUNTING SYSTEM CHANGES: A CASE STUDY OF A FAMILY CONTROLLED BANK IN NIGERIA

Dedication

Parents are gifts from God: I dedicate this thesis to my parents Professor Babatunde and Mrs Olu Ogundele.

Baba Prof, your last words to me were, “Please make sure you complete your work; even if I am not there Mummy will be at your graduation”. Thank you for your support, inspiration and legacy.

Mum, your prayers, strength and unflinching support and care brought this to completion. I am forever grateful, without hesitation I would have you both as parents again.

My siblings, nieces and nephews endured and tolerated me in the last four years as only family can.

Acknowledgements

The success and completion of the thesis was possible by the encouragement and support from my supervisor Prof Hassan Yazdifar, whose constant guidance, constructive and in-depth questioning and support and encouragement made for a timely and successful completion of the thesis.His support during moments of personal and family challenges Thank you also to all the staff and members of the Salford Business School research support team and my colleagues in room 204, specifically Dr Omoruyi, Adebisi Olawuyi, Dr Akoshile, Mohammed Dr Wapmuk and Adebola.

To my family, Prof, MJ, Babatunde, Oyebimpe, Olukayode, Oluwatoba, Olusoji, Dr Folake, Omo, Tayo, Flo, and Yemisi Ogundele -an aunt above others. If asked I will have you as family again. Your calls and mails served as a source of motivation even during the darkest period.

Among friends there are friends closer than family. Oluyemi Adebiyi and family, Innocent Mordi and family, Ademola Ayodele, Olumide Olowokure, Olanubi Olabode, Minini Barango, Haruna Dzugwahi, Adesuyi Ogunleye and family, Dr Noah Abdulrafiu, Taiwo Yusuf, and Adebola: I appreciate your warm hands of friendship, support and willing ears to listen.

My academic mentors Prof Prem Sikka, Dr Bakre, Dr Ricardo Santana, Dr Idlan, and Dr Otusanya and my godparents Prof and Mrs T.O. Olowokure. Prof and Mrs J.J Adefila, I deeply appreciate your roles at all times. It is a blessing to be your godson.

The constructive feedback from BAFA conferences in 2015, 2016 and 2017 – especially from Prof Lisa Jack who chaired two sessions –is highly appreciated. Thanks also to Prof Ghulam Sowarn, Dr Nazam Dzolkarnaini, Dr Rasol Eskandari and Dr Ahmed for their supportive feedback on earlier drafts of my thesis. I appreciate Jeni Hoskin whose kindness and patience in editing made for a possible completion of this thesis.

In the last few months a close friend and confidant Becky Hammond has brought unique joy, smiles and renewed hope. My Becky, the future holds bright days ahead for us, thanks for your support, love and affection, I appreciate you.

List of Abbreviations

ABC:	Activity-Based Costing
ADB:	African Development Bank
AMCON:	Assets Management Company of Nigeria
BOFIA:	Banks and Other Financial Institutions Act
BSC:	Balanced Scorecard
CAMA:	Companies and Allied Matters Act
CBN:	Central Bank of Nigeria
CFO:	Chief Financial Officer
EFCC:	Economic and Financial Crimes Commission
ERP:	Enterprise Resource Planning
FINCON:	Financial Control
IMF:	International Monetary Fund
ISA:	Investments Security Act
ISO:	International Standards Organisation
IT:	Information Technology
KIP:	Knowledge Improvement Programme
MA:	Management Accounting
MAS:	Management Accounting Systems
MASC:	Management Accounting System Change
MIS:	Management Information System
MPR:	Monthly Performance Review
NBS:	National Bureau of Statistics
NDIC:	National Deposit Insurance Company
NFIU:	National Financial Intelligence Unit
NIBSS:	Nigeria Interbank Settlement Scheme
NIS	New Institutional Sociology
NOTAP:	National Office for Technology
NSE:	Nigerian Stock Exchange
OIE	Old Institutional Economy

PACE:	Professionalism Ambition Creativity Excellence
SECN:	Securities and Exchange Commission
SLA:	Service Level Agreement
SMA:	Strategic Management Accounting

Abstract

Family controlled businesses represent a significant proportion of global businesses in some countries accounting for as much as seventy five percent of business income. While an emerging body of knowledge has focused on Management Accounting in aspects of family business, these processes in family controlled banks remains less researched in Management Accounting literature and nascent in the context of emerging market economy as Nigeria

This study explores complexities and organisational dynamics associated with Management Accounting System (MAS) changes experienced by a family controlled banking group while transforming to a financial services group by examining inter organisational to intra organisational influences in the process of MAS changes. The study extends the use of institutional theory in examining possible influences shaping the overall process of MAS changes and how MAS changes are transmitted between a group and component subsidiary firms.

Thus, by adopting a single case study organisation with multiple units of analysis and data obtained from multiple sources (Primary and Secondary), this study explores MAS change processes in the case study organisation using time and life course analysis. This is combined with a theoretical framework adopting theoretical triangulation and is designed to extend the present application of institutional theory to include role of external and internal institutions, power blocks, and family interests in influencing, designing, implementing or resisting MAS change processes.

By extending current knowledge of institutional factors and how they affect the process of MAS changes to a varied context as family businesses operating in an emerging market economy, the study provides evidence of how change evolves under varied influences of institutional factors and how actors reshape change initiatives across the inter and intra organisational levels. Findings indicate family owners as sources of resistance, family trust as an influencing factor in design and implementation of MAS in subsidiary firms. Furthermore, controlling family members mobilise resources to influence variations in the level of implementation and extent of MAS control(s) in subsidiary firms (where there is strong family presence in management) lending credence to the notion of practice variation framework in institutional theory

Keywords: Management accounting, Change, Management accounting system, Organizational change, Banks, Family business.

Chapter One : Introduction

This chapter explains the objectives and background of the study. It begins with a brief overview of recent research trends in organisational management and management accounting (hereafter MA) practices, and considers how shifts in global business have arguably shaped the current practices and research of MA, leading up to the need for this research. The chapter proceeds to highlight objectives and research questions and gives a brief discussion of the research methods and theoretical framework to be used in the research. The final section provides a structure of the remaining chapters of the thesis.

1.1 Background to the study

As a result of globalisation, technological advancements and the deregulation of financial markets by governments, the global banking industry has experienced significant changes in both developed and emerging markets. The resultant changes have led to a restructuring and reorganisation of banks with a view to improving cost efficiency, achieving a reduction in operating costs, improvements in risk management and customer innovation processes (Munir *et al*., 2013; Erturk and Solari, 2007; Hawkins and Mihaljek, 2001).

These changes, in addition to a rapid transformation of the regulatory sphere, have led to an increased stakeholder demand for improved performance, which in turn has increased the extent and intensity of competition in the global banking industry (Lapavistas and Santos, 2008). To meet with the dynamic demands of the banking operating environment, banks have adopted and implemented significant changes in their organisational structure, accounting and MA systems and practices including performance measurement and information systems to reduce costs and improve their capital base (World Bank 2005; Munir *et al*., 2013). These

changes include performance measurement, organisational structure, control systems and MA and information systems (Munir *et al*., 2013).

Management accounting systems change (MASC)[1] is considered by Luft and Shields (2003) as one of such significant changes in the global banking industry that has attracted research attention. While previous research has focused on various aspects of MASC such as process, or the role of power, politics and culture as mechanisms facilitating or preventing change (Yazdifar *et al.*, 2008; Waweru *et al.*, 2004; Helliar *et al.*, 2003; Cobb *et al.*, 1995; Innes and Mitchell 1990), minimal research attention has however been paid to the interplay of institutional, market forces and intra-organisational power; within the context of financial industry or specifically within the context of family controlled banks operating in the financial services industry. However, with few exceptions as Mundy (2010) most research tends to focus on an interplay of institutional and market forces using public sector firms, multinationals, corporations with less studies on small and family led firms operating in the banking industry (Hussain and Hoque, 2002; Brignall and Modell, 2000; Hoque and Hopper, 1997). Tsamenyi *et al.* (2006) is one of the rare papers which have examined institutional and market forces and intra-organisational power within a context of an electricity company in Spain (a western country), there is however a small number[2] of studies examining the interplay of these forces in the context of financial institutions (as banking) of a developing country such as Nigeria.

The proposed study seeks to extend the context of MASC to that of emerging countries and the banking industry. The choice of a family controlled bank is influenced by the process of expansion and generational shift in management that presents an opportunity to explore

[1] MASC is defined for the purpose of this study as the processes of addition, replacement, reduction and output modification to existing MAS (Sulaiman and Mitchell,2005, See chapter 3 for detailed definition).

[2] See Youssef 2011;2013 as examples of few theoretical based studies that have examined MASC in the financial industry

influences of change on MAS and how this process is shaped by family influence and trust. This will be achieved by adopting a case study of a Nigerian Bank (THE BANK Plc), which has experienced changes in its organisational form, organisational systems, MA and management information systems (MIS) as a result of regulatory and market-induced pressures.

As the changes experienced by the case study organisation can arguably be understood as coming out of regulatory and market forces, an institutional theory perspective is adopted in as a sensitising lens – as in the case of Tsamenyi *et al.* (2006). The proposed study seeks to understand how exogenous and endogenous factors bring about changes in management accounting systems (MAS[3])in developing countries and the specific process of such change in a family controlled banking organisation.

1.2 Research questions

The proposed study seeks to provide insights into factors influencing and inhibiting change, and how these are shaped by actors and institutional factors. The study from the background provided in the previous section, the aims and objectives presented below seeks to address the following research questions:

1) How are MASC processes shaped by institutional macro dynamics (regulatory, political and market forces)?
2) How are MASC processes influenced by intra-organisational power relations within family controlled financial institutions?
3) How are new MASC institutionalised within family controlled financial institutions?

[3] MAS is defined as the range of subsystems techniques and practices functioning as a whole to assist managers in daily decision making.

4) How and to what extent does employee resistance influence or inhibit change in MASC?
5) How and to what extent does practice variation alter the workplace perception of MASC?

1.3 Research aims and objectives

The current research is structured to serve three main aims. First, it is designed to add to an increasing body of MA research that is focused on the emerging countries and markets of the world. Second, it utilises the institutional theory lens to view changes in MAS in the financial services industry of Nigeria. To date, MA research in Nigeria has been dominated by quantitative survey research (Ajibolade, 2013; Ajibolade *et al.*, 2014). By using a qualitative-based case study research, the proposed study seeks to add a varied perspective to the MAS literature of emerging markets through the use of a longitudinal case study from the formation of the case study bank to its present state, thus providing a methodical contribution to the existing literature on management accounting change MAC.

Similarly, the study seeks to understand from an institutional perspective the process of MAC in the financial services organisations of emerging countries, and how they interplay with external and internal factors operating in the financial services industry. Specifically this study seeks to understand at a micro organisational level how family and actors within the family business shape change process while responding to internal and external forces.

Finally, the study seeks to understand how MAC is implemented across different jurisdictions rather than the current focus on Western companies implementing MAC within Western banking systems. It seeks to identify the peculiar challenges faced by the case study company in adapting to the varied requirements imposed by the regulatory bodies. The research justification is a proposed contribution to understanding MAC processes and challenges within the context of a family business in an emerging market economy, and attempting an extension of institutional theory to MA research in Nigeria. Thus the study is expected to expand existing knowledge on the process of MAS within family businesses operating within the financial services industry; a less researched area in management accounting research and limited studies focused on family businesses.

The main objective of this study is to explore and explain the political and social dynamics of the process of MAC in a Nigerian banking group (as it is presently constructed) from its establishment to date, by articulating and studying the interconnections between the external and internal organisational environments (i.e., the political and economic level, organisational field level and intra-organisational level).To achieve this objective, the study draws on constructs proposed by Dillard *et al.* (2004)[4], Seo and Creed (2002) and Burns and Scapens (2000) to articulate and analyse three levels of the social and political systems, organisational level, organisational field, and societal field levels.

1.4 Research contribution

In terms of a practical contribution in the practice of MAC, the research proposes to provide fresh insight to the introduction of new MAS in organisations in the context of emerging market economies. Practically, it is believed that the study will aid other financial organisations seeking to take advantage of the growth potential in emerging markets by providing a framework that enables them to identify factors that influence or inhibit MAS changes in subsidiaries operating in emerging markets. Similarly, where parent companies seek to implement group or parent MAS, the study findings will provide a guide to the expected challenges to change as well as how such change can be sustained.

[4] The Dillard *et al*. 2004 model has been further refined by Major and Hopper, 2007; Cruz *et al*. 2009 which is further discussed in the literature review chapter).

Theoretically, the proposed study will contribute to MASC literature by providing evidence from Nigeria as an emerging economy on MASC processes and the role of actors in the change process. It will analyse the interplay between institutional factors, market forces and intra-organisational power relationships, thus responding to the call for a broader use of institutional theory in MA research (Modell, 2012; Brignall and Modell, 2000; D'Aunno *et al*., 2000). This research will thus extend the use of institutional theory in examining MASC in emerging market economies and financial organisations. Furthermore, the study will contribute to MASC literature by exploring the process of implementing new MA techniques and innovation in small sized family businesses.

1.5 Thesis structure

This thesis is structured with Chapter Two providing a country context perspective to the study by examining the geographical, political, administrative and economic systems of the country. A review of the regulatory system in the Nigerian financial system is presented, with the chapter concluding with a review of the development of MA practise in Nigeria.

Chapter Three provides an overview of existing literature as it relates to organisational change, with a deliberate focus on MAC as part of the whole organisational process. The chapter provides a review of the new forms of MA techniques used as part of the organisational change process. It considers the internal and external factors affecting change processes in the financial services industry. It discusses the interplay of social and regulatory influence on MASCs in Nigeria. The chapter concludes with a review of the relevance of MA to emerging countries, giving a discussion of the state of MA research in Nigeria.

The proposed theoretical framework is discussed in Chapter Four. A case is made for the theoretical framework adopted and justification of its choice among existing theories. It examines how the selected theories relate with the current study's research question. This chapter explores MA theories that have been used to examine MAC in the accounting literature and how they are relevant or irrelevant for the proposed research focus, in particular in terms of institutional theories which are proposed as the theoretical framework for the thesis, hence there will be an in-depth examination of the New Institutional Sociology (NIS) and Old Institutional Economics (OIE) branches of institutional theory.

Chapter Five presents a review of extant philosophical paradigms with the relative assessments of their relevance to the study of change as a phenomenon. This is aimed at providing a suitable philosophical paradigm that facilitates an accurate and in-depth study of change as a social phenomenon and as part of accounting discourse. The research paradigms will be considered in terms of assumptions about reality, ontology, epistemology, methodology and human nature as classifications (Morgan, 1980), based on the interpretation of text, actions and trends in the selected case study organisations. The study adopts an interpretive paradigm to interpret actions, texts and information provided by organisational actors regarding changes in the organisation and MAS, while considering the external environment's role in shaping and influencing such changes and the associated change process.

Chapter Six presents the research methods for gathering relevant data for the study. Research methods refers to the procedures used to gather, sort, code and interpret data from an investigation. To achieve the research objectives, a qualitative case study is presented of 'the Bank'plc, which has undergone periods of organisational changes from inception to date. To ensure accurate data collection during the study, a data triangulation method involving archival data analysis and semi-structured interview will be used in the study.

In Chapter Seven the research case study is presented. The research intends to use a Nigerian bank that has transformed over the years to a fully diversified financial services organisation. Emphasis will be placed on factors internal and external to the bank that have encouraged

MAC. The case study's MASC, changes over the period, and unique factors that have facilitated or hindered the change will all be examined.

The last two Chapters (Eight and Nine) present the discussions and analysis of the research findings. The findings will be interpreted in light of the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter Four. The final chapter presents a summary of the research, its limitations and suggested areas of future research.

Chapter Two: Country Context - Nigeria

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the research location, Nigeria. It commences with a brief political history of the country, followed with an economic perspective, with specific emphasis on the financial services industry to establish on the one hand trends in the country's financial industry and on the other to situate the present study's context within the wider societal context. The chapter then examines social and economic development, and the legal and regulatory frameworks of the country are also considered in this part of the study with a focus on the financial services and banking industry.

2.2 Nigeria: an overview

Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa and the seventh most populous country in the world with an estimated population of over 180 million people. Nigeria attained it's independence in 1960, and occupies an area of 983,213km^2 with a mixed climate and abundance of natural resources. (NBS,2015)

Angaye and Gwilliam (2009) describe Nigeria as an artificial creation imposed by the British upon the hitherto independent tribes, and ethnic groups of present day Nigeria. Others as Ikpeze et al (2004) suggest that its artificial nature is emphasised by an absence of Nigerian consciousness and pride in the vast majority of the citizenry. Nigeria is divided along three major ethnic groups: the Yorubas in the West, the Ibos in the East and the Hausas in the North, and other minority ethnic groups, such as the Ijaws, the Kanuris, the Tivs and the Ibibios (Angaye and Gwilliam, 2009).

Ojerinde (2000) considers Nigeria as a loose union of ethnic nationalities living in a single landmass, operating under various Kingdoms caliphates or chiefdoms. Historically, Britain played an important role in an attempt to create the Nigerian nation state with the amalgamation in 1914 of four main ethnic groups that resulted in the present day Nigeria. The influence of British colonialism is reflected in the administration, governance, and legal and financial systems in operation in Nigeria today.

Following the post-independence era, there has been a predominance of military rule in the country. Otusanya (2010) reports that since Nigeria got her independence in 1960, she has been ruled mostly by military regimes with the first military coup in January 1966. Successive coups and counter-coups resulted in various military incursions in the administration until the general election of 1979, which heralded a second civilian regime headed by Alhaji Sheu Shagari. Due to charges of corruption levied against Shagari's government, the military took over and ruled until May 1999 (Guseh and Oritsejafor, 2007). Each succeeding military group has justified its incursion on the basis of eradicating the inefficiencies and corruption of the previous military government or political class.

In terms of her political system, Nigeria operates a presidential system of government with an executive president serving as both the head of state and government, exercising executive power and ceremonial power, unlike the British monarchical system, which its initial governance was founded upon. The constitution provides for three arms of government: the executive (headed by the president); the legislative, which is subdivided into the Senate and House of Representatives (headed by Senate president and Hon. Speaker respectively); and the Judiciary (headed by a Chief Justice) (Guseh and Oritsejafor, 2007).

In February 1999, a general election was held which marked the end of the years of military rule and the beginning of civilian rule based on multi-party democracy. This election brought Chief Olusegun Obasanjo into power as the President, the office he held for two terms of four years (1999-2003 and 2003-2007). Thereafter, the late president Umaru Musa Yaradua was elected who died before the completion of his four-year term (2007-2009). His death brought in Dr. Goodluck Jonathan, who completed the term of the late President (2009-2011) and was subsequently elected and sworn-in as Nigerian president on 29th May 2011 (Guseh and Oritsejafor, 2009). For the first time in Nigerian history, a new administration – that of President Muhammed Buhari – resulted in the transition of government from the ruling national party to an opposition party.

Administratively, Nigeria is divided into three tiers of government: the federal with the seat of power in the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja) with 36 states, and 774 local government area councils spread across the states. While the federal level is headed by the Executive President, the states are administered by elected executive governors and the local councils by the executive chairmen (Guseh and Oritsejafor, 2007; Nigeria Country Profile, 2008; Otusanya, 2010).

Nigeria operates a bi-cameral[5] legislature (NASS, 2017). The majority of socio-economic policies remain largely a creation of successive military administrations that have dominated governance in the country for over three decades of its 56 years existence as an independent nation. Otusanya (2011) asserts that successive military incursions into the political and economic administration of the Nigerian state have resulted in a "de-emphasis on accountability" and institutions that fail to encourage democratic accountability (Bakre and Lauwo, 2015). As a result, institutions such as the judiciary, stock exchange and the central bank possess minimal enforcement mechanisms capable of challenging the interests of Nigeria's political class or military hierarchy. For instance, in a different context, Uche (2007) presents a comparative study of leading stock exchanges in Africa, suggesting Nigeria is behind

[5] A two-chamber legislature with the Upper house composed of 109 members is referred to as the Senate While the lower house, the Federal House of Representatives is composed of 360 members.

in terms of major market indices when compared with other countries, in spite of its high concentration of industry and a higher national income (Uche 2007).

2.3 Legal system

The Nigerian legal system is a product of her colonial history, closely mirroring the British system. The main code for company regulation is the Companies and Allied Matters Act of 1990 (CAMA), as well as the SEC codes for companies listed on the stock exchange. Ehimare (2013) suggests that in theory similar rules are applicable to the shareholder in terms of protection, the extent to which this is implemented being different from those in Western countries. Key regulations governing the Nigerian banking industry include CAMA, BOFIA, CBN act, AMCON, NDIC act 1995, ISA 1999, and the CBN of Nigeria Regulations on Scope of Banking Activities and Ancillary Matters No 3 2010, whilst the Foreign Exchange acts to regulate the use and distribution of foreign currencies within the country.

2.4 Political context

Prior to the emergence of oil as the main export of Nigeria, agriculture played a major role as the major source of foreign exchange and income (Otusanya, 2010; Bakre and Lauwo, 2016). In the period 1966-1979, crude oil accounted for the largest source of foreign exchange representing a move away from agriculture (a period referred to as the oil boom). Following this, the country witnessed rapid development, unregulated urbanisation and industrialization, with uncontrolled population growth and a proliferation of the financial services industry. Angaye and Gwilliam (2009) reiterate that the prosperity of Nigeria is now linked to the oil sector rather than to agriculture. Since the third period of civilian administration, there has been an increased domination of the telecommunications and IT subsectors in contributing to the gross GDP of the Nigerian economy. In addition, the IMF (2005) report indicates that Nigeria's economic growth performance since her independence in 1960 has not been encouraging, with minimal results in terms of significant improvement in the living standards of people. Okonjo-Iweala and Osafo-Kwaako (2007) for instance suggest the major challenge appears an attempt to de-link public expenditure from oil revenue earnings by introducing an appropriate fiscal rule. Although several of these implemented reforms appear to be Western-designed and -imposed, minimal improvement can be adduced to the post-reform implementation (Bakre, 2005). Meanwhile, a number of scholars appear to support the economic diversification argument, as has been the practice in other countries, where the adoption of such a rule enables the accumulation of government savings for precautionary reasons, for smoothing public expenditure or for ensuring intergenerational equity (IMF 2005; Barnett and Ossowski, 2006; Okonjo-Iweala and Osafo-Kwaako, 2007). Guseh and Oritsejafor (2007) and Bakre and Lawuo (2016) remark that the Nigerian economy is characterized by the twin problems of mismanagement and corruption of public officials during successive military and civilian regimes respectively. The Transparency International Corruption Perception Index over the period of 1999-2003 for instance ranks Nigeria low on its corruption index. Bakre and Lawuo (2016) believe the problem is exacerbated by a problem of "crony capitalism" perpetuated by the political elite in concert with multinational agencies and the Nigerian private sector, which in some instances bases governmental policy decisions on tribal or ethnic sentiments.

While Bakre and Lauwo (2016),argue that Nigeria's private sector is partially immuned from mismanagement and corruption in the public sector, it is not free from its consequences. The private sector is characterised by high business costs and a lack of infrastructural support to encourage business. This among other reasons has resulted in a need for cost efficiencies in processes, thus creating an increased demand for MA techniques aimed at reducing operating costs.

Public sector management and institutions have reformed in the wake of the oil-price decline, with the Nigerian government adopting a fiscal contingency plan and intending to step up efforts to improve the efficiency of expenditure and service delivery; given this, leakages will need to be contained and the capital-investment programme rationalised. Budget planning, execution and co-ordination also need to be improved at both federal and state levels. The reforms aim to tie public-sector financial management to transparency and accountability. The Integrated Payroll and Personnel Information System (IPPIS), which was extended to more ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) in 2014, is an important element in the reforms. The system integrates strict procedures that ensure a smooth payment platform to prevent delays and irregularities (ADB 2015).

Given the various impacts and external influences that have limited the growth opportunities in the short term of Nigeria’s private sector organisations, there is a need such as that in the public sector to examine various reforms that can assist in reducing operating costs and boost efficiency, while maintaining employee motivation.

2.5 Corporate organisations in Nigeria

Prior to the country’s independence in 1960 and until 1972, a majority of corporations were in the hands of foreign investors. This largely influenced the form and practice of business activities and company formation in Nigeria. Through a conscious effort at industrialisation in 1972, the Nigerian government promulgated a Nigeria and Enterprises Degree that sought to give more rights to citizens to own shares in reserved and key industries which had hitherto been sole areas for foreign investors (Adelegan and Ariyo, 2008). Chief among these reserved sectors was banking, initially indigenised with Barclays Bank, transforming to Union Bank Nigeria, Standard Bank to First Bank Nigeria, and British and French Bank transforming to UBA. In addition, in 1975, the Nigerian government bought 60 percent of the equity in the marketing operations of the oil companies in the country, but full nationalisation was rejected in order to further its programme of indigenization (Isichei and Smith, 1976; Angaye and Gwilliam, 2009). Later on and in an attempt to liberalise its economy and attract more direct foreign investors, some restrictions were relaxed, such as capital transfer, tax relief for multinational corporations willing to invest in the country and the pursuit of privatisation and commercialisation of some government key industries such as banking, energy and telecoms (Adelegan and Ariyo, 2008; Otusanya, 2010).

2.6 Background of the Nigerian economic system

Nigeria's economy is the largest African economy in terms of Annual GDP (Teriba, 2017). It is regarded as the most populous black nation on earth with an estimated population of over 185 million people as at January 2016 (GARPR 2015, World Bank 2016). In terms of her economic index, Nigeria has a GDP of $234.65bn, which translates to a GNI of $1180. From 2015 to 2016, Nigeria's per capita income rose from USD1,555 to USD2,688, ranked 121st in the world from 135th position (NDIC, 2015). Nigeria has a GDP to debt ratio of 11%, classed as the 26th largest economy as at the end of the 2015 financial year. The McKinsey review projects Nigeria to be among the top 20 economies by 2030.

Nigeria operates a mixed economic system that involves a dominant public sector and a less dominant government-regulated private sector (Ahunwa 2002, NPC 2015); a result of the government's privatisation of previously state-owned enterprises. While the country has embarked on a deliberate economic reform and deregulation and privatisation, the public sector still retains its dominance over the economy.

Nigeria is mainly an export-dependent economy with a large proportion of its export proceeds derived from the oil and gas industry, in spite of several attempts at diversifying the economy;

oil retains a major role in the economy accounting for over 90% of all foreign exchange proceeds and over 80% of all budgetary revenues (ADB, 2014; CBN, 2015; NBS, 2012). Major trading partners include the USA which accounts for 28.9% of all exports, India 12% and Brazil 4.2%, while China, USA and Holland account for the largest number of imports to the country with 22%, 9.1% and 4.9% respectively (NBS, 2015). The banking sector plays a key role in financing trade and providing credit in support of governments and economic development efforts. For instance, imports from China in 2015 totalled 1.6 trillion Naira (approximately 12 billion USD) (Financial Watch, 2016), equal to 23.4% of Nigeria's total import bill of N6.7 trillion (Thisday, 2016). A bulk of this amount is however linked directly to the construction industry where a significant proportion is used as a counterpart funding for Chinese developmental loans used in financing the delayed infrastructural growth of the country.

2.7 Pre-colonial and colonial banking era

The history of modern banking in Nigeria dates back to 1892 with the establishment of the African Banking Corporation in Lagos (Olahunsi, 1992; CBN, 2006). In 1894, the Bank of British West Africa (now First Bank) took over the Africa Banking Corporation. The Bank for British West Africa remained the only bank in Nigeria until 1912 when Barclays Bank (now Union Bank) was set up. Subsequently, other banks came on stream. Until 1959, the banking industry in Nigeria was largely unregulated with the majority of these banks liquidating within the first 5 years. Notable examples of such bank failures include the Penny bank (see others in table below).

Thus, there was no reliable and organised data on the monetary sub-sector. As the country approached Independence, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) was founded, on 1st July 1959. According to Section 4 of the 1958 CBN Ordinance, one of the principal objectives of the bank was "to promote monetary stability and a sound financial structure in Nigeria".

Prior to 1892, the traditional means of banking was the communal cooperative societies that entailed contributions to joint cooperative societies (CBN, 2013; Okezie, 2011; Uche and Ehikwe, 2001). Formal legislation in banking commenced with the banking ordinance of 1952, which introduced legislation requiring banks to have reserves and formal examination by the banking department of the federal ministry of finance. At this stage, Nigerian banking was dominated by three foreign banks (the Bank of British West Africa, Barclays Bank, and the British and French Bank) and two indigenous banks (the National Bank of Nigeria and the African Continental Bank), and the ownership and structure of these banks were such as to predominantly facilitate colonial trade with minimal contributions towards facilitating and developing indigenous communities or local involvement and participation in the management of these banks (Uche and Ehikwe, 2001). Uche and Ehikwe (2001) describe how British colonial officials established the West African Currency Board in 1912 to help finance the export trade of foreign firms in West Africa and to issue a West African currency convertible to British pounds sterling. With the support of the colonial administration these banks failed to encourage the existing indigenous financial institutions.

Notable in this era, there was a large-scale reluctance of foreign-dominated banks to finance developmental activity in the indigenous economy or to encourage financial inclusion of the natives in the emerging financial system. A series of campaigns to improve the level of inclusion and a growing national consciousness culminated in the establishment of the Nigerian central bank on July 1 1959. The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) had roles and functions largely modelled on that of the Bank of England, as with the structure of governance and administration in place at this time in Nigeria. Some of the largely replicated functions included a need to establish and maintain the Nigerian currency, to control and regulate the banking system, serve as banker to other banks in Nigeria, and to carry out the government's economic policy. The foreign domination as earlier noted was evidenced by foreign ownership and control in the three main banks in operation at that time, however of the three, a significant achievement in this period was the establishment of the Central Bank of Nigeria which had the mandate to regulate the practice of banking and grant licensing to banks operating in the country. Also of significant importance during this period was the high rate of failings of Nigerian businesses attempting to participate in the banking activities of the time. Examples are as contained in the table below.

Table 1 List of initial Nigerian banks and dates of establishment and liquidation (adapted from CBN 2016, NDIC 2015 and Olanipekun 2008)

Bank	**Established**	**Failed**
Industrial and Commercial Bank	1929	1930
Nigerian Mercantile Bank	1931	1936
Nigerian Farmers & Commercial Bank	1947	1953
Merchants Bank	1952	1960
Pan Nigerian Bank	1951	1954
Premier Bank	1951	1954
Nigerian Trust Bank	1951	1954
Standard Bank Of Nigeria	1951	1954
AfroSeero Bank of Nigeria	1951	1954
Central Bank Of Nigeria (Not Government central Bank)	1951	1954
Provincial Bank of Nigeria	1952	1954
Metropolitan Bank of Nigeria	1952	1954
Union Bank of British West Africa	1952	1954
United Commercial Credit Bank	1952	1954
Cosmopolitan Credit Bank	1952	1954
Mainland Bank	1952	1954
Group Credit and Agric Bank	1952	1954
Industrial Bank	1952	1954
West African Bank	1952	1954

2.7.1. Post-colonial period

Following the political and administrative independence from the British in 1960 and 1963 (when Nigeria became a republic) respectively, Nigeria's banking landscape experienced minimal changes as from its pre-independence state, principally because the government's focus was on attaining economic and political stability. Shortly after the creation of the Nigerian republic in 1963, issues of ethnic and tribal rivalries among the political elites and ruling class emerged. Hence, during this period, ownership and control of banking remained largely in the hands of foreigners who retained a 100% stake in these banks with minimal government regulation beyond monetary policy. With the absence of an indigenous company law therefore (the UK Company Act remained the regulatory law for company governance and administration) to regulate the operations of these banks (Uche, 1988), virtually all companies, including banks, designed their accounting and management accounting practices to reflect those of the parent company or the UK company act. Another factor for this continued domination in this period included mistrust among ethnic groups, as well as a shortage of adequately trained and experienced indigenous manpower to steer the affairs of local banks, and the continued support and patronage from the foreign firms operating in Nigeria (Uche and Ehikwe, 2001).

By the mid-1970s, Nigeria benefitted from a period of oil price boom stimulated by a rise in global oil prices and a limitation in oil supply. During this period, there was an added incentive by the Nigerian government to regulate and control her banking system, which was achieved through a promulgation of the nationalisation decrees of 1972 and 1979, which resulted in the nationalisation of three major foreign banks operating in the country, amongst other changes. Nationalised banks accounted for over 67% of total assets, 70% of total deposits and over 50% of branch offices, loans and advances in the banking system (CBN, 2006; Inanga, 1978; Nwankwo, 1980; Uche, 2001). On the one hand, the government policy was to ensure that the nationalised banks operated in the overall interest of Nigeria's economy and to the benefit of Nigerians and the economic development of the country. On the other hand, the policy was largely conceived as an attempt to break the seeming domination of Nigeria's banking industry (and by extension the country's financial services industry) by foreign-owned or -controlled banks. The government takeover however exposed several of these banks to the same level of inefficiency and corruption that has characterised the Nigerian public sector, as the boards and management of most of these nationalised banks were political appointees which resulted in similar problems that caused the failure of pre-independence banks.

2.7.2 The structural adjustment programme (SAP) era

Following the oil glut, the decline in the economic fortunes of the country and the corruption of the political class, Nigeria embarked on a structural adjustment programme on the advice of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) to curb inefficiencies associated with the public sector and to rationalize its role (CBN 1995).

As part of the implementation requirements for the SAP there was the need for the government to divest its ownership of the nationalised banks and other public sector investment in oil and gas dating to the 1970s. As a result, the government liberalised the banking licensing process, leading to a boom in the number of banks in the country in the period 1985 to 1994; specifically, the number of banks in the country grew from 41 to 120. This phenomenal growth in financial institutions and instruments operating in Nigeria also resulted in a greater use of monetary policy for the economic stabilisation of the Nigerian economy (CBN, 2015).

These highlights represent a summary of the influence that foreign accounting and MA have had on the Nigerian banking industry. A significant portion of the structure upon which Nigeria's banking system is built was essentially foreign-shaped and influenced. The country has however seen the development and implementation of elements of home-grown regulation and practices over the years.

The Nigerian banking industry is a relatively new one with the first bank, African Continental Bank (ACB), established in 1892 (Okezie *et al*., 2011; CBN, 2000). The main regulator of the industry is the Central Bank of Nigeria, and other regulators include the Securities and Exchange Commission and the Nigerian Stock Exchange for listed banks, the Nigerian Deposit Insurance Corporation, Nigerian Financial Intelligence Unit, the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and the Corporate Affairs Commission. The industry currently consists of 22 deposit money banks (19 commercial and 3 merchant banks), 35 primary mortgage institutions, 64 finance companies, 5 discount houses, 6 development institutions, 726 bureau de change, and 600 micro finance institutions (CBN, 2016; ICR, 2011; NDIC, 2015)[6].

In spite of the apparent current situation of growth, the banking industry has however been plagued by a series of crises that are as old as the industry itself and noticed in the failure that characterised the pre-independence era, including the early failures and liquidation of virtually all indigenous banks established in the pre-independence era to the near liquidation of 2009. Between 1947 and 1952, of the 25 indigenous banks in operation in the country, 21 either liquidated or failed (see attached Table 1 indicating establishment and liquidation dates).

For instance, between 1991 and 1996, numerous banks emerged as a result of the post-liberalisation era that were either liquidated by government pronouncements or closed via voluntary liquidation. During this era, it was adduced that problems of family ownership, regulatory gaps, insider abuse and skills gaps accounted for these failures (CBN, 1998; Business Day, 2010; 2014; NDIC, 2008; Obembe *et al*., 2015). While several of the enumerated

[6] See appendix iii for categorisation and a full list of all financial institutions.

factors may have been regulated by successive administrations in the form of regulatory pronouncements and prudential guidelines, they remain dominant problems (Soludo, 2006; Sanusi, 2009; CBN, 2011; Nyor and Mejabi., 2013).

2.7.3 Banking regulation

The Nigerian banking industry is the most regulated industry in the country (ROSC, 2004; Okezie, 2009). The Central Bank of Nigeria regulates through policies and prudential guidelines issued on a regular basis (NDIC, 2011; CBN, 2011), alongside the other regulators NDIC, SEC NSE, EFCC and NFIU. The effectiveness of these regulations appears to be restricted by societal and institutional weaknesses limiting the implementation and enforcement of guidelines. The Nigerian legal process is considered as slow(compared with civil justice in western and other industrialised countries), which discourages regulators from taking any legal recourse in enforcing compliance with corporate governance provisions (ROSC, 2004; Ajugbomobia and Okeke, 2015); the slow legal process, coupled with a culture of political patronage and a lack of independence of most regulatory agencies from governmental influence, has limited the discharge of regulatory function (Otusanya, 2011; Bakre, 2011).

Furthermore, the process of adjudicating cases in Nigerian courts is characterised by slow, complex and at times frustrating bureaucratic bottle-necks and complicated adjudicatory processes and procedures. Olowokere (2004) suggests that regulators are discouraged from seeking support from courts and law enforcement agencies in enforcing sanctions. In support of Nigeria's long litigation process and seeming weakness of the judiciary, Salami (2015) suggests that delay in some levels of Nigeria's legal systems has in some cases resulted in cases lingering for over ten years or more. In a similar vein, Sanusi (2009) opines penalties specified by CAMA 1999 for regulatory infractions, as CAMA provisions may not adequately serve as deterrents in most cases. ROSC (2004) indicates that the penalties specified in the Companies and Allied Matters Act applicable for various non-compliance issues are too weak compared to the gravity of offences. In most cases, organisations flout the provisions and prefer to pay the stipulated fine. An example of this is the CBN policy that requires Nigerian commercial banks to make credit equivalent to 10% of the bank's loan portfolio available to the agricultural sector to finance development in rural areas. While the policy intention was to diversify Nigeria's resource base, commercial banks however consider the development agenda as risky with no prospect for immediate return when compared with lending to sectors such as oil and gas, or telecoms. Commercial banks shy away from this responsibility to the larger detriment of the economy. Such banks rather prefer to invest in the short-term, lending mainly to trading concerns. Anganye and Gwilliam (2008) suggest there is a desire to adopt and implement regulatory frameworks as practised in Western world economies. However, Adegbite 2011 contends the enforcement of corporate governance mechanisms in Nigeria appears to be weak in most cases or non-existent in other instances.

In spite of these challenges however, the financial industry has recorded growth in terms of market capitalisation of =$=12.74 billion which represents the country's largest industry capitalisation and returns. For instance, the sectoral market capitalisation on the Nigerian stock exchange accounts for 78% of capitalisation and has been the main tool for financing economic development (Soludo, 2008; SEC, 2009). Similarly, the problem of corporate governance and accountability has remained a recurring issue for Nigeria's banking industry as attempts at reforms have not yielded the desired result, thus requiring a need for examining Nigeria's current mode to regulate corporate governance for possible areas of improvement and redesign.

2.8 Current state of the Nigerian banking industry

Nigeria's financial system remains shallow as the majority of Nigerians lack access to formal financial services providers to support transactions. The financial sector accounts for about 3%

of the economy's GDP. The turnaround and innovation of Nigerian banks was made possible(among other factors) by the Central bank reforms of 2005 and 2009. This comes after the banking systemic collapse (a crisis partly linked to the global financial crises) that led to costly bailouts, mergers and the formation of a state bank, the Asset Management Corporation of Nigeria (AMCON).

While bank and private sector lending has expanded significantly over recent years, it is still below average compared to other emerging markets in Africa. For instance, only an estimated 22 million people have bank accounts, representing less than 20% of Nigeria's population. Similarly, banking penetration is well below the average for its emerging market peers, with a total loans to GDP ratio at 32%, compared with 90% for South Africa. Banking assets to GDP ratio also lags behind its peers at 57%, as against 66% for Kenya, 106% for Egypt, and 111% for South Africa.

The consensus that credit from banks and other financial institutions plays an important role in generating growth and reducing poverty is not in doubt. This is because the availability of credit facilities enhances the purchasing power of individuals and households, and this has a multiplier effect on the economy of any nation (Uche, 2001). Since finance as a resource supports the economy and political aspects of the national economy, providing solutions for financing social services and growing the sector is critical to socio-economic development. To sustainably achieve financial inclusion, it is necessary to rapidly build capacity in agriculture, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), allied functional technical skills and logistics. This would provide the basis for extending financial services to stimulate economic activities in a manner that creates linkages across economic value chains.

However, most banks in Nigeria have historically concentrated on lending to the corporate and commercial segments of the market, thereby locking out the retail/consumer segment from the credit system, largely on account of the lack of credit information on individuals and in the country. Critics however contend that the weak level of lending accounts for the weak output evident in Nigeria's GDP and CPI index, suggesting a dominance of small firms in the economy. Some analysts cite weak economic output as evidence of real activity driven more by small firms than large firms, as encapsulated in the GDP and Consumer Price Index (CPI). Salako (2015) emphasised that small firms pose greater risks during periods of restrictive monetary policy, which causes banks to concentrate their loans on larger, more diversified firms. According to Salako, over the past two decades the Nigerian banking sector has undergone remarkable changes, prominent among which is the financial consolidation influenced largely by the weak capital base of the banks, overdependence on public sector deposits, insolvency and internally focused competition. He believes that the sensitivity of loans to changes in monetary policy is associated with bank size, and that the fact there are many banks may shelter small firms from the negative effect of monetary policy, whereas a significantly concentrated banking industry may penalise smaller firms over large firms.

Overall, the banking sector is observed as witnessing improvement in stability (NDIC 2014, CBN 2017). A decrease in non-performing loans (NPLs) was the result of the cautiousness of the Asset Management Corporation of Nigeria (AMCON) in buying up such assets from the banks, especially NPLs in the power sector. The continued regulation of banks by the CBN, together with increased contributions from banks to the AMCON sinking fund, has ensured a reduction of non-performing loans. Others such as NDIC (2014) suggest that the adoption of an improved risk management framework has helped reduce the instances of NPL. Nigeria has one of the most liquid capital markets in the region, second only to South Africa. There were nearly two hundred listed companies on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) as of December 2014 and the management of the NSE intends to attract more companies to list in the coming years. Overall, investors in the stock market recorded a total loss worth NGN 3.23 trillion or 24.4% by December 2014. According to CBN's (2015) data on the financial market the bond market is dominated by FGN bonds, accounting for almost 70% of the total bonds outstanding as at the end of 2014. The period saw an increased demand for FGN bonds, giving the high average yield of 11.53%.

Aggregate market capitalisation for listed securities was also on a downward trend. The All Share Index dropped by 26.6% at the end of December 2014. As a result of the bearish conditions in the capital market, market capitalisation declined from NGN 13.23 trillion (USD 82.8 billion) at the end of December 2013 to NGN 11.5 trillion (USD 68.3 billion) at the end of December 2014. The decline in the equities market performance was largely due to increased capital outflows, as some foreign investors sold off their assets amidst concerns over currency depreciation in the face of steady declines in external reserves and global oil prices.

With natural resource management and the environment with the oil sector accounting for over 70% of government revenue and over 90% of exports, falling oil prices adversely affected the fiscal and external positions in 2014, in addition to lower levels of domestic production mainly due to oil theft and pipeline vandalism. A number of mitigating measures are being taken to address these issues, including a special naval exercise, working with local leaders in oil-producing communities and participation in international initiatives to discourage the purchase of illegal oil by foreign refineries. In 2015, oil exports were projected to be 1.55% of GDP lower than envisaged and oil revenues to fall by 2.2% of GDP.

However, Bakre and Lauwo (2015) – among other critics of the GDP figure – contend that these figures do not represent actual growth in an economy that has been plagued by successive regimes of maladministration, corruption and crony capitalism. In a similar vein, while the oil industry accounts for between 9-11.5% of the country's GDP, less than 1% of the country's labour force is employed in the oil industry with a large portion of employment occupied by expatriates employed by multinationals operating in the Nigerian oil industry. This largely accounts for a shallow capital market and a perceived limitation of the Nigerian banking systems and products.

2.8.1 Foreign banks and foreign direct investment in the Nigerian banking industry

Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is permitted in the Nigerian banking sector. Foreign banks or investors are allowed to establish banking business in Nigeria provided that they meet the current minimum capital requirement of N25 billion and subject to compliance with other regulatory requirements prescribed by the CBN. Foreign banks or investors are also permitted to invest in existing Nigerian banks provided that, unless specifically approved, no single foreign investor acquires more than the shares of the single largest Nigerian institutional or individual shareholder, and that the aggregate shareholding of the foreign investors does not exceed 10% of the total capital of the bank. Under the provisions of BOFIA, where the acquisition of shares results in a change of ownership or control of the bank the prior approval of the CBN must be obtained for any investor in a Nigerian bank, whether Nigerian or foreign.

The sector's increased profitability and sectoral contribution has increased FDI inflow and increased foreign investors' confidence in the Nigerian economy. Nigerian banks with foreign ownership include Citibank, Union Bank Plc, Stanbic IBTC Bank Plc (member of the Standard Bank Group), Ecobank Plc, Standard Chartered Bank Plc, etc. In the case of Union Bank Plc, Ajumogbobia and Okeke (2015) identified how Atlas Mara[7] has recently increased its shareholding via an investment of USD$270m to increase its stake in that bank from approximately 9% to just under 30%; as earlier noted, where foreign investment of a single foreign investment is greater than 10% there is a need for prior approval, a basis upon which

[7] Specialises in buying African banking assets worldwide

this ownership investment was made possible. Another example is Rand Merchant Bank, a division of South Africa's First Rand Bank[8] was established in 2013.

McKinsey (2014) has projected the economy to potentially triple its GDP by 2030; although the recent global slowdown in the oil industry has resulted in some revisions to this estimate (IMF, 2016; NBS, 2015). Although as earlier noted, Nigeria is endowed with human and natural resources, and the extent to which these resources have been utilised for its economic development has raised pertinent questions on accountability and government efficiency.

Of the 18 commercial banks, 15 are quoted and their shares are actively traded on the floors of the Nigerian Stock Exchange. Three of these commercial banks are privately held including Heritage Bank, Citibank and Standard Chartered Bank. The three merchant banks currently operating in Nigeria since the reintroduction of merchant banking in 2010 include FSDH Merchant Bank, Rand Merchant Bank and Coronation Merchant Bank. Listed on table 2 are the 15 quoted commercial banks and their market capitalization based on March 17, 2017 closing prices.

[8]Specialises in investment banking, fund management, private wealth management and advisory services

Table 2 Listed Nigerian Banks and market capitalisation

Name	Market capitalisation=N=	GBP equivalent £
Access Bank Plc	186,006,857,587.33	495,080,933.67
Diamond Bank Plc	21,770,765,629.92	57,945,664.55
Ecobank Nigeria Plc	177,990,646,785.50	473,744,768.00
Fidelity Bank Plc	24,918,325,439.78	66,323,295.73
First Bank of Nigeria Plc	112,711,219,366.88	299,995,260.62
First City Monument Bank Plc	24,753,388,442.50	65,884,294.91
Guaranty Trust Bank Plc	774,040,013,591.20	2,060,206,046.13
Jaiz bank	39,187,451,569.00	104,302,391.66
Skye Bank Plc	6,940,150,705.00	18,472,094.71
Stanbic IBTC Bank Ltd.	185,000,000,000.00	492,401,054.00
Sterling Bank Plc	21,304,909,413.24	56,705,728.92
Union Bank of Nigeria Plc	82,983,451,707.40	220,871,022.08
United Bank For Africa Plc	199,537,394,771.00	531,094,181.07
Unity Bank Plc	7,831,856,421.14	20,845,483.01
Zenith Bank Plc	443,632,457,196.18	1,180,784,267.64

Source: NSE banking stock indicators available at http://www.nse.com.ng/market_data-site/trading-statistics/equities accessed 17/03/17

2.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has provided a historical review of the Nigerian country context, examining issues such as social, economic and political factors operating within the country. Influences of the colonial era on shaping the structure of the economy's administration and regulation of the banking industry were discussed, and it presented the national and industry contexts of the Nigerian banking industry. These details present an understanding of how Nigeria's political antecedents, customs, political culture and wider stakeholder interests help shape the institutional environment influencing the MAS change process of the banking industry. The chapter considers how the regulatory and operational environment of the banking industry is shaped by existing national forces and influences. It highlights some of the challenges of the country and by extension the banking industry. The next chapter presents a review of existing literature in the areas of organisational change and MAS change in order to provide a current understanding of MAS research.

Chapter Three: Literature Review on Management Accounting Changes (MAC)

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter considers the socio-political and economic structure of Nigeria by providing an environmental context to the study. It also provides insights into how environmental and unique social and economic factors may influence organisational MAS. The present chapter attempts an overview of existing literature on the broad sphere of MAC, family business, MA research in emerging markets and organisational change. In recent years, 'change' has emerged as a subject of considerable research interest in the MA literature. Prominent studies that have examined change in varied contexts in the field of MA include Ax and Bjornenak (2007), Burns *et al*. (1999), Burns and Scapens (2000), Burns and Vaivio (2001), Busco (2006), Cobb *et al.* (1995), Innes and Mitchell (1995), Modell (2007), Lang-field-Smith (2006), Lukka (2007), Perera *et al.* (2003), Scapens (2003, 2006), Yazdifar *et al*. (2005), Yazdifar and Tsamenyi (2005) and Yazdifar *et al.* (2008).

Increasingly, MASC has been the focus of studies within European and American countries (Bhimani 1996; Granulund, 2001; Latinen, 2001; Shields, 1995), with minimal studies focusing on sub-Saharan Africa and even fewer from developing countries. Given the minimal research into MAS in emerging countries, this chapter seeks to present a review of prior studies on MAS change giving consideration to the various perspectives of organisational change, MAS and MASC research literature to determine the current stage of MASC research. As suggested by Wanderley and Cullen (2013), organisations tend to adopt change in MAS to assure survival in a competitive market(s). Hence, this chapter will be divided into the following sections, presenting: organisational change, an overview of MASC, factors affecting change, and perspectives and approaches to MASC research.

3.2 Definition of management accounting change (MAC)

The changing nature of MA and its impact on organisations has emerged as a topic of debate in recent MA literature (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2005; Granlund and Modell, 2005; Goddard, 2005; Burns and Vaivio, 2001; Quattrone and Hopper, 2001; Burns *et al*., 1999; Bratnicki and Krys, 1992). While some researchers (Lyne and Friedman, 1997; Coates and Longden, 1989; Johnson and Kaplan, 1987) argue that MA has not changed but that it has remained a centralised function dominated by external reporting with minimal change, others (Lukka 2007; Scapens 2006; Burns and Baldvinsdottir; 2005; Scapens and Jazayeri, 2003; Joseph 2006; Innes and Mitchell 1989) argue that the role of MA in organisations has changed by responding to meeting the varied needs of a changing society. These authors supporting MAC contend that MA has evolved from a traditional role of managerial information generation towards a business-orientated role of data analysis, forecasting and interpretation. Others have suggested MA might be changing although it is doing so slowly and in a manner inconsistent with changes in the business world (Sorensen, 2009).

Following this contention in MA literature, Burns and Scapens (2000) among others have examined change from different perspectives and generated varying insights on change. Hopper (2000) for instance argues that MA practices are not universally uniform and cannot be understood without reference to the roles of culture, social and economic factors in countries. Others such as Major (2007) support this view by positing further that MAS variations occur within closely linked organisations. The rapid transformation of organisations in the last century has thus placed an increased emphasis on the role and process of MAS in organisations. Marginson and Ogden (2005) highlight the importance of major transformation within organisations in the last three decades, suggesting dynamic environments in which organisations currently operate are made more complex with increased market competition and technological and regulatory changes.

Similarly, the changing role of management accountants has placed an additional demand on managers for improved organisational processes, systems and procedures designed to achieve organisational goals at minimal costs while maintaining the highest possible benefits and quality. This position is supported by Horngren *et al.* (2000) who suggest that information generated from MASs plays a pivotal role in fulfilling organisational objectives.

In the last five decades, however, the extent to which MA has coped with changes in the demands of the external and internal business environment has been called into question in MA literature, with Johnson and Kaplan (1987) prominent among these. Johnson and Kaplan question the relevance of MA in modern business in their seminal work "Relevance lost: rise and fall of management accounting", questioning the relevance of MA in a modern business context. Their arguments include the idea that the rate at which MA evolves in practice makes it irrelevant to the needs of managers and users of management reports, and neither does it fulfil the demands of an increasingly competitive and dynamic business environment. They further suggest that MA should evolve from the preparation and development of MASs suited for external financial reporting requirements towards MASs designed and developed to implement advanced MA techniques relevant to modern day service and technology organisations. Advanced MA techniques that have developed in direct response to Johnson and Kaplan's ideas include activity-based costing, activity-based management, life cycle costing, target costing, quality costing, functional cost analysis, throughput accounting, strategic MA, shareholder value techniques, economic value added, balanced scorecard and supply change management (Ax and Bjornenak, 2007; Major and Hopper, 2005; Pimenteland Major, 2009).

Following the advancements and broadening of MA techniques, organisations have in the last two decades implemented significant changes to existing systems of MA. While MAC has been defined and implemented in varied forms within organsations, there is no agreement in the literature of a unified definition of MAC (Burns *et al.,* 1999, 2003; Busco, 2006; Wanderley and Cullen, 2009), or of what processes constitute MAS. Busco (2003) alludes that the nature of MAC has been characterised by varied opinions and arguments over what activity or process is characterised as change.

MAC was, for instance, defined by Lukka (2007) as a process of implementing new MA techniques such as ABC, BSC or SMA[9] in the existing MAS in an organisation. In a similar vein, MAC has been alternatively defined as a process of change in the manner by which traditional or new techniques are used in organisations. Wanderley and Cullen (2013) suggest that organisations where managers modify the use to which information generated by existing traditional MASs is put may also be classified as experiencing MASC. Based on this view, change may be defined as an extension of MA, a modification or even a radical redesign and implementation of a new system of MA.

The definition of change can also be approached from a role perspective (Scapens *et al.,* 2002; Yazdifar, 2008); Yazdifar *et al.* (2008) provide clear evidence of change by extending the definition of change to include a variation in roles of who performs what functions, task or accounting roles in an organisation. Previous research on MAC in organisations has yielded varied results on the type of change. Innes and Mitchell (1990) for instance indicate that MAC ranges from a modification of existing MA systems to a replacement of MAS in an organisation. Anderson and Young (2001) suggest that in extreme cases, MA may entail a replacement of existing systems or subsystems (in this case a costing system) to modification of an existing system or technique of accounting. Suleiman and Mitchell (2006) present a summary of changes previously observed in the MA literature. They broadly classify these outcomes into modification or replacement of existing systems, change in use of information and cessation of a particular method or system of accounting information.

Given the diverse nature of research outcomes on the nature of MA, there are contradictory research findings (Burns *et al.*, 1999, 2003; Busco, 2006). On the one hand, MAC can be understood as the introduction of new MASs (Busco *et al.*, 2007; Busco and Scapens, 2011) such as ABC, TQM Six-Sigma, BSC. This particular view is largely provided by North American accounting authors (Hopper *et al.*, 2001; Kaplan and Norton, 1996; Baker and Bettner, 1997). On the other hand, MAC can be understood as the process of change in the manner in which traditional or/and new systems are actually being used, i.e. change in MAPs (Hopwood and Miller, 1994; Scapens, 1994). Hence, MAC occurs with the introduction and implementation of new techniques or with changes in the ways managers use MA information generated by traditional systems (Wanderley *et al.*, 2011). Thus, given the wide range of events classified as MAC, Quattrone and Hopper (2001) observe, "the nature of change is taken for granted and its definition is avoided by researchers"; change has been described in terms of its manifestations in order to develop a topology of change as aptly described by Suleiman and Mitchell (2005).

While present research into MAC may have failed to reach consensus on what constitutes change, the debate around what 'can' be defined has produced diverse and at times contradictory meanings. Lukka (2007) suggests that within the North America MA community, MAC is designed as the introduction of new or innovative MA techniques such as the balanced scorecard, NPC, NPM or ABM. In a varied context, Ax and Bjornenak (2007) classify target costing and life cycle costing as functional costing analysis. This perception of change is based on assumptions around the functions and system of MA existing prior to the change process or which was only enhanced upon to achieve improved MAS functioning by influencing a new MA technique.

However, change from an alternative view perceives MAC as the process of change in the way in which previously existing accounting information systems are used within an organisation, and how change occurs when new MA information systems are generated by existing systems. Perera *et al.* (2003) identifies three aspects that can contribute to change: the importance of inter-organisational pressures over the process of MAC; subjective values norms; and past experience of organisational actors and inter-organisational factors. Hence for this study, change is perceived as creating or introducing new techniques or modifying the use or output of existing MASs and information by users and the case study organisation. This conceives change as a modification of the main system or sub systems of the MAS ie QMS, MIS, CRMS, or MCS. Thgis definition thus consider the change process as including a role and process attribute as sub sets of change as opposed to other definitions that consider it as stand alone attributes.

Prior MA research and the broader concept of organisational change has become an area of research interest in accounting literature. Interest has arisen largely as a result of the transformation and expansion of production techniques, increased globalisation and the relevance lost debate commenced by Johnson and Kaplan (1987). Alternative approaches to the study of MAC allow for an examination of various socio-organisational factors such as local context, meaning, historical conditions, organisational culture and power relationships in an organisation. The present research seeks to understand MASC in an organization that is experiencing strategic transformation and growth and how this process is shaped by environmental factors, hence the choice of an alternative approach to examining change.

3.2 Approaches to the study of MAC

In studying MAC, different strands have emerged in the MA literature. While some literature have focused on factors influencing change, others have focused on factors that influence or cause change in MASs, or how organisational members resist or support the process of organisational change. Approaches to the study of MAC can be categorised into two broad fields based on the content of their discussion: those studies of change process in organisations, and studies which analyse organisational tension conflict, power and resistance towards change (Lukka, 2007).

Wanderley and Cullen (2013) suggest that MA can be studied in two main ways: the process of MAC in itself, and the impact of change on the organisational change process. In a varied context, Modell (2011) presents two similar approaches to the study of MAC positing these as factor studies and procedural approaches. Modell (2007) perceives factor studies as being designed to identify factors which drive or hamper the successful implementation of new MAC techniques. Procedural approaches to MA change are rather concerned with intricate social and political dynamics of implementing change in organisations.

On the other hand, factor studies attempt to research the growing use of innovative MAC techniques to explain those organisational and contextual factors that support or hamper the effective implementation of change. In terms of prior methodologies and research designs adopted in MAC literature, survey-based research and the use of case studies dominate. While case study research helps to refine the general framework used for understanding change, the use of case studies in factor processes facilitates an understanding of the social process in changing MA systems, with several examples of each (Adams *et al.*, 2006; Burns and Scapens, 2000, 2008; Yazdifar and Tsamenyi, 2005; Yazdifar *et al*., 2008).

MAC has been studied from two broad perspectives. The first considers MAC from the context of a process (Siti-Nabia and Scapens, 2005), whilst others have examined MAC from the context of drivers of changes, examining factors influencing and shaping MAC process. Current research has largely failed to examine the impact of change (brought about by internal and external factors) on organisational MASs and how it has transformed business. This research thus seeks to understand how organisational change influences and impacts on MA systems and MAC decisions.

Another approach to MAC includes the analysis of organisational tensions conflicts, resistance to change and failure of change process. Scholars that have adopted this approach include Scapens and Roberts (1993), Malmi (1997) and Granland (2001.) This study will extend this approach to the context of an emerging country to determine if similar factors are responsible for change or are experienced during the change process. Explaining the difficulty in defining change, Kanter (1993) considers the divergent perceptions on change as summarised into those affected by change and the role of change within an organisation.

Quattrone and Hopper (2001; 2005) argued that just like organisational studies on change, MAC suffers from the same extent of definitional ambiguity. They hence posit that the definition of MAC is "problematic". To Hopwood (1987:209) MAC is suggested "in terms of organisational reforms and improvements" aimed at improved quality of information for managers, a view supported further by Yazdifar (2012:25) who suggests change involves the "introduction of new accounting techniques" that supports managers' ability to make better decisions on the business.

In brief therefore, the concept of MASC has emerged as a topical research issue flowing from the seminal work of Burns and Scapens, and has been studied using a wide range of perspectives and approaches with a wide range of theories used to present the findings. A review of the literature indicates common approaches that have been utilised in the study such as the mechanisms, dynamics and processes of MAC (Almqvist and Skoog, 2006; Waweru *et al*., 2004; Soin *et al.,* 2002; Helliar *et al.,* 2002; Innes and Mitchell, 1990).

Previous research into MAC has yielded a mixed stream of results and findings in the accounting literature on the nature, process and consequences of change. For instance, while Tsemenyi *et al.* (2006) examine the relationship between institutional market forces and intra-organisational power relations in driving the development of MAS, Yazdifar *et al.* (2008) examine the importance of power, politics and culture in facilitating or preventing MASC. Other scholars (Burnes and Vaivio, 2001; Burnes and Scapens, 2000) have examined the institutionalisation of MAC within organisations and the process by which this takes place, with a focus on those operating within the manufacturing industry. For instance, the seminal work of Burns and Scapens (2000) represents a foundation from which the majority of subsequent studies in MASC are based. Burns and Scapens (2000) examine the interaction between organisational MAS and their institutional environment. Innes and Mitchell (1990) however fail to show the interaction between MAC and other staff functions on the one hand, and on the other hand the political and social process influencing the choice of a MAS. Analysing the work of Innes and Mitchell (1990), Modell (2007) suggests that the study remains silent on the "centricity of accounting information", the interaction between MAC and staff, and also tensions between functional areas in the organisation.

Innes and Mitchell (1999) identify roles played by parties to organisational change. They contend that key actors play specific pivotal roles as key change agents to identify and overcome change barriers in the process of implementing change, a view that further refines the findings of Cobb *et al*. (1995). For Cobb *et al.*, the interactions present within Innes and Mitchell's model (i.e. the role of facilitators as motivators and catalysts) are supplemented by leaders, barriers to change and momentum for change.

Kasurien (2002) refines further the works of Innes and Mitchell (1990) and Cobb *et al*. (1995) by affirming that varied factors create potential for and barriers to change, triggering the change process. Kasurien (2002) classifies barriers to change as confusors, frustrators and delayers.

For Modell (2007), this refined framework goes beyond checklist models designed mainly to describe the implementation of new MAC processes.

3.3 Processual studies on MAC

In addressing the process of change, Burns and Scapens (2000) provide three main classifications of change during a MAC process, perceiving change as an ongoing dynamic process as opposed to an isolated one-off event or phenomenon. Dawson (2012) and Burnes (2012) suggest that change is shaped by three interrelated elements of politics, context and substance of change. This processual approach to change is defined by Dawson (2012:121) as:

> *The contextual retrospective and real time study of change as it happens overtime through the observed, documented and lived experiences of people as they seek to make sense of and give sense individually and collectively to decision and non-decision making activities, the actions and torpidity of others, the multiple stories that transform and compete over time, and the events and critical incidents that occur in expected and unexpected ways.*

Other categorisations of change in the literature focus on three dichotomies of change: formal versus informal change; revolutionary versus evolutionary change; regressive versus progressive change (Soin *et al.,* 2002; Burns and Scapens, 2000). Burns and Scapens (2000) posit formal change as occurring by conscious design influenced by the actions and design of powerful groups operating within the organisation who introduce new rules or routines. On the other hand, informal change refers to change that is occasioned by changes in operating conditions that indirectly influence how organisations operate. This is classed as change, albeit at a tacit level (Yosseuf, 2013).

While Burns and Scapens (2000) suggest change at the informal level lags behind formal change there is a possibility for anxiety and tensions to develop within the organisation, which can result in resistance to the change process or an outright failure of the change initiative.

Where an organisation adopts the option of formal change, Youssef (2013) suggests an approach of new methods of thinking across changing organisations.

While Burns and Scapens (2000) conceive revolutionary change as a fundamental distortion to organisational routines and established institutions, they consider revolutionary change on the other hand as entailing incremental, small-measured and minor disruptions to organisational routines. Regarding the definition of revolutionary change, Youssef (2013) clarifies change as not relating only to the content of change but also as extending to the change of existing organisational processes and institutions. In terms of the ease of implementing change, Burns and Scapens (2000) argue that change – with minimal impact and variations to existing processes and institutions – is likely to be easier to implement within organisations. They argue where change appears to be in line with existing norms and behaviours of the organisation, the proposed organisational change is perceived as being at variance with existing norms, processes and institutions, especially where minimal changes in external institutions support these changes. In some cases, such revolutionary changes fail because existing routines challenge the new practices that challenge existing arrangements.

Adopting the regressive and progressive dichotomy, Burns and Scapens (2000) provide further insight into the process of MASC, suggesting that regressive change is a new behaviour that reinforces ceremonial dominance and restricts institutional change, whilst progressive change refers to a displacement of ceremonial behaviour and attributes. They contend that where ceremonial domination exists (as in the case of family-controlled firms), progressive change can still take place with the introduction of technology that may result in employees questioning organisational routines or processes. There is thus a need to consider the role of power groups and vested interests in hindering the process of organisational change. Integrating regressive and progressive change perspectives can thus yield insights into the role of power and group interest in the process of change and the institutionalisation of organisational routines.

Arguing further on emergent change, Burnes (2012) suggests that emergent change consists of an irrational process dependent on five key organisational factors for survival: organisational structure, organisational culture, organisational learning, managerial behaviour, politics and power. Burnes (2012) posits an emergent approach may not be applicable in all situations; hence it is based on a need to be used along with other approaches. It is believed that the emergent approach is more relevant in instances where the operating environment is characterised by turbulence and dynamic operating environments such as how modern organisations operate, as opposed to a system of incremental change planned change which requires individually separate change events. The emergent process is perceived to privilege the roles of power, politics, managerial behaviour, organisational culture and structure.

A planned approach to change is considered an alternative to the emergent approach, although it is criticised for its weakness and construction of change as a series of conscious steps planned in a logical sequence, which is not always the case in organisations. Lewin's planned approach to change is still considered by Burnes and By (2012), amongst others, to be as relevant as when it was first postulated in the 1940s. However, others have criticised the planned approach as overly reliant on the skills and experience of managers to facilitate and implement change processes. Kanter *et al.* (1992) argue for instance that the static and linear conception of the change process as a frozen and unfrozen routine does not hold through in practice; a view supported by Burnes (2012) who perceives planned change as being unfit for purpose. Similarly, change process based on a planned model perceives MASC to be a phenomenon that can be pre-planned and which implies a definite end point, which contradicts the predominant view that change as an emergent process takes into account daily actions of members of the organisation in formulating new processes and procedures. Proponents of change as an emergent process suggest that change is a continuous dynamic and contested process where substance, politics and context interact and overlap (Dawson 2003a; Burnes 2013); even where change process is implemented in full, there is a need for constant refinement and modification to make it relevant to changing times and the environment the business is operating within. MAC and by extension organisational change is not a linear process but an open ended cumulative and unpredictable process of experimentation and adaptation of matching resources and capabilities to the opportunities and constraints of a dynamic operating environment (Burnes, 2012). They further contend that change is a multi-level cross-organisational process that unfolds in an iterative method over a time period, with influence from political and cultural processes.

3.4 Factors affecting MAC

Prior research demonstrates the ability of MAC to influence and be influenced by the operating environment of organisations (Moll *et al.,* 2006; Wanderley and Cullen, 2013). This section presents common factors identified in the literature that shape MAC and by extension organisational change. The section commences by examining factors affecting organisations, and then proceeds to examine specific factors affecting MAC.

3.4.1 Organisational change drivers

Organisational change is driven by several strategic considerations (Schilling and Stensma, 2001), including a need for more integrated ways of working (Rugman and Hodgetts, 2001), and the need to improve business performance (Balogun and Hailey, 2008; Dibella, 2007; Jones *et al.,* 2007); for instance, advocate research in organisational change should focus on change and its dynamics as opposed to top-down organisational change studies examining relationships across organisations.

A common theme among the MAC and organisational change literature is the exploration of how and why MAC occurs in organisations, the relationship between MASC and other organisational practices, and how new systems are received by management and other employees.

Broadbent and Laughlin (2005) identify four key questions required for any successful study of organisational and MAC: How do organisational and accounting change relate and interact? What is the nature of organisations? What is the nature and processes of organisational change? What is the role of theory in facilitating an understanding of organisational and accounting change, in particular organisational context?

Fig 3.4.1 Factors influencing change adapted from Burnes (2012:139)

The features of successful change as identified by Burnes (2009) identified five main features and factors for the process of change to be successful. These include organisational culture, organisational structure, organisational learning, managerial behaviour, and power and politics within the organisation.

3.4.2 Organisational structure

Burnes (2009) argues that the development of organisational structure to facilitate change is based on the rational contingency theory belief that organisations operating in complex and dynamic environments require flexible and less hierarchical structures, where the decentralised nature of the organisation gives mid-level managers the power to offer immediate solutions to operational or mid-level managerial problems. Sulaiman and Mitchell (2005) contend that the structure appears less standardised; not documented or formalised. Brown and Eisenhardt (1997) posit that such flexible structures are required for organisations to maintain innovation and competitiveness in the dynamic business environment (Burnes, 2012). However, in spite of the appropriateness of organisational structures there is a need for organisations to develop a culture to enable the organisational structure to function effectively.

3.4.3 Organisational culture

The role of culture in the process of organisational change has been examined by a body of researchers (Brown, 1998; Hirschhorn, 2000; Burnes, 2012) with a consensus that change is more of a cultural phenomenon as opposed to an outcome of a rational process. Johnson (1993:36) suggests that change (including MAC) "is essentially a cultural and cognitive phenomenon" as opposed to a rational analytical exercise, a view supported by Kotter (1990) who suggests that successful change is anchored in the organisational cultural context. Although the process of change entails a change of behaviour, the change process must be culturally sensitive and should give consideration to the condition of organisations (Dawson, 2002).

3.4.4 Organisational learning

A key attribute of the emergent approach is the role of organisational learning in preparing people for change and how it shapes the process of change (Pettigrew and Whip, 1993), as cited by Burnes (2012) who contends that organisations need to be open learning systems to enable them to function and cope with the challenges and demands of modern business.

3.4.5 Managerial behaviour

If managers are to gain the commitment of others to change, they must be prepared to initially challenge their own assumptions, attributes and mind-sets so as to develop an understanding of the emotional and intellectual process involved (Harrison, 2005; Burnes, 2012).

The change process is composed of elements of risk, uncertainty, and movement from certainty to uncertainty and from the familiar to the unknown (Jick, 2000). Managers should be in a position to deal with aspects of risk ambiguity and sometimes uncertainty (Stacey *et al*., 2002; Weick, 2000). For instance, Pettigrew and Whipp (1993) identify four factors that enable change:

- Extent to which key actors in the firm are prepared to champion assessment techniques which open the organisation
- Structural and cultural characteristics of the organisation
- Extent to which environmental pressures are recognised and the associated drama development
- Degree to which assessment occurs as a multi-function activity that is not pursued as an end itself but is then linked to the central operation of the business.

3.4.6 Power and politics

Drawing from the work of Kanter *et al.* (1992:58), the role of politics is made evident by a summation of the first step required for change as “coalition building” and seeking support from power sources and stakeholders. While there appears to be no consensus in the literature on the definition of power and politics, it is agreed that there is a need for this to be managed for change to be successful. According to Pettigrew (2000), change and politics are “inexorably linked". Based on these factors, Burnes (2012) surmises that change is thus a difficult and non-linear process.

3.4.7 Understanding organisational change

In understanding organisational change, three main approaches have been identified in the literature, classified by Doolin (2003) and Morgan & Stanley (2000) as the managerialistic, processual, and the discursive approaches, each of which is fully discussed in detail in chapter four.

3.4.7.1 General factors influencing organisational change.

While several studies have examined causes and drivers of organisational change, opinions differ as to what exactly causes it. Senior (1997:23) identifies three aspects of the organisational environment that may cause an organisation to change: the temporal environment, the external environment and the internal environment. Senior (1997:23), posits the temporal environment as comprising of "longer term historical influences such as the change from traditional agricultural economy to one based on machine". External factors identified include the political, legal, socio-cultural, economic and technological, while the internal environment comprises of "change in people, scale of activities and organisational tasks, organisational strategy and structure, products or services, rewards systems or use of technology".

Several other studies have specifically focused on causes of change in MAC (Yazdifar and Tsamenyi, 2005; Scapens *et al.*, 2003; Innes and Mitchell, 1990). Innes and Mitchell (1990) for instance identify these factors as motivators, catalysts and facilitators.

3.4.8 Drivers of MASC

Burns and Vaivio (2010) discuss the drivers of the MASC process, resistance and consequences of change. Commonly cited drivers of MASC include changing business, market conditions, organisational design, new managerial philosophies, increased business competition, systems development, managerial technique innovation, human resource development, champions of change and myths related to change benefits. This view is further supported by Granlund and Lukka (1998).

Yazdifar and Tsamenyi (2005) on the other hand adopted a survey of 279 chartered management accountants to explore MAC processes and changing roles of management accountants in dependent and independent companies. The investigative survey presents a ranking of fourteen MAC drivers: Information Technology, organisational restructuring, customer oriented initiatives, e-commerce cum electronic business, new accounting software, external reporting requirements, new management styles, core competency aims, globalisation, quality oriented initiatives, new accounting techniques, take overs and mergers, external consultants' advice, and production technologies.

However, Scapens et *al.* (2003) used a sample of UK companies to investigate the changing nature of MA among UK companies. The study identified four forms of change in the broader business environment which have impacted on management accountants in recent years: globalisation and customer focus, technological change, changing organisational structure and fashion, and other internal factors including "feeling at the top management that change is necessary" (Scapens *et al.,* 2003). Innes and Mitchell (1990) adopted seven field studies to investigate MA in the electronics industry. Their study identified six factors as responsible for MAC: a competitive and dynamic market environment, organisational structure, production technology, product cost structure, management influence and deteriorating financial performance.

3.5 Typology of change in MA

Prior research in the context of MAC has examined the relationships between various organisational factors and MASs and practices (Williams and Seaman, 2001; Baines and Langfield-Smith, 2003), whereas others have focused on the typology of MAC (Sulaiman, 2003; Sulaiman and Mitchell, 2005; Chanegrih, 2008). Sulaiman and Mitchell's (2005) significant results support the evidence from the previous literature that the contemporary phenomenon of MA is not fixed in nature (Hopwood, 1987); they found that the rate of MAC in Malaysian companies was higher than that in Canada, France and Singapore (Libby and Waterhouse, 1996; Sulaiman, 2003; Sulaiman and Mitchell, 2005; Chanegrih, 2008). These studies suggest that a higher level of MAC is apparent in controlling, planning and costing sub-systems.

Table 3 Topology of MAC

Type of change	Definition	Examples
Addition	Introduction of new techniques as extensions of the MAS (e.g. the first-time introduction of a non-financial performance measurement package, or of a quality costing system).	Simonds (1981), Clark (1985), Innes and Mitchell (1990b, 1995), Shields and Young (1991), Bright et al. (1992), Kaplan and Norton (1992), Drury et al. (1993), Friedman and Lyne (1995), Yoshikawa et al. (1995), Dutton and Ferguson (1996), McLaren (1999) Marriot et al. (2011).
Replacement	Introduction of new techniques as replacements for an existing part of the MAS (e.g. the replacement of traditional costing with ABC, or of a fixed budgeting system with flexible budgeting).	Innes and Mitchell (1990b), Innes and Mitchell (1995), Darlington et al. (1992), Bright et al. (1992), Kaplan and Norton (1992), Drury et al. (1993), Shank (1996), Gosselin (1997), Jones and Dugdale (1998), Burns et al. (1999), May and Bryan (1999), Anderson and Young (2001),Bruns (2014).
Output modification	Modification of the information output of the MAS (e.g. the preparation of weekly as opposed to monthly variance reports or the re- presentation of numerical information in graphical form).	Kaplan (1986), Innes and Mitchell (1990b, 1995), Gosselin (1997), Anderson and Young (2001), Granlund (2001) Marriot et al. (2011).
Operational modification	Modification of the technical operation of the MAS (e.g. the use of a pre-determined as opposed to an actual overhead rate in an existing costing system or the use of regression analysis as opposed to an inspection basis for separating fixed and variable	Innes and Mitchell (1990b), Kaplan and Norton (1992), Amat et al. (1994), Burns et al. (1999), Vaivio (1999) Marriot et al. (2011), Vinnan and Laine (2013).
Reduction	The removal of a MAC technique with no replacement (e.g. the abandonment of budgeting or the cessation of break-even analysis, EVA).	Wallander (1999). Ezzamel and Burns(2005) Mclaren et al.(2016),

Modified form Sulaiman, and Mitchell (2005); Chanegrih, (2015).

Sulaiman and Mitchell's suggestion that change occurs in a linear fashion from one point to another in the organisation contradicts the processual view of organisational change theorists. Similarly, the consideration of change as an outcome of the process contradicts views as expressed by Dawson (2003b) and Pettigrew (1998). In this thesis, Sulaiman and Mitchell's topology provides a useful frame for understanding the process of change in the case study organisation.

3.6 Resistance to change

A major challenge to the MASC process is the resistance posed by stakeholders (Major, 2007). An emerging body of literature has focused research attention on the study of the best means of achieving effective change while mitigating resistance to organisational change process.

Further studies on MAS resistance have suggested steps to reduce employees' resistance to change. Some of these suggestions include education on the change process, enlightenment and participation in the decision-making process, and management manipulation (Sulaiman and Mitchell, 2005; Siti-Nabia and Scapens, 2005; Major, 2007); in most cases these will prove to be effective, however when there is varied shareholder interest they may not. Ogden (1995) for instance suggests that counter forces may not be as effective in reducing employee resistance, and Dent and Goldberg (1999) support the ineffectiveness of these suggestions.

Other authors however contend that resistance to change may not be entirely bad and should not be perceived in a totally negative context, arguing that it could provide organisations with stability and the opportunity to expand or innovate (Kahn, 1992; Nita Sabeh, 1999); Schon (1963) as cited by Buchanan and Badham (1999;23), state:

> *Resistance to change is not only normal, but in some ways even desirable an organisation totally devoid of resistance to change would fly apart at the seam….it must both seek it and resist it...*

Tapaleenmaki (2014) for instance further suggests how resistance may be viewed as counter forces, and is of two types, i.e. inertia and resistance to change. While inertia refers to the prior change tendency that prevents the organisation from mobilising a desired change, resistance is to initiated and ongoing change within the organisation. Tapaleenmaki (2014) perceives inertia as a state where an organisation is able to resist motion (change) except when acted upon by an external force; other sources of counter-forces are impediments, hindrances and barriers to change.

Sources of resistance to change are examined by Dawson (1994) and Dent and Goldberg (1999) who suggest various factors as contributing towards organisational resistance to change, including: change in job function, perceived variation in status, financial securities, challenges to existing organisational status quo, or threat to existing power distribution within the organisation (Sulaiman and Mitchell 2005; Major 2007).

Following on from the initial conception of resistance to change, Burnes and Cooke (2013). among other authors have suggested varied and sometimes contradictory views on what does and does not constitute organisational resistance, and the factors influencing such resistance to change. The extent of change an organisation is able to achieve is dependent on the acceptance by stakeholders in the change process. Where stakeholders are unreceptive, or contest or challenge a change process, the resulting barriers are generally referred to as resistance to change. Scapens (1993:17) seeks to understand the influence of resistance to change in the MAS. He observes: "…Resistance is probably informed by a whole variety of very real concerns and fears. It is only by exploring the organisational and historical contingencies which influence the process of accounting change that resistance can be understood." Cobb *et al.* (1995) and Kasurien (2002) suggest that barriers to change are deeply rooted in organisational culture or in divergent views on the purposes or roles of new accounting techniques. Supporting this further, Modell (2007) argues that MAC literature pays minimal attention to underlying reasons for resistance to change, such as protential conflicts of interest between different stakeholder groups and deeper political dynamics associated with MAC; Modell advocates for more research adopting institutional theory to examine how economic, technical and institutional forces interact in the change process. Modell further suggests that the use of longtitudinal studies and in-depth exploratory research would extend the present use of institutional theories beyond inter-organisational change analysis to comparative analysis of organisations subject to similar institutional pressures. This study builds on Modell's advocation for the use of more process-oriented approaches to understanding MAC.

In the resistance to change literature it therefore appears that the predominant research focus has been on the study of top-down organisational change, with minimal research on micro processes and the dynamics of the change process (Jones *et al*., 2004; Dibella 2007; Pieterse *et al*., 2012), which has resulted in a reduced understanding of resistance to change thus contributing to the high failure rate of change programs (Quinn and Dutton, 2005; Pieterse *et al*., 2012); similarly, few studies on counter forces exist. Analysing resistance to change from a management accountant perspective,(Granlund, 2001; Granlund and Modell, 2005) posits that change is resisted by accountants as a result of feared additional workload in daily tasks or changes in working pattern. Granlund (2001) argues further that the existing knowledge of management accountants may influence the level of resistance posed by management accountants within the organisation.

An organisation experiencing change resistance will have previously established norms and values affected. Burns and Scapens (2000) contend that if resistance is overcome, new routines create a change in behavior and when this behavior is repeated it leads to the institutionalization of new routines. As organisations are likely to repeat these steps, it thus implies established routines throughout the organization will constantly go through a process of revision in which new ones will be created (Burns and Scapens, 2000), or in other instances discarded (Suilaiman and Mitchell, 2005). Cobb et al., (1995) identifies that changing corporate priorities may also act as a barrier to MAC; changing priorities may be imposed by the external system or self-developed within the organisation. Burns and Scapens (2000) posit that resistance to change can be categorised into three separate but interrelated categories: formal and overt resistance due to competing interests; resistance due to a lack of capability to include issues such as a lack of experience of existing institutions (formal and informal); and knowledge to deal with the scope of a change project.

Resistance to change has been a recurring theme in MAC literature; for instance, Sulaiman and Mitchell (2005), Kotter (1996) and Ajzen (1991) have all examined roles of resistance to change play in the change process. The literature review shows that resistance to change is still an important issue in the current change management and MAC literature. However, there is a lack of consensus on what is defined as resistance, causes of resistance and how it can be overcome. Oreg (2006) suggests that personality and context of the change influences resistance to change and change processes. Employees resist change as they anticipate it may bring an unwanted outcome. Vann (2004) does not consider the expectations of employees to be influential, but rather examines the clash between the public service bureaucracy and private business tools, for example, between project management process models and the classical features of the bureaucratic public service agency, such as policies, rules, and regulations.

Sandalgaard and Buk (2014) suggest “organisational preparedness” influences resistance to change, as resistance is mainly by strategic stakeholders (dominant owners or controlling families) or power blocks within an organisation. They further argue that the level and strength of resistance a power block or stakeholder resistance a group exhibits depends on the organisational and business knowledge, interests and power domination available to group members. Linking institutional theory to the role of resistance in organisations, Borner and Verstegen (2013:308) contend that the OIE strand of institutional theory demonstrates resistance to change as opposed to formation of change, suggesting: “One of the problems….is that OIE can in particular demonstrate the resistance to change, the inertia in an organization, not the way in which it forms change." While the Burns and Scapens (2000) framework provides a basis for understanding change processes within organisations, there is a need to explore how actors within institutions (or operating within a network of organisations) facilitate change over time instead of resisting it. There is also a need for further examination of the role of various stakeholder groups in the organisation in shaping this change, as opposed to the present focus on resistance or how the resistance has supported the evolution of a new change project. By examining practice we can see how institutional rules and routines actually change over time and how these are affected and shaped by various power blocs in the organisation. The Burns and Scapens (2000) study also fails to provide details on change management or the process leading up to or after the change process has been initiated within the organizations.

Resistance due to a "mental allegiance" to institutionalised and accepted rituals and routines formalised within an organisation (Burns and Scapens, 2003; Siti-Nabiah and Scapens, 2005) – where informal change lags behind formal change process – can create tensions resulting in either anxiety or resistance amongst organisational participants, or a failed implementation of a change project (Taipaleemaki, 2013). Further, Taipaleemaki (2013) contends that human factors related to change might strengthen or accelerate other factors affecting change. Dent and Goldberg (1999) argue that a lack of trust and personality differences may form a basis for resistance to organisational change. Their study highlights how factors such as personality differences, emotional side effects, psychological threats related to skills requirements, job security uncertainty or a fear of failure may result in resistance to proposed or actual organisational change.

3.7 MAC and organisational culture

The traditional focus of MAC research has been to examine change and culture in the context of privatised public sector organisations, or the role of accounting in the process of organisational transformation within public sector organisations, and less within private sector organisations. Organisational culture has been variously defined by authors in MAC literature. According to Schein′s (1990, 111) model, organizational culture is defined as: "…a pattern of basic assumptions that a group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." Drawing on Schein's (2010) view, Busco and Scapens (2011,323) aptly conceptualise organisational culture as an institutionalised phenomenon binding time and space through an ongoing process of social interaction, and based on this they define organisational culture as:

> …'Socially constructed' and 'validated' patterns of shared basic assumptions developed by a group of people (organisational members) as it learns to cope with problems of external adaptation and internal integration.

Hofstede (1998), examining culture from a cross-cultural perspective, defines organisational culture as:"…the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organisation from those of another." Previous definitions of organisational culture generally refer to "meaning" and "values" within an organisation. These meanings and values are based on assumptions held by organisational members who manifest these in the form of symbols, behaviours and structures (Fisher, 1997). Although Hofstede focuses on organisational culture, he presents a distinction between organisational levels and national cultures, arguing that at the organisational level the focus is more on practices and less on values that form the focus at national levels (Hofstede, 2001). He contends that organisational values are invisible and organisational practices are visible, implying that organisational practices as MASs can be observed and examined during periods of organisational change – hence organisational change can be subject to planned change, unlike planned change which is less so. Supporting this view, Gordon (1991) suggests the way a company is organised and how people operate within the organisational structure is determined by culture, and posits culture as a strong influence on organisational performance. However, this view contradicts Garibaldi *et al.* (2009) who contend rather that organisations have clusters of practices and values as opposed to a centralised organisational practice or values.

Broadbent and Laughlin (2005) argue that it is essential to understand the relationship between accounting change and organisational change process. Thus they suggest that "accounting change is nested within the organisational change process", which therefore requires "exploring the latter first to enable an understanding of the former". Broadbent and Laughlin (2005) base this argument on the premise that accounting is not technically a context-free but a context-dependent field (Hopwood, 1983, 1985; Cooper 1981, 1983).

The second argument posited by Broadbent and Laughlin (2005) involves the nature of organisations. They suggest organisations are open systems with links to the wider societal system that provides societally defined purposes for such organisations. Considering change from the perspective of management accountants' role in the organisation (Baldvinsdottir *et al.,* 2009; Burns and Baldvinsdottir, 2005; Coad and Herbert, 2009; Granlund and Lukka, 1998; Jarvenpaa, 2007; Sorensen, 2009), and the impact of local cultural practices on the role of the management accountant as observed by Goretzki *et al.* (2013), neither provide evidence of organisational practices or processes of developing organisational practices. Bhimani (2002) supports this assertion by suggesting that an alignment between the cultural premise of a new system and the cultural views of system users significantly influences the success of a change initiative.

Other scholars (Adegbule, 2011; Bhimani 2002, 2003; Henri, 2006; Siti-Nabiah and Scapens, 2005) argue that the degree of alignment between organisational culture, norms and values varies within new MASs. Henri (2006) presents evidence on the need of combining interactive and diagnostic MAS during periods of organisational change. Adegbule (2011) contends that organisational culture is most improved when an organisation adopts dual use of interactive and diagnostic controls. However, Adegbule (2011) was unable to provide evidence on cases of dynamic change or ongoing processes that reflect the reality of present day organisations and their dynamic operating environment. The findings from this study appear static and ignore the impact of change process on organisational culture over time; thus it is important that studies of MAS present information on organisational processes over time, hence the need for a longitudinal study of this nature.

Examining change during periods of business transition, Garibaldi *et al.* (2009) contend that organisational incompatibility represents the most prominent cause of lack of project performance, departure of key executive management and organisational conflicts. Nguyen and Kleiner (2003) suggest that culture influences employees' reaction to change, arguing the reaction could take several forms including quick adoption, commitment to new expectations, resistance or withdrawal and other unproductive behaviours; thus as part of designing a process of change in MAS there is a need to study and assess the type and implications of employee reaction.

Considering types of MASC and possible effects of organisational culture, Agbejule (2011) examines interactive and diagnostic MAS and organisational culture while adopting a dual system of MAS, contending that both systems have an incremental effect on overall organisational performance, and encourage a high-performance culture within the organisation. Agbejule (2011) describes the importance of managerial awareness of organisational culture and its effects on MAS, and how this in turn influences performance.

Stocia *et al.* (2004) suggests culture is influenced by the way organisations search and use the information available, such as MAS-generated information. Traditional MAS sytems have evolved from a focus on control and feedback to more of a consultancy-based role of supporting innovation, flexibility to meet a changing environment, creativity and organisational learning (Henri, 2006; Agbejule 2011). While control and flexibility represent two values characterising organisational culture, there are studies examining linkages between MAS and organisational culture on the one hand and organisational performance on the other hand. Current studies on organisational cultures have examined culture at the national level (Chow *et al.*, 2001; Van derstede, 2003); however, fewer studies have examined the dynamics of organisational culture on organisational values during the process of organisational change

Siti-Nabiah and Scapens (2005) contend that organisational culture is reproduced through a process of selection and socialisation, people with similar characteristics, and a capability of adapting to set norms and established routines. Schein (1992) posits that shared norms, values and meanings are indoctrinated in new members of organisations through training and induction (as formal means) and through interpersonal and intra-group interaction (as informal means). The process by which culture is engrained in the minds of new members (Schein, 1991, 1992; Molinsky, 1999) suggests that attempts to change are usually resisted and raise anxiety among group or organisational members.

While research indicates change in organisational culture and practice is possible, some arguments have been made that real change may not occur as an outcome of a change process. Molinsky (1999) for instance adopts a case study of two different organisations across two industries, wherein real change did not alter the norms, values and routines of members of the organisation, suggesting change is mainly symbolic or is an attempt to gain societal legitimacy.

Other studies have examined the link between organisational culture and aspects of MAS as budgeting MCS and MIS. Aberenethy and Brownnell (1999) for instance examined the role of budgets in organisations experiencing strategic change, contending that the effect of weakness appears apparent in implementing strategic change, budget styles, and performance. Meanwhile, Aberenethy and Brownnell (1999) argue that existing literature may have examined the link, but there has been minimal research into the process and impact of change using such an MAS context. By exploring how top management adopts MAC to support and facilitate strategic change processes without a specific focus on the overall system of MAC operating within the organisation change process, Aberenethy and Brownnell (1999) ignore the roles of systemic influences. There is thus a need while exploring MASC as a concept to understand possible influences of local cultural practices and values in influencing organisational change process on the one hand, and on the other how MAS evolves over time and space, while influencing the definition and development of organisational culture.

3.8 MA in the financial services industry

In recent years there has been increased research interest in the MAC practices of financial services organisations. An increasing number of studies have focused on banks and bank associated businesses, insurance companies and MA innovations such as activity-based costing (ABC) (examples include Drury, 1994, 1998; Adams, 1996; Innes and Mitchell, 1997; Norris, 2002; Soin *et al*., 2002). As observed by Helliar *et al*. (2002:29)“Over the last two decades there has been a great deal of research into the management accounting practices of industrial organisations. However, the financial services sector in particular – especially in banks – [has] been largely ignored.” Following their study, an increased number of subsequent studies have focused on the banking industry, although little academic literature has focused on the historical development of MAC in banks when compared with other industries – especially manufacturing; minimal studies have covered a variety of time periods and countries, and written from different perspectives.[i]

Traditional MA research has remained focused on the manufacturing industry and public sector organisations and less on service-related industries, especially private financial institutions or family-controlled financial institutions. This tendency has resulted in minimal research attention being paid to the role of MA in the financial services industry. Cull and Peria (2007) for instance suggest that banks, like other organisations, have been compelled to introduce more efficient and effective operating models that allow for organisational efficiency in a bid to improve profitability and reduce operating costs. Common areas of research interest in MAC are planning and strategy formulation, performance measurement systems, management control systems, adaptation of innovative MAC practices such as ABC and BSC, or the use of non-financial performance measures (Soin and Scheytt, 2009; Sartorius *et al*., 2006).

At the organisational level, Soin *et al.* (2002) consider ABC and organisational change in response as an alternative means by which financial institutions can reduce individual operating costs in a similar vein, through the use of activity-based information in two British banks. Other studies at the industry field level have considered the adoption of MAC practices within the industry; Innes and Mitchell (1997) for instance examine the extent of ABC adoption among firms in the financial services industries, while others such as Kimball (1997) evaluate the benefits of adopting practices such as ABC and the features in adopting firms, or how ABC for instance is integrated with existing costing systems. Other studies that have examined the adoption or use of MAC practices include those by Innes and Mitchell (1997) and Braam and Nijssen (2004). These studies do not however provide rigorous analysis of how new management practices are introduced, while some that provide narratives ignore the associated theoretical debate related to the choice and consequences of the MA practice tool.

Some other research studies have focused on performance management, BSC and MAC in examining performance management. Hussain and Hoque (2002) suggest several institutional factors influence a firm’s choice of performance measurement system. They posit the economic factor as the strongest amongst other factors such as accounting standards, central bank regulation, strategic focus and bank size, while other studies such as that by Hussain (2005) consider aspects of performance management systems. Hussain *et al.* (2002) examine the use of non-financial performance measures within organisational settings. Davis and Albright (2004) examine the effect of BSC on financial performance, suggesting that superior financial performance was observed where BSC was implemented as opposed to in branches that do not implement BSC. While Armanda and Arelleno (2010) explored the role of BSC in strategic communication, they present a slightly different approach to that of Ye and Sean (2009), exploring the role of BSC as a strategic management tool available to banks and the financial services industry as a whole. Similar to the studies examining the process of adoption or implementation of MAC practices are those studies that have examined MA themes in financial organisations. Common examples of these in the financial services industry include those by Cobb *et al.* (1995) and Guerreiro *et al.* (2006), that adopted single case studies in exploring change within a clearing unit of a UK bank or professional rivalry among UK clearing bank branches. Others (Mundy, 2010; Helliar, *et al*., 2002) have examined the design, implementation and use of management control systems at varied levels of financial service organisations. In assessing the role and importance placed on MA information in the UK's banking industry, Billings and Capie (2004) identified limitations and weaknesses on MA practices within UK clearing banks.

In examining changes in PMS from an emerging economy perspective, Munir *et al.* (2013) identified roles of key actors in the MA change process, concluding in the context of emerging countries that regulators are the dominant institutional factor resulting in a bank management focus on regulatory pronouncements. They argue, in line with Kasurinen's change model, that actors can be classed as motivators, catalysts, facilitators and frustrators. Although Munir *et al.* (2013) suggest that for a change process to be successful there is a need to support the process with adequate technical support, limited evidence is provided on how and what specific mechanisms can be used to provide such technical support and how this may alter the change process. Furthermore, while the study adopts a constructed time frame for analysis, the basis for selection was tied to the diversification of the ownership structure of Pakistan's banking industry from state-owned banks to privately-controlled banks. The study however does not provide supporting evidence for understanding the process by which MASs evolve over time (beyond the ten-year time frame imposed) or in response to changes in organisational forms or regulatory pronouncements. Other studies suggest that bank management also appear to place emphasis on financial-related MA information as opposed to non-financial related information (Hussain, 2005; Hussain and Hoque, 2002).

Cobb *et al.* (1995) examined change in a single bank case study and suggested that key actors play specific pivotal roles as key change agents, helping to identify and overcome change barriers in the process; Innes and Mitchell's model (i.e. facilitators, motivators and catalysts) becomes supplemented by leaders, barriers to change and momentum for change.

However, in spite of the positives associated with MA research in banks, some criticisms may be inferred from these studies. For instance, Helliar *et al.* (2002:28) note that studies of MASs in organisations may "have found that change is fairly infrequent, very hard to implement and that new systems and practices that are implemented often do not succeed as well as expected".

Except for studies by Billings and Capie (2004, 2011) and Bátiz-Lazo and Wanderley (2007) that adopt archival and historical analysis in conducting MAS related historical studies, few authors have adopted the use of archival analysis in conducting studies related to MASC. There appears to be minimal use of archival methods and historical analysis in the study of MAS evolution in the study of banking and or financial systems. Another observable theme in the existing literature includes the role of theories used in previous studies and the divergent methodology adopted. Generally, previous studies are characterised by a focus and use of contingency theories and prevalence of quantitative based studies. Bdour and Al-Khoury (2008) for instance adopt contingency theory in a quantitative-based study to predict the efficiency of change in the MASs of Jordan over a six-year time frame. Though the element of time as a context in the study of change is introduced by studying the process over a six-year period, as advocated by Modell (2007) there is a need however to examine the factors and how the process of time influences change and how the organisation responds at each time point. Similarly, there appears no focus on a single organisation, thus the extent of variation in practices of MA within the industry could have been better captured. In attempting a categorisation of methods commonly adopted in MA studies related to the financial services and banking industry there is a tendency to fall into one of the following: qualitative/case studies, quantitative surveys, archival, longitudinal studies or descriptive studies.

Single case studies or multiple case studies appear as a dominant method in MAS research within the financial services industry. While the use of archival and historical studies appears limited except for in several instances (Billings and Capie, 2004; Uche, 1998; Quinn, 2011; Quinn, 2014), few studies have adopted the use of historical and archival studies to conduct research of MA practices in the financial services industry. While these studies may be in line with the suggestions of Neale and Flowerdew (2004) as meeting the criteria of retrospective longitudinal studies, there is a need (as per evidence presented in the methodology chapter) to clarify the differences and similarities between these categorisations.

Generally, across these studies there exists a significant limitation on discussions of the extent by which MA practices are embedded in various institutional and organisational levels across countries, and varied contexts of cultures within which organisations operate, independent of either parent or multinational organisation. Existing studies tend to discuss at a surface level, with minimal engagement on the existing nature and process of embedding MA practices in the family-controlled sub-sector of the financial services industry.

3.9 MA and organisational change research

Organisations have been observed to change and adapt continuously to remain competitive (Balogun and Hailey, 2008). However, Meaney and Pung (2008) argue that organisational change appears to be rare (giving credence to the assertion that, in spite of significant research on organisational change and MAC, the implementation process in organisations is still problematic). Scholars have had different views on what constitutes organisational change. Although a school of thought contends that organisational change occurs over a time period, possibly as a result of growth, others perceive that organisations change as a result of influences from the external environment. Broadbent and Laughlin (2005) argue in line with Miller and Friesen (1982) that organisations have a tendency to orientate to “inertia” rather than change, and tend to be stable rather than changing. This view holds that organisations remain stable until “a spark or distortion” occurs within or outside the organisation that results in a disturbance to the earlier “state of inertia” (Laughlin, 1991; Greenwood and Hinings, 1988). Laughlin (1991) perceives organisations as being composed of interpretive schemes, design archetypes and sub-systems, which are generally balanced and coherent. He argues that organisational change is triggered by a “disturbance”, during which a company’s response can take any or a combination of the following forms:

> *Rebuttal*. Despite the disturbance, companies refuse to accept the introduction of changes. In some cases, a firm can be forced to introduce minor changes, but later it goes back to its former situation.
>
> *Reorientation*. To the extent that an organisation faces growing pressures, reorientation makes some small, slight changes in response to concrete

situations or facts. Nevertheless, these changes do not alter its core since they do not challenge it but complement its existing state.

Colonization. As a consequence of external or internal pressures, a firm introduces changes that take root as new beliefs and values leading to changes in its "genetic code", which was why they were initially introduced (Broadbent and Laughlin, 2005:17).

Evolution. The disturbance is subsumed by the company, leading to deep changes in its values, beliefs and underlying assumptions on organizational behaviour.

Organisational change can occur as a response to external sources such as market pressures, government laws or political influences. There are also numerous studies of implementing specific accounting systems, such as activity-based costing (Briers and Chua, 2001; Argyris and Kaplan, 1994), a new performance measurement system (Tuomela, 2005), accrual accounting in the public sector (Connolly and Hyndman, 2006; Lye *et al.*, 2005) and implementations of the balanced scorecard (Kasurinen, 2002). Despite these varied studies, it is still not clear whether accounting-related changes are simply a specific case of introducing organisational change or whether implementing accounting changes requires different organisational change models to account for the technical nature of the discipline. Major (2007) suggests that a way researchers can gain appreciation for factors impacting implementation is by embedding themselves in the case study organisation, participating in the change process, and comparing their experiences to espoused theories of change or institutional forces.

The use of accounting information as a vehicle to spread new beliefs and values throughout organisations is central to the processes of organisational change (Ogden and Anderson, 1999; Lodhia, 2003; Tilt, 2006). The relationship between accounting and organisational change has been examined by several authors (Hopwood, 1987, 1990; Dent, 1991; Broadbent, 1992; Ezzamel *et al*., 1997; Ogden and Anderson, 1999; Lodhia, 2003; Broadbent and Laughlin, 2005; Chenhall and Euske, 2007; Gurd, 2008) who contend that this is a two-way relationship.

Busco and Scappens (2011) examine the process of change implemented within a subsidiary acquired by a multinational group. Post-acquisition the subsidiary was also privatised, hence the study also examined the change in culture from a predominantly public sector-driven culture to a competive market culture, a contrast to studies that have considered the evolution of MAS within the private sector – and more specifically family-owned or family-controlled financial institutions.

3.10 MA research in family businesses

In the recent past there has been renewed interest in research into family-owned or controlled businesses. Some attribute this to the increasing influence of family businesses on the global economy (Prenaioe *et al*., 2014; Family Institute, 2008), for instance family business now accounts for between 70 to 90% of global GDP, and in North America the dominant form of business is considered to be family business, accounting for 80 to 90% of US annual GDP (Hiebl, 2013).

The domination of family business is observed across listed companies on the global stock exchange. Chen *et al.* (2008, 2014) posit that among European countries, 83% of businesses are categorised as family businesses, over half of the French workforce are employed by family-controlled businesses, over 45% of the German workforce[10] are employed by family controlled businesses, and over 79% of all employment in German companies employing over 500 people is found in family controlled businesses. While the dominance and impact of family

[10] Also accounting for 40% of National turn over.

businesses has been on the increase, minimal research has been focused on this area and there was little interest in the process of evolving MA practices within the family business sub-unit until the major economic events of the mid ‘80s and ‘90s stimulated greater research into the factors and innovative MA models that rescued large corporations and government-funded firms from collapse (Cullaso *et al.*, 2012). Building on this interest in the broader area of family business and their MA practices, this study seeks to include the family business perspective in the MA change research argument.

Hiebl (2013) identifies family, ownership, and business as the three main areas of classifying benefits of MAS to family businesses (see fig 3.9.1). Examining the process of developing formal MASs in family owned and controlled businesses, Hiebl *et al.* (2013) posit that most families implement or change MA practices during periods of change resulting from death, accident, or the transmission from one generation to another; although, the variation in the process of shifting between the two circumstances is not made clear. There does however appear to be a consensus that MA is regarded as a step towards the ‘professionalisation’ of business (Giovannoni *et al.*, 2011; Duller *et al.*, 2011; Hiebl *et al.*, 2013). However, Hiebl *et al*. (2013) suggest that in most cases family businesses do not reach transition stage, as they are likely to have failed prior to this.

The trend of adoption of MA practices in family businesses is however limited in several ways, including: terms of the MA instruments implemented, less management awareness of risk planning, risk management and adoption of less specialised MA functions (Hiebl *et al.*, 2013; Feldbauer-Durstmuller *et al.*, 2012). The introduction or modification of MASs is classed as one of the ways that family businesses can be professionalised, and in the process some of the characteristics are lost giving the impression of a shift to being a non-family business; Gersick *et al.* (1997) suggest that professionalised family business results in a non-family appearance.

Giovannoni *et al.* (2011) suggest that a proactive use of MA will help in solving problems[11] that result in high business mortality rates. Similarly, they established from a case study that by the introduction of a formalised budgeting system, the family business was able to formalise a strategic vision for the organisation with an agenda for succession planning for non-family members, thus ensuring a higher possibility of transition from one generation to another.

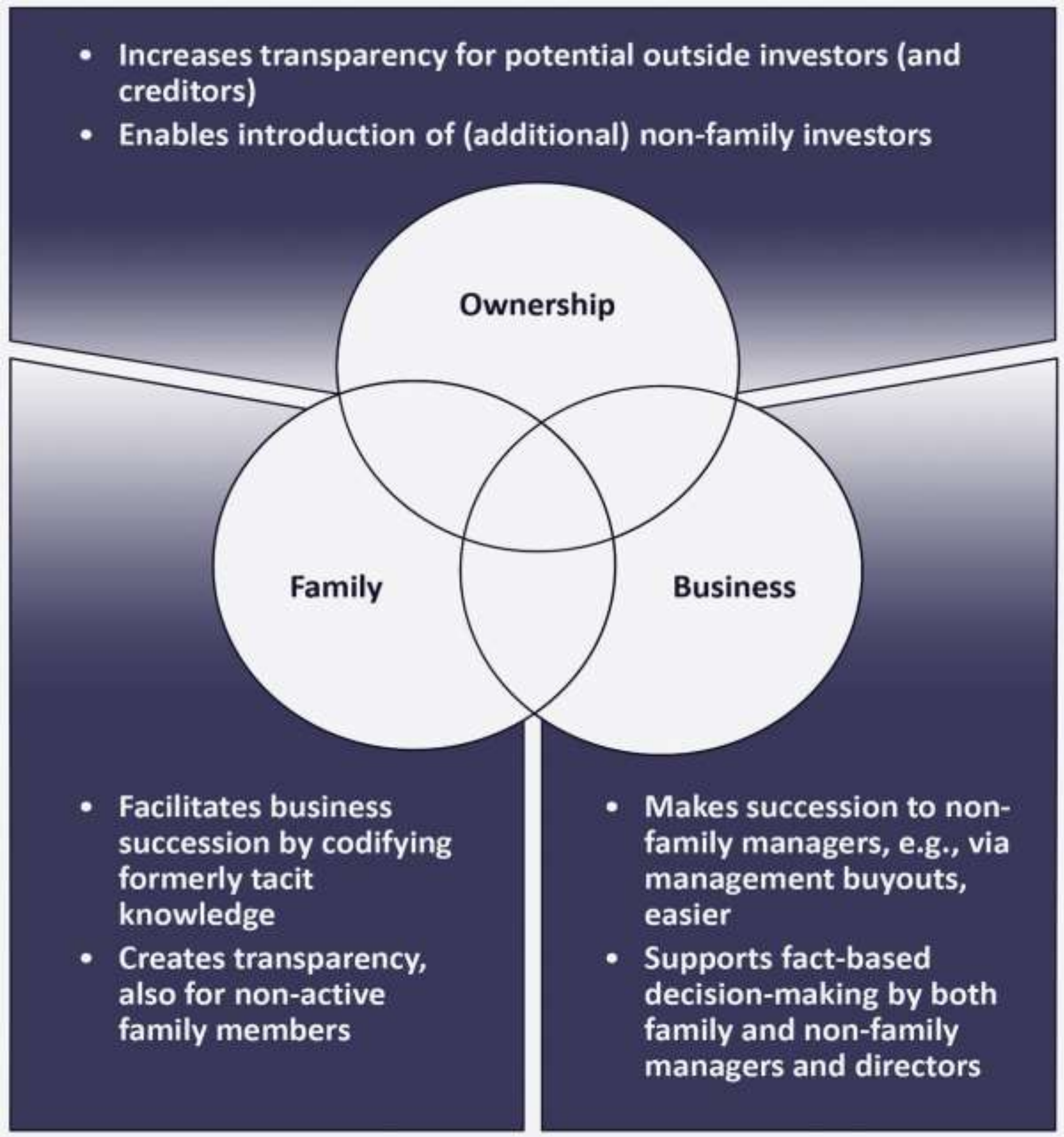
Sirmon and Hitt (2003) suggest there is a higher level of implicit knowledge (especially of MA practices) when family members run a business as compared with non-family business managers. Although Duller *et al.* (2011) suggest that MA supports the process of transition in family businesses, they provide minimal evidence of how the support process evolves or how it is influenced by existing organisational structures or ongoing organisational processes. Hence, family literature in MA has broadly considered the process of transition to non-family business form, process of family succession or transition across generations, but has given less of a focus to the change process experienced by organisations during the previously examined business transformation.

Hiebl (2013) posits the point of realising a need for MAC in family businesses occurs usually after a period of muddling through, but that with growth and increased business volume there is a need for more formalised practices and systems of control to be established. While accepting that family businesses suffer from a lower level of MAC institutionalisation, especially when compared with small businesses, when compared with larger family businesses and large non-family businesses there appears to be no significant difference in the use of MA practices (Hiebl *et al.*, 2013); thus supporting the notion that size threshold influences a point at which MA becomes relevant to a business.

[11] For a review of problems accounting for higher mortality in family business see Allio 2004; Hiebl *et al.*, 2013

Giovanoni *et al*. (2013) identify factors that may result in the adoption of MA practices in family firms, including successions by a generation of family, a sudden change in personnel or management in the firm or a situation where professional managers assume control of the business. They suggest that where financial and non-financial plans are codified by family owners, succeeding generations will be able to understand plans and priorities. Hiebl (2013) classifies the benefits of family businesses to the owner's family and the business in three categories as shown in Figure 3 below. Family businesses are by nature characterised by less a degree of formality and by a perceived flexibility used to achieve a competitive advantage (Sirmon and Hitt, 2003; Hiebl, 2013).

Figure 1 Pictorial representation of family business ownership



(Figure 3.9.1 adapted from Hiebl 2013:129)

3.10.1 Power and domination in family businesses

In family businesses, the owners or controlling owners exercise sufficient power to ensure the firm pursues its interests and goals (the choice of MASs represents one of the means of achieving these goals). Anderson and Reeb (2004) posit that family businesses have sufficient power to guarantee the firms pursue family interests and goals and in most cases this is influenced by either the family owner-manager, potential buyers in cases of a takeover or non-family managers and directors who have lower influence. Other non-family parties do not possess the same extent of tacit knowledge of the organisation as family members (Davis *et al.,* 2010; Cabrera-Suarez *et al*., 2011). In these cases, they have to rely on formalised information to foster MAC (Giovannoni *et al.*, 2011). In most cases, successful implementation of MAC in business is dependent on powerful and trusted promoters of change within organisations (Johansson and Baldvinsdottir, 2003; Yazdifar *et al.*, 2008; Burns and Bladvinsdottir, 2005).

The literature on the adoption and change of MA systems are divided into two main streams: the first stream considers lifecycle changes as contingent on the degree of change within the organisation, while the second stream focuses on the adoption of MA systems in companies in earlier stages of lifecycle such as start-ups or entrepreneurial companies (Davila *et al*., 2009). Davila and Foster (2009) suggest that budget and venture capital equity are some of the factors influencing the emergence of MA practices.

3.11 Relevance of MA in emerging markets

The last thirty years has seen a significant increase in the number of LDC-focused MAC research. Hopper *et al.* (2009) posit that most LDC research does not yield a different set of MAS results compared to those observed in Western economies, however there appears to be an uncertainty on the existence or otherwise of appropriate MAS especially in the informal sector. In other instances, where they are implemented, there is hardly any significant change in practices. As observed by Gooneratne and Hoque (2013), there appears to be a tendency for research on banking and MA to have a contextual bias to developed economies of the West, with minimal evidence from emerging markets with the exceptions of those by Munir *et al.* (2013), Guerreiro *et al.* (2006), Uche (1998) and Wallace (1989).

In reviewing research in emerging markets, Uddin *et al.* (2009) and Helden and Uddin (2016) found that there is an increase in the accounting research with a focus on emerging markets contexts focused specifically on financial accounting, but that there is a limited number of research with a specific focus on MA research. They identify a tendency for MA studies with a focus on MA practices, especially for financial accounting standards of implementation and design of professional accounting standards.

In other studies, Uddin (2016) for instance, examines MA practices of emerging economies using new public management in public sector organisations of emerging economies as a focus point. The study indicates approximately fifty percent of papers do not use any explicit theory, or use only a fairly pragmatic form of theorization, and furthermore Helden and Uddin (2016) observed some papers relying on NPM ideas as opposed to a clear use of theories to support the studies. Theoretically, Hopper *et al.* (2009) suggest theoretical development and use of social theories in accounting research of emerging economies is generally weak. However, approximately only fourteen percent of papers in the review are based on multiple theories, while around thirty-six percent adopt a single theory, contradicting Jacob's (2015) indication of 'theoretical promiscuity' or theoretical plurality as suggested by Hoque (2013).

Arguing further, Helden and Uddin (2016) state that most studies in emerging markets are based on the use of a positivist research paradigm using mainly agency theory or contingency theories, but that this however is characterised by a tendency to ignore social and cultural issues related to the MAC process. While the broad use of institutional theories was observed to dominate in the interpretive paradigm, they contend that the use of institutional theories is however predominant, with a common use of OIE or NIS variants of institutional theories. However, institutional theories minimally consider organisational indigenous societal beliefs and external or internal influences on the change process (Hopper *et al.*, 2014), or adopt a focus on the dominant actors' voices (Modell, 2014).

Although the concept of MAS is not totally new in the context of emerging countires, the tendency has been to focus on state-owned enterprises (SOE) or public corporations implementing change or being privatised (Mserembo and Hopper, 2004; Kholief *et al*., 2007; Hassan, 2008; Iyiola and Oyerinde, 2010). To use varients of institutional theories to highlight contradictions between government intended outcomes and traditional government principles may result in confusion or resistance by actors within the organisations.

Other streams of literature examining MAC have explored the broader context of privatisation, suggesting MASC is an attempt by elites and powerful blocs to foster political and economic interests of dominant parties within the organisation.

Adopting a critical perspective, Owolabi and Lawuo (2016) contest the public sector view of Western-introduced accounting practices in terms of their appropriateness for countries like Nigeria – and by extension third world and developing countries where cronyism is embedded within socio-political, economic and cultural systems. Sikka (2015) in particular suggests that some of the Western-designed introduced accounting practices are complicated and have negative effects on the countries adopting them.

Uddin and Hopper (2003) in turn have shown how within public sector reforms in Bangladesh, as in other developing countries, accounting-related practices have been used to mask the redistribution of power and wealth to either multinationals or power brokers. Sikka (2015) contends for instance that innovations and changes in accounting practices are attempts to legitimise change (in his context, privatisation of public corporations) in developing countries.

As an emerging neo-liberal economy, the Nigerian government has sought to stimulate private-sector wealth creation by containing and reengineering the public sector management and budgetary processes. Innovation in this regard includes the Bureau for Public Procurement, the promulgation of the procurement act, the privatisation of some previously state-owned enterprises and the introduction of the zero-based budgeting systems as part of the budgetary control system (Obuh, 2012).

In a similar vein, Nigerian companies have attempted to re-engineer their cost and MASs in various manners such as business process re-engineering, the use of innovative management and cost accounting innovations such as the balanced scorecard; however Sikka (2015) and Owolabi and Lawuo (2016) agree in suggesting that most of these reforms are aimed at enhancing the crony capitalist nature of the economy by undervaluing assets in transfer process from public to private sectors or for tax purposes in the Nigerian private sector.

While the abundance of human and natural resources in Nigeria is not in doubt, the country’s post-colonial dynamics of cronyism, unreformed institutions and corruption appear to have had implications for the practice of accounting (Bakre, 2011), although the specifics of such impacts of MAS are yet to be examined within the context of emerging economies.

3.12 Management accounting research: insights from Nigeria

While MAC research in Nigeria is an emerging field of research (Wallace, 1989), there has been a recent increase in MAC studies with a higher number of quantitative studies usually adopting a contingency, agency or stakeholder theory.

In terms of MAS, Ajibolade (2013) for instance examines the performance measurement systems of manufacturing firms in Nigeria through the use of a survey of CEOs and management accountants of selected companies on the stock exchange, examining how MAS design is influenced by company context and firm performance. While the study suggests that MAS design is mainly influenced by environmental uncertainty, decentralisation and technology, how these influences occur or how the process evolves is not examined.

Ajibolade (2013) suggests that the adoption of sophisticated MASs will result in increased performance, as more reliable performance measurement data can be processed to support organisational goals. The study argues however in an emerging market like Nigeria there is the added need for MA information to be provided at such frequencies and in sufficient detail to meet the needs of managers in product cost estimation and assessing overall organisational performance.

In a different context, Ajibolade (2013) examined the factors influencing the choice of MASs of manufacturing organisations in Nigeria adopting the use of institutional theory and contingency theory, and the study proposes that combining these theories gives greater explanatory powers to examine the influencing factors. Specifically, the study suggests the institutional forces include the influences of multinational companies operating subsidiaries in Nigeria and multinational agencies providing funding to governmental agencies, who require a set of accounting systems to be designed and implemented as a part of donor conditions. The study does not provide evidence of how the MAS should be implemented or the particular processes used by indigenous Nigerian firms established without foreign support or government funding to influence their design of MAS. Ajibolade and Ogundele (2006) suggest that in most cases, accounting practices and organisational culture mirror the practices of the foreign parent firm. However, the study does not similarly explore the process by which the imposed MAS system is implemented, or cases of how MAS is designed and implemented in indigenous firms or other industry sectors. In other respects the study fails to consider wider institutional influences beyond the isomorphic factors influencing MAS design or how the role of institutional influences varies across levels in the Nigerian state. It rather concludes that the study obtained minimal evidence of the importance of institutional influences over other factors, especially technological influences in MAS design. This view contradicts Modell (2007) who supports the idea of greater influence of institutional influences in MAS design.

In the field of banking, Uche (1998) considers the role of accounting and control in the context of Nigerian bank with a focus on the pre-independence era of Nigeria, and through the use of historical analysis examine how changes were introduced to the credit policy of the local subsidiary of a UK bank and how customers' reactions resulted in changes to the accounting control practices of the subsidiary branch. Although the narrative of Uche (1998) presents an account of how to implement changes to accounting and control practices, the study does not provide evidence of the process or dynamics involved in the change process to achieve the stated objectives of reducing bad debts to indigenous customers, and neither does it present a clear theoretical stance upon which the study is founded or the basis for the methodological approach.

In a similar vein, Egbe *et al.* (2015) examine the process of localising management controls systems in a multinational subsidiary operating in Nigeria, and how these controls jointly exist and operate in the varied socio-cultural context within which these controls were designed. They suggest that controls can be categorised as formal and informal, and adduce that foreign managers who accommodate local culture and practices in designing informal and to some extent formal controls are more successful "as it fosters a conducive working environment and encourages staff to perform better", but also in some instances family and societal pressures impede the operation of formal controls. While the study by Egbe *et al*. (2015) suggests that formal and informal controls co-exist, local socio-cultural factors influence the design and operation of formal control mechanisms within the organisation. It does not consider the process by which changes in controls are implemented or what consequences occur as a result of implementing these changes within an organisation.

Olowo-okere and Tomkins (1998) challenge the Nigerian government's sequencing approach to public sector management reforms, arguing that in the short term contextual factors such as political instability, external pressure from donor agencies and a lack of commitment by political leaders can be used to explain the structure of management reforms. However, this study is based only on public documents and based on no clear theory, and it also fails to consider how changes or reforms are executed in the private sector.

3.13 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed prior literature on MAC and the direction of research within the broad areas of family businesses and banking, with a focus on the private sector. The chapter reviewed the literature to identify the problem of defining change and how it is studied within organisations. The definitional problem identified has resulted in several variations in the study of MAC as a research area that is characterised by a range of theoretical and methodological approaches. Following on from the propositions of Scapens (1994) on the need to study MAC on the basis of what is being done as opposed to variations in theory and practice, an interpretive view reflected by the choice of institutional theory is advocated for use as a theoretical lens for this research.

Prior MAC research literature provides evidence supporting the existence of several actors with varied roles in the change process alongside the role of institutional forces in shaping the change process. The choice of method or the nature of change an organisation adopts is largely being influenced by forces internal or external to the organisation.

However, as indicated by some researchers (Chua, 1986; Wickramasinghe and Hopper, 2005; Wickramasinghe and Alattawage, 2007), most change experienced in MAS appears to be functionalist in nature and fails to consider the context within which it is applied, thus resulting in unintended consequences or outright failure of the change process. The next chapter reviews existing theories that have been used to conceptualise change process in MAC and provides justification for the choice of institutional theory to shape the present study.

Chapter Four: Research Theoretical Framework

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of common theoretical frameworks currenly used in MAC research to conceptualise change in MA practice. Broadly, these include neo-liberal economic theories (functionalist interpretations of MASs) and alternative management theoretical frameworks developed to address perceived weaknesses of neo-liberal economic theories. MA research has utilised several theories in examining MAC and the processes it entails (Busco, 2006), as discussed in this chapter, with arguments and justifications for the choice of a proposed framework for this study.

4.2 Review of theories in MA research

The broad field of Management Accounting as a field of research is theorised in two central ways: through literature on MA and control, and through theory providing an orienting set of ideas or explanatory concepts. Ahrens and Chapman (2006), for instance also suggest through psychological, economic, or social dynamics providing answers to questions. They argue that any idea that can serve as a basis for research verification is a theory. Generally, social scientists have a divergence of opinion in defining theory (Llewelyn, 2003; Sutton and Staw, 1995). There is also considerable debate around what kind of theory is considered suitable for social sciences (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Nagel, 1968; Oldroyd, 1986; Salmon, 1989).

4.2.1 Common theories adopted in MA research

Prior research in MA is dominated by the use of neo-liberal economic theories and contingency theories to explore the role of accounting and changes in accounting systems (see for example, Scapens, 1994; Ogundele, 1970; Wallace, 1989). The use of interpretive and critical perspectives in the study of MA is borne out of the perceived limitations of economic and contingency theories. For instance, Wickaramasinghe and Allawatage (2007) identify inherent weaknesses in the assumptions of contingency theories in MA, such as views that are "static and technical, functional to organisational effectiveness" which contradict alternative accounting theorists who perceive MASs as dynamic social institutions which are subject to change and influence by the system within which they operate; there is a need to consider social and institutional aspects of organisations and their environment.

Hence, for conventional MA researchers, the functions and roles of MAS are static and technical with universal solutions, which thus reduces the role of researchers identifying problems to be solved. Functional MASs are presumed to operate independently, objectively and detached from human consiousness and organisational influences. Alternative researchers on the other hand perceive MA as socially constructed, dynamic and subject to change, with institutional theory emerging out of this as the dominant theoretical framework to understand MAC. Prominent authors who have adopted institutional theory in the study of change in MA include Burns and Scapens (2000) and Yazdifar *et al.* (2008), and other social theories include actor network theories (Preston, 2006), political economy theory (Wickaramasinge and Alawattage, 2007), critical theories (Lukka, 2007; Modell, 2011), contingency theory (Davies and Albright, 2004; Malami and Brown, 2008; Otley, 2010), and neo-classical economic theory (Otley, 2009).

4.2.2 Neo-liberal economic theories

These principally examine changes in MASs and practices using the funtionalist perspective – the role of organisations in influencing organisational change – with a focus on the efficiency and effectiveness of such systems measured in economic terms (Baker, 2003; Wickaramasinge and Alawattage, 2007). Two main theories dominate: agency theory and contingency theory, as described in the following section.

4.2.2.1 Agency theory

Agency theory is based on the notion of a contractual obligation existing between individuals and the organisation, specifically recognising two parties to a contract: the principal who delegates work to another; and the agent who will act first in self-interest as opposed to the principal's interest (Eisenhardt, 1989; Jensen and Meckling, 1976; Mahaney and Lederer, 2003; Ross, 1973).

Chua (1986) posits that the role of accounting systems is to provide agents with the required information to assist in the decision-making process and to achieve organisational efficiency and effectiveness. Agency theory however fails to account for the role of agents in shaping organisational accounting systems within an organisation, or how previous experience and knowledge of agents is transferred and therefore influences the current organisational system. For instance, Kasumba (2010) argues that agency theory fails to account for the active and reflective roles of agents to pursue self-interest. Agency theory further assumes that an unquestioned acceptance of accounting and management by intended users takes place in organisations. This excludes inter-organisational struggles that might influence the accounting routines of agents (Dillard, 2004; Lukka, 2007).

4.2.2.2 Contingency theory

Contingency theory describes several factors as influencing change in organisational practices and systems (Chenhall, 2003; Malmi and Brown, 2008; Otley, 1980). For Donaldson (2001) and Langfield-Smith (1997), it requires the creation of a "fit" between an organisation and the contingent factors influencing organisational performance. Contingent economic theories are firmly founded in a functionalist view of MAC, positioning human beings as inactive factors in MASs alongside several other factors influencing change in organisational systems. Wickramasinghe and Alawattage (2007) suggest that the majority of conventional MAC approaches have been developed from a functionalist view; functionalism has also been argued to be governed by an assumption of objectivity (Chua, 1986; Hopper, 1985; Hopper *et al.*, 1987). Prominent among MAC research adopting the use of contingency theory includes Davies and Albright (2004), which considers the implementation of BSC on financial performance in US financial institutions.

Contingency theory – like agency theory – arguably fails to account for the role of human agency in constructing reality, however; for varied dynamics associated with MAC especially in terms of micro and macro influences, or of internal and external actors with varied interests, power and influence. Hopper and Powell (1985) highlight the methodological and theoretical weaknesses in contingency theory in its assumption of a one-way flow from environment to organisation or of failing to account for how the broader organisational (political and social) context affects and influences the choice of MASs and practices, or the use of surveys to formulate generalisations. Given this frame of thinking, contingency theory does not represent a suitable lens through which to answer the research questions advanced by this study or to achieve the stated research objectives; as argued by Helliar *et al.* (2002:46–7), "a MAC system's historical, social and organisational contexts are major influences on its design", influences which should also be examined in exploring a process of change.

The perceived limitations of economic-based MAC theories provide limited insight to the complex and pragmatic process of MAC, especially in terms of managerial responses to decision-making and control measures in such a dynamic and competitive sector as the financial services industry.

4.3 Alternative theories

Alternative theories offer an additional insight to conceptualising manangement accounting change and organisational change through a delibrate focus on efficiency of change and the socio-political, cultural and institutional contexts where MAC occurs (Wicaramasinghe and

Alawattage 2005; 2007). Other authors such as Kasumba (2009) argue that alternative theories offer researchers an opportunity to conceptualise change by providing broader insights to the study of change in organisations and the role of organisational actors in the change process. This view supports Jack and Kholeif's (2007) assertion that alternative theories yield deeper insights and a distinctive contribution to MAC. Furthermore, alternative theories enable easier adoption of case study research (Wanderley and Cullen, 2009). Prominent examples of alernative theories that have been used to study MAS include actor network theories, institutional theories, structuration theory and labour process theories, as described in the following section.

4.3.1 Actor network theory

Actor network theory (ANT) is a commonly-used social theory[12] in MAC research and is defined as an interdisciplinary approach (with its origins in the sciences) incorporating social sciences and technology, and has been drawn upon by several theorists (Briers and Chua, 2001; Chua, 1995; Jones and Dugdale, 2001; Latour, 1999; Law and Hassard, 1999; Ogden, 1997; Preston, 2006; Quattrone and Hopper, 1995). Proponents suggest ANT represents a suitable and effective theory to analyse the interaction of social sciences and technology in organisations. Wickramamsinghe and Allawattage (2007:435), for instance, suggest that by "science and technology" ANT refers to organisations being heterogeneous, with systems and methods through which things are done. This includes the MAS and any changes carried out. ANT further suggests that technologies in organisations are constructed within a network of human and non-human actors, and that new technologies are developed by certain "actors" who are "active and innovative" in developing or propagating particular aspects of science and

[12] Justesen and Mouristen (2011) however contend the ANT is not a theory but a varied ontological approach in accounting research.

technology. Actors are situated within an "actor network" to make their efforts popular and acceptable within the organisation. Although ANT gives due consideration to the role of various actors in the process of MAC, Collier (2001) criticises the use of ANT in accounting research for not considering influences of power and struggle between actors dominating the change process, or of relationship issues between the network of actors within an organisation. ANT is also criticised for been "amoral", as it assumes that all actors are similar and potentially equal while ignoring the influence of powerful institutions such as corporations and the state (including regulatory bodies such as CBN) (Hopper and Bui, 2016).

Similarly, ANT assumes by default that the change process will be rationally accepted once introduced in organisations by the actor network. This assumption fails to account for challenges in the change process such as resistance to change which has been found to be evident in most cases, or a reluctance by some to accept the change introduced by a certain group or network (Hopper and Bui, 2016).

While ANT represents an appropriate theory to examine MAC, in light of the case study for the present research it does not represent a suitable lens through which to examine the change process. Justesen and Mouristen (2011) contend that ANT ignores the why and how questions of organisational change process.

4.3.2 Marxist theories

Marxist theorists perceive all organisational processes such as MAS as being designed to protect the interests of capital providers alone (Arnold and Sikka, 2001; Bryer, 2006); for instance, Bryer (2006) suggests that Marxist analysts recognise the "asymmetrical power distribution" within capital relationships, whilst Wickramasinghe and Alawattage (2007) cite relevant Marxist theories as being the labour process theory and capitalist mode of production. Bryer (2006) argues that conflicts exist in any form of capital versus labour relationship. In the context of the present research, while this relationship conflict is present in areas of performance measurement and appraisal, it does not form the objective of the study. Hence this theory is rejected, as it does not present a suitable lens through which to view the process of change and other types of relationship in Nigerian financial institutions.

4.3.3 Structuration theory

This theory advances social reality to be a product of human agency activities and social structures (Giddens, 1984). According to Jagd (1994), structuration theory plays a major social role in modern social systems by serving as a central medium for coordination and control of reproduction, and transformation of organisations as administered social systems. Structuration theory thus considers the relationship between known actions in the organisation and social structures in the production, reproduction and regulation of social order (Coad and Herbert, 2009; Conrad, 2005; Fay *et al.*, 2010; Gurd, 2008). For Burns and Scapens (2000), structuration theory is founded on the duality of relationship between agency (human actors) and structure (the structured properties of institutions). As a theory however it fails to adequately address methodological and epistemological issues, in that it is concerned with ontological perspectives of social enquiry to the detriment of its ability to guide (Stones, 2005). Giddens' theory of structuration is arguably an "abstract and static" view (Kort and Gharbi, 2016).

Ter Bogt and Scapens (2014) posit that structuration theory is difficult to use in the study of MAC, as it presents a limited time dimension for the analysis coupled with the difficulty of using 'structure' as a notion in MAC research. The theory also fails to present a suitable lens through which to understand the dynamics associated with the change process of organisations that are influenced by a combination of internal and external factors. Although Wickramasinghe and Alawattage (2007) suggest structuration is closely related to institutional theory, this relationship however falls short as a suitable single theory to explain the range of processes involved in MAS change of organisations. Baxter and Chua (2003) contend structuration theory provides a small but distinctive contribution towards MAC research; however, there is a complexity and problem with its use in MAC research as its application is "selective and lopsided" (Whittingtons, 1992).

4.3.4 Critical theories

Critical theories in accounting emerged from a desire to adopt an interdisciplinary approach to accounting research through an incorporation of non-economic theories and non-positivistic methods in the exploration of "behavioural, organisational and non-social aspects of accounting" (Hopwood, 1976:4). Critical research in accounting and MA draws on varied theoretical perspectives including Marxism, critical rationalism and deconstruction (Laughlin, 1999; Roslender, 2010; Richardson, 2015). Critical accounting research contests the privileging of technical and knowledge issues over those that demonstrate that accounting is not created in a social vacuum (Roslender, 2010). Critical accounting is also characterised by a tendency towards the use of qualitative research methods, with Laughlin (1995:80) suggesting all empirical research associated with critical accounting as "invariably qualitative". According to Roslender and Dillard (2003:325), critical accounting may be viewed as:[13]

> *A subset of the interdisciplinary project (in accounting) and provides a focus for those with a wish to devise an approach that consciously privileges the linkage of knowledge to the pursuit of a radical political process.*

[13] The concept of critical theory is derived from the works of social and philosophical studies associated with the Frankfurt school. It focuses on studies associated with emancipation in the face of systemic oppression or domination by a power group in organisations or the society. Richardson (2015) however suggests a broader use of the term critical theory as that referring to studies that focus on identity-based oppression/domination associated with race, religion or gender, thus suggesting that two different views exist. The first view perceives critical theory as a normative agenda focused on achieving democracy communicative rationality and social norms. Modern critical literature focuses on exploring the contradictions and interests inherent in social institutions (societies and organisations) without explicitly tying these observations to a specific process of change or a normative model of society.

Richardson (2015) identifies some general criteria of critical theory to include a concern with the "meaning and interpretation of events", "material characteristics" and the need for an interpretation of empirical findings in light of historical and social contexts, as critical research is context- and value-contingent.

Critical theories assume the potentialities of structured society as that which can be improved upon. Roslender (2010) contends that critical theory is "intimately wedded to change". Laughlin (1987) identifies reasons for the use of critical theory in accounting research to include it in attempt to link theory and practice; it is concerned with critique and the need to promote transformation and a better life; a consideration beyond visible and given knowledge.

Critical theory offers a different perspective on knowledge to those presented by functionalist or traditional approaches, and may be relevant in some instances in terms of highlighting negative effects of accounting practices (Broadbent *et al.*, 1997; Sikka, 2005, 2013; Otusanya, 2010; Bakre and Lauwo, 2016); Broadbent *et al.* (2008) specifically examine the role of accounting as a conduit for emancipatory change. However, critical theory does not support the nature and objectives of this study in that it ignores the separate context of influences within external and internal institutions in shaping the process of MAC.

4.3.5 Interpretive sociological theories in MA research

Following the identification of inherent weaknesses of the existing theoretical approcaches to MA research, prominent scholars in the field of accounting research such as Chua (1986), Hopper *et. al.* (1987), Hopper and Armstrong (1991), Hopper and Powell (1985) and Tinker *et. al.* (1988) proposed alternative approaches including naturalism or interpretivism. The interpretive theoretical approach is based on the ideas of interpretive sociologists such as Max Weber, Charles Cooley and Herbert Bulmer and has created an alternate theoretical approach to analysing researching accounting practice in varied contexts. Interpretivism highlights the significance of events and phenomena, and is based on the principle that constitutional roles exist for human consciousness in creating meaning and values by reflecting on events. Interpretive researchers believe that such things as MAS exist only as a result of the meanings and labels given to them by human actors as a result of their daily living experience; things exist as a result of meaning ascribed to them without which they cannot exist. In MAC terms therefore, interpretive researchers thus seek for an understanding between the context and function of MAS. Crotty (2013) suggests that systems (such as accounting and MAS) are not functional but responsive to the manipulations and influences of users of MAS. To understand the change process in MAS, interpretive researchers analyse participants' experiences or observations and their subjective judgements as the social and organisational reality in which MAC is constructed.

4.2 Research theoretical framework

In the study of MASs, several theoretical perspectives have been drawn upon to provide an explanatory framework for understanding MAC in organisations, such as those by Innes and Mitchell (1990) or Greenwood and Hinings (1996). For instance, Burns and Scapens (2000), Kasurinen (2002), Dillard *et al.*, (2004) and Seo and Creed (2002) argue that many frameworks fail to provide detailed explanation of complexities associated with change or an analysis of the macro level context of the organisation and institutional contexts. In terms of the organisations upon which these frameworks were developed, Cobb (1995) observes that many are from the manufacturing sector organisation and few from service organisations such as banks.

To yield deeper insights from a wider section of stakeholders, while giving consideration to institutional factors influencing MAS change and providing answers to the earlier stated research questions, this research adopts Kasurinen's (2002) framework which is based on modifications of the service sector frameworks by Innes and Mitchell (1990) and Cobb (1996). Kasurinen's framework proposes that the change process in organisations is influenced by inter-related factors and groups. This view is in line with the suggestion of Innes and Mitchell (1990) who classify these into catalysts, motivators and facilitators. Kasurinen – like Innes and Mitchell – also argues that for change to take place in an organisation, a joint interaction of the identified factors and groups is essential.

Based on this, the following propositions are formulated to shape the research.Change in MAS is influenced by a variety of institutional factors that either act as motivators, catalysts or facilitators of change. These factors are inter-related and must be present for change to take place. Success or failure of any change initiative is dependent on the roles of change agents in the change process. Communication and the commitment of the change agent are also required for successful change to take place. The success of change can be inhibited by actors either acting as confusors, delayers or frustrators. The nature of MAS change is dependent on the strength of the three forces acting either independently or collectively.

4.2.1 Institutional theory

In the last five decades, multiple theoretical perspectives have been used to conduct research in organisational studies and by extension organisational change. Early researchers have adopted theories such as contingency and resource dependency to examine organisational change. A common theme among these theories is the assumption that organisations are open systems, thus implying that the organisation affects, and is affected by, the environment in which it exists (Scott 1992; 1995); i.e., the wider social and cultural environment (Scott, 1992).

Institutional theory in recent years has sought to understand and explore accounting practices in developing and emerging markets. Moll *et al.* (2006) posit that Western rules and procedures are employed to portray traits of modernism, irrespective of local circumstances (Scott, 2001).

The institutional perspective emphasises the importance of psychological, social and political elements in the study of social phenomena and organisations. Scott (1995) argues that institutional theory calls attention to ideal and conditional forces such as knowledge systems; beliefs and rules that create the structure and operations of organisations. Institutional theory also privileges the role of cognitive processes and symbols within organisational systems.

Congruence between organisation arrangement and external institutions is explained by isomorphism, defined by Moll *et al*. (2006) as the process by which external institutions permeate internal structures and procedures. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) and Moll *et al.* (2006) identify two sources of isomorphism: competitive and institutional. Competitive isomorphism is perceived by Moll *et al.* as various competitive forces driving an organisation towards the adoption of efficient low-cost structures and practices, and to a large extent it has been largely ignored in MAC research with an emphasis traditionally placed on political, economic, social and cultural variations. There has therefore been a deliberate focus on institutional isomorphism, which views the permeation process of the environment surrounding an organisation as a largely cultural and political process. This view tallies with the objective of the study which seeks to explore and understand the process of MAC.

Examining the institutional isomorphic concept further, Meyer and Rowan (1977) and DiMaggio and Powell (1983) suggest that organisations are structured by phenomena in their environments and gradually become homogenised with them. Organisations can then demonstrate that they are not only legitimate, but stable by social definition. Hence, DiMaggio and Powell (1983) suggest this encourages greater commitment from internal participants and external constituents. This point reflects the significance of the isomorphic process in promoting an organisation's success and survival (Meyer and Rowan, 1977). Generally, there are three mechanisms through which institutional isomorphic change can occur: *Coercive isomorphism; Mimetic processes; and Normative pressures (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991;65).*

Coercive isomorphism occurs in response to political influence or/and legitimacy problems. Here, organisations are bound to change their formal rules and procedures due to formal and informal pressures from the environment. Among the sources of coercive isomorphism are governmental legislation and other organisations upon which the company is dependent (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). On the other hand, mimetic processes are a result of standard responses to uncertainty. Through mimetic processes, an organisation seeks legitimacy by resembling the response of other similar or superior organisations in terms of initiatives (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). The third mechanism, i.e. normative pressures, stems from professionalism. There are two main sources of professionalism: education and professional networking. While all three mechanisms can be separated (i.e. coercive, mimetic and normative isomorphism), they tend to overlap and co-exist. Thus, they are not always empirically distinct from each other (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983).

The institutional theory perspective is mainly built upon theoretical insights from sociology and economics (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Siegel *et al.*, 1997; Lapsley and Pallot, 2000; Bouma and Van der Veen, 2002). The theory is beneficial in addressing the impact of institutions on the behaviour of companies and their employees. Scott (1995:33) defines institutions as: '*Cognitive normative and regulative structures and activities that provide stability and meaning to social behaviour.'* Institutions are transposed by culture, structure and routines operating at multiple levels of justification. Within the institutional perspective, the macro view is posited as the most dominant. This helps in creating a complete account of understanding either an emergence, persistence or abandonment of institutions through integrating the micro and macro views of the institutionalisation process (Greenwood and Hinings, 1996; Selznack, 1996; Hirsch and Loundsbury, 1997).

Specifically, institutional theory explores how organisational structures and actions are shaped by institutional forces such as the government, the profession and society (environment) that surround them. In general, institutional theory can be divided into three strands: old institutional economics; new institutional sociology; and new institutional economics.the following sub sections considers each strand.

4.2.1.1 Old institutional economics (OIE)

Rutherford (1994) suggests that OIE originates from the early works of American institutionalists such as Commons and Veblen who perceived economics as being beyond a series of static equilibria that fail to provide a suitable means for analysing economic transformation (Scott, 2001). OIE adopts the use of historical processes to explain economic behaviour using the propositions of neo-classical economists supporting the profit maximisation tendencies of the individual economic man (Johansson and Steccolini, 2012).

Wanderley (2011) argues that the profit maximisation assumption of neo-classicalists is flawed as it does not account for the limited information available to decision-makers or information processing constraints. Similarly, OIE opposes the notion of individual rationality and methodological individualism as being responsible for change in systems. The OIE theory suggests human behaviour is incapable of being reduced to variables to be tested to form generalisations about economic behaviour. OIE advocates the use of all institutions surrounding an organisation and power relationships among actors to understand social phenomenon such as MASs (Pimentel and Major, 2009; Yazdifar *et al.,* 2008)

OIE has been used in MAC to understand from an intra-organisational stand point MAC and the process it entails. Common among these studies is the adoption of the Burns and Scapens (2000) change framework. Several researchers (Borner and Verstegen 2013; Busco *et al*., 2006; Lukka, 2007; Soin *et al.*, 2002; Van der Steen, 2011; Yazdifar *et al*., 2008) have adopted OIE as a lens to explore the process of MAC, resistance to change, trust, change implementation and stability at the micro level of organisations. It thus represents a suitable lens to understand the gap between MAC rules and routines within an organisation.

OIE however fails to provide a clear methodology to explain how institutions influence human behaviour. Rutherford (1994:1) argues,'OIE does not present a single well-defined or unified body of thought or methodology, or program of research.' Similarly, OIE overemphasises the role of rules, routines norms and beliefs by which organisations are structured, and does not provide insight into the drivers of institutional change. While unarguable, OIE recognises the existence of institutions (see Dillard *et al*., 2004; Burns and Baldvinsdottir, 2005; Burns and Nielsen 2006) and it fails to specify the point at which organisational actors question and identify the weakness of current institutional arrangements and the need for change to occur (Abrahamson and Gerdin, 2006; Burns and Baldvinsdottir, 2005; Seo and Creed, 2002).

However, Borner and Verstegen (2013) contend that there are some conceptual problems in using the OIE strand of institutional theory. They posit OIE is not really equipped for studying change, rather "OIE is more suited for exploring resistance to change" (Borner and Verstegen, 2013:305).Thus, OIE is focused on the internal organisation (micro level forces) with minimal consideration for the role of environmental pressures (macro level forces) of the organisation (Dillard *et al.,* 2004; Moll *et al.,* 2006; Yazdifar *et al.,* 2008), making it an unsuitable stand alone theory to meet the objectives of the present study.

4.2.1.2 New Institutional Economics (NIE)

In distinguishing between the strands of institutional theories, Rutherford (1994) posits NIE is a modern approach to institutional theory as compared to OIE, and is based on elements of classical and neo-classical economic theories using assumptions of market equilibrium and economic rationality of actors' assumptions which are at variance with the notion of a socially-constructed MAC. Scapens (2006) considers NIE to be concerned with the structures used to govern economic transactions.

In MAC research, NIE however fails to consider influences of institutional and social influences on individuals rather considering them as rational and autonomous of the system they within which they exist. NIE is similarly adduced to be formal and abstract in terms of explaining economic change in organisations.

Hence as a result of these highlighted weaknesses, NIE fails to address sufficiently the objectives of the thesis. Specifically, it appears unsuitable as a means to account for the political, social and cultural factors affecting MAS and factors influencing MAS change. The assumptions of NIS assumption around the factors and influences affecting organisations makes it unsuitable as a theoretical lens for analysis or providing answers to the study's stated research questions.

4.2.1.3 New Institutional Sociology (NIS)

Dillard *et al.* (2004) argue that institutional theory is grounded in social theory and addresses the assumptions, beliefs and values underlying organisational characteristics and practices. Institutional theories highlight the importance of social culture and environment on the practices of MAC.

The NIS perspective offers some insights into understanding the practice of accounting based on a broad variety of areas including cognitive science, cultural studies, psychology and anthropology, while at the same time discarding the rational-actor perspective (Moll *et al.*, 2006). The NIS perspective takes the view that the adoption of a particular accounting system is largely driven by the need of the organisation to conform to external pressures as opposed to the desire for increased internal efficiency (Covaleski and Dirsmith, 1988; Moll *et al.*, 2006).

Such a perspective (the NIS perspective) is relevant for the current study as it captures the issues of external (macro) and internal (micro) organisational contexts (Meyer and Rowan, 1977; Lapsley and Pallot, 2000; Hussain and Hoque, 2002). NIS is concerned with institutions at the macro level of the organisational field or profession. For instance, Ribero and Scapens (2006) and Di Maggio and Powell (1983) posit that NIS is a powerful theory in explaining the adoption process of innovative accounting systems by institutionalised organisations.

NIS has been widely used in MAC literature as a theoretical framework for the analysis of change (Covaleski and Dirsmith, 1988; Modell, 2003; Covalesski, *et al.,* 2003; Dillard *et al.,* 2004; Hopper and Major, 2007). It has emerged as a powerful tool for understanding individual actors, corporate actors and change events. The main strength of NIS in MAC research is its ability to synthesise with various other approaches to change. NIS as advanced by Scott (1994, 1995) represents an intermediate level between organisations and society. It is also instrumental to the process by which socially constructed expectations and practices become reproduced.

Organisations are bound to be institutionalised by the institutions around them (Meyer and Rowan, 1977; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Zucker, 1987). These institutions could exist in the form of internal parties, for example, or the organisation itself, as well as external sources such as the state and other organisations (Zucker, 1987). Pressure is usually applied formally by the institutions through written laws, regulations and standards, as well as informally through the invention of norms, habits and customs. In their effort to ensure that the organisation can win or survive, participants will normally respond to these pressures by acting in accordance with the rules that have been set out by the institutions (Meyer and Rowan, 1977; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Tolbert and Zucker, 1983; Zucker, 1987). Institutionalisation in organisations can be defined as:

The process through which components of formal structure become widely accepted, as both appropriate and necessary, and serves to legitimate organizations. (Tolbert and Zucker, 1983:25).

Hence for organisations to achieve legitimacy there is a development and adoption of practices to fulfil the expectations of the various constituents in their environment (Moll *et al.*, 2006). Where an organisational element is considered as appropriate and necessary, it becomes an institutionalised process. Thus, in order to appear proper and adequate, organisations will incorporate this institutionalised element even when there is an absence or a conflict of efficiency that comes with its existence (Meyer and Rowan, 1977; Tolbert and Zucker, 1983).

Greenwood and Hinnings (1996) suggest institutional theory is a theory of change, especially radical organisational change, and they set out a framework for understanding it (Greenwood and Hinnings, 1996:1022). Critics of institutional theories used in studies of change contend that it focuses overly on a few instances of change, neglecting the wider social fabric in which the organisation and its actors are embedded. Institutional theory is however dominated by the use of longtitudinal studies which limit consideration of the wider historical context and political influences within organisations.

4.2.2 Weaknesses of institutional theories

Institutional theory pays relatively minimal attention to the process of establishing institutional practices, transposed, or the socio-political context that constitutes the framework for these organisational processes such as changes in MASs and or practices. A potential limitation of the selected theoretical perspective may be the failure of discourse, or of text failing to connect to practise and resistance thus downplaying the effect of social economic structures. Furthermore, institutional theory gives reduced consideration to the social, economic and political contexts constituting the framework for change of the MAC process (Dillard *et al*., 2004).

The challenge with measuring change in organisations as an outcome and examining them at points places emphasis on constraints or influencing factors of institutionalised beliefs and values, and not on the dynamics associated with change or the role of human actors in the process of change (Dillard *et al*., 2004). Institutional theory in MAC similarly fails to address the role of power blocs or special interest groups (family with controlling stakes or interest), or the political nature of organisations.

Similarly, Dillard *et al.,* (2004) criticise institutional theory for its focus on the symbolic nature of organisational actions; the artificial decoupling of internal operations from external operations limits its applicability to organisational accounting systems, as the focus of this form of analysis is exclusively on the organisational field of the organisations (Chua, 1985). Similarly, the NIS framework appears static in conceptualising the operation of institutional pressures and the way it deals with intra-organisational issues (Ribeiro and Scapens, 2006).

4.4 Justification of institutional theory choice

Broadly, institutional theory allows a consideration of the wider social and cultural environment in organisational studies (Scott, 1992). While advocating for an increased use of institutional theories, Moll *et al.* (2006) suggest by combining NIS and OIE, a wider range of applicability to accounting is available than when compared with NIS or OIE as stand-alone theories. Similarly, the focus of NIE on neo-classical economic paradigm limits its application to the objectives of the study. NIS and OIE draw on insights from cognitive science, cultural studies and anthropology, thus helping in analysis of the same phenomenon at multiple levels from the wider organisation context to society (Scott, 2011; Moll *et al*., 2006).

4.4.1 Burns and Scapens' theoretical framework

By drawing on the ideas of OIE and structuration theories, Burns and Scapens (2000) developed a framework for studying MAC. Wickaramasinghe and Alawattage (2007) argue that Burns and Scapens' framework is largely influenced by OIE structuration theories and evolutionary economics supported by a body of literature on change (Barley and Tolbert, 1997; Dawson, 1994), thus adopting the notions of 'scripts', the institutional realm and realm of action (Wickramansinghe and Alwattage, 2007; Wanderley *et al.*, 2013).

Realm of action refers to actual arrangements of people, objects and events in a minute by minute flow of social life unfolding (Ranson *et al.,* 1980). It influences how people communicate, enact power and determine what behaviours to sanction and reward. Specifically, Wanderley *et al.* (2011) define the realm of action as daily social conduct in the form of communication, power and sanctions.

Institutional realm represents an existing framework of rules and typfications derived from a cumulative history of action and interaction within an organisation. Barley and Tolbert (1997:96) define it as the social structure that is historically derived from repetitive actions consisting of "taken for granted assumptions which identify categories of human actors and their appropriate activities and relationship." Scapens (2006) describes it as a way of thinking and the underlying assumptions that condition how people behave.

According to Barley (1980), scripts represent the means by which institutions are enacted. Barley and Tolbert (1997) describe them as behaviour regularities intead of mental frameworks; specifically, as "observable recurrent activities and patterns of interaction characteristic of a particular setting."[14] Scripts are considered as useful analytical tools for

[14] Barley and Tolbert (1997:98) see also Goffman 1982 interaction order

studying organisational levels of institutions where sub-units in the organisations are relevant actors. Barley and Tolbert (1997) identify scripts at the link between the institutional realm and realm of action. Wanderley *et al.* (2011) posit that scripts represent the modalities that are in actors' stock of practical knowledge. The focus on scripts in organisational and MAC research facilitates a study of how new MAS brings about rules and routines and how these are institutionalised (Soin *et al.,* 2002; Wickaramasinghe and Allawattage, 2002), thus depiciting MAS as a system. Barley and Tolbert (1997) describe the concept of scripts as representing a more identifiable form than that presented by the concept of modalities as expressed by Giddens, as scripts observe behaviours practiced in a particular setting. This interaction between the realm of action, the institutional realm and scripts is defined as institutionalism which is adduced to consist of four stages: to enact, encode, reproduce and institutionalisation itself.

Burns and Scapens (2000) posit the encoding stage as entailing the process of internalisation of institutional principles into rules and routines, as opposed to scripts as earlier used by Barley and Tolbert (1997) to reflect the same process in socialisation. Burns and Scapens suggest that new rules or procedures are usually interpreted in terms of current norms and values of the groups, using a specific system such as MAS. The use of current norms and values in forming views, new rules or routines is termed "path dependence"[15], and the type and extent of path dependence is influenced by the nature of change the organisation is undergoing (i.e., emergent or radical change).

The second stage of the Burns and Scapens framework is the enactment stage which represents the daily activities performed by the organisational actors which encode institutional principles.

[15] Path dependence refers to the influence of existing organisational rules, and routines and institutions in shaping to a large extent the selection and implementation of a new set of rules and routines within an organisation

This process entails a direct connection between rules, routines and actions (Burns and Scapens, 2000), unlike the encoding stage which is represented by a dotted line to describe abstract and indirect nature. Similarly, the links between institutions and their rules and routines are more general and indirect.

While the enactment process entails a selective choice by organisatonal actors, it also represents how stage actors may resist the change process (Busco, 2006). Wanderley *et al.* (2011) argue that this stage may result in resistance, especially where there are new rules and routines which may alter institutionalised values of significant power blocs within the organisation who wield sufficient power to influence the enactment process.

The third stage represents the reproduction of rules and routines through repeated use and practice (Burns *et al.*, 2003). Burns and Scapens (2000) posit that the reproduction process is characterised by either conscious or unconscious change: conscious change occurs when actors understand the need to challenge previous rules and routines, whilst unconscious change refers to change occuring when actors do not adequately understand the rules and routines within the organisation.

The last stage refers to an institutionalisation of rules and routines which have been reproduced by the actions of indirect actors. Burns and Scapens (2000:11) describe the process as involving a "disassociation of the patterns of behaviour from the particular historical circumstances, so that rules and routines take on a normative and factual quality", and the process of deinstitutionalisation is noted by Burns *et al.* (2003) and Wanderley *et al.* (2011) as being gradual and indirect. Burns and Scapens (2000) define institutionalisation as the process through which rule and routines are encoded within the institutional realm and then encoded and reproduced by organisational actors in their everyday actions.

4.4.2 Overview of Burns and Scapens' (2000) framework

Burns and Scapens perceive MA to be a set of institutionalised rules and routines linked with other organisational rules and routines. The framework seeks to understand and explain the process of MA rules and routines existing in the organisation and how these are institutionalised within the organisation, and the framework is widely used in the study of stability and resistance to change (Bogts and Scapens, 2014).Within the framework, MAC is assumed to be a continous process which focuses on the roles of actors and rules and routines as opposed to the assumptions that change involves movement from one discreet position to another (Modell, 2007; Wanderley, 2011; Bogts and Scapens, 2014).The framework examines change within an organisation, ignorning the macro influences (external influences) on the process of change (Dillard, 2004:211; Scapens 2006:21).

As observed by Burns and Scapens (2000), the framework ignores the link between organisational practices and organisation field or the influences of societal actors, thus there is a need for a framework that considers these external influences, how they translate to organisational actors and their choice of MAS (Dillard *et al.,* 2004). The use of OIE notions in the framework – as opposed to the more comprehensive NIS sociological-based institutional theory – gives room for consideration of the social, political and economic contexts of the organisational environment. Dillard *et al.* (2004) for instance argue that an understanding of change process is better understood where societal context can be "explained and linked" to social action at various levels of the social order. Hence, the OIE basis of the framework fails to give recognition to social, political and economic issues that influence and affect organisational context; neither does it address the means by which organisation-level actors may influence the institutional context at organisational field level or societal level.

Burns and Scapens focused their framework to examine an individual firm to give an analysis at micro level, presenting the institution as a set of micro routines and practices brought into existence by the actions of organisational actors. The framework is however criticised for its exclusion of the organisation's external environment. Critics such as Loundsbry (2008) argue that while the framework may be ideal for studies focused on the organisational level, especially where there is an attempt to understand micro processes, "it is limited in regognising higher levels of social, political and economic issues that define and influence organisational context" (Loundsbry, 2008).

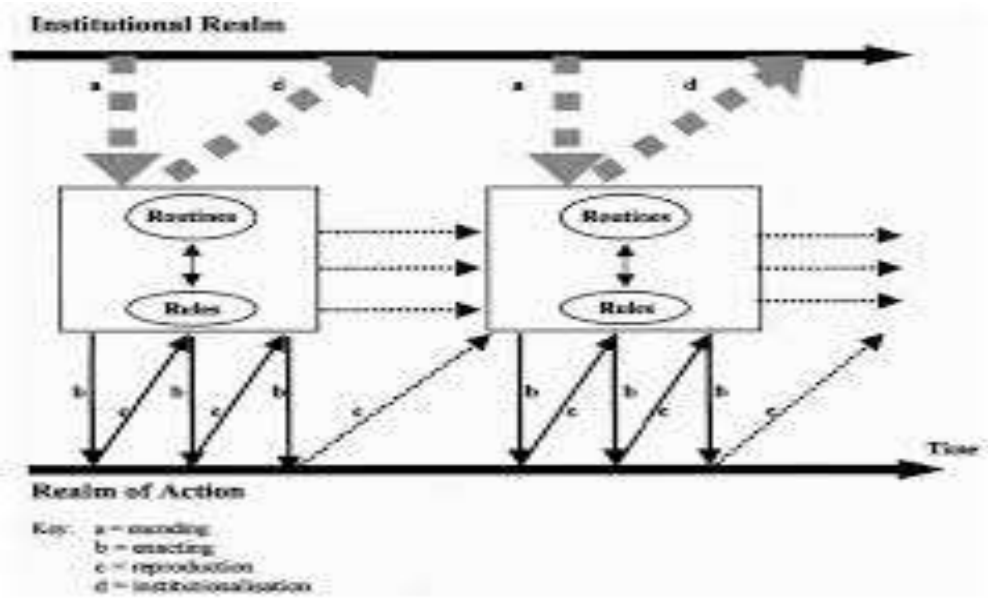


Figure 2 Burns and Scapens Theoretical framework(Source Burns and Scapens 2000:9)

4.4.3 Dillard *et al.'s* (2004) framework

The proposed framework by Dillard *et al.* (2004) is designed to explore and understand how accounting practices influence and are influenced by a "multiplicity of agencies, institutions and processes", by incorporating institutional and structuration theories to understand change in accounting practice and institutional processes.Based on the objective of expanding institutional theory, the framework seeks to provide a comprehensive conceptual basis for investigating the practice of accounting change in organisations by considering their politicial nature. Thus, by combining Weber's notion of capitalist institution with the dynamics of structuration theory, the framework proposes an "articulation of the institutional dynamics indicating how criteria and practices are linked over three levels of the social system" (Hopper and Major, 2007:63).

The framework similarly integrates structuration theory with Weber's idea of rationality and power. Dillard *et al. (*2004) provide a suitable framework for studying the process of institutionalisation, transposition and deinstitutionalisation that takes place within which radical and incremental change can be addressed, thus providing a better tool to understand and explore organisational change and practices.

To achieve these objectives, Burns and Scapens (2000) recast scripts as rules and routines with a recursive and reciprocal relationship, as opposed to linear relationship. Dillard *et al.* (2004) argue that this reciprocal nature reflects the outcome associated with the process connecting human action and what actors designate as institutions. By recognising the prominence of power, special interest and the political nature of social context, the "status quo can be better understood and systems critically questioned" (Dillard *et al.*, 2004:533). Dillard *et al.'s* (2004) framework highlighted the importance of a high level social context in moulding, sustaining and changing institutional practices. The framework's use of institutional theory entails a combination of OIE research on intra-organisational processes with NIS research on external pressure. To Wanderley *et al.* (2011), this is aimed at explaining institutional dynamics in the process of organisational change. Dimaggio and Powell (1991:8) argue that at the organisational level, institutions are viewed as independent variables that merge at the institutional field. Dillard *et al.* (2004) argue for institutional processes by linking the political economy (PE) with the organisational field and organisational level (as theorised by Burns and Scapens, 2000).

The PE level proposed by Dillard *et. al.* (2004:514) consists of the most general and widely accepted norms and practices in "prevailing symbolic sense making structures." Wickaramasinghe and Allawattage (2007) identify some of these symbolic criteria and structures as accounting principles, regulations and law. Dillard *et al.* (2004) further posit that norms and practices are influenced by powerful coalations and socio-historical factors. These factors, and the norms, values and practices on which they are based, give the foundation for which resources are allocated in the macro context. Similarly, Dillard *et al.* note that political and economic systems are enacted by agents such as legislators and regulators, which represent the properties of the prevailing systems of social integration.

Dillard *et. al.* (2004) indicate that the organisational field which comprises social and economic configurations such as industry groups, professional bodies, suggest that the social, political and economic parameters embedded at the PE level, enter the organisational field through the field criteria ('C o f') as a function of the societal level criteria ('C pf'), providing criteria for evaluating legitimate action at the organisation field level. 'C of' provides legitimacy for the action at the organisation field level, whereas 'C pE' provides legitimacy for the existence of COF . Dillard further posits actions at the POF are a function of organisational field criteria providing basis for organisational field action.

At the organisational level, individual firms are classified as innovators or late adopters. Innovators are known to introduce new organisation practices while late adopters copy existing organisational practices developed by innovators. In the framework proposed by Dillard *et. al.*, legitimacy is deemed to come from both Of (Organisational field) and Pi(Political level) (Hopper and Major 2007; Wanderley *et. al.* 2011), in that new practices can move laterally as presented in the framework. However, the framework is considered weak in failing to give adequate recognition for the role of intra-organisational factors and how MAC tecchnologies are developed at the intra-organisational level (Hopper & Major, 2007).

A major advantage of the Dillard *et al.* (2004) framework is in the provision for studying incremental and radical change. Dillard *et al.* (2004) and Wanderley and Cullen (2012) suggest that the framework facilitates a clearer understanding of the process of institutionalisation, transposition, and the deinstitutionalisation of change in a dynamic social context. This in turn creates changes in MAC practices and the influences of these practices on institutional and organisational change can be better understood.

4.4.4 Seo and Creed's (2002) framework

Seo and Creed's (2002) theoretical framework is largely derived from Benson's (1977) paper on institutional change, adapting a dilaletical perspective. It suggests that change is best perceived and explained as an outcome of dynamic interactions between human praxis and institutional contradictions (Seo and Creed, 2002; Burns and Baldivinstor, 2005; Wanderley *et al.*, 2013).

It is framed around the concept of contradiction that explains the role of embedded agents in the change process. Wanderley *et al*. 2011 state that contradiction concepts help to explain when, how and why institutionaly embedded agents challenge and attempt to change institutionally engrained beliefs and practices such as MAC. Burns and Bladvinsdottir (2005) argue that this is an attempt by embedded agents to change their own and others' belief systems. Using a dialetic perspective, the accumulation of these contradictions within and between organisations provides the seed for institutional change (Seo and Creed, 2002:226). They further contend that these contradictions are likely to become the impetus driving, enabling or constraining further institutional change.

For instance, Meyer and Rowan (1977) and Powell and Di Maggio (1991) suggest that institutional rules are apt to conflict with the logic of efficiency, as technical activities require diverse and customised solutions. Other authors also suggest that organisational comformity to institutional environments increases rewards at the expense of efficiency (Scott and Meyer, 1991; Zucker, 1987). Powell (1990) supports this view further by arguing, “organisations adopt structures that are in some respect suboptimal in order to gain the needed resources” (Powell 1991:190).

Seo and Creed suggest that institutional theorists have accepted the contradictions between functional efficiency and legitimacy through the notion of selective decoupling of formal structures of actitivies in the technical core, with a view to allowing organisations to appear legitimate by being seen as adhering to a set of rules, and while also allowing for selective application of the relevant aspects of the adopted rules in daily operations. Seo and Creed suggest organisations appear efficient and legitimate in the immediate term, however they become suboptimal in the longer term where new solutions are not pursued and adopted (Burns and Baldvindottir, 2005; Zucker,1991). Once institutions (and also practices) are in place (institutionalised), they tend to be self-enforcing and taken for granted. This thus results in minimal response to changes in the external environment, apparently due to a perceived lock in to the internalised institutional process. Seo and Creed (2002:228) use cognitive psychology to contend:

> *Although institutionlisation is an adaptive process…once in place in an organisation, institutions are likely to be both psychologically and emotionally locked in, and in a sense isolated and unresponsive to changes in their external environment.This creates a contradiction between the external environment and the institution over time.*

The third source of contradiction referred to by Seo and Creed relates to the inter-institutional incompatibilities which are a result of compliance to a set of institutionalised practices or processes. As a result, there arises a conflict with other national institutions which reflects the existence of multiple but yet contradictory and interconnected institutional arrangements. By choosing an institutional arrangement, an organisation becomes incongruent to institutional settings or may be constrained by time and space circumstances (Burns and Baldvindottir, 2005); hence this incongruence between institutional arrangement represents the third form of contradiction.

The fourth form of contradiction identified by Seo and Creed is ascribed to the political interests of various participants. Arguing further, they suggest that actors whose interests are not adequately served by subsisting institutional arrangements are potential agents of change, once aware of institutional conditions requiring modification (Wanderley *et al*., 2011). Burns and Nielsen (2006) suggest that contradictions may arise as a result of a misalignment between the divergent interests of actors and institutionalised processes in the organisation. Burns and Baldvinsdottir (2005) posit that these contradictions possibly create openings for institutional change; it is the praxis that encapsulates the 'doing' of change.

Institutional contradictions are argued by Wanderley *et al.* (2011) as containing the seeds of institutional change, a view supported by Burns and Nielsen (2006:451) who define contradictions as:

> *Ruptures and inconsistencies among and within established social arrangements that can incite tension or conflict and create the conditions for institutional change to occur as a group or individuals as an effect of their perception of such contradictions; recognize the potential (and/or need) for change.*

Burns and Nielsen (2006) argue that contradictions generate conflict among organisational actors, and that they create the condition for institutional change to take place, because groups or individuals recognize the need for change and subsequently put ideas into practice through human praxis.

In developing the framework, Seo and Creed (2002:226) propose four sources of contradictions: legitimacy undermining functional inefficiency; adaptation undermining adaptability; intra-institutional conformity that creates inter-institutional incompatibilities; and isomorphism that conflicts with divergent interests. Wanderly *et al.* (2011) refined these as: technical inefficiency, non-adaptability, institutional incompatibility and misaligned interest. Seo and Creed argue that isomorphic conformance to the prevailing institutional arrangements in a quest to attain legitimacy might result in a loss of technical efficiency.

Seo and Creed (2002:226) state that these contradictions arising over the long term are by-products of the institutionalisation process. They further contend that the accumulation of these four contradictions within and between organisations provides the seed for institutional change, stating: "Few scholars have provided a theoretical framework that comprehensively and systematically explains what the sources of institutional contradictions are, why and by what mechanism and under what conditions those contradictions lead embedded agents to take collective action for institutional change." They also posit that 'while the sources of contradictions are independently discussed, it does not indicate that they are independent but rather they can be interconnected as they unfold' (Seo and Creed 2002:229).

The second major basis of the Seo and Creed framework relates to the notion of praxis. Seo and Creed argue that while institutional contradictions are "essential driving forces of institutional change", they do not automatically translate to institutional change. They posit rather that there is a need to allow praxis as a mechanism linking institutional contradictions and institutional change.

Praxis refers to human agency of a political nature embedded in existing institutional attempts to influence and secure change in their configuration (Burns and Nielsen, 2006). By adopting Jepperson's (1991) notion of human action, Seo and Creed define praxis as "a particular type of collective human action situated in a given socio-historical context but driven by the inevitable by-products of that context's social contradiction." Analysing praxis further, Seo and Creed (2002) identify three components using the notion of human action: actors' self awareness or critical understanding of existing social conditions in which their needs and interests are unmet; the mobilisation of actors, inspired by a new collective understanding of their social conditions and themselves; and multilateral or collective actions to reconstruct the existing social arrangements and themselves.

Similarly, Benson (1977) identifies two stages involved with praxis: the reflective state which entails a critique of existing institutions, social patterns, and a search for alternatives; and the active state where political mobilisation and collective action takes place. The reflective moment presupposes the presence of an autonomus social actor and a contradictory social world in which the institutionalised organisation operates.

Seo and Creed attempt to develop a linear causal framework to highlight several conceptually important relationships among varied types of institutional contradictions and components of praxis, by also recursively linking institutionalisation to institutional contradictions, praxis and institutional change. From the framework it is observed that the first three parts of institutional contradictions posited by Seo and Creed are linked with the organisation's external environment, while the misaligned interests component represents the only link to the organisation's internal environment to include politics, power and power mobilisations of actors within the organisation.

Thus, these institutional contradictions and notions of human praxis result in four prepositions on uinstitutional change. Firstly, the presence and degree of misaligned interests influences the scope and number of potential agents available for change. Secondly, under conditions of weak non-adaptability, efficiency gaps and inter-institutional incomparability incease the praxis for institutional change by highlighting the weaknesses of current institutional arrangements. Thirdly, during conditions of strong non-adaptability, efficiency gaps and inter-institutional incomparability occasioned by institutional crises promote praxis for change by creating the conditions for the breakdown of the present institutional state. Modell (2014) also suggests that institutional theory is lacking in theoretical rigour. Finally, the degree and number of institutional contradictions increases the likelihood of praxis for institutional change by increasing the number of frames or the logic for developing alternative institutional arrangements for proposed change. The success of this is largely dependent on the skill of the actor in deploying existing logics and frames in legitimising resources towards their change effort.

The Seo and Creed dialetical framework represents a suitable framework for the discussion and exploration of a varied range of institutional change (across types and levels of organisation and contexts through its focus on the role of actors in the organisation), however it may fail to be a suitable framework in cases where change in the organisation is incremental, or where there has been modification to existing systems without alteration to underlying principles or where it has been initiated by powerful forces in the organisation.

The framework similarly limits the emphasis on the dynamics and process of institutional change, and fails to fully to provide a view of its latter stages. It presupposes the existence of embedded institutional arrangements, thus implying the framework is more suitable for established institutional fields and less applicable to emerging fields which can be understood by reference to inter-institutional structures.

In summary, Seo and Creed (2002) suggest a dialectical framework of analysis to explain radical change, based around the notions of “institutional contradictions and human praxis”. They contend that agents have to interpret these institutional contradictions to motivate institutional change, as their perception of threats and opportunities in the environment enables them to drive change (Seo & Creed, 2002; Chung & Luo, 2008).

4.5 Theoretical triangulation

As a result of the perceived weakness of single theories (acting as stand-alone theories) in exploring the process of organisational and system change in MAC research, we have seen an emergence of a combination of theoretical perspectives and multiple frameworks (Hopper and Hoque, 2006; Carpenter and Feroz, 2001; Klumpes, 2001; Lewis and Grimes, 1999). Hopper and Hoque (2006;1997) support this view by suggesting that the use of theoretical triangulation is borne out of "perceived inadequacies of a single theory or research method(s) for tapping the wider aspects of MAC practice". Arguing further, they suggest that single theoretical pradigms are at times "inadequate in obtaining comprehensive understanding" of phenomena such as MAC practices of organisations. The use of multiple theories is believed to yield more insight by supporting a more detailed analysis and understanding of how MAC as a phenomenon changes in varied contexts.

According to Hopper and Hoque (2006), theoretical triangulation entails the use of varied factors from a range of theoretical perspectives "to examine varied dimensions of a research problem". Although proponents of the use of theoretical triangulation agree that a single theory may not yield sufficient understanding of accounting practices, two forms of theoretical triangulation are identified by Hopper and Hoque (2006) which are "within the same tradition", which utilises multiple theories with no significant differences in their epistemological, ontological or philosophical leanings and approaches.The second form entails a combination of theories with different epistemological, ontological and philosophical assumptions. This sort of triangulation is deemed as wide and beyond the specific focus and objectives of this study.

This study adopts institutional theory (NIS & OIE variant) to yield insight on inter and intra-organisational variables which influence MAC. By combining with OIE, which has a focus on intra-organisational factors, it is possible to study the processes of management acccounting change, resistance and the role of power influences in the organisation. The internal focus represents a study of micro processes and influences affecting MAC. NIS on the other hand facilitates the exploration of the process by which MAC is influenced by the external environment.

The proposed combination is expected to yield deeper insight into the process and interactions of MAC by facilitating an analysis of both inter- and intra-organisational levels. By adopting theoretical triangulation, the study offers alternative interpretations of the process of MAC, and by taking advantage of the "complementariness" of the different theories on the same phenomena. Theoretical triangulation involves using factors from different theoretical perspectives concurrently to examine the same dimension of a research problem (Hopper and Hoque, 2006; Hoque and Hopper, 1997). This approach creates theory from the extant situation, rather than forcing the data to a particular theory (Covaleski *et al.,* 1996; Hopper and Hoque, 2006; Humphrey and Scapens, 1996).

The study of complex social or organisational scenarios can benefit from the use of theoretical triangulation with a view to gaining multiple insights. Bechara and Van de Ven (2011) suggest that multiple philosophies are less utilised in the organisational field level to explore complex phenomena such as organisational change.

4.6 Theoretical contribution

This study is in response to the call for research to understand how accounting is influenced by and influences a "multiplicity of agents, agencies, institutions and processes" (Miller, (1994:1), thus extending the application of Dillard's (2004) theoretical contribution by adopting institutional theories to understand the organisations, processes of MAC, institutionalisation and change process in emerging markets. It will provide a detailed basis of understanding the process leading to (or departing from) the intended level of institutionalisation within the case study organisation.Specifically, the study provides an opportunity to extend institutional theory in a family controlled financial institution operating in an emerging market economy while adding to the insights obtained it also helps extend the applicability or otherwise to a less researched sector.

4.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has reviewed prominent theories existing in the MAC literature, attempting an overview of common theories previously adopted in studies and an examination of MAC and MAS change. This was to provide a suitable basis for developing the study's proposed theoretical framework to examine the process of change in the selected case study organisation. To facilitate this study, a combination of OIE and NIS theoretical frameworks is deemed to be the most suitable for the study given the specific consideration for external factors and influences that affect the organisation such as market regulation, internal and external institutional influences, environment, power and politics in the change process. The next chapter presents an overview of the philosophical underpinning for the study.

Chapter Five : Philosophical Assumptions

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presents the proposed theoretical framework shaping this study, and concludes with a justification of the selected study among a list of available alternatives. This chapter presents an overview of research paradigms shaping the empirical enquiry into the nature and process of change within the case study organisation. It is divided into four sections: the first section considers socio-philosophical assumptions of social reality; the second presents major research paradigms as suggested by Burrell and Morgan (1979); the third section adapts Burrell and Morgan's (1979) critique of blurred demarcations of research paradigms to suggest a critical interpretive research paradigm for this study; the final section provides a summary of the chapter.

5.2 Socio-philosophical assumptions of social reality

Research paradigms highlight broad assumptions made by researchers on what is learnt and how it is learnt. Specifically, Guba and Lincoln (1994:107) perceive research paradigms to be a world-view or belief systems that guide a researcher in his work. The seminal Burrell and Morgan (1979), paper identify research paradigms present the philosophical foundations of research in terms of ontology, epistemology, methodology and human nature. Burrell and Morgan (1979) work presents a foundation and guide for subsequent research on philosophical approaches and guide to research philosophies (see for instance Blaiki, 2011; Crotty, 2013). According to Burrell and Morgan (1979), paradigms can be used at three distinct levels: the philosophical level, social level and the technical level. Previous research in MAC as a social phenomenon has borrowed from a wide array of research philosophical approaches. Ryan (2002) highlights some of these approaches as including positivism, social constructionism, relativism, realism, critical realism, modernism and postmodernism (Blaiki, 2011; Crotty, 2013; Wysocki, 2008).While previous studies have for instance adopted a traditional positivistic approach to explore the process of change, such an approach is criticised for focusing on exploring the cause, effect and links between variables of change, while minimally exploring institutional dynamics and contextual influences associated with change.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) suggest that the dimensions for analysing social science are divided into four interrelated sets of assumptions around epistemology, methodology ontology and axiology (human nature). In presenting the dimensions to social reality, Burrell and Morgan (1979) posit two axes to analyse assumptions of social reality (the subjective and objective axis vs the regulation and radical change axis). Objective researchers consider the world to be composed of an external and objective reality that requires the use of universal laws to explain reality; scientific tests and quantitative analysis are their preferred means of acquiring knowledge (Blaiki, 2011). On the other hand, subjective researchers "seek to understand the ways by which individuals create and modify and interpret the world"; they see unique experiences as creating social reality. Burrell and Morgan (1979) suggest that getting as close as possible to the research subject is the most suitable means of acquiring knowledge.

Thus, while the objectivist views the world as a formal structure that encourages an epistemology that emphasises the importance of studying the nature of relationship amongst constituting elements of the structure (Morgan and Smirach, 2005), the subjective view considers a detailed understanding of processes by which actors or members of a society relate to reality as the main basis for acquiring knowledge. For instance, attempting to understand changes in MA practices are assumed as a means to understand the process by which organisational effectiveness and efficiency can be achieved.

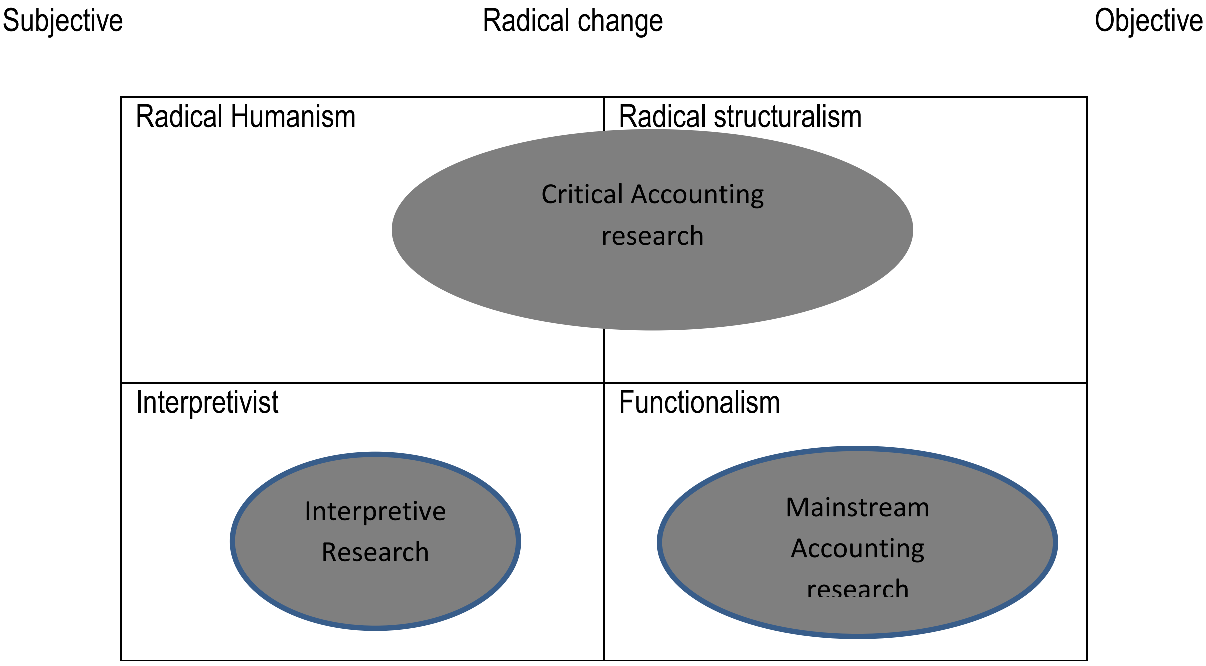


Figure 3 Dimensions of social science research

Regulation

Adapted from Burrell and Morgan (1979:22) and Ryan et al (2002:40)

5.3 Major research paradigms

Seracy and Mentzer (2003) suggest that three main world-views exist in accounting research: the positivist, interpretivist and critical paradigms. They argue, as Lukka and Kasanen (1995) and Easterby-Smith *et al*. (2002) Ryan *et al.* (2002), that each of these paradigms possesses fundamental differences in terms of their ontological, epistemological, methodological and human nature assumptions. The following sub-sections highlight the three main paradigms and limitations inherent in their use.

5.3.1 Positivist paradigm

Social science and management research has been predominantly influenced by positivist research until the early 1980s (Fleetwood, 2007), a result of the use of principally the quantitative method as the means of tuition and research in major schools and academic journals (Fleetwood, 2007; Bryman, 2012) .The positivist paradigm is historically based on an epistemological assumption of objectivity, and views social reality as being composed of objective truth existing independent of researchers (Burnell and Morgan, 1979; Bryman, 2012; Saunders *et al.*, 2013; Crotty, 2013). Positivism offers assurance of an unambiguous and accurate knowledge of the world (Crotty, 2013).

The invention of positivism is generally credited to Comte (Benton and Craib, 2012), although some argue this assertion is erroneous, and that he popularised the word (Crotty, 2013). Regardless, the positivist view of the world as proposed by Comte is however challenged by Husserl (1970) who contends that the scientific and objective world as proposed by the positivist is an abstraction of the lived world (i.e. of the reality which the present study seeks to examine), hence the world proposed by positivism is not the real everyday world that is experienced by various actors on a daily basis (Halfpenny, 1982; Benton and Craib, 2012), and hence it is not appropriate for this study.

Another reason for non-adoption of positivism for the present study is the acclaimed objectivity attached to the findings of positivist research, which in the case of this research plays a role in the interpretation of the research findings. Chalmers (1999) suggests positivism in social sciences is limited in accurately capturing human behaviour in social settings. This variation is partly due to the unpredictable nature of human beings, which is not easily generalised. Where a study deals with people and their behaviour in a social setting it is expected that results will vary amongst respondents. Similarly, the objective view of reality is challenged and has resulted in a shift from the early views of the 1980s that the world is objective and capable of being known by a systematic application of empirical research techniques.

The ontological assumption of the positivist paradigm is that social reality is an objective truth and exists in the world independent of the investigator (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The methodological stance of the positivist paradigm assumes that knowledge is stable and is acquired objectively by observing the subject using appropriate tools (Chua, 1986; Lukka and Kasanen, 1995), and that this is replicable (Remenyi *et al.*, 2000). Furthermore, this paradigm presumes that the process of acquiring knowledge is "value-free" and that the investigator does not influence what is being observed (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Crotty (2013) supports this view further by positing that the positivist paradigm is "through and through" which results in considering reality as consisting of prior meaning, independent of consciousness of such reality. This results in a 'mathematised' world, a world well-organised with regulated uniformities and absolute principles (Crotty, 2013). The extent of the objectivity of positivism is not absolute.

The positivist paradigm considers human nature as purposive and rational as far as social objectives are concerned (Humphrey and Olson, 1995). This suggests that, at all times, and in different organisational contexts, human actors will display similar behaviour and will be motivated to perform in accordance with socially constructed objectives. In addition, it assumes a controllable social order (Chua, 1986) and social practices, such as changes in MAS, are designed to constrain human behaviour into conformity with the social order (Zimmerman, 1979; Demski and Feltham, 1978). It also seeks to provide explanations that support the "status quo, social order, consensus, social integration, solidarity, needs satisfaction and actuality" (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). In other words, social structures determine the nature of social interactions of organisational actors (determinism).

However, the positivist research paradigm lacks consideration of the wider context in which the research phenomenon is located. The socio-political and cultural contexts in which the subjects are situated have a significant influence on what is studied (Wickramasinghe and Hopper, 2005; Uddin and Tsamenyi, 2005). In addition, within a positivist paradigm the researcher does not have control over the research process (Easterby-Smith *et al.* 2002; Wysocki 2008). Furthermore, due to the structured nature of the research instruments, a positivist empirical enquiry may not yield as much research data, as the respondents may be limited by the closed nature of the research tools (Lukka and Kasanen, 1995).

Thus, from the complex context of a family-controlled financial institution such as the present research, the positivist paradigm may not be appropriate to understand the macro dynamics and micro processes involved in the adoption and implementation of changes in MASs and practices. As earlier stated, the realities experienced by the case study organisation are deemed as socially constructed, hence their characterisation by socio-economic, political and cultural factors which significantly influenced the adoption and implementation of changes in MAC practices (Uddin and Tsamenyi, 2005; Wickramasinghe and Hopper, 2005) which may be limited in analysis by the choice of a positivist research paradigm (Walsham, 2006).

For instance, the actual implementation of changes in MAS is characterised by multiple actors with varied power, resources, interests and expectations, which have to be studied within the unique historical socio-political context in order to gain full understanding of the processes, other than focusing only on their economic efficacies (Chenhall, 2003). Thus, positivistic research tools tend to restrict the flexibility of researchers in questioning details of the research phenomena or to provide a means of clarifying areas about the research phenomena.

Wickaramasinghe and Alawattage (2007) consider the positivist paradigm to traditionally rely on quantitative analysis and statistical generalisations, thus perceiving theory to be a set of testable hypotheses as opposed to a set of guides for understanding social reality. While this does not suggest that qualitative studies cannot adopt positivistic analysis or approaches (examples in MAS), Blaike (2011) suggests that value judgements are excluded from scientific knowledge, suggesting validity that cannot be tested by experience is meaningless.

Although the positivist paradigm has been used in accounting and specifically MAC-related studies, the relevance to the present study is limited due to the assumption of MAC as independent of the broader institutional, social and economic context, thus suggesting the organisation (and the MAS) is a closed system. Although positivist contingency theories do account for the role of environmental factors in influencing the choice of organisational systems, the assumption that some or all of MAC variables can be quantified, measured, and subjected to mathematical testing does not agree with the perception of MAS as socially constructed.

While other similar assumptions of statistical testing and of the proof of predetermined prepositions in the form of hypothesis do not agree with the perception of reality of this study and the highlighted objectives as it is believed that MAS and change are socially constructed phenomena, there is a need to account for the challenges and processes which can only be understood as part of the wider social, political and historical contexts of Nigeria as the case study site. As observed in the country context, Nigeria is characterised by multiple complications with multiple and at times contradictory regulations, hence the choice of a positivistic research paradigm may be restrictive in terms of the information provided to achieve the stated objectives of this study. Similarly, as change and MAS are posited as context-dependent (as considerations of social, historical, economic and political factors are significant influences), the positivistic approach may not yield sufficient analytical insights to understand the context within which the MAS change process is structured (Wickaramasinghe and Alawattage 2007). The positivistic paradigm thus makes an examination of such contextual variables difficult and challenging, as they attempt to capture data through objective views and quantitative data.

5.3.2 Interpretive paradigm

The interpretive research paradigm considers the organisation as a research site that shares characteristics with other types of communities. Alvesson and Deetz (2000) contend that the focus is on social rather than an economic view of organisational activities. Bryman (2011) classifies it as a subjective approach to research, based on "an inquiry from the inside" aimed at attempting to understand a phenomenon without a prior analytical assumption.

Interpretive research is based on an ontological assumption which assumes an internal realist view of social reality; it suggests social reality as a creation of human actions rather than as an objective, neutral binding "constraint" (Giddens, 1984; Cohen *et al.*, 2000; Blaikie, 2011; Bryman, 2011; Crotty, 2013). Blaikie (2011) suggests that interpretive ontology is based on "a different logic of enquiry to that used in the natural sciences". In addition, the interpretive paradigm acknowledges a subjective idealism whereby each individual actor constructs a unique version of reality (Walsham, 2006).

Prior researchers that have adopted an interpretive paradigm assume the epistemological position that human beings create and associate unique subjective meanings during their social interactions with social reality (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991; Alvesson and Deetz, 2000; Walsham, 2006). In addition, the interpretive research paradigm assumes shared multiple realities that are both produced and reproduced by actors in their social settings (Morgan, 1980).The methodological approach of the interpretive research paradigm considers social phenomena, such as the changes in performance management (as a subset of a larger MAS), as 'unique' and that cannot easily be captured in hypothetical deductions associated with positivist research (Remenyi *et al*., 2000; Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991).

Rather, it is argued that social reality is created through subjective human experiences of interpretation, creation, and modification of the social world (Roberts and Scapens, 1985; Yanow and Ybema, 2009; Walsham, 2006; Chua, 1986). This approach studies the phenomenon within its organisational context (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Marshall and Rossman, 1989). The researcher is assumed an active participant in the investigation rather than a passive observer (Klein and Myers, 1999; Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991).

For instance, Yanow and Ybema (2009) contend that the interpretive paradigm “asks after multiple, and sometimes, conflicting meanings made or held by different interpretive-discourse-practice communities using the same artefact”; in the case of the present study, the artefact is represented by the MAS within the case study organisation. Chua (1986:614) argues that interpretive researchers are concerned with research questions such as:

> *How is a common sense of social order produced and reproduced in everyday life; what are deeply embedded rules that structure the social world…and how are they sustained and modified; what are the typical motives that explain action.*

Interpretive research investigations involve studying the “routines” of the subjects as “defined, enacted, smoothed and made problematic by persons going about their normal routines” (Van Maanen, 1983:25). This involves studying texts and conversations; what influences human actors to make sense of their practices or activities; and the position-practices of human agents and their influence on organisational interactions (Stones, 1996; 2005). In addition, interpretive studies involve understanding the environment and contextual factors influencing the interpretation of phenomena or reality (Blaikie, 2011).

Thus, an interpretive approach to MAC research assumes employees are not only rational, but that they construct a reality based on their understanding of events, actions and norms within their environment. Blaikie (2011) argues that this construction is a by-product of history, values, beliefs or reactions to situations and contexts (Greef, 2015; Yanow and Ybema, 2009). An interpretive research approach in MAC assumes an attempt to discover and comprehend an understanding or meaning created by individuals in constructing shared realities. These constructions facilitate an understanding of the social context in which these meanings are produced (Yanow and Ybema, 2009).

Therefore, the study of the evolution and development of MAS would involve taking into account the context and the interpretations that human actors give to the changes they encounter in every day organisational processes. This position requires an “immersion” into the field and context of study through being an active participant, as opposed to casual observation with measurement as posited by positivistic research. However, minimal consideration is given to the study of issues of domination contradiction, potentiality and change in the interpretive understanding of reality and MAS practices (Alveeson and Deetz, 2000).

However, as with the positivist research paradigm, interpretivism does not seek to question the status quo (Chua, 1986). Rather, researchers who use this paradigm merely interpret different meanings various actors generate about reality. In other words, an interpretive research paradigm assumes a qualitative research approach to organisational reality, whilst maintaining its status quo (Doolin, 1998; 2007). According to Dolin (1998) the interpretive research paradigm fails to recognise the tensions, conflicts and contradictions arising from the power relations of organisational actors, which leads to unintended consequences. Thus, it does not critically evaluate the social phenomena being investigated (Chua, 1986). Instead, it focuses on the interpretation of the meanings that the human actors assign to the social structures, which does not allow the researcher to unveil how human behaviour is constrained or enabled by the dominating social structures (Chua, 1986).

The interpretive paradigm may provide an adequate lens through which to analyse the motivation for change at multiple levels, as suggested by Yanow and Ybema (2009) who contend that the interpretive approach facilitates studies at the organisational level which allows a discourse with multiple levels of the organisation, including with those who are silent by choice or by force (concurring with the notion of understanding institutional perspectives). However, as a standalone paradigm, the interpretive paradigm fails to yield sufficient insights to the realm required to meet the objectives of this study, which suggests the need for a critical element to understand underlying motivations for the choice or rejection of options on MAS design and implementation, or the influences behind the social realities surrounding the change process of the case study organisation.

5.3.3 Critical paradigm

The critical paradigm for the study of organisational change assumes that change is not as inevitable as portrayed by mainstream literature. It highlights the "pain and anguish" associated with change programmes by assuming that they significantly impose upon actors within the organisation. The critical approach to organisational change argues that the associated pain and anguish breeds resistance in most change initiatives (Spicer and Levay, 2012). Most early studies on organisational change focus on resistance and a subsequent acceptance of change projects (Barker, 1999; Fleming and Spicer, 2003).

On the role of change agents in the process of change, a general lack of consensus appears in the literature. Spicer and Levay (2012) for instance argue that a large number of actors form a social movement, opposing the view that organisational change is achieved as a result of dominant leaders or actors within the organisation.

Other strands of critical literature on change include those by Hardt and Negri (2009) and Vimo (2004). These studies suggest that owners of capital do not create change, but rather change is created by "living labour" defined as a group seeking to escape from organisational control. Spicer and Levay (2012) suggest that by living anonymously, the group creates new modes of organisational and social systems, or in some cases innovations, which are adopted by the dominant groups, for instance management adopting organisational practice.

Increasingly, critical theory has become influential in accounting and MAC research (Hoque, 2007; Richardson, 2015; Roslender, 2007). For instance, Richardson (2015) suggests an increased number of critical studies are borne out of the critical accounting project initiated over twenty years ago by the Sheffield accounting group. Roslender (2007) posits that the project was aimed at developing “greater self-awareness” among those engaged in accounting research, and “practise concerning conditions and consequences of their action and practises” (Roslender, 2007). This view perceives criticalists as challenging the manner in which accounting privileges technical issues, knowledge and issues over those demonstrating that accounting is not created in a social vacuum.

Similar to the interpretive research paradigm, the critical paradigm is based on an ontological assumption that social reality is not objective but constructed (Chua, 1986; Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Its epistemological stance is that social reality is influenced by socio-economic, political, cultural, ethnic and gender factors (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Walsham, 2006). In addition, theorists who subscribe to the critical paradigm argue that social systems are made up of "ideological superstructures", such as evolved and developed MAC practices, which constrain the actions of human agents and prevent them from attaining "true human fulfilment" (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Chua, 1986). The critical research paradigm adopts a methodological stance that attempts to provide explanations as to how "different social forces" influence social change.

In addition, the critical paradigm attempts to investigate the roles of dominant forces, exploitation of capital and labour, and contradictions that are embodied in social organisations (Chua, 1986). Researchers who adopt the critical paradigm seek to critique and change the status quo of society rather than attempting to understand or interpret it (Miller, and O'Leary, 1987; Hoskin and Macve, 1986; Loft, 1986; Hopwood, 1992). Although they view human action as influenced by inter-subjective meanings, critical researchers consider the social world as "not only symbolically mediated but as also shaped by material conditions of domination" (Chua, 1986:621).

Burrell and Morgan (1979:34) posit that, "Whilst some focus directly upon the deep-seated internal contradictions, others focus upon the structure and analysis of power relationships". They argue that social systems, such as budgetary practices, are “characterised by fundamental conflicts which generate radical change through political and economic crises” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979:34). Hence, conflict and change leads to the emancipation of human agents from dominating and constraining social structures (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991; Chua, 1986). Thus, the critical paradigm adopts a voluntarist assumption of human nature in which it is assumed that human actors can modulate the structuring properties of social structures during their interactions (Giddens, 1984).

Marxist theories are worth noting as instrumental within the critical research paradigm (Sikka, 2001; Bakre, 2005). In this respect, changes in budgetary practices are “ideological superstructures” that are embedded within the social systems which have dominating and constraining characteristics and that prohibit human agents from attaining their potential (Funnell, 2004; Hopwood, 1990; Macintosh and Scapens, 1990; Hopper and Powell, 1985). However, they may also become sources of tension, conflict and contradiction (Gallhofer and Haslam, 2003; Funnell, 2004) leading to radical change (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Chua, 1986). Chua (1986) argues that change can be achieved by exposing the dominating social structures that create “injustices and inequalities”.

However, the critical research paradigm alone does not provide sufficient guidance to study how the institutional actors decode, interpret, and enact changes in MAS or MA practices in the complex context of a financial institution – or specifically in family-owned banks. Thus, it requires an integration of interpretive and critical research paradigms in order to mitigate the limitations of the research paradigms as categorised by Burrell and Morgan (1979).

Critical perspectives of accounting perceive accounting practice as invariably supporting specific economic and social structures, reinforcing the unequal distribution of power across a society and thus rejecting the view that objective and unbiased accounts of events can be provided; they challenge the notion of accounting providing an unbiased and neutral representation of underlying factors. Rather, accounting is used to maintain the status quo in a power relationship between the privileged (also classified as the powerful, who usually are the owners of capital resources in a capitalist setting) and the less powerful (usually classed as the labour providers).

Critical accounting thus goes beyond the questioning of the appropriateness or otherwise of accounting methods to focus on the use of accounting as a tool of management control and those who are privileged to control resources, while restraining the voice of those with minimal access to capital (Roslender, 2006). Critical theory seeks to provide a form of knowledge that questions the prevailing social arrangement. Roslender (2006) suggests that critical theory aims to promote an awareness of both 'what is' and 'what might be', and how the former might be transformed to install the later. McCreadie and Tinker (2005:101) perceives critical theory as encompassing all forms of social praxis that are evaluative and aims to engender progressive change within the conceptual, institutional, practical and political territories of accounting.

The form of knowledge associated with critical philosophy entails the use of self-reflective, interpretive understandings of systems and beliefs, which helps to overcome the limitations of interpretive and positivistic paradigms in unveiling the influences behind social reality of the actions of organisational actors. While positivists tend to observe with minimal questioning or subjective analysis of influences, interpretivists maintain the status quo by adopting a non-judgemental stance while studying the social phenomenon (Blaikie, 2011).

While a choice of a critical paradigm provides support for understanding the influences and motivations of power and domination within the accounting system, it is limited as a standalone philosophical paradigm to achieve the objectives of this study that requires a philosophical approach to aid understanding and interactions within the case study. This results in a consideration of combining philosophical paradigms to obtain detailed understanding, with a view to proffering suitable solutions or appropriate explanations for the choice of action or inaction by stakeholders.

Frazer and Lacey (1993:182) consider a possible combination of these views by suggesting:

> *If one is a realist at the ontological level, one could be an epistemological interpretivist…our knowledge of the real world is inevitably interpretive and provisional rather than straightforwardly representational (1993:182).*

A new addition to the realm of critical perspectives is that of critical realism. Critical realists retain an ontological realism (i.e., there is a real world that exists independently of our perceptions, theories, and constructions), while accepting a form of epistemological constructivism and relativism (i.e., our understanding of this world is inevitably a construction from our own perspective and standpoint). The different forms of realism accept there is no single acceptable understanding of the world independent of any viewpoint (Ryan, 2002).

Chua (1986) describes and presents the main assumptions regarding mainstream accounting research, interpretative research and critical research. For each category, Chua (1986) presents a summary of positions regarding epistemology (beliefs about knowledge) and ontology (beliefs about physical and social reality). In addition, Ryan (2002) further refines with some comments about the relationship between accounting theory and practice. A summary of dominant assumptions about the three categories of research in MAC are presented on table 4.

Table 4 Summary of mainstream research paradigms

Beliefs about:	Positivist	Interpretive	Critical
Knowledge	Theory and observation are independent of each other. Data analyses should be based upon quantitative methods to allow generalisations.	Theory is used to provide explanations of human intensions. The adequacy of a theory is evaluated via logical consistency, subjective interpretation and common-sense interpretations. In this type of research, ethnographic study, case studies, and participant observation are the most adequate research methods to investigate actors' everyday world.	Criteria for judging theories are temporal and limited by the environmental context. Historical, ethnographic research and case studies are the most appropriate research methods for critical research.
Social reality	Empirical reality is objective and external to the subject (and the researcher). Human beings are passive objects, who rationally pursue utility maximization. Society and organisations are basically stable, and dysfunctional behaviour can be managed through the design of adequate management control systems.	Reality is socially created and objectified through human interaction, human actions have meaning and intention and they are grounded in the social and historical context. In addition, social order is assumed and conflict is mediated through a common set of beliefs and values.	Empirical reality exists and is objective, but it is transformed and reproduced through subjective interpretation. Human intention and rationality are accepted, but have to be critically analysed because human potential is supported by false consciousness and ideology. Moreover, it is assumed that conflict is common in society because of social injustice, which restricts human freedom.
Relationship between accounting theory and practice	Accounting is related to means, not ends. A theory can be value-neutral, and existing institutional structures are taken for granted.	Accounting theory aims to explain action and to understand how social order is produced and reproduced.	Theory plays an important role in the process of identification and removal of domination and ideological practices

(The Main Assumptions of Mainstream Research, Interpretive Research, and Critical Research. Source: Adapted form Chua [1986] and Ryan *et al.* [2002])

To summarise, MAC research can be classified into three streams: mainstream research, interpretive research, and critical research. In the mainstream approach, the researcher is assumed to be a neutral and objective observer of the phenomenon in question, and attempts to measure associations between relevant variables in order to make predictions about these phenomena. On the other hand, researchers who adopt interpretive or critical perspectives (alternatives approaches) reject the position of positivist researchers. For them, a study about social science is neither objective nor value-free. The main difference between interpretive research and critical research is that the former seeks to understand the world, while the latter adds an element of social critique and need for change in the research agenda.

The choice of an interpretive study aligns with the objectives of the present study, its proposed research methodology and the desire to understand the "full person of the organisation" and how social realities are produced and maintained through norms, rites, culture, routines, rituals and daily activities of organisational actors. The study's use of theoretical and methodological triangulation is best supported by an interpretive paradigm that allows the interpretation of different perceptions as held across the organisation, while accounting for the complexities associated with the organisation's operating environment.

From the consideration of the main philosophical paradigms, this study's research questions and objectives adopt predominantly an interpretive approach. This gives consideration to the researcher's view of social reality and the nature of the study, which is to understand the process of MAS change in financial institutions. Although the interpretive approach will serve as this study's main paradigm, there will however be a tendency to combine some elements of the critical paradigm to enable a detailed understanding and explanation of the context of the research site. This decision takes into account the research questions, the researcher's beliefs regarding the nature of social sciences (ontology, epistemology, and human nature), and the aim of this study, given the limitations and benefits of the different paradigms.

As illustrated, the adoption of an interpretive approach presupposes the social world is socially constructed; therefore, MAC is not a natural phenomenon and it can be modified by the actions of individuals and the environment within which an organisation exists. In order to understand the social world, the interpretive perspective suggests exploring perceptions meanings and understanding actors ascribe to their environment. As a consequence, this study aims to understand the shared realities of organisational actors during the process of MAS change, especially the issues of resistance to the change process or implications of change to the performance management system (as a sub set of MAS) and the implications on staff.

Building on this choice of an interpretive research paradigm, this study seeks to explore and understand rules, patterns and trends which shape the process of MAS change. In order to achieve this and to enable us to interpret and understand MAC as a social practice, it is necessary to locate the current MAC practices and the process of MAC in a historical, economic, social and organisational context. Therefore, to conduct this investigation a deeper and richer understanding of the internal and external environment is required to possess a full picture. While seeking to explain these understandings, there is a need to also understand the motivation and influences shaping the choice of action during MAS change process within the organization, hence use of the critical paradigm as a supporting paradigm – and thus responding to the call by Brown and Brignall (2007) and Copper (2002) for the use of critical theories in practical areas of accounting, something that several researchers believe to be possible (Copper and Hopper, 2007; Kasumba, 2008; Hopper and Bui, 2016).

The choice of combining philosophical assumptions is not however without some challenges. For instance, Brown and Brignall (2007, 35) posit:

> *There are three possible consequences of a project which seeks to combine findings from different research methodologies: the results from different approaches may complement each other, they may challenge each other or the researchers, in behaving as good, collegiate academics may talk past each other and avoid the difficult ontological questions…the threefold classification of 'complementarity', 'challenge' and 'talk past' to discuss the issues that determine the balance of consequences when multi-methodologies are undertaken.*

As Hopper and Bui (2016) suggest, there may never be a consensus on research method or research philosophy triangulation, but the use of triangulation is however encouraged to yield answers to research questions that rarely fall within one research or methodological realm. Thus, a methodological contribution of this study can thus be found as part of an emerging body of MA studies adopting a critical interpretive approach to explore MA process, with a view to going beyond reporting to an exploration of practices to entail issues of contradiction, domination and praxis, and to link organisational practices to wider societal influences.

5.4 Chapter summary

This chapter presents an overview of research paradigms and their assumptions of ontology, epistemology, human nature and world perspectives. To facilitate an understanding of the process of MAS change and explore the process through which systems are implemented across the family group, this chapter presents an argument for the study's choice of an interpretive paradigm supported by a critical paradigm to explore the process and dynamics (micro and macro) existing within the organisation as it undergoes MAS change, while also exploring the influences of the external operating environment. This choice is believed will facilitate ease of exploring the process as well as providing a suitable basis for evaluating the issues of power relationships, domination, family interest, praxis and contradictions within the MAS change process. The following chapter presents the research method adopted for the study.

Chapter Six: Research Design and Methods

6.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the method adopted to carry out the research. It provides a means by which the earlier stated research questions will be answered. The chapter thus seeks to provide an operational means of exploring the nature and process of MA change in the case study organisation by discussing the research design and methods used in the study.

Research methodology is defined by Bryman (2012) as "a strategy of inquiry providing a researcher with the set of philosophical assumptions, research design and data collection methods", and "it also gives consideration to other issues as researcher's belief on nature of the society (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2009). The current research is an interpretive case study and is based on the premise that systems and practices such as MAC are products of social, political, historical constructions of social actors as opposed to naturally occurring phenomena. It focuses on the interplay between social and individual levels of actions in the organisation on one hand, and on the other the relationship between internal and external environments. The study's focus on how MA changes from a different cultural perspective offers an additional theoretical understanding of MAC process by adopting a longitudinal study of change process in a single organisation. This extends the present use of interpretive analysis to a varied cultural and environmental context like Nigeria, as opposed to the use of developed market economies as the site of analysis. It is believed that a study of this type will contribute to the current understanding of MAS change practise over a time period and test the extent to which prior change research and theories can be applied in understanding the change process in the selected case study organisation.

MAC research has previously tended to employ approaches including field study, action research, historical archival case study (see Quinn, 2014,) textual analysis of archival data, observation and interviews and development of a research analytical framework. The objectives of this study do not include an assessment of an existing scientific body of knowledge, but rather aim for an exploratory research into MAC using a different setting and focus from those previously studied. This chapter presents a justification of the ontological and epistemological foundations of the research, of the research method, research design, and data collection techniques for achieving the earlier stated research objectives.

6.2 Approaches to research design

The design of a piece of research is based on the research approach, which is a by-product of the researcher's ontological and epistemological assumptions about reality, giving consideration to a range of dimensions regarding the research process (Burrell and Morgan 1979; Hopper and Powell, 1985; Silverman, 2001; Bryman, 2012). Two main research designs are noted in MA research: qualitative and quantitative approaches (Scapens, 2004). In some instances, a third less used strand is created by combining the quantitative and qualitative approaches to form the mixed method (Bryman, 2012), however this study adopts one of the two dominant approaches as opposed to other studies in MAC adopting a mixed research approach. The following section will discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each approach, with a justification provided for the research choice.

6.2.1 Qualitative research

The qualitative research approach is a strategy used to analyse social concepts of phenomena (Hopper and Powell, 1985). This provides researchers with the requisite tools to analyse phenomena while providing a richer understanding of processes of social realities. Johnson *et al.* (2006) suggest that qualitative research is concerned with human beings as rational agents capable of making decisions and interpreting various situations. In the context of MA research, qualitative research helps highlight MAS as a phenomenon designed, produced, implemented and interpreted by social actors in organisations or other social contexts. Specifically, Vaivio (2007: 439) defines qualitative research in MA as:

> *Theoretically informed, focused, intensive and plausible analysis that increases our understanding of how MASs operate in different societal, cultural and institutional and organisational settings*

Similarly, Paton (2002) suggests qualitative research is more suitable for the study of contexts, processes and experiences of actors, and to yield a deep understanding of social phenomena. The choice of qualitative research tallies with the proposed research objectives which include the exploration of how MAS change processes are implemented in a family business that has undergone various stages of organisational change, and how the process of change is influenced by internal and external factors. It is believed that a qualitative research method will provide a holistic, integrated understanding of the impact of organisational change on MAS in the selected case study organisation. It is hoped that a qualitative research design will yield insights into some of the issues associated with the research objectives such as influence of actor, resistance to change, facilitators of change, power relationships, how institutional factors influence MAS, and how and why environmental factors help in the evolution of MAS in the case study organisation.

Although the use of a quantitative research approach might yield valuable insights into some of the issues proposed, it may fail to provide in-depth data on the concepts that arise during the process of organisational change (such as influence, routines and rituals, roles, resistance of actors, facilitators, inhibitors of change, environmental factors). The main advantage of qualitative research over quantitative research is the close engagement with actors (Vaivio, 2008). This affords an exploration of organisation process and the MA interface with such processes, thus offering a deep understanding of the application of MA during periods of organisational change Vaivio (2007; 439) suggests:

> *"Qualitative research has the potential to enhance our appreciation of how management accounting processes shape and are shaped by the unique context in which they are applied".*

The adoption of qualitative research is believed to be a suitable for the study's research, which seeks to understand the MAS process of change which has been identified as socially constructed and a process-oriented phenomenon. Qualitative research is a key way to advance theory regarding family firms because it can provide important insights into otherwise hidden interactions between family and business and between actors and MAS within the organisation.

Qualitative longitudinal research embodies a range of mainly in-depth interview-based studies requiring return to interviewees to measure and explore changes occurring over time and the processes associated with these changes (Holland *et al.*, 2004; Farnell, 2005). Neale and Flowerdew(2003) consider it as a qualitative enquiry conducted "through or in relation to time". The approach is particularly useful if one is studying a process which has a notion of a 'career' of some sort, or which involves a developmental or transitional process (Neale and Flowerdew, 2003). Ruspini (2000) considers it as primarily concerned with the collection and analysis of data to enable a "diachronic analysis of incidence conditions or events in a work place or organisation"; longitudinal research facilitates an examination of processes and the organisation to understand the evolution of culture or outcomes. Variants of longitudinal designs identified included repeated cross-sectional studies, prospective studies and retrospective studies. Ruspini (2000) however suggests that the use of longitudinal data poses both methodological and theoretical challenges, especially when used in social or organisational studies.

6.3 Case study research

The potential of case studies to illustrate and explain accounting in practice has been widely acknowledged by the literature (see, for instance, Ryan et al, 2002). In particular, there have been recent calls for a deeper understanding of how MAS processes occur and change inside organisations (Berry et al., 2009; Bhimani, 2009; Van der Stede, 2011).

Case study is a “research strategy that entails the detailed and intensive analysis of a single case”; in some instances, the number may be extended two or three cases to enable a researcher to carry out a comparative analysis (Ryan 2002:149). Robson (1993:146) defines case study “as a research strategy which involves an empirical investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources and evidence.” Stake (1995) views case study research as being concerned with the complexity and peculiar nature of the case in question (Bryman, 2008). Ryan (2002) argues that case study represents a suitable means to understand the nature of MA in practice (a sub objective of the research) or in areas where theory is not well developed.

The use of case study research strategy in MA research is popular and well-documented. Interviews may constitute a very effective means of collecting data when the qualitative researcher seeks to better understand organisational and group processes such as MA practices (Be´dard and Gendron, 2004).

For instance, Scapens *et al.* (2005) present evidence of types of case study to include a single community, as used by Banbury and O’Riley 2000 and Guerreiro *et al.* 2006; a family as used by Brannen and Nelson (2006), a single organisation as used by Nyberg (2009), a person or a single event as used by Vaughan (2004), and multiple case studies as used by Mundy (2010) and Cobb *et al.* (1995). Several others falling in the realm of case study (Hussain, 2005; Zineldin and Bredenlo, 2001) did not adopt as much in-depth consideration of the phenomenon of MAS change. However, the current trend in using case studies does not include a combined study to include the study of change transmission between parent and subsidiary on one hand and between subsidiaries on the other.

Case studies in MA research are argued to be a suitable research design to seek specific concrete historically-grounded patterns common to a set of case studies (Suleiman, 2003). The choice of case study research is largely influenced by the ease of focus on an organisation to understand the full context of change that has taken place. According to Flick (2013), case study allows for a process under study to be captured in a detailed and exact manner. This in the context of MAC is a relevant aid in understanding the process of change in the case study organisation. Particularly, Yin (2014) suggests case study research provides in-depth understanding and answers to why and how research questions. Adams *et al.* (2010) for instance argue that case study is useful where the researcher has little control over events. or the research focus is on contemporary events occurring within a real life context such as the present case study organisation THE BANK plc.

Yin (2014) classifies case study as exploratory, especially when it is aimed at defining questions, a hypothesis or the feasibility of a thing; or as descriptive research when the aim is to describe a phenomenon in the natural occurring context. Explanatory case study research also viewed as an investigative case study aimed at establishing cause and effect where an attempt is made to understand a phenomenon in a natural occurring setting (Hubber and Van der Sten, 1999; Pettigrew, 1990). Case studies are appropriate to understand changes in MA as these changes take place over a long period of time, thus allowing for how the organisational actors interact with change factors, agents and actors. Similarly, there exists a common theme in the definition of case study that tallies with the present study, the focus on change (a single phenomenon and how that is affected within a single organisation).

In selecting the choice of case study there is an added flexibility offered to allow multiple constructions of alternate interpretations in line with collated data, until a point of achieving a faithful account in light of the collated data. Adam *et al*. (2010) suggest there is a need for close contact with research subjects to facilitate personal understanding of research subject realities.

Although several authors (Denzin and Guba, 1994; Flick, 2013; Yin 2014) criticise case study for a perceived lack of generalisation of result findings, the proposed study accounts for this by the stated objectives which seek to understand change only from the perspective of a single case study organisation. On this note, Suleiman (2000) argues that the case study is prone to the "observer effect" which may arise if the researcher is involved over a long period of time. The observer effect is defined by Yin (2014) as a research unit doing things differently once the researcher is present or once they notice the researcher is interested in a particular activity. This study however considers this by the use of a longitudinal study to enable a comparison between previous practices against current practice in THE BANK plc, the case study organisation.

The MA literatures provides evidence of prior use of case studies in the banking industry to explore MA practices, for instance Soin *et al.* (2002) adopting a Burns and Scapens' (2000) case-study approach to interpret the role of MA in organisational change in a UK-based multinational bank.

In a similar vein, the present study adopts a historical case study analysis with observation of the present process, as past experiences are partly re-constructed through accounts of key players in the organisation. Although Patten (2002) suggests this process has been observed to be prone to subjectivity of the researcher or the respondents where in some instances personal perceptions of the researcher or interviewee influences response, this study as suggested by Flick (2002) will rely on triangulation of data sources and methods. In this instance, archival data and documentary analysis will be used to verify results and responses obtained from interviews and observation sessions of the selected case study firm.

It is pertinent to state at this stage that while a pilot study may yield additional insights to the study, it was initially deemed unnecessary given the researcher's prior employment with the case study organisation. It was believed that a prior knowledge and understanding of the case study organisation's system is sufficient for the purpose of achieving the current research objectives. Rather, a choice was made to divide the data collection to just two phases: initial data collection and main data collection. However, in the process of conducting the first sets of interviews, respondents struggled with the interview protocol hence the initial data collection phase ended up as a pilot phase. Subsequently, an initial data collection period was designed in addition to a main data collection phase.

The choice of case study allows a researcher to deal with multiple sources of evidence (as proposed in the research collection methods), while also being amenable to explaining the process of MAC in organisations and how these changes affect participants within the organisation. This does not only allow an identification of process weakness and reporting, it facilitates an examination and analysis of a phenomenon such as change in a socio-political context and how these individual interpretations impact on the research questions.

In a similar vein, where there is a need to consider the historical context and nature of an organisation there is a need to "seek the implications or relationships of events from the past and their connections to the present" (Berg 2001:212); this as a method enables collaboration of accounts even though respondents may or may not know each other. The use of case study thus protects the research from subjective accounts of respondents or institutional actors.

6.4 Research design

As earlier stated, the research is a longitudinal case study between 1978 and 2015 based on the following reasons: the choice of a longitudinal research gives unique consideration to economic, social, organisational and historical contexts in which the research phenomena developed (Otley and Berry, 1994; Banache, 1999; Scapens, 2004). This helps address the shortage of research into how and what processes evolve during periods of MAS change by highlighting the long-term process of MAS change.

The choice of THE BANK is influenced by the bank's suitability for research analysis of the impact of external and internal factors affecting MAC, as the bank has experienced various forms of change over the selected period. The bank thus presents elements and attributes the study seeks to explore. Some of these include changes in government regulation, organisational culture, interplay of power, politics, conflicts, attitudes, and behaviour. While Tsamenyi *et al.* (2006) suggest that these factors are difficult to quantify, it is believed that an in-depth study will reveal the influence of these factors in the site of study. The bank's choice thus represents a "particular revelatory" case (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007) supporting the exploration of the change process.

As suggested by Scapens (1994), the use of longitudinal studies in MA research allows a holistic approach to the study of change process. The choice of longitudinal case study tallies with the desire to obtain an in-depth understanding of MAS change process over a longer time frame. Longitudinal study supports data findings by using multiple sources to provide evidence of MAS process change over a long period (Yin 2014; Scapens, 1990; Bryman, 2012).

The longitudinal case study adopted tallies with the method proposed by Quinn (2014), which follows Bryman's (2011) suggestion that studies can introduce longitudinal elements by comparing data obtained through use of archival data. They argue that should a researcher not be present, he can use data triangulation as evidence in conjunction with the respondent's account at the time of the event occurring. Blazejewski (2011) suggests that this can be supported by multiple data sources to yield a balanced and fair account of what transpired. The use of retrospective data collection allows the research to overcome the difference between case time and research time, as identified by Blazejewski (2011). Neale and Flowerdew(2003) also support this position by positing retrospective longitudinal studies as a form of qualitative longitudinal research alongside aspects such as a longitudinal perspective, retrospective and follow up studies, historical moments and generational studies. The present study is best classed as a retrospective longitudinal study. The choice of a retrospective longitudinal study is informed by how it is generating rich textual data about organisations and linked lives, using a range of data collection methods such as interviews and narrative methods. By so designing the study, the study helps discern social practices, subjective experiences, identities, beliefs and emotional values by deriving meaning from complex change situations (Neale and Flowerdew 2003; Flowerdew *et al.,* 2015). When considered in light of the research objectives, qualitative research also provides exploratory and explanatory knowledge by providing details of why and how questions. Neale and Flowerdew (2015) contend that retrospective longitudinal studies illuminate micro processes, cause and costs of change in a social setting.

The use of longitudinal study also supports the study of institutional change (Dacin *et al*., 2004; Zilber, 2002), as used by several prior researchers (Cobb *et al.,* 1995; Dent, 1991; Granlund, 1998, 2001; Quinn, 2013; Scapens and Roberts, 1990, 1993). Specifically, Cobb *et al.* (1995) utilised a longitudinal study to examine change forces in MASs; and in a similar context of UK banks, Helliar (2002) examines changes in profit measurement and overhead allocation, product group profitability, customer profitability, budgeting and performance measurement but with a focus on cost allocation processes over a time period of seven years.

While the choice of longitudinal studies is subject to the risk of loss of respondent's potential participants, the use of other sources of data collection (data triangulation) and the use of past and current periods as the scope of study helps mitigate the risk of losing respondents and provides the research an option of using other data sources (Payne, 2004).

As with other research design forms, longitudinal studies are prone to respondents modifying behaviour in line with the nature of research enquiry. This is however reduced in the present research by the use of data triangulation to verify respondents' behaviour during the process of observation, or when questions related to the review period are being asked, or through not placing an overreliance on actors' memories and accounts of events.

6.5 Data collection methods

The choice of data collection method for the study is influenced by the suggestion of Ryan *et al.* (2002) on the need to obtain data from multiple sources (data triangulation) on the same research issue, collecting other evidence from the same source to obtain contextual validity as proposed by Scapens (2004)[16]. In a general sense, triangulation is a term used to describe the deployment of multiple theories and/or research methods. Yin (2014), defines triangulation as the "convergence of data collected from several sources, to determine the consistency of a finding" through a combination of numerous strategies in the study of the same phenomena. Triangulation could take many forms, such as theoretical triangulation, data triangulation or investigator triangulation (Hoque *et al*., 2013; Hopper and Hoque, 2006; Yin 2014).

This study's methodology is designed to respond to Lounsbury's (2008) call for an analysis of organisational practices through multiple lenses and methodological pluralism (Hoque *et al*., 2013; Arena *et al.,* 2010). Furthermore, given the in-depth nature of the study with the need for complex and sometimes technical information, the study similarly adopts snowballing sampling techniques to select interview respondents. Yin (2014) identifies six main sources of data sources for a case study based research: interviews, archival records, documents,

[16] Scapens (2004) proposes that in interpretive research, validity can only be assessed in terms of the context of particular cases using previously developed theories to explain current research findings.

participant direct observation, participant observation and physical artefacts[17]. As noted, the study adopts a data triangulation method to improve the research construct validity. This is supported by Arksey and Knight (1999) and Douglas and Howcroft (2006) who suggest that data triangulation provides a means of research "completeness and confirmation". Thus, the research adopts semi-structured interviews as the primary data source, while participant observation and documentary analysis will serve as secondary sources of data; a method which follows similar studies adopted by Lukka (2007) and Wanderely and Cullen (2011) in related management research.

6.6.1 Semi-structured interview

In the field of qualitative research, interviews represent a commonly used method of research data collection; Bryman (2011) suggests this is largely due to its flexibility and amenability to varied research contexts. Bryman (2011) identifies structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews, and for the purpose of this study semi-structured face-to-face interviews will be adopted using the interview guide developed (in appendix Ai and Aii) to shape the conversation with respondents.

The use of interviews represents the source of data for the research. The majority of those people interviewed are members of the organisation who have occupied or are occupying positions in areas that influence, affect, are affected by or use the MAS. These areas include strategy, finance, human resources, financial control, internal control and risk management (see appendixCi for a detailed listing of position and experience of respondents).

A main advantage of the semi-structured interview is the additional flexibility to pursue areas of interest observed from interviewees' responses, while also providing a suitable structure to

[17] Benefit and limitation of each approach is provided in appendix 6.5

prevent interviewees wandering to unrelated areas. For the case study organisation, semi-structured interviews allow for a good understanding of interviewee responses. For instance, where an interviewee response appears to address themes related to the research questions, further follow up questions will be asked to clarify further their thought. In other instances, where there is a need to clarify responses after the interviews have been conducted, the subsequent follow up relied on the use of email and telephone to further gather and refine these thoughts. This method has been adopted by previous researchers (Bryman 2011; Bryman *et al.,* 2008; Irvine *et al.,* 2010; Struges and Hanrahan, 2004; Semple *et al.,* 2007), who suggest no significant difference exists between interviews conducted face-to-face and those conducted over the phone or via email. While this approach may suffer from some loss of body language observation, the impact on the research data is minimised by the initial use of face-to-face interview for data collection.

The choice of interview however raises the risk that some key actors might have left the organisation or in some other instances have been unwilling to participate in the research. While the interview data source will form the major bulk of collated data, it will be complemented by direct observation and archival data to provide missing links and toverify respondents accounts. Hence, research interviewees were drawn from functional areas of the subsidiaries as well as the parent company of the case study organisation, following the model of data triangulation.

For this research, interviews were recorded and transcribed with copies sent to each of the interviewees to confirm they are accurate representation of the conversations were participant anonymity was requested, this process was not carried out to ensure complete annonimity. Also, the selection of interview respondents was through the use of snowballing techniques as adopted by Beardsworth and Keil (1992) and Noy (2008). In addition, interviewees are ideally deeply involved in MA functions or processes or have been partly involved, or use the products of the management account change process. To prepare for the interview process, a sample of interview questions, introduction and invitation to the respondents was sent to prepare them for the interview and also reduce the "interviewer effect" (Hammersley, 2008).

The choice and use of semi-structured interview is to explore themes that have emerged from previous MAS research, explore understanding of MAS change practices and factors influencing MAS change. The purpose at the initial stage is to obtain a view of interviewees' understanding of MAS evolution in the case study organisation. As this study relies on the respondents' recollection of key events and processes in the organisation, a choice of semi structured interview allows for the use of probing and open-ended questions that allow the exploration of how a process evolves through the use of "How" questions to reveal the respondents' understanding while providing a basis for systemic comparison of interviewees responses (Saunders *et al.,* 2009; Bryman, 2013; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008).

6.6.2 Archival documents

The present research will collate archival documents such as financial reports, budgets, environmental reports, cost forecasts and performance review reports which was collated and analysed in order to understand how they have transformed over the years, and the relationship of these key documents with changes occurring in the external regulatory change factors and internal factors. Official documents presenting and communicating the adoption of new MA tools, systems and practices was requested to understand the aims and motivations behind system change, and how this is communicated within the case study organisation.

Other documents proposed to be reviewed include organisational meeting notes detailing reactions to change proposals in order to understand reactions to system changes. This was structured in line with Quinn (2013) and Flowerdew (2008[ii]), and other similar studies that have utilised historical and archival data in this manner (Jackson *et al*., 2012; Robertson and

Funnell 2012; O'Regan, 2010; Billings and Capie, 2004; Uche, 1998 and Amat 1994). Billings and Capie (2004) for instance adopted the use of archival analysis to explore the development and limitations of MA practices in a UK bank. Quinn and Jackson (2014) adopted the use of archival data in the Guinness brewery to establish the nature of MA practices change during the First World War. Quinn (2014) adopted the same method for examining stock-keeping and costing methods at Guinness brewery over three centuries. Within the realm of MA research, Hiebl *et al.* (2015) also examined archival data on the role of chief accountants in an Irish manufacturing firm over a period of twenty years. Both studies demonstrate the use of archival data to establish rules and routines in MA research.

For the purposes of the present study, the criteria proposed by Quinn and Jackson (2014) are adopted to assess the quality of archival data. Quinn and Jackson (2014) suggest a four stage criteria of authenticity, credibility, representativeness and meaning (see table below).

Table 5 Quinn 2014 criteria for assessing archival data

Criteria	Application to case study Organisation
Authenticity: genuine and of unquestionable quality.	Documents can be verified as belonging to the company and relate to its official business.
Credibility: free from error and misstatement.	Internal documents board memorandum and AGM reports and financial statements. Regulatory compliance reports and status reports.
Representativeness: is the evidence typical of its kind in the organisation or industry.	This is applicable to documents related to specific events and change projects within the organisation.
Meaning: is the evidence clear and understandable.	The form of documents in most cases were typed printed email correspondence or printed manuals. Most documents made available were well presented and adequately cross-referenced.

(Adapted from Quinn [2014]; Quinn and Jackson [2014])

6.5.1 Participant observation

This represents a widely-used data collection technique irrespective of individual researchers' methodological or philosophical approach (Haralambos and Holborn, 2013; Bryman, 2012). In the context of change and institutional studies, Smets *et al*. (2012) suggest it is suitable for studies at the micro level of the organisation as it allows for a focus on individual actors, and generates unique insights into minute details of work, processes, behavioural patterns and individual subjective experiences. Specifically, Zilber (2002) states, "observations capture behavioural patterns but also subjective experiences of organisational reality and the ongoing negotiations between members and subgroups over the interpretations and understanding of this reality" (Zilber, 2002:237).

Haralambos and Holborn (2013) suggest that participant observation should not be confined to any particular methodological approach. For the participant observation to be ethically compliant, there is a need for the observer to obtain the consent of those to be observed beforehand. Although two main forms of participant observations exist (Bryman [2012] identifies these as covert and overt observation)[18], this study will adopt the overt participant approach given the fact that this tallies with the desire of the university to carry out only ethically compliant research. Bryman (2013) further posits that participant observation is a data collection method easily amenable to diverse theoretical perspectives. In other instances, where the possibility of a participant observation is not possible, an overt observation data collection method was adopted to gather data.

While the adoption of the participant observation makes the study susceptible to the bias of the researcher's interpretation of events, routines, and understanding of reality, the use of other data collection methods will account for this by providing a means of verifying data collected from the participant observation stage.

Participant observation is prone however to researcher detachment given the fact that a researcher may lack expertise or understanding of discussions, routines, and actions of actors in the organisation. This does not apply in this instance, given the researcher's prior employment within the case study organisation and understanding of the MA and banking systems in operation.

The choice of participant observation is informed given its ability to provide a "first hand picture" of the actions and life of actors within the organisation, thus preventing the

[18] Bryman (2012) identifies two main types of participant observation i.e. covert where the researcher fails to disclose his intent and identity which gives the researcher opportunity to observe first-hand the actions of the researcher 2013, without modification of the researched unit's behaviour. Although this has been found to be unethical (Bryman, 2013), Brotsky and Giles (2007) have argued this is required where in the overall public interest a study of high-risk subjects is necessary to better understand an emerging problem(s). Overt participant observation entails the researcher disclosing beforehand his intent and obtaining the observed research subject's consent prior to commencing his research data collection or interaction with the object.

researcher's imposition of his reality on the research object. Similarly, the participant observation prevents misleading the researcher as can happen with other methods, as it provides a means of validating data obtained from the interview as a data collection method. The process of observation as noted earlier reduces the risk of overreliance on the actors' account of events.

Participant observation similarly provides a means for understanding research subjects from a subjective point of view. It is a data collection method limited in the instances it can be used and is subject to a limitation of the observed research subject behaving differently around the researcher. The choice of participant observation is however prone to a time-consuming limitation to small groups at a point in time. The fear and risk of committing illegal activities or manipulating research objects does not come into play in the current research, as research consent was sought and research was limited to publicly available documents and activities of the bank.

The participant observation studies in most cases cannot be replicated as they are unique to individual studies, as the researcher tends to be selective in terms of data collected. This is similarly adjusted for interview, as similarly adopted by Walsh (2012). To Yin (2014), the use of participant observation enables an articulation of obtained information based on the researcher's prior knowledge of organisational case study, which supports an understanding of the research phenomenon.

6.6 Case study history

The selected case study presents the following notable issues for MA and organisational study change research. It is a family business that has been transformed to a public limited company and a group organisation. The company has gone through an era of market deregulation to include recapitalisation, change in business operating model, growth by merger, acquisition and diversification (Annual report, 2013).

Similarly, the company has diversified its subsidiaries operations by commencing operations in foreign countries. This positions the case study as a unique company that started off as a one-man business to a multinational financial institution, thus providing a suitable location for analysis of the process of MAC at varied levels, periods and situations of organisational changes.

Access opportunity represents another justification for the choice of the case study, as access was facilitated the researcher based on his previous employment and informal relationship with colleagues within the group. The access negotiated includes participant observation, semi-structured interviews (or structured interviews where this is preferred by key stakeholders or where a semi-structured interview is impractical) with select current and former management staff, heads of key units such as administration, human resources, internal control and information technology, and also some previous senior management staff now serving as executive consultants to the bank.

The choice of case study organisation was determined by the varied forms of change, some as a consequence of changes in the case study group's operating environment, others internal to the organisation aimed at ensuring organisational efficiency. Choosing a thirty-year period as the basis of the research enables an in-depth study to reveal the historical and organisational context of the organisation and how it has evolved over the years. It provides additional insights to how specific change projects have performed in organisations and how the role of organisational actors has influenced the process of organisational change. This is in response to Scapens' (1990) recommendation that theory is not an attempt to generalise but to explain a specific phenomenon in detail within the context of the case study organisation.

The case presents an opportunity to extend existing use of institutional theories in MA research. Prior research in MA utilise multinational corporations based in developed countries (Scapens, 2004; Wanderley and Cullen, 2012).

6.7 Justification of research design

The choice of the research design was influenced by the need to understand the dynamics (political, economic, social and cultural) of change in the MASs and practices over the time period highlighted to reflect the unique process experienced in the selected case study organisation. The study adopts an interpretive case study as its research method because it can provide a rich description of the social, cultural, and political contexts (Scapens, 2004, 2006; Baxter, Boedker *et al.*, 2008; Scapens, 2008). The role of case studies in the interpretive approach, which is based upon a belief that MA practices are socially constructed, is to locate practice in its historical context, as well as its economic, social and organisational contexts and thus to better understand the social structures that shape current practices. In this regard, this study adopts an explanatory case study research to analyse the process of MA in a specific organisation.

Following the objectives of the study and a choice of interpretive research as a more suitable means of extending existing theory on MAC, the choice of the case study organisation is influenced by the need to select an organisation to extend and modify existing theories on MAC. As noted by Scapens, (2004:262) "the research questions together with the theoretical framework that underpins the research will define the characteristics of the case to be studied and the writer should attempt to select cases that display these characteristics". The choice of CASE STUDY is borne out of the presence of the characteristics that support a detailed exploration of the process of MAC and possible modification(s) to existing knowledge on institutional theory in MA research.

The selected case study organisation represents a different setting from those previously examined in MAC research in terms of location, the nature of change and the industry. The main reason for selecting the case study organisation is therefore the close fit between the research objective which is to explore the process of change in MASs and how institutional factors (both internal and external) shape the process of change. Similarly, the choice of an organisation from an emerging economy will provide greater insight to existing knowledge on MA and the process of change within these countries.

The choice of the banking industry as the research area is influenced by the role played by banks in facilitating economic development in national economies. Van der Steede (2011) argues that banks, in addition to their traditional role of financial intermediation, assist governments of emerging economy to implement economic policies and reform programmes. Hence, to achieve the objective of this research, the study adopts a case study of Nigeria's banking sector, which provides an ideal setting for several reasons. Firstly, although changes in business and the drive for corporate efficiency has affected all sectors, banks have struggled with the associated challenges involved in complying with these norms (Euske & Riccaboni, 1999; Soin & Scheytt, 2008).

Furthermore, adopting the suggestions of Van der Steen (2011), there is a shortage of case studies on the nature and functioning of MAS within banks. Therefore, the banking sector and in particular the selected case study supports the exploration processes of MAS change over an extended period of time. Moreover, MAS within banks has been strongly affected by the evolution of external regulations and influences; these factors facilitate a closer examination of the main external and internal pressures for change and their evolution over time (Jack and Mundy, 2008). Also, Buchanan and Dawson (2007) provide further refinement to this view by suggesting change can be viewed as a multi-stage process requiring further research through case studies. Finally, MAS within banks is acknowledged as being an integral part of their core business (Deloitte, 2009), and hence is more likely to become embedded into internal dynamics of change.

Selecting Nigeria's banking industry was influenced by the complex and evolving financial market which requires compliance with an evolving stream of regulations which banks are required to comply with, which in most cases has had a significant impact on existing MA systems. This study is hinged on the belief that a study of the banking system will facilitate an understanding of and yield research evidence to assist in providing answers to the stated research questions, and achieve the proposed research objectives, while adding to an emerging body of knowledge in MAC. Finally, the choice of the case study organisation is influenced by its position in the global banking industry (see attached table for details in chapter seven). Another justification supporting the choice stems from familiarity with banking operations, ease of access and understanding of banking processes. This case presents a potential solution to the problem of a poor link between practice and MA accounting research as advocated by Bladvinsdottir *et al.* (2010), who suggest that poor links exist between practice and MA research findings. This provides a means of filling the gap by providing a mix of academic research and practice, which, as presented by Bogts and Scapens (2012), is not common in MA research. The choice of a case study also provides an accommodation of the "polyvocal narratives" of change and a movement from analytical forces on to dominant forces of change but from a varied view-point, allowing various groups and individuals in a change environment to express their views and contribute towards the research process.

While this may confer an advantage in terms of data gathering and analysis, it further increases the risk posed of subjectivity and reliance on personal interpretation of the researcher. For the purposes of this research this is however addressed through the use of interviews and documentary analysis to support personal and respondents' views. Similarly, all analysis and interpretation drawn from interviews was discussed with key stakeholders to ensure they are a true reflection of respondents' views.

Baldvinsdottir *et al.* (2010) lament the lack of a link between research and practice of MA. Banking represents one of the few areas where accounting researchers could potentially act as researchers and practitioners. In this context, to achieve the aims of the study, longitudinal studies are needed to investigate the dynamics of MAS and identify the drivers that affect its implementation over time (Mikes, 2009). With the aim of exploring MAS change, the study adopts a longitudinal interpretive case study (Scapens, 2004). According to Pettigrew (1990), longitudinal studies provide an opportunity to study change from both vertical (i.e., considering interdependencies between different levels of analysis of phenomena) and horizontal (i.e., by exploring sequential interconnectedness among phenomena over time) perspectives. This approach is therefore particularly suited, as it allows an exploration of MAS change by looking at the interplay between external pressures and intra-organisational dynamics of change (vertical perspective) and how this interplay evolves over time (horizontal perspective) to revel processual details about MAS practices.

Importantly, to overcome the limitations of using retrospective data to reconstruct the past (Bryman, 2012; Golden, 1992), this study triangulated the data collected from the interviews with different informants and verified most of the subjective interpretations through documentary data, which strengthened the credibility of the analysis following suggestions by Flick (2009).

Throughout the whole research period, the interviews were conducted with headquarters staff of or selected regional officers face-to-face,telephone or via Skype interview for the pilot study. The informants represented different roles (e.g. risk experts, management accountants, members, those from internal auditing areas, top management, consultants, regulators and external stakeholders as shareholders and trade union officials), and were typically selected for their key positions in the change process (Pettigrew, 1990; Broadbent *et al.*, 2008;) or for the effects that the change process had on their work. In most cases, each informant was interviewed more than once. They were asked very similar questions on main research topics (company background, changes in MAS, impact of change, influences, role of power blocs and resistance to change) in order to acquire different perspectives on the same issues (Cardinal, Sitkin, & Long, 2004), which they were encouraged to discuss freely (McKinnon, 1988). Most of the interviews was designed to last between one and a half hour to two hours and were recorded, transcribed and stored as electronic files in Microsoft word before being imported to NVIVO for analysis coding and data organisation. The use of NVIVO is posited to facilitate easier data organisation and generation of themes from collated data. Khadaroo (2014) suggests the use of NVIVO as a tool to compare and draw data from a single database for analysis during research. For the purpose of the study the text search function of NVIVO was used to search for key text and key phrases within the literature and respondents comments. Where the obtained search appeared lengthy, the search process is repeated with adjustment made to the word match level to exclude closely related items.

To ensure that the views of respondents remain anonymous, a portion of interview quotations attributable to interviewees was reported to prevent a possible link of certain quotations to specific interviewees. Specific steps taken to protect the anonymity of the interviewees are detailed below. Interviewees are referred to as respondents with no numbering, while departments are referred to as departments or units without reference to distinguishing (although reference was made to broad divisional job areas), whilst no traceable reference was made to the specific job title of respondents of their respective branch location or job description. Where information is deemed to be sensitive, it was referred to by means of pseudonym while paraphrasing responses was done only where the respondents express specific concerns for their personal safety and or job security.[19] For direct quotes from publicly held information this is refered to as PH with a source provided to support the quote.

For a respondent's view to be selected as a quote, it will represent a commonly held view that clarifies existing understanding of MAS change process and the research question. As stated, all interviews will be collaborated with the literature review and documentary data to improve on the research validity together with other data sources, i.e. interviews, documentary analysis and the researcher's own observation.

6.7.1 Generalisation of findings

Given the perceived weakness of the case study method, especially relating to generalisations of research findings beyond the specific case study, it is argued that case study research can rarely be replicated in other research settings (Bryman, 2013; Ryan, 2002). It is thus believed case study research adopts a trade-off of depth and insight for a loss of generalisation.

The notion of generalisation appears however to be based on the qualitative and positivistic approach to research where research is perceived as being objective and bias free, or that reality itself is objective and can be repeated for similar phenomena in different contexts. This view is at variance with the interpretive approach which assumes that reality is socially constructed and reconstructed by various actors; thus the need to understand each social construction as a separate phenomenon which requires further insight than to adopt a generalisation of research findings.

Given the interpretative nature of the study, the logic of replication appears irrelevant and inapplicable as the aim of the research includes an attempt to explore and understand the process of MAS change. As the meaning of change is temporal and varies across situations, an

[19] In seven instances with respondents (two at the pilot study phase and five at main study) where such concerns was expressed, informal discussion (with notes documentation) was conducted

application of the logic of replication is difficult except in instances where generalisation is in the process or procedures adopted and not in a generalisation of research results based on findings from the case study.

However, in spite of the perceived limitation of generalisations of these research findings, it is possible for new knowledge and insight to be created from the specific examples of the case study or based on the interpretative philosophy underpinning this study. Flyvbjerg (2001:75) for instance argues that formal generalisations are one of several means of creating or accumulating knowledge. Specifically, Flyvbjerg (2001:75) states:

> *Formal generalisation is one of the several ways by which people create and accumulate knowledge. That knowledge cannot be formally generalised does not mean it cannot enter into the collective process of knowledge accumulation in a given field or society.*

The study research design follows the assumption that findings from a specific study can be used to extend current theories and understanding within the broad area of MAC research while also seeking theoretical and analytical generalisations as proposed by Scapens (2004), and Yin (2014). While the focus of the study is on one single case study organisation, the choice of a single case allows for the discovery of new theoretical relationships while also providing a platform for questioning old theoretical relationships and findings (Dyer and Wilkins, 1991).

While it can be argued that research designed on a case study limits external comparisons, the choice of the particular case study facilitates a comparison amongst subsidiary organisations (which can also be classed as fully-fledged but embedded organisations), or, as argued by Yin (2014) mini cases or multiple levels and units of analysis. Hence for the purposes of this study, a use of case study analysis will facilitate an exploration of the system and process of MAS adoption, which is considered an embedded process within an organisation (Burns and Scapens, 2000).

6.8 Methodological approaches to interpretive studies

Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) presents a methodological insight for choice of tools in examining institutional process of change. They suggest a use of tools classified as

Interpretive; Historical; Dialectical methods and multi variate approach (MVA). They argue each of these methods suits a varied set of perception of the process of change as identified by themes or trends of research are best suited for a particular type of change. Where institutional change is conceived as a shift 'in taken for granted' assumptions or views of the world is best suited for interpretative methods; where change is perceived as a complex phenomenon with multiple political and economic pressures is best addressed by a use of historical methods.

On the other hand, where change is classed as a conflict of ideology, a use of dialectical methods is posited as suitable for examining such change process. This view calls for varied and pluralistic methods in studying institutional change as this reveals different aspects of relationships between institutions and organisation. Thus, pluralistic techniques capture a more holistic and balanced understanding of institutional change.

This study follows a suggestion that balanced studies requires the use of at least two of four epistemologies of institutional change[20] Similarly, a choice of longitudinal research allows findings to emerge following from an extended time period of observation and data analysis covered by this study, while flexibility of the research design allows for acceptance or repudiation of facts as evidence emerges from the study. Theoretical pluralism, as suggested by Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) advocate elements of methodological pluralism to examine

[20] Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) suggests the use of historical and narrative approaches can help reveal nonlinear and cumulative casual effects.

the process and phenomenological elements of institutional change which incorporates elements of interpretive historical and dialectical explanations.

6.8.1 Multivariate methodological approach

Multivariate methodological approach examines institutional change through the use of casual analysis of independent variables (Van de ven and Poole 2005:1387). Multivariate analysis is based on the notion that the position of an organisation over time is fixed and consistent with a stable orientation that can be studied as organisations change by altering existing organisational context (Sudabby and Greenwood 2009) suggest the multi variate method as assumes the relationship between context and institutional outcome are "unitary and linear in nature but which ignores however the time ordering of events.

In terms of epistemology the multivariate approach is argued by Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) as largely influenced by a positivistic epistemology. Arguing further, they stated the distinction between the technical and institutional environment is a social construct and a set of institutionalised assumptions within the case study organisation.

Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) classify other methods as largely qualitative in nature and attempts to understand institutions as "emergent clusters of interactions among and between social actors." A potential limitation of multivariate method is an apparent failure to address issues of motivations and process of change within organisations.

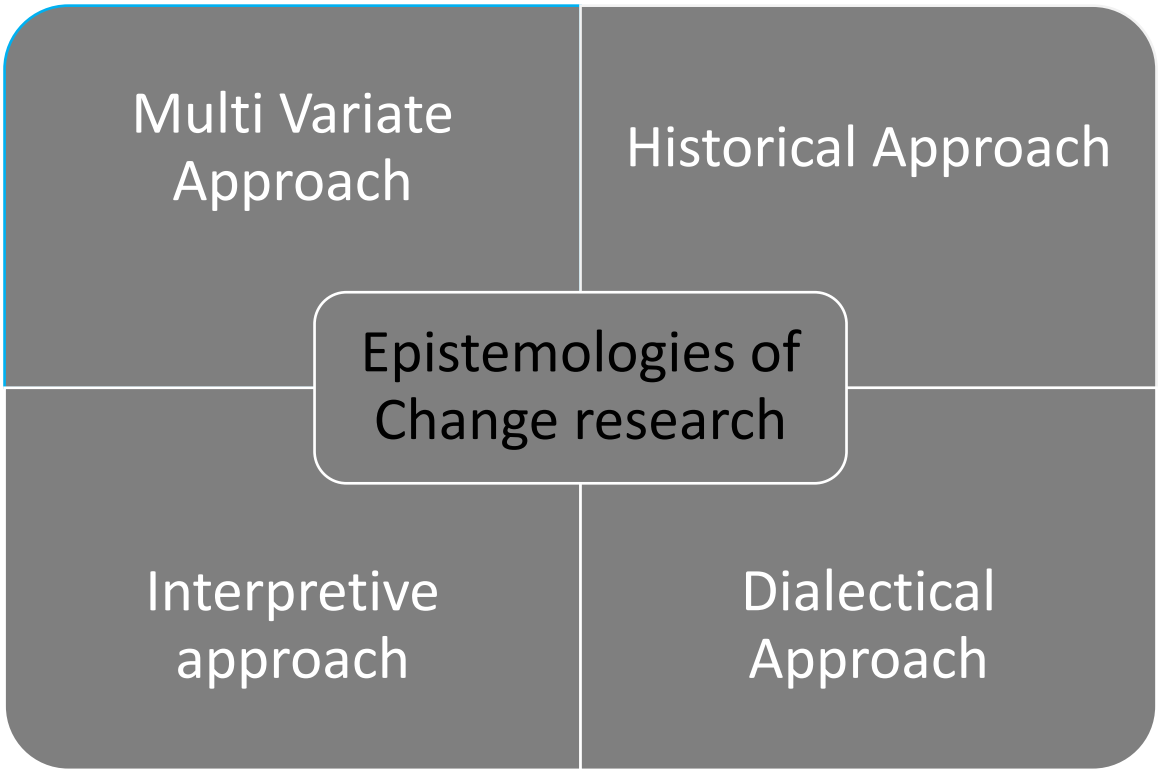


Figure 4 Epistemologies of change reseaerch Suddaby and Greenwood (2009)

Suddaby and Greenwood (2009) supports an adoption of historical studies in demonstrating how motive influencing reconstructing organisational templates can be retrospectively reconstructed. Studies that have adopted historical analysis to reconstruct organisational history includes Rowlinson and Hassard (1993). Sudabby and Greenwood (2009), suggests a mix of approaches and methods that facilitates a discovery of new insight in institutional change research as opposed to emphasis on existing and dominant views of institutional change. Adopting multiple methods also presents broader answers to a range of questions on institutional change. For instance, Zilber (2009), suggests the possibility of large scale shift in meaning and interpretations adduced to practice remaining constant over time. Where shift occurs but practice remains the same it is classed as symbolic change which is difficult to detect by a single methodological approach.

6.8.2 Interpretive Approach

While the second most dominant approach to the study of institutionalisation within the organisation they are the first to be adopted with the study of organisational institutionalisation (Scott 2011, Sudabby and Greenwood 2009). The choice of the interpretive approach is subjective in nature and concentrates on the organisational actors and the process of change. Thus, in line with the study's objective of understanding the influence of subjective experiences on social roles routine and patterns of interaction. Suddabby and Greenwood (2009) allude interpretive methods facilitates a close attention to ways actors make sense of institutionalised practices. In OIE, Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) suggest organisational change is predicated on how actors interpret organisational values in light of broader societal commitments or even attempts at gaining legitimacy while also been influenced by how routines and patterns become typified so as to appear objective.

The interpretative approach indicates this is a change in meaning understanding and values operated within an organisation This study thus adopts the definition of Donaldson (1995:2) conception of organisational structure as

> *"...a set of relationship between people in an organisation between people in an organisation including the authority relations and control systems including the informal systems".*

Economic terms fail to explain mechanisms and dynamics of change institutional theories posit that organisations in the process of change are subject not only to economic pressures but also social and cultural pressures arising from interactive interaction between the organisation and the environment within which it operates. As opposed to the rational argument of efficiency, as the purpose of MAS change, the study suggests the influence of environment results in organisation acting in sometimes irrational ways but consistent with organisational rules norms and ideologies. Greenwood et al., 2009 (4-5) define institutions as: *"more or less taken for granted repetitive social behaviours that is underpinned by normative systems and cognitive understanding that give meaning to social exchange and thus enabling social order"* Current trend in institutional research entails a deeper understanding of the process by which change evolves, understanding the process and how underlying institutions evolve and change.

Similarly, institutional theory supports an unbundling of the influences of institutional influences (internal and external) within organisational change process but with minimal interaction of the methods by which the effects or outcomes of the institutional processes. Suddaby and Greenwood (2009) identify institutional change as predicated on shift in values means and norms by observing subjective elements of the organisational institutional pressures of the organisation and how they are subjectively perceived.

Suddaby and Greenwood (2009) suggests routines and institutional practices are revealed at time periods of crises in the form of unexpected business change or market pressures when businesses face the "unexpected as well as the routine". They posit use of extended case technique as a core dialectical technique in conjunction with reflective or hermeutic techniques which taps into micro cultural phenomena by use of micro level data within the organisation i.e. more of every day interpretations experiences and practices of individuals. Data in such cases is extrapolated using narrative interviews in which informants are encouraged to reflect on macro social forces that shape organisational behaviour (Suddaby and Greenwood, 2009). Thus by adopting extended case study method as with the objective of this study does not seek to generate new theories by aggregating from multiple observations; rather it seeks to extend existing theories by "abstracting" a single data point or local knowledge of the organisation into situational knowledge (Suddaby and Greenwood,2009:187)

6.8.3 Historical approach

The study considers an organisation as a product of complex interaction and outcome of complex phenomena. Historical view aims to generate ideas on stage of continuity diversity and change by analysing how historical conditions result in varied institutional and organisational arrangements (Sudabby and Greenwood 2009) common methods adopted in historical interpretive studies include archival, documentation, retrospective analysis and interpretation to understand the process by which institutions emerge, self-maintain and in some instances, erode.

In arguing for a processual view of institutional change Seo and Creed (2002) supports the notion of path dependency i.e. range of present choice and present-day actors is shaped and limited by past events. This view supports Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) notion of institutional arrangements as socially constructed ensuring that “own capture” is avoided by existing organisational logic. Thus “it is only by looking back in time that the present taken for granted social and organisational arrangements are identified actually as historically contingent arrangements” (Sudabby and Greenwood 2009) Thus the study’s use of historical based approach lends credence to the use of time and contextual view of organisation as non-concrete phenomenon which can be best examined as historically contingent processes

When compared to the multivariate analysis consideration of organisational arrangements such as MAS that considers organisations as fixed entities with distinct attributes that are of universal applicability. While stochastic analysis and explanation of change is associated with multivariate analysis. MVA assumes that change is dependent on contingent external events characterised by random and independent events. In the process an extended time frame study of change the role of peripheral actors in the process of change is brought to the fore. Specifically, an extended study approach explores the role of actors in shaping the path dependent evolution of an organisational field. The use of historical analysis helps overcome barriers to interpreting institutions

The perceived benefits notwithstanding, historical research suffers a major limitation in period and time location for the study. For this study, start and end date is adopted as the formation date of the group to the last financial year end based on published financial statement. The use of retrospective interview and archival data to support interviews process presents a significant challenge as this technique relies on “imperfect or self-constructed accounts and or recollections of actors”. For the present study, this potential limitation was addressed using both data and methodological triangulation.

6.8.4 Dialectical approach

Dialectical approach considers the society as a manifestation of power relationship within organisations. Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) consider the process of institutionalisation and how silenced voices in organisational change are allowed access to voice divergent opinion silenced by existing power and political structures within organisations. Dialectic techniques offer a means of overcoming the dilemma of objectivity experienced in exploring the institutional change process in MA studies. The dialectic approach of extended case study proposed by Seo and Creed (2002) when combined with an interpretative method yields insight to periods of unrests and disruption, contradiction and power of institutional structure or as actors reveal themselves Suddaby and Greenwood,2009;187) Hence, the narratives presented by respondents helped reveal the effects of institutionalisation. Archival records provide evidence of the process by which institutions “sediment over” conflicts and struggles this follows the belief that organisational culture consists of “contested ascents” made up of codified routines and practices that can be studied by text and observation.

6.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents the methodological issues considered and followed in exploring the MAS change process in the case study bank. It also provides the link with the theoretical framework chapter. The chapter commences with an overview of quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approaches to MA research, followed by the methodological issues relating to the study. Based on the philosophical justification for the choice of interpretive approach as provided in chapter five, the study adopts a choice of a qualitative research design that supports the research aims and questions, and the researcher's personal perception of reality. A decision was reached to base the research on a single interpretive and exploratory case study of a Nigerian financial group. For this study, sources of data are semi-structured face-to-face interviews, archival data and informal conversations. This study adopts data triangulation to improve data validity in the study. Responses from interviews were compared with documentary evidence to give an accurate account of change process or activity. The next chapter presents and discuss in details the case study and its external environmentwith a view to understanding how this shapes and influences the process of organisational change.

Chapter Seven: Case Study Analysis

7.1 Introduction

Chapter Two presented an overview of the case study's macro environment (Nigeria), emphasising the political, social, economic and regulatory framework. This chapter presents an historical overview of the case study organisation, its business structure, and nature of the bank's operating activities. Other considerations include the nature of performance measurement and management information reporting, management control, budgeting and how organisational change has affected the MAS within the organisation, with a view to understanding the micro processes shaping the organisation and the nature of change over thisresearch period. This chapter follows the process of analysis for case study research as suggested by Yin (2014) by commencing with a case description as a prelude to the main chapter on data analysis and discussions, which will be presented in chapter eight.

7.2 Brief History of The Bank group

Historically, the group has its antecedents in the successful primary issues business of City Securities Limited, which was formed in September 1977 as the first Nigerian financial institution to combine primary issues with stockbroking and registrar services. (THE BANK Annual Statement, 2005) The case study organisation was incorporated as a bank on April 20, 1982 initially as a merchant bank but over the years it has transformed in business form and structure. At the end of 2015 financial year, it has a commercial banking license and international operations authorisation of the Central Bank of Nigeria. The vision of the case study organisation – now known as 'the Bank'(THE BANK) Group Plc – is currently stated to be the premier financial services group of African origins, having focused on business activities including commercial and retail banking, investment banking, brokerage, wealth management and trustee services. Other associated services offered by the bank include: loans and advances, current, savings and deposit accounts, investment products, local money transfer, international money transfer (cash movement), cash management solutions, interbank settlement electronic purse scheme (Valucard), automatic teller machines (running on Nigeria's first national payment switch – Interswitch), public sector and utilities collections/payments, international trade services, retail and wholesale foreign exchange services, insurance agency, and e-banking (PC, internet and mobile banking).

7.2.1 Origin of the Bank

The Bank is credited by archival records (and accounts of the founder) as the first privately owned merchant bank to be established without foreign technical partners or government support in Nigeria[21]. Initially the bank commenced operations as an investment bank, concentrating on financial advisory services and wholesale banking. Gradually and over the years' operations were adapted to include retail franchise and using technology to extend branch network and client spread, without abandoning other franchises within the group (ibid).[22]The founder cites his experience at Nigerian Industrial Development Bank (NIDB) as the motivation for setting up bank, and the event preceding the establishment as he states:

> *As NIDB was being set up by the World Bank…I was appointed as Company Secretary and legal adviser… I suggested they should set up a merchant bank – an investment bank, and I wrote all the papers. But when they wanted to select the headship of the bank, I was overlooked…so I resigned[23]. So, come 1973-75, I made up my mind that I*

[21] Annual reports several years and respondent's comments during interview process. See appendix for detailed quotes

[23] "……I wanted to prove to the world that given the mettle, I could attain a commanding height in the management of a financial institution…...''(Annual statement 2009)

was going to a set up a stock broking firm, and later set up a bank. Some people thought I was crazy, some thought I was over-ambitious.

Although the founder alludes to minimal technical or foreign support in setting up the bank, evidence of training, on job experience and professional background from his previous employees provided some form of indirect support and technical agreements. A significant number of management executives have years of job experience in various multinational organisations, or educational background from foreign countries or subsidiaries of multinationals operating in Nigeria[24]. Other instances revealed by documentary analysis include evidence of collaboration and partnerships by the bank on projects where technical expertise is required on specific projects example include the collaboration with Morgan Grenfell during the mergers advisory with Mobil Exxon Nigeria. Similarly, the earlier observation on the role of similar family businesses around the world also significantly contributes to the basis of establishing the sort of banking group the founder sought to establish. Specifically, the role of other family owned merchant banks and businesses are influences, which the founder concedes shaped the form of bank he envisioned, stating in a separate press interview:[25]

> *In the world, you have heard of JP Morgan, Rockefeller, Cadbury etc.; they were all individuals and if you heard of Sir Sigmund Warburg, who was my template, who started the oldest merchant bank in Britain…* [26]

Another piece of evidence of technical support provided post establishment includes a November 1988, Technical Services and Cooperation Agreement with Morgan Grenfell & Co Limited (now known as Deutsche Morgan Grenfell) to provide technical services to the bank.

---

[24] See appendix for details of former executive directors; their educational training, job experience (on country of employment basis)till date

[25] https://ladibalogun.wordpress.com/ 05/12/2016

[26] The Grunfeld, S.G. Warburg & Co., was a British investment bank (merchant bank) later acquired by UBS AG to form UBS Warburg, which later transformed to UBS AG.

Respondents allude to the fact that on technical financing projects there is foreign collaboration to support the bank's provision of advisory services[27]. Other successes recorded during the early years of the group includes IPOs and financial advisory to multinationals in the newly established Nigerian stock exchange.

At varied points, institutional pressures required modification of the business models of financial organisations operating in the country and there was a strategic response by the group to meet the change in regulatory dynamics. The founder in alluding to this clarifies:

> *There was always the outcry in this country, 'we don't want family banks. We don't want family institutions.' But all the major banks in the world, major corporations started as family banks and family businesses. The only thing is that things should be done properly… Yes, THE BANK was started by one young man…But after some time, we invited everybody to be part of it and we became quoted.*

Drawing further from this lead table, 7.3 indicates in comparative terms ownership structure of the group over 34 years. Within this period, the group experienced nineteen instances when additional shares were issued to dilute the banks ownership structure on the one hand and as well in response to regulatory mandated changes in ownership structure, and the extent of control by the dominant family group Although these instances of change was influenced by the regulatory environment coercively imposing changes in capital requirements on the group either as a merchant bank or on all types of banks operating within the country.

[27] This agreement with Morgan Greenfell & Co was in place till year 2000.

Table 6 Issued shares and share prices

Year	Number of issued shares	Unit price per Naira	Comments
1982	2,000,000	1.00	
1985	5,000,000	1.00	
1987	10,000,000	1.00	
1987	20,000,000	1.00	
1988	40,000,000	1.00	
1989	50,000,000	1.00	
1991	75,000,000	1.00	
1991	100,000,000	1.00	
1993	150,000,000	1.00	
1994	200,000,000	1.00	
1996	250,000,000	1.00	
1997	500,000,000	1.00	
1998	750,000,000	1.00	
1999	1,000,000,000	1.00	
2002	2,000,000,000	1.00	
2004	2,000,000,000	0.50	stock split
2004	5,000,000,000	0.50	
2006	10,000,000,000	0.50	
2013	15,000,000,000	0.50	

Supporting the notion of change as demanded by the diversified shareholder base within the bank, the founder explains:

> *So, it is no longer a family bank. THE BANK was not started by a family; it was started by a young man, who just happened to belong to a family. But then, this is the story of all big companies all over the world. If you talk of the Morgan's, Guinness, Cadbury, just like Michael Ibru, etc., they all started as family businesses.(Annual Financial statement extract)*

The present ownership structure of the bank is such that 7.7% of the issued share capital of the bank is in escrow for a foreign company – Capital IRG Trustees Limited (formerly Guardian Royal Exchange Limited). By virtue of these instances of dilution in ownership, and reduction in family control of the business there has been increased need to accommodate the needs of multiple shareholder groups in the designing a MAS Table 7.4 provides share ownership structure to show shareholders with 5% and above of the group's shareholding.[28]

[28] For listed Nigerian banks ownership of 5% and above in shares is considered important and must be statutorily disclosed in the financial statement and can only be acquired by approval from the CBN see S.3.2 CBN code of corporate governance 2014 pg 12.

Table 7 Breakdown of institutional investments within the group

Shareholder group	Number of shares	Percentage holding
Capital IRG Trustees	1,557,955,397	7.77%
Stanbic Nominees Nig Ltd	5,704,007,750	31.76%
Assets Management Company of Nigeria	1,332,776,167	6.73%
Other shareholders	10,641,976,774	53.74%

Owing to its investment banking antecedents, the bank has leveraged extensively on its traditional client base of multinationals and large local corporates. Some other key segments of the bank's client base include financial institutions, government (at federal, state and local levels) and high net worth individuals. As part of the banks transformation process, the bank continues its transition to a fully-fledged commercial banking model, by strengthening its relationship with traditional target markets and customers by extending services to meet the varied banking needs of employees, suppliers and distributors of its traditional corporate and institutional clients.

The traditional concept influencing the marketing philosophy of the bank is therefore value chain marketing. The bank has undergone considerable changes in the past three years and has successfully emerged as the commercial banking arm of a balanced group of companies engaged in complementary financial services. Key customers of the bank identified by interviewees include: Guinness Nigeria Plc (a key subsidiary of the global beverage giant, Diageo); Nigerian Breweries Plc (a key subsidiary of Dutch Heineken B.V); West African Portland Cement Plc and Ashakacem Plc (both major subsidiaries of Lafarge S.A, the largest cement manufacturing company worldwide). Others are Total Nigeria Plc, Cadbury Nigeria Plc, Texaco Nigeria Plc (a subsidiary of Texas petroleum), Oando Plc (one of the largest downstream petroleum marketers in Nigeria listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange and the London Stock Exchange), Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation, Nigerian Ports Authority, various state governments, multinational and international agencies, Federal Inland

Revenue Service, Dangote Industries and many others who represent industry and market segment leaders in the industry.

At establishment, the bank is noted to have set some values to shape the group's nature and form. These ideals and values are identified as elements of professionalism, excellence and a culture of creativity which during the process of transformation was included in the attributes passed on to the second generation of management. In his allusion, the founder clarifies:

> *We started THE BANK with certain values, ideals and culture that I want the present management to continue, so that they can attain maximum height. I want the present management to surpass what we have achieved. I would like an THE BANK that is highly professional, that is respected for its service delivery, successful for its returns to shareholders. I would like an THE BANK that will be the bank of first choice. When THE BANK started in 1982, it was the number five investment bank in the country. But today, some of the ones that were in existence are either liquidated or failed, but THE BANK is waxing stronger.*

Supporting this view further, the founder provides evidence of instances where some of the set values when establishing the bank have been replicated by subsidiaries within the group, or through the generational change in management but by external field competitors within the environment the organisation is operating:

> *…and the values that have been built which I would want to see continue, and even improved upon. I insisted that my staff must be smartly dressed in dark suits. Before then, bankers could just wear shirts and ties. But today, every banker dresses smartly and this is included in the training provided during induction, this is now replicated by other banks.*

In 2001, the bank became a fully-fledged commercial bank following a collective campaign to the regulators to adopt a universal banking model in the Nigerian banking industry and the period of regulatory-imposed consolidation. Having accurately anticipated the CBN proposal for adopting the universal banking model from January 2001, the bank pre-emptively applied and obtained regulatory approval for a change in name and banking license from a merchant bank to a commercial bank resulting in a change to 'the Bank'Limited which took effect from January 2001. This represents one of the ways in which the bank's strategy was used to influence regulations adopted to shape policy direction for the banking industry. Other means by which the group has influenced the external market includes the illustration alluded by the founders to support the group strategy the banking group pioneered:

> *Quietly, we pioneered the group concept. When the Central Bank changed the rules that we could not provide all the subsidiary services in the same company, we did not have any problem in re-structuring ourselves and our different services as subsidiaries in a group structure, known as THE BANK Group Plc. The market recognised it in us…. I tagged it as 'entrepreneurial banking'. That was something the market recognised in us as both innovative and unique, and gave us a distinct identity within just 30 years of existence.*

Following the establishment of a group structure in line with the Central bank promulgation, the Board of the Group has responsibility for monitoring activities of 'the Bank'Limited and those of the other Group companies under its ownership, which include THE BANK Capital Markets Limited, CSL Stockbrokers Limited and CSL Trustees Limited. On relisting as THE BANK Group Plc, it was incorporated in Nigeria as a financial holding company on 20 November 2012 under the Companies and Allied Matters Act, in response to the CBN's Regulation on the Scope of Banking Activities and Ancillary Matters (Regulation 3). Following the Group restructuring, THE BANK Group Plc emerged as a holding company, with 'the Bank'Plc ('the bank') as subsidiary. 'the Bank'Plc was delisted from the Nigerian Stock

Exchange on 21 June 2013, and the shares of THE BANK Group Plc listed on the same day. The bank is presently re-registered as a Private Limited Liability company known as 'the Bank'Limited, operating as a subsidiary within the First City group. The year 2015 marked the second full year of their operations under the holding company structure, THE BANK Group Plc (subsequently the Group) is listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) with the ticker symbol 'THE BANK' and has 19,802,710,781 ordinary shares held by over 522,000 shareholders as at 31 December 2016. The Group and its subsidiaries function as separate and distinct operating companies with individual boards of directors and management executives, although there are instances where some senior employees within the bank or subsidiary serve on the board or management of the group or another subsidiary.

Following on from her establishment, First City Merchant Bank Limited has grown to become a leading merchant bank in Nigeria. For instance, in 2000, the bank became the first and only merchant bank to achieve N1 billion annual profit as at that time. With the advent of universal banking in 2001[29], First City Merchant Bank Limited converted into a universal bank. It changed its name to 'the Bank'Limited and commenced commercial banking activities; its corporate finance subsidiary was transferred onto a new subsidiary, THE BANK Capital Markets Limited. In 2004, the bank changed status from a private limited liability company to a public limited liability company, and was listed on the NSE in December of that year. Following the period there were attempts at ownership dilution from the core family control through an institutional investors model.

[29] The universal banking model was introduced by the CBN to enable licensed bank to function as financial supermarkets offering services such as bank insurance and stockbroking as part of traditional core banking functions. This policy was scraped in 2009 following abuse and perceived stock market manipulations via Bank subsidiaries

Another significant policy change in 2010, CBN issued Regulation 3 (Scope of Banking Activities and Ancillary Matters, No. 3, 2010), which required banks to divest their non-banking businesses or retain them under a CBN approved financial group structure. In response, THE BANK Plc developed a group restructuring plan (Compliance Plan) and secured the CBN's approval of the plan in December 2011. Following the process of reorganisation, the newly created THE BANK Group Plc became the holding company, with 'the Bank'Plc (THE BANK Plc), Stockbrokers Limited (SLS) and THE BANK Capital Markets Limited (THE BANK-CM) as direct subsidiaries. Shareholders of THE BANK Plc were also migrated to THE BANK Group Plc via a one-for-one share exchange between THE BANK Group Plc and THE BANK Plc. THE BANK Plc, the Bank, was thereafter re-registered as a limited liability company, becoming 'the Bank'Limited (THE BANK Limited). In 2014, CSL Trustees Limited also became a direct subsidiary of THE BANK Group Plc. THE BANK Group Plc's subsidiaries provide significant cross-selling synergies and earnings diversification for the Group. Part of the Group diversification strategy entails efforts at growing a retail segment of the bank business while extending existing competences of the wholesale banking segment of the bank's business. The founder states in support of the transition from a wholesale to a retail banking strategy:

> *We have been able to review our strategies by using the group structure to diversify our earnings, for instance concentrating more on the retail end of the banking business while maintaining cost and capital efficiencies within the wholesale banking group…While no doubt we started off as a wholesale investment bank we have been able to use technology to adapt ourselves as a robust retail group.*

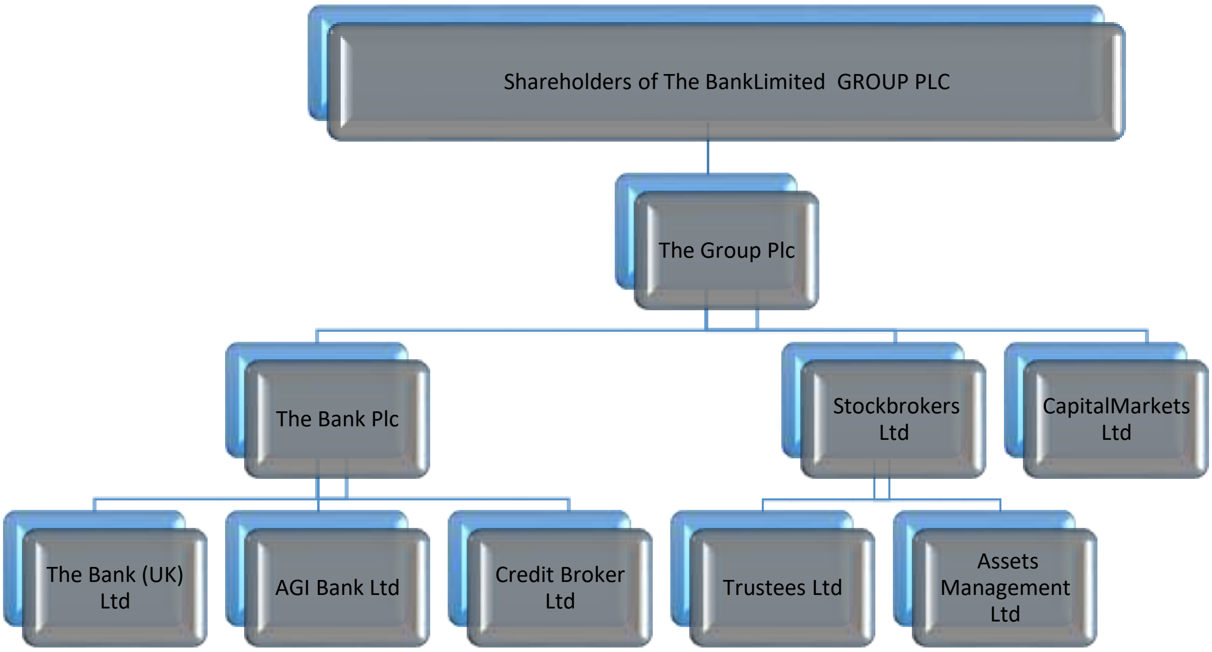


Figure 5 Overall group structure

Consumer Banking Group Investment Banking Group

7.2.2 Group Structure

‘the Bank’Limited (The Bank with 100% Ownership) is considered “the flagship of the Group”, employs two thousand nine hundred full-time staff, and has over three million customers and two hundred and twenty-five branches across Nigeria (THE BANK 2016). The bank is ranked among top ten lenders in Nigeria and a parent company to two subsidiaries, THE BANK Bank (UK) Limited and Credit Direct Limited (CDL). CDL provides financial support to approximately two hundred thousand borrowers, amounting to over =N= 22 billion (£52 million), as at the 2015 financial year-end. The bank accounts for 83.1% of the group’s total revenue.

THE BANK Capital Markets Limited (100% Ownership) THE BANK Capital Markets Limited is licensed by the Securities and Exchange Commission of Nigeria (SECN) as an issuing house and financial advisor. THE BANK Capital Markets Limited specialises in project and structured finance, equity and debt capital raising, mergers and acquisitions advice, and other financial advisory services to corporate entities.

SL Stockbrokers Limited (100% Ownership) SL Stockbrokers (SLS), licensed by the SEC, is a stockbroking and investment management firm operating on the Nigerian stock exchange. CSLS conducts equity and macroeconomic research with the firm executing a significant share of the international portfolio trades on the NSE. CSLS is positioning itself to be the leading conduit for portfolio investment into Sub-Saharan Africa. CSLS's subsidiary, Asset Management (AM) Limited, provides portfolio and fund management services to high net worth individuals and institutional clients. AM currently manages assets of N12.4 billion (£29.04billion).

SL Trustees Limited (100% Ownership) SL Trustees Limited (SLT), a SEC-licensed company, partners with clients to ensure fund assets are secured in the interest of beneficiaries. CSLT's expanded trustee services include debenture trustee, security trustee, facility agent, escrow agent, management of private trusts, employee stock ownership plans and employee welfare trustee.

7.2.3 Case organisation profile

Nigeria's economic challenges notwithstanding, the bank and group has been able to increase its performance and operating results over the years with the founder alluding to management, leadership culture, resilience, innovation, technology and a diversification strategy as factors accounting for the growth.

The operating segments of the bank are divided into six segments, with each headed by an executive director. At the minimum on a quarterly basis there is a review of internal management reports for each group by the bank's executive management. The operations and functions of each of the operating segments are discussed below:

Investment Banking_ – provides a range of services to large corporate organisations. The Group is involved in capital-raising activities for organisations both in money and capital markets, as well as providing financial advisory services to organisations in raising funds from either the capital market or from institutional investors.

Business Banking – provides banking services to Small and Medium Enterprises (SME) and commercial registered businesses with an annual turnover of less than N2.5 billion (£5.855M)

Corporate Banking – incorporating direct debit facilities, current accounts, deposits, overdrafts, loan and other credit facilities, foreign currency and derivative products. Corporate Banking caters for the specific needs of companies and financial institutions with an annual turnover in excess of N5 billion (£11.711million).

Retail/Personal Banking – This division of the group incorporates private banking services, private customer current accounts, savings, deposits, investment savings products, custody, credit and debit cards, consumer loans and mortgages. Retail Banking caters for the needs of individuals.

Institutional Banking – This division entails government financing, financial institutions, and multilateral agencies. There exists a sub-business unit focused on catering for governments at various levels (foreign and local), multinational agencies and their agencies.

Treasury and Financial Markets – Provides funding support to various business segments while maintaining the overall bank liquidity in line with regulatory provisions. The treasury group is also involved in currency trading incorporating financial instruments trading and structured financing.

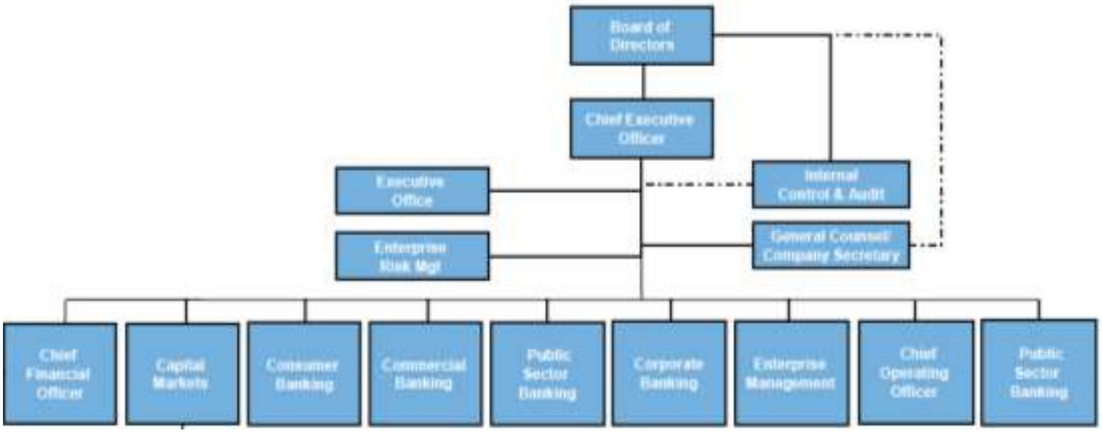


Figure 6 Group Organogram

Performance is measured using segment information and segment profit before tax, as included in the internal management reports that are reviewed by the Executive Management Committee. Segment profit is used to measure performance as management believes that such information is the most relevant in evaluating the results of certain segments relative to other entities that operate within the group.

The table below presents a summary of the group's financials with translations to GBP where available.

Table 8. Summary of group 2016 financial statement

	Naira value	GBP equivalent £
Group profit after tax	4.76bn	13.4mn
Bank profit after tax	4.55bn	12.8mn
Bank profit before tax	6.5bn	18.3mn
Customer base	3.5m	NA
Net revenue (group)	84.9bn	238.8mn
Customer deposit	700.2	1.97bn
Total assets	1.16trn	3.26bn
Bank total loans	593bn	1.67bn
Bank deposits	711bn	2.0bn
Dividend per share	0.1kobo per share	
Earnings per share	0.24	
Operating expenses	67.0bn	188mn

Bank's financial summary using exchange rate at 14/08/2016@£1 =N= 356

As earlier stated, the case study operates in a regulated market classed as oligopolistic in nature, while the bank's choice of MAS reporting structure and organisational value is shaped by regulatory influence. Thus, MAS choice appears as a balance of fit between organisational requirements, management choice and regulatory requirements. A manager in charge of MIS reporting comments, stating:

> *As the main reason for the MAS system is to meet the internal use of management and to achieve organisational vision we do not emphasise as much on compliance as we will do with the financial reporting system which is more aligned with the regulator's requirement…we have the FRC SEC and CBN to comply with…. same cannot be said for the MAS…. the MAS is largely less monitored by the regulators."*

On the new credit appraisal and methods, the credit controller alludes to the influence of a regulatory imposed framework for sustainability as the main influence shaping the process of lending:

> *Our business activities: Environmental and Social Risk Management. At THE BANK, we actively manage environmental and social risks by supporting business opportunities that align with sustainability principles as a responsible lender. This goal is enforced through the development of robust policies and procedures aimed at integrating Social and Environmental Management System (SEMS) initiatives into our lending process.*

7.2.4 Vision

The vision of the group from inception has been to be the premier financial services group of African origin, however as part of the reforms of the post 2010 era there has been an increased interest on the customer focus for the bank. There was an attempt to incorporate these values as part of the group's overall value.

7.2.5 Mission

The bank's mission is to be the premier financial services group of African origin, to be world class, to be the best place to work, number one in the heart and mind of the customer and to be the most desirable to investors (2007). This was modified to reflect the group's increased focus on customers and new lines of business. Hence the mission statement changed post 2010 to the current mission statement:

> *….to attain the highest levels of customer advocacy, be a great place to work and deliver superior and sustainable returns our shareholders.*

Based on this highlighted vision and mission the group has evolved core values as specific requirements to achieve its set vision and mission. The HR document lists these as professionalism, sustainability, customer focus, excellence and professionalism. In most correspondence and reports to staff and shareholders, an emphasis is laid on highlighting these values amongst staff. The group MD in one of the financial statements comments:

> *I appreciate our people for their dedication, professionalism and customer focus which has enhanced our franchise value and resilience; and together, we remain committed to building a premier financial services group, deliver superior and sustainable returns to our shareholders.*

The group chairman suggests the continued existence and growth within the group is a product of emphasising core values, people and processes:

> *In this season of macro-economic dysfunction in the Nigerian business environment, one quality that has sustained us is our 'resilience' in maintaining our 'Culture of Excellence'.*

In terms of the group's strategy and use of vision and mission statement in shaping policies and strategy, the group indicates it is focused not on attaining market size but attaining profits in niches or areas of strength to the banking group.

> *Our primary objective is to be the premier banking group in Africa in the eyes of our customers, employees and shareholders. We will pursue this by not necessarily being the biggest, but seeking to be leaders by profitability first and then market share in each niche that we play. Our niches are selected based on their macroeconomic relevance, developmental impact, our ability to lead profitably and long-term prospects. Hence quality and profitability matrices are our most important measures, along with employee and social goals. The two most important competencies we are building are operational excellence and customer intimacy.*

This choice of approach utilised by the group indicates the vision and mission statement of the bank and group plays a significant role in shaping strategic responses to change within the group/bank and or its external environment. Although as observed during instances of regulatory imposed change, the bank appears responsive, and some instances of change appear to have been a by-product of the bank's vision and mission. A major shareholder commenting during the annual general meeting suggests:

> *The retail transformation strategy is definitely showing the desired result on diversification; the gravity of the economic problems may have hit the banking industry and indeed the general business environment in Nigeria. It has been generally tough but THE BANK group appears able to weather the storm based on its resourceful management team.*

On the benefits of group structure, the founder supported the influence of a group structure by providing the link between strategy and the group structure arrangement:

> *Our strategies account significantly for where we are today. We have also been able to review our strategies by concentrating more on the retail end of the banking business, and we are already showing good results… despite the challenging environment, we have not abandoned other areas of banking in which we have competence. We are de-leveraging and right-sizing our wholesale banking business to make it more capital efficient. We are also reviewing our investment banking and capital market activities to ensure they continue to contribute both strategically, as a source of differentiation, and financially, to THE BANK Group.*

7.2.6 Values

The traditional values of the group have been based on the PACE system with P Symbolising Professionalism; A ambition; C creativity; E Excellence.Following the transformation process of 2008, there was a new set of values represented by the acronyms PSCE where sustainability was introduced in response to the regulatory requirement as contained in the Nigerian Sustainability framework.

7.3 Training and organisational learning

THE BANK has always believed in recruiting and training the best talent in the industry and providing a stimulating entrepreneurial working environment. A direct manifestation of this commitment is the fact that the bank has produced no less than 19 chief executives and deputy chief executives of major financial institutions in Nigeria over the last two decades of its operations. In addition, the bank's entry-level training programme, known as the Management Development Programme, with its emphasis on classroom-based learning and on-the-job training, is one of the most sought after of its kind in the Nigerian banking industry. The bank continues to invest substantially in the training of its personnel both locally and internationally. Alluding to the role of training in the development of a quality work force, A member of the training academy comments regarding the purpose and methods of the training model run by the bank:

> *Irrespective of the background training that our entry recruits possess, we ensure sufficient training is made available to each individual in such a manner to enable them to function appropriately with minimal errors at any banking or supervisory roles…We encourage creativity and we challenge our recruits only when we know they have been adequately empowered…. We are proud that our products are poached by other competitors based on their in-depth knowledge of banking processes and procedures…We produce all round bankers…A sales based employee is as capable as a technical operations person in our organisation. We believe that the best form of training is hands on and that a staff should be trained on all aspects of banking; that is the idea and vision the founder has set for the academy…to produce all round and knowledgeable bankers. This I will tell you has helped reduce office floor friction and better relationships evolved based on staff possessing knowledge of other areas of daily operations and processes.*
>
> *The values you will observe in our trainees are professionalism, creativity and a keen sense of attention to detail. This one way or the other benefits the group. We have instead refined conflict as a positive tool of challenging the business and pushing the limits of creativity while of course ensuring full adherence with regulation. Improvements have occurred in our processes and the speed on delivering quality service to our customers!"*

A training manager commented to support this by indicating the strength of the management development programme of the group:

> *The MDP was on hold for several years…largely due to the minimal growth of business and branch network. However, as part of the consolidation change process it was reintroduced and redesigned and at a stage with as much as four streams in the bank indicating a rate of two MDP streams per year.*

As a fallout of the rebranding process, training – which hitherto was considered as "holiday" or an opportunity to be off work – has now been integrated into the organisational consciousness and deemed as an assessment tool and core requirement for progression. some respondents consider it as a tool used for determining staff attrition during periods of staff right-sizing.

A respondent shares his experience of comparing the old and newly introduced process of staff training within the group:

In the past, we had no formalised structure for training outside being nominated by your line manager or supervisor….in some instances you have a certain team member for example being the only person nominated for training as a means of rewarding such staff for their perceived "loyalty", now not only do we have a full learning and training unit, every individual on a yearly basis determines what areas they will want to receive training on…I have elected to undergo a training in credit appraisal and lending assessment… that is not directly related to my job role but it is relevant to me as an internal control officer.in the near future I desire to play a role in the regional credit appraisal team…such training could not have been possible as cost and relevance to my job description would have made that impossible.

The Group places considerable value on the involvement of its employees and has continued its practice of keeping them informed on matters affecting them as employees and the various factors affecting the performance of the Group. This is achieved through regular meetings between management and staff. The Group has in-house training facilities complemented with additional facilities from educational institutions (local and offshore) for the training of its employees. A consultant and former HR manager explains:

Knowledge improvement programmes (KIP) are held to increase employees' awareness on general banking regulation and on the job training at all levels. In the last operating year for example, 1,970 officers (including senior management) completed the Managing Environmental and Social Performance and the International Finance Corporation's (IFC) Sustainability Training on THE BANK's e-learning programme (STEP), comprising 13 modules. Engagements with other players in the industry and major multilateral agencies, like the IFC and FMO (the Dutch development bank), also provide crucial support and knowledge transfer. We also use a mix of local tuition and professional training to supplement those specialist skills the academy may be unable to provide. We have all frontline operations trained on money laundering regulation and detection by DATApro, an associate of a renowned global brand on risk management"

The bank successfully implemented a skills transfer strategy by recruiting a diverse management team record to complement a well-trained domestic work force:

> *If you look at the makeup of our management team during the transition period post consolidation you will discover there is a skew toward foreign trained managers constituting the management team. That reflects the fact that in reality as an organisation we draw from experience of sister banks and multinational banks. From the experience of such….as noted earlier as well training is provided.*

In terms of staff strength, the group employs 4143 employees (see table 9 on page 205). A figure which compares with the inception of the group. The group prides itself on quality of staff and management who are supported with leading technology and training, usually supported by industry experts or foreign-trained or head-hunted professionals. In fact, at the time a campaign was launched with the aim of making the group the best place to work. The founder alludes to this by stating:

> *I would want to commend the current management team for their resourcefulness, their innovativeness and their courage…From time to time, one hears from the clientele about them…confidence in our leadership and management….on my own can assert that I am…. proud of our management team and staff, as well as their competences and courage.*

Commenting further on the role and importance of staff members, the Managing Director states on motivation and performance improvement:

> *We are also making THE BANK an even better place to work, with over 90% of our high performing employees retained, 78% of our vacancies are filled with internal appointments and 39% of our executive management are women. We will continue to find creative ways to motivate our employees and build a great institutional culture.*

The group also prides itself on the extent of training both on the job and in a classroom setting that is provided to employees. A respondent classifies this by suggesting that each employee is required to complete a specified amount of training annually, a requirement that is also linked to the staff annual performance appraisal.

Commenting further on specifics of training within the learning academy, a training officer on the development and alignment of training needs to suit organisational and regulatory requirements says:

> *On organisational learning and process of transferring new procedures and skills within the group things have significantly changed within the group; we now have the sustainability charter among another regulatory imposed operating frameworks. You will be interested to know that we now have all these principles enshrined in the operating manual THE BANK's sustainability agenda is largely influenced by the nine pillars of the Nigerian Sustainable Banking Principles (NSBPs) developed and adopted by the Bankers' Committee in 2012. Principle 7 – Capacity Building of sustainability charter.*

On the role played by the bank in influencing the external environment, the bank conducts training for vendors and suppliers to create an awareness on the sustainability requirements and impact of the new model. A member of the training academy supports this by stating*:*

> *We also held a sustainability forum for vendors of the bank for knowledge sharing on the subject.*

On the role of training and recruitment of staff to fill vacancies, an HR officer commenting on the process of recruitment asserts the preference of filling internal vacancies with internal staff where possible, but no clear-cut reliance or existence of a deliberate policy:

> *I was privileged to serve from 1990 to 2007 as one of the early staff that interacted with the foundation staff of the HR unit….we have no deliberate policy in terms of hiring employees although we prefer where possible for staff to grow within our rank hence the use of internal staff as a first consideration to fill vacancies; where this is not achievable we use external applicants. But, the group chairman has always expressed preference for internal applicants as a means of motivating staff and improving employee loyalty.*

For higher-level vacancies, this preference ensures a continuation of organisational culture among management staff, a fact that is indicative in the length of time spent by senior managers with the group (see appendix C i). These has created a pool of loyal managers that have in some cases remained with the group for a significant majority of their career. Examples include the table 4 highlighting the relative length of managers that have spent time within the bank indicating the role-played, relationship, loyalty and professional competence in employee career development within the group.

7.4 An overview of the group's management accounting practices

The general method of collating and measuring MA information is closely structured to those designed to collate and measure financial accounting information for the group and bank. Where regulatory variations exist in terms of financial reporting requirements, the MA information system is designed to reflect and accommodate these variations for group or subsidiary purposes.

To facilitate the transformation to a retail-based bank and to remain competitive with the fresh injection of capital, the bank management in the period to 2005 implemented a new enterprise management software and banking application to support transactions and back office functions. At the same time, this provided a link to generate real time information to support sales and operations staff, while also providing a support system to the customer relations management system. This formed a structure upon which the change process alluded to by the founder was made operational. Thus, the change in IT process and infrastructure was not only informed by a need for efficiency and market needs, it was also informed because of regulatory-imposed change which included a larger operating structure and geographical spread for the bank and by extension the group. This change was shaped by the strategic direction of the firm at a point in time, which also grew to respond to the changing demands of the bank.

The nature of information derived from the MIS system is varied per job functions and reporting requirements of end users…yes, our MIS system generates a standardised form of report but this can be tailored to suit varied needs across the bank and group network. Since the inception of INFOPOOL as part of operation PACE, there is a standardised reporting format across the group.

The creation of a standardised reporting structure has facilitated an easy generation of reports for management control activities, budgeting and PMs within the organisation, while also ensuring benchmarking of subsidiary and parent activities. An ex-financial control staff alludes to the process required during the process or reorganising accounts prior to the implementation of the new MIS, confirming the same process has been adopted following the acquisition of other banks as well:

During the process, we had to re-chart and re-classify several internal accounts to facilitate account unification. We also solicited details of the posting requirements for each of these accounts to enable accurate capture and representation of costs profits revenue and customers' details within the existing data base. From the consolidation in 2005, each successive acquisition results in a new set of chart of accounts and reporting requirements are updated to reflect changes in regulation and business form.

Expatiating further on the role of MIS of the IT unit during the group's transformation project team, an IT team member gives specifics of changes carried out within the MIS:

Prior to the acquisition of legacy banks, the bank operated a single set of accounts linked to the MAS system which though outdated at that time was sufficient for our needs. Following the acquisitions and growth of the bank to focus on retail banking, we had to unify these reports and customer data retention systems to meet with the challenges of a multi segment and multinational bank.

During one of the observation sessions with a zonal manager on a training course, he showed the new process for generating unit reports for his zonal branches. It was observed that while in a remote training location he could access some branch-specific information which hitherto was not possible. He comments:

What you just saw was not possible ten years ago…we had to send a mail to FINCON waiting for the turnaround time of 72 hours and the report is sent… in some instances without the desired information contained in such generated report. I believe (I) am more empowered to monitor my zonal performance, costs and take pre-emptive steps where say a branch or unit within my purview is not achieving set targets…When you compare this with a situation in the past…. with information, at least three days old…in my position that is too long a time… you can say by the time I get such information it may be irrelevant or the need has changed.

Supporting the relevance of the zonal manager's comments, a branch manager explains further the practical uses to which the MIS generated information is used as a control and strategic tool in reaching branch decisions:

Hitherto we had to rely on FINCON generated reports made available at the MPR sessions to assess things such as branch profitability or branch expenses; this has changed. As a branch manager, zonal head or divisional head, we can determine our daily profitability report thus eliminating spurious costs or instances of wrong classification of branch cost charged against our units or departments. One of the benefits of the transformation and investments in IT appears to be our increased access to MIS that contains PMI and budgetary control details.

It is worthy of note that there is now an increased access to non-financial information as well as financial information. Hence, the INFOpool system has made it possible for the bank to meet publicised customer service level agreements. An implementation member of the MIS reform in his reflections states:

….as part of the benefits the bank could live up to its service delivery standard to the customers. The reality is that customers don't know and don't care what core application the bank uses. What matters is the quality of service they get….

On the cost and benefits of the INFOpool system on the bank's cost of project implementation, the ex-staff now working as a divisional head in another financial institution believes:

INFOpool has the best return on investment (ROI) and the lowest total cost of ownership (TCO). It also lets management, using the management information dashboard, make intelligent decisions, quickly and accurately…. For the bank, over a million dollars was saved in direct cost. It's not the technology that's important, but...deploying a user-friendly platform with rapid access to customer information and automated processes. The bank has been able to live up to its promise to customers of *superior customer care. It's been able to provide cutting-edge services to its old and new customers, which is actually the crux of its retail strategy"*

The bank currently runs a newly developed in-house ERP system INFOpool based on the cold fusion technology:[30]

In addition to our internal quarterly reporting on sustainability for monitoring progress and addressing issues in an independent manner, we instituted an environmental management reporting framework covering sustainable resource consumption as it relates to the areas mentioned under Environmental Footprint… complies with the CBN's semi-annual reports in line with the NSBPs, and submits periodic reports to the IFC.

Information for the MPR is for instance generated within a week of the month-end with zonal meetings held bank-wide to discuss performance of subsidiaries, units, divisions and zones. At these meetings, comparative reports for the previous months and a 12-month summary is made available for trend analysis. In discussing the role of MIS in performance measurement and management control, a senior executive explains the process of information MIS details generation:

Information across the branches is fairly easy to access…we have a well-maintained database that enables generation of reports at multiple levels either on an adhoc basis or continuous basis… We have a dynamic and complex structure not also forgetting the unique environment we operate in…you can see there is a need for constant update of reports some falling outside the traditional reporting cycles…in most cases information is made available on a timely basis as opposed to what it was in the past with the previous systems you can say one of the benefits of recapitalisation is the extra investments in IT ….

And on project PACE, the reform programme introduced after the period of regulatory reform:

I have been part of innovations and process improvement in the past… In my previous work place I was a project leader but this level of change is unprecedented…you may call it total transformation of the way we think and conduct business as an organisation. From budgeting to communication and performance measurement something changed….it was a total transformation… of thoughts processes and practices. For the first time, job descriptions were

[30] see appendix for detailed description

captured at the front line …not top down …. newly described assessed and measurement terms were redefined.

While respondents readily identify strengths of implemented MA systems, there are areas of weakness that respondents believe the group's MA reporting system may have failed to address. To some managers, a feeling that costs allocated to branches appear disproportionate to value and support received at branch level. A manager in the northern part of the country summaries such views:

The fact that the present system allows costs to be passed to branches without concurrence of managers creates situations where spurious costs are passed on without verification of benefits or receipt of such service or asset. There are instances where assets are charged to a branch on our costing system while physical assets are allocated by admin to a different branch or zone. For my branches, there is no significant impact of embarking on Christmas parties and decoration but, yearly there are charges to reflect these; as a branch the cost is not accurate representation of our needs…. There should be a joint system where assets allocation and cost changing is synchronised…we are evolving and will get there… but that is a weakness I have observed…. annually we waste valuable time on assets register reconciliation and each year these issues of missing or wrongly allocated assets and costs comes to the fore.

Other respondents contend that there appears to be a minimal link between the change initiatives and employment, customer satisfaction and or even the organisational efficiencies the MAS purports to facilitate within the organisation.

In assessing the role and functions of implementation units in public sector reforms in selected Western countries, Lindquist (2006) contends that while they may offer additional levels of monitoring, review facilitating and advice, they may in some instances result in duplication of functions rivalry and in some instances unhealthy competition among organisational units, creating an atmosphere mitigating against change efforts.

7.5 Budgeting and budgetary control subsystem

Awareness of the role and importance of budgets appears generally to be high and constant amongst the interviewees. In terms of budgetary control systems, the pre-2005 era was restrictive and characterised with head office centralised controls, with weekly reports generated to ensure that branch expense limits were strictly adhered to across the group. The budgetary system reflects the presence of some uncertainty within the group's operating environment, arising partly as a result of political, economic and regulatory inconsistencies as earlier discussed in chapter two.

A zonal respondent discussing the emphasis placed on expenses monitoring suggests:

> *Our internal control representative is required to ensure not only monitor adherence to the expense approval limits, the zonal control reps also ensure the zonal limit and budgetary limit is not exceeded. I will say the group has a structured and clearly communicated budgetary control policy.*

A subsidiary head alludes to the importance of cost monitoring and control:

> *In addition, we continue to maintain stringent controls on operating expenses to achieve our cost-to-income ratio target. While we achieved a leading industry position in cost efficiency and asset quality… Cost to Income ratio of 4% and NPL (non-performing loan) of 3.3%.... we sustain this through our emphasis on cost monitoring and adherence to budgetary controls.*

Another considers the budget as an essential tool for controlling subsidiaries and divisions within the group, giving support to the notion of the institutionalised budgetary process:

> *Once approved by the board the divisional and or subsidiary budget can only be amended by another board resolution, hence managers take the budgetary process seriously - mind you no ED(Executive Director) or DH(Divisional head) wants to defend a budget much more having to request for extra budgetary approval…. It is usually prevented by taking extra care at the budget preparation phase... a high compliance culture to budgetary control exists across the group.*

Flowing from this emphasis and focus on budgetary planning and control, the group has been able to achieve a leading position in the Nigerian banking industry for prudent budgetary control based on a focus on branch expenses control, budgetary control as well as cost monitoring and control. A corporate analyst within the banking strategy group alludes to some of the awards:

> *We have been able to achieve a leading industry cost efficiency and asset quality ratio: our current year Cost to Income ratio of 64% and NPL of 3.3%....*

On the impact of institutional investors on the role of MIS and the reporting time frame, a consultant explains:

> *From their arrival, we developed…more detailed and incisive analysis following the institutional investment made by the H group…resulting in additional demand on the MIS for a reactive as opposed to a narrower system that previously existed; our MIS system thus had to be efficient, provide fast and reliable reports from remote locations whenever they are required.*

Financial and budgetary control systems have evolved as additional MAS tools in the case study organisation. The budgets are of three types: long-term, annual, and quarterly budgets. The financial control unit (now a directorate) is responsible for designing and monitoring adherence to budgetary provisions. The long-term budget forms a basis for preparing the annual budget and can be regarded as the group's financial strategy. The process of budgetary approval requires board authorisation and, once approved, unit and departmental targets (in terms of cost, revenue targets are established and communicated to respective groups and directorates). Once at the directorate level, individual targets and front line staff targets are established and implemented. Common control elements include cost-to-income ratio loan origination and disbursement, bad loans as a percentage of disbursed credit and bad loan recovery, low cost deposits and mobilisation of a number of new accounts.

The process of designing and implementing budgets is based on a combination of incremental budgeting, zero based budgeting (ZBB) for capital projects and significant cost items. The case study's choice of a ZBB for significant capital projects is to prevent undue budget surplus in directorates by ensuring lean income is allocated on the basis of need to the highest benefit yielding and not on potential earnings or power, thus serving as a check on the use of budgets as tools of power domination or groups. Factors used for setting budgetary targets include previous performance, similar sized banks, geographical coverage, average threshold and minimum expected performance. Thus, based on the approved budget, monthly and quarterly budgets are drawn up and form the basis for the quarterly MPR. The MPR ensures unit and directorate compliance with and deviation from the approved budgets. Where there appears to be instances of consistent breaches by a unit or group, disciplinary measures are imposed ranging from loss of profit sharing, promotion, loss of promotion or demotion in terms of responsibility. Externally, the regulatory bodies also require a copy of each bank's approved budget for monitoring and supervisory overview.

7.6 **Systems of control**

7.6.1 Elements of control on bad loans

Commenting on the role of MAS as a tool for control, the financial director cites the occurrence of non-performing loans that have occurred in the group in the last three years:

> *No doubt we have had our own share of bad loans, particularly within the Oil and Gas Sector. We continue to take remedial measures through our risk control system…some of these measures are modified on needs basis but we still maintain the main structure over the years with variations to meet the specific periods.*

As a result of the significance of loan monitoring to operations a key criteria for staff assessment includes amount and number of structured loans defaults per account manager portfolio. Where existing default rate are considered above the allowed threshold, disciplinary and or corrective efforts are put in place. The general threshold of 30% portfolio default was indicated as the control trigger or a default in more than three of a branch's top ten customers' accounts.

7.7 Cultural rules and routines:

From the inception of the group there has been a conscious effort to project a set of principles and value as unique to the group. Prominent among these values includes the use of branding as a differentiating factor. A senior manager who acts as a consultant states:

> *At the time I joined in 1990 we had operations in only six locations in Lagos Ogun, Kano Abuja, and Rivers, and at that time there was the MD's annual open house where each member of staff was expected to come and celebrate with Otunba at his family home in Ijebu. We were a close-knit family [….] you considered your role as contributing to a goal that is appreciated by the family owners… that has changed now and I believe that accounts for the spate of control lapses and weak performance of some branches. The close family large unit is no longer there with these acquisitions, I don t think bigger is better.*

And on brand image and establishing cultural or organisational identity:

> *I envisioned a big institution with a broadly encompassing antenna, but I had to be realistic by taking steady and sure steps; hence I embarked on the journey through the investment banking route, which facilitated our being taken seriously right from the starting point…we started thinking about the ability to have branches and even taking deposits, which normally would not have been allowed for a merchant bank. We explored innovative ways to attract deposits insofar as they do not infringe any of the regulations, which enabled us to break out of the investment banking module.*
>
> *In consonance with the 'Culture of Excellence', which I had implanted in the institution, I tried to create a distinctive identity… our buildings bear the distinctive mark represented by the pillars*

Although there existed a formal structure for the bank and group at the time of the personal supervision alluded to by the founder, the bank was reporting to the founder through informal means; project supervision and decision-making were informally controlled outside of the formal organisational structure. A retired staff member suggests:

> *Technically we may be right to suggest that the Managing Director is responsible for the running of the business…but remember, we still received mails from OMOB's personal box on certain occasions and by all means to those that know, these sorts of mail carry more weight than that of the MD. I recall some time ago, he personally announced the birth of the grandkids and ratification of the MD's appointment by regulators…conveniently we can say at a time especially between 2005 and 2008 we had the MD being supervised indirectly by the founder even though he was no longer on the Board or the Executive Officer of the organisation.*

These instances represent the notion that the transition of leadership evolved over the years rather than imposing a one-off change or transition during the process of succession.

However, one of the newly-hired managers who assumed office post-2010 believes the role of the founder has now been greatly reduced as compared to what it was. Examples of this include his increasing role as an adviser and less dominance in the daily running of affairs, as the manager suggests:

> *I think you can safely say there is a degree of separation between the family members and the present crop of managers…am I saying it is influence free…no far from that; I will say reduced and I dare say, a significant reduction to the level of influence wielded in the past.*

Another head office staff member assessing the role of the founder in the business further supports this view by stating:

> *We now have a reduced presence of the founder in the business in the last four or five years, he is mainly around during AGMs or during special events…. I believe it reflects the trust he has in the management…. They keep him up to date so he is a satisfied powerful stakeholder.*

Another believes that while the level of domination may have reduced, there are elements of indirect domination through informal or formal systems. The staff member alludes to the informal control still exercised by the family through proxies in the bank and group:

> *Why are the senior managers those close to the family? In our opinion, the systems exist to make us world class, but are we world class when our policies and systems are subject to the influence of a dominant family member or group?*

7.7.1 On culture and impact on the business model

This Founder goes on to say[31]:

> *What have we done with our Culture of Excellence? I would readily answer that by continually seeking to be the best, we are within our element, as we want to be the bank everyone needs or wants to bank with.*

[31] AGM 2007 Founders address.

We would also want to be the best place to seek employment, and as such we are deploying state-of-the-art technology to achieve our far-flung ambition to reach everyone and to achieve the distinctive identity with our slogan of 'My Bank & I'.

On the impact of changing regulations on the type and nature of information that characterises the customer aspect of MIS:

In 2004, we had just 26 branches, as at today we have a little over 225 – an average of ten per year excluding closed branches within the period…74 agency branches and off site and teller in-plants with multilateral customer locations.

The growth of branch network, categories and types of business relationships has put an additional strain on resources supporting the MIS. While Corporate and commercial banking focuses on high growth sectors: telecommunications, oil and gas, transportation, construction and building materials, some of these customers as part of their service request demand online and real time access to both foreign and local denominated accounts and in other instances a fully-fledged implant service or in other instances a branch to support operations.

Another consultant during the regulatory crises posits:

You cannot relegate the influence of the generational shift on the change process the choice of the founder's son as a successor…. his UK education and working experience plays a major role in the change process…. our MD has worked in Citibank among other banks ... you will notice the Citibank culture and Citi experience among top management echelons…I am not saying that is the reason, but I feel it might be worthy of note...the leader has a role in all of these changes …the MD is the leader of the main implementation team and other teams he is not leading report to him so he is in the know, either by a general view of the organisation…. I observe that just as the founder, the (present MD) is a hands-on leader….

Hence essentially the role played by the MD/CEO initial banking experience and the organisational culture externally influence by variable as industry norm or experiences of practice variation as argued by strands of Institutional theory

7.7.2 Post-consolidation period

The bank also deployed a new retail-focused banking application, Finacle, launched in 2006, to assist with its succession planning and organisational learning. It successfully implemented a skills transfer strategy by developing an internationally renowned management team with a proven track record to complement its domestic work force.

It has also received awards for processes and procedures and level of customer service such as the Nigerian Issuing House League Award for Mergers and Acquisitions[32], Award for Nigeria's most consistent Issuing House/Financial Adviser 1993-1998 by Reuters and SBA Research Limited in June, 2000.

However, challenges faced during this period include: a wide skills gap, staff integration issues, culture challenges, NPL spike from 4% to 29% resulting from a declining credit quality of the three acquired banks, and a sub-optimal IT platform and ineffective branch network.

7.8 Periods and specific examples of change

7.8.1 Post 2007 mergers and acquisition issues

- Extensive re-orientation and technical training of retained staff
- Continuous confidence building by the leadership of THE BANK – acculturation of staff was achieved within twelve months
- IT infrastructure for all three banks was integrated into the Finacle bank-wide platform in six months
- Recoveries of bad loans and restructuring of credits has seen NPL levels crash to 3.2% for FYE 2007.

There is a significant role played by the family who still retain the controlling interest and stake in the group. The choices made by the board can not be divorced from the interest and direction

[32] Only financial institution to have won this award for three consecutive years indicating the groups strength in Mergers and acquisition

of the founder's family, and core strategic choices and decisions are centralised. This reflects the power and domination of individuals or groups in mobilising power during a change initiative or design of an accounting system, as referred to by Sinikki (2008). This view tallies with that of Wanderley and Baros (2015), who suggest that the length of a leader's reign shapes the culture of the organisation in accordance with his or her beliefs and personal vision.

The founder in an address states:

> *The ethos, values, ideals and culture that have sustained us to be where we are today…attributes and the benefits of these origins and foundation, particularly at these trying times in the Nigerian economy in general and the banking industry cannot be said to be a stereotype or being over-emphasized. Hence the collective efforts of all our stakeholders to ensure that we remain focused on these ideals and values which have earned us respect. However, it is one thing to be aware of these ideals and values; it is another thing to assiduously put them into practice. Whether we are referring to the global economic meltdown or the reforms being undertaken by the Central Bank of Nigeria because of the stress audit of banks' books of accounts, we at …readily acknowledge what strategies and original values have enabled us to achieve our present level of development and recognition."*
>
> ……. "*sticking to our original values, ideals and culture".*

The founders address is premised on the argument of consistency in cultural practices values and ethics is responsible for the successes recorded in periods of regulatory change. This view supports the assertion that culture influences the choice of MAS choice embarked upon by the organisation. While change is posited as a continuous activity within the organisation, the extent of change remains within consistency of values and established culture within the group.

7.8.3 Public listing of shares

In reflecting on the origin and process of establishing the financial services group, the founder alludes to the influence of family businesses established around the world as a motivation for founding the bank. A reflection of this emerged from excerpts of addresses at the 30th anniversary of the group:

We were propelled by precedents of what has been the practice world over, whereby enduring institutions were set up by individuals who later surrendered ownership to a larger group of people and progressively extended ownership by getting shares of the institution quoted on the Stock Market. The group is a product of entrepreneurial fervour that has ultimately given way to the listed 'the Bank'Plc [THE BANK Plc], which is indeed the flagship of the financial services conglomerate known as First City Group Limited and which also has under its umbrella, THE BANK Capital Markets Limited, CSL Stockbrokers Limited, City Securities (Registrars) Limited, and First City Assets Management Limited.

The founding fathers of our bank, 'the Bank'Plc, whose shares are now quoted on the Nigerian Stock Exchange [NSE] have never been shy to admit that we are a product of the entrepreneurial aspiration of one individual nor are they under any illusion that we can hang forever on this private ownership. Rather, it has been our aspiration that one day, our efforts and contributions to the Nigerian Financial and Banking Industry will be immortalized when ownership and control are transferred and easily accessible to all and sundry, particularly, discerning investors on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.

Today, 'the Bank'Plc has over 80,000 proud shareholders who have enthusiastically invested…, a director on the bank coverage and broad growth areas recorded during post consolidation era.

We cannot say that the change process was without resistance…. the change process was imposed on us especially during the period of banking consolidation…. The option was achieving a new regulatory imposed capitalisation or be liquidated …. while this did not initially alter the nature of business. The surplus funds and the need for the bank to return dividends to shareholders made it mandatory for the bank to align her activities with that of competitors hence the need to delve into retail banking from a more traditional merchant banking focus.

While earlier statements allude to minimal influences (direct and indirect) in establishing the business model the influences of global family businesses represented a method by which the business model was founded. In addition, these family businesses described also served as training ground for grooming and training the second generation of family owners. Although the group's diversification may also be deemed as a product of a planned strategy, the timing and co-occurrence with regulatory changes in the operating environment indicates an external influence as opposed to a rational and planned organisational change.

7.8.4 The 2005 banking consolidation reforms

The most radical and significant change experienced to date in Nigeria's banking industry was the 2005 banking consolidation exercise. This resulted in a marked increase in the number of employees, contrary to most forecasts of job loss before the consolidation exercise. See table below.

Table 9 Group employee figures 2004-2015

Year	Number of Staff
2004	344
2005	521
2006	2720
2007	4213
2008	4745
2009	4585
2010	4600
2011	4222
2012	3023
2013	4202
2014	4430
2015	4143

A regional human resource manager[33] with the legacy bank reflects on the new culture and practices observed post acquisition:

> *On our acquisition, staff (from the acquired bank) had individual profiles developed as a starting point; all staff with disciplinary cases were let go, that was unheard of in our FB[34] days. In as much as fraud or doubtful integrity were not exhibited, staff were disciplined by being moved to new roles or locations or denied promotion for a period; the former owners believed everyone is entitled to an opportunity to get better or to improve themselves…the new group we find ourselves in appears driven by a set of different motives, we believe that if you are not trained for a role, have not performed that role over time you cannot be assessed on it… they believe if you have a vacant role you are a required to fit in and perform that role and where mistakes occur you are penalised with the assumption that you ought to know and with your knowledge of banking you ought to be a generalist not a specialist. I believe that is the reason for the high turnover of staff we experienced at the time of their takeover…. in addition to people that were*

[33] The Manager in reference resigned before the completion of data collection and declined further participation

[34] FB Acronym for newly acquired bank Finbank

fired a lot simply did not see themselves working in such a non-structured manner.

Looking at the employment figures (fig 7.2) at the time of takeover, there appeared to be a consistency despite the anticipated increase in number of staff arising from the acquisition of the FB subsidiary. Attempts to probe details and criteria of staff attrition were all formally avoided and classed as part of the sensitive areas the study will not cover[35]. Comparison with the financial statement of FB at the time of acquisition reveals that may have been affected by the staff reforms.

During informal discussions, a retired regional control officer clarifies these issues by explaining the variation between the categorisation of staff and the financial reporting system:

> *Shortly before the acquisition you will see form the financial statements that it did appear that staff strength was constantly taking account of net differences, there is obviously a contradiction in the number of staff added on …if a bank is bringing on a little over double the existing branch numbers you will expect the staff strength to at least improve by a quarter, that was not the case as the bank outsourced several roles to the group and other associated companies owned by directors or former executive managers…Tellers are now provided by an outsourcing agency as are drivers and dispatch riders…who work for the bank but are paid as non-bankers… those are some of the issues that resulted in my resignation… just as this sort of realignment took place in the acquired subsidiary it was also carried out internally within the group that accounts for the variation in staff make up that you have pointed out.*

[35] As most current employees avoided questions on this area, it is believed that other factors might have influenced the choice of staff members laid off. The study was unable to obtain evidence beyond that it was a business decision influenced by a robust HR-generated data set.

7.8.5 The merchant banking era

A pioneer staff member - now a contractor and consultant to the group – states:

> *While the competitive banks operating in the industry experienced political interference and inconsistencies in policies via policy reversals…we had a bank focused on the founder goals and motivation, the founder retains a strong interest in running the bank….you know he still comes to the head office once in a while and he is always around at AGMs or important board meeting…he believes in a hands-on approach…at a stage he was also personally involved in branch expansion supervision to ensure that the THE BANK standard is maintained…you will also notice culture and brand consistency among branches irrespective of their location. So, in summary to your question the systems and practices has remained fairly consistent over time.*

To meet the demands of a retail bank, there was a need to reorganise and reshape the banks organogram and form a centralised credit function in the head office, and a divisional and regional structure was designed to expedite credit disbursement and to be in line with the average industry standard. These shifts are represented by the unit organogram for the operations and technology group presented below, and the credit administration organogram presented under the credit administration section demonstrates innovations to the MAS at the group level, entailing the role of a divisional MIS officer designed to provide specific and tailored information both at regional and at divisional level.

7.9 Organisational structure

Since inception, the group structure has undergone increasing and elaborate modifications introduced to meet the challenges and changes driven by policies (and modifications to policies) in the external environment.

Where modifications have taken place, these have included for instance changes in the operating structure, or those following external or institutional investments. Figure6 on page 182 presents the group organogram.

Each division within the bank is headed by an executive director with a dual reporting role to the MD and the board. The current structure in place within the organisation is a combination of regional, divisional and financial categorisations. In line with the Nigerian code of corporate governance, the roles of the Board Chairman, MD and CEO are separated.

A recent example is the current enterprise risk management organogram attached as Figure 8 and the operational organogram attached as figure 9.

> *In terms of risk it can be said we have a culture, you can see that it flows from the organisation and the regulatory bodies which shape the considerations we have to factor in in designing and implementing our risk management framework…this culture guides staff in making lending decisions as we still operate a manual credit decision-making system; there is a need to establish a culture among credit officers and risk activities.*

7.9.1 MIS and Risk management systems

All risk metrics are tracked and reported monthly to the enterprise risk management division and the board risk committee which has an oversight role to ensure that group risk remains within acceptable limits set and approved boundaries; where deviations occur, they are designed to be immediately investigated and efforts made to avoid reoccurrence and control lapses fixed.

In terms of the rate of policy modification, the group's credit policy is reviewed annually or as frequently as required by market or regulatory conditions. A retired credit officer gives another reason for such reorganisation as being:

> *…a need to realign group employees who have acquired competencies in diverse areas with the emerging goals and strategies of the group as they evolve or as staff movement or skills shortage makes such moves expedient.*

Another credit officer exploring the role of the group's environmental and social management systems (ESMS) explained that the system was a by-product of the group's sustainability framework. The group designed the system as a means of influencing stakeholders' behaviour by supporting environmental principles contained in the Nigerian sustainable banking principles. Another significant change is the use of a divisional head at the grade of a GM to take charge of Human Resources and employee-related matters, which is a mandatory requirement of the CBN and gives compliance with the regulatory requirements for a separate division for internal control, compliance and anti-money laundering.

A similar example of regulatory-imposed change was the creation of the position of a DMD in line with a succession planning requirement of the Nigerian banking industry, which conflicts with the internal arrangement where the most senior person acts as the DMD as the need arises. In contrast to previous methods a clear line of succession now exists within the bank. Although this appointment was made with the intention of succession planning, within a period of two years the DMD had resigned and moved onto other roles in a similar mid-tier Nigerian bank leaving the succession planning arrangement in a disarray. The power roles playing out by interest, control and politics become clear from the respondents' analysis of the circumstances that resulted in this 'perceived' minimal implementation of the succession arrangement.

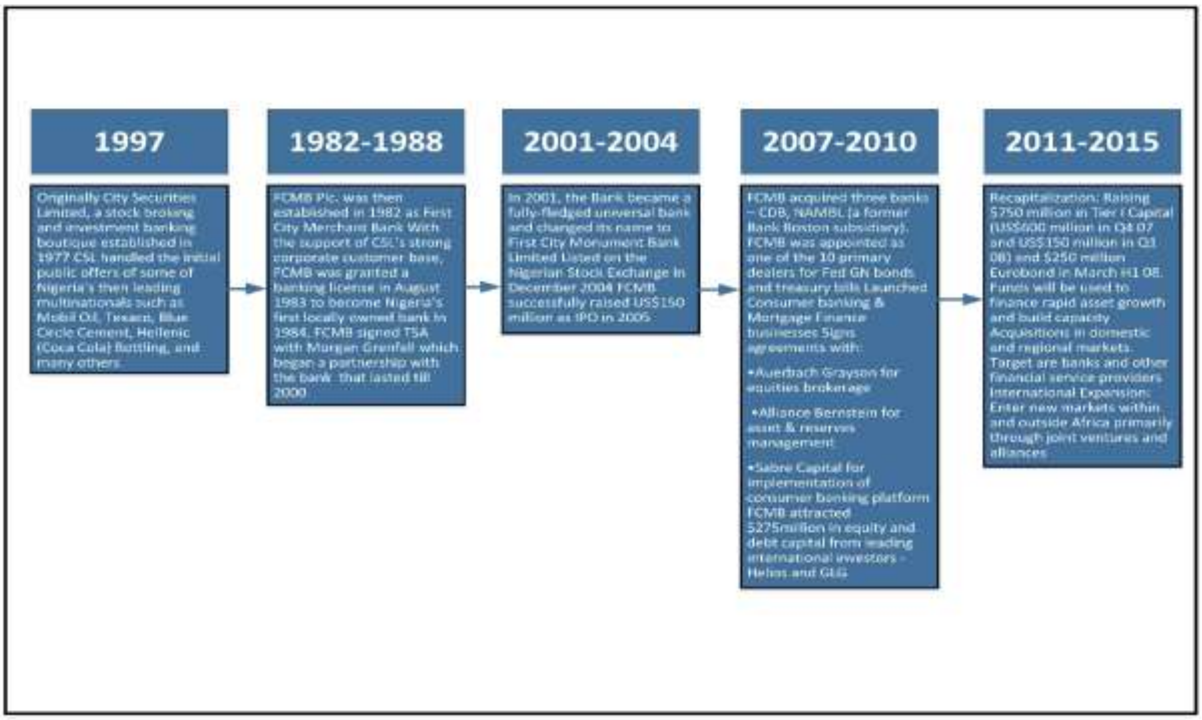


Figure 7 Key phases of change within the case study organisation

- Ownership Structure 2006: Retail Investors – 40% founder's family & associates – 20% Helios Capital Partners – 15% GLG Partners – 5% Institutional Investors – 20% (as at 2007)

7.9.2 Transformation of Organisational Values

The bank's overall vision is "To be the premier financial services group of African origins".

The group's sustainability commitment statement was modified to the following "The ability to achieve our vision is hinged on the long-term success of our stakeholders and the environment where we do business, hence our commitment to effective corporate governance, sustainable value creation and application of effective risk management principles." The group designs its business activities and operations to ensure that it lends responsibly, encourages diversity, adheres to health and safety standards and reduces/avoids negative impacts on the environment. The founder further tracing the process of change in an interview clarifies:

> *We explored innovative ways to attract deposits insofar as they do not infringe any of the regulations, which enabled us to break out of the investment banking module.*

Midway through our journey, in one year, I personally supervised the building of almost 100 branches across Nigeria. In consonance with our 'Culture of Excellence', which I had implanted in the institution, I tried to create a distinctive identity. When people first saw our branches with these distinctive identities, the sceptics said we were only a bank for the rich, because the buildings were 'intimidating' and classical.

Over time… all other banks in the country simultaneously started projecting a distinctive identity and soon you could identify any bank by its typical style of branches.

With the building of more branches, we started talking of a financial supermarket, whilst our brand management was talking of a bank for everyone. In the course of our expansion, we acquired other banks that were known to be specialising in retail banking so that we could reach the nooks and crannies and take effective advantage of our nearly 300 branches, spread all over the country. The evolution or should I say, revolution has been turning us into a bank with emphasis on retail activities.

The founder further clarifies the decline in commission on turnover (COT) and the removal of ATM inter-bank withdrawal charges were mitigated by the increased number of transactions witnessed as the bank grew its retail base and loan book, which drove not only lending fees, but also other transaction commissions and net revenue from funds. Furthermore, it was able to improve other non-interest income lines in the commercial banking space, particularly trade-related fees and structured finance fees.

What have we done with our Culture of Excellence? I would readily answer that by continually seeking to be the best, we are within our element, as we want to be the bank everyone needs or wants to bank with. We would also want to be the best place to seek employment, and as such we are deploying state-of-the-art technology to achieve our far-flung ambition to reach everyone and to achieve the distinctive identity with our slogan of 'My Bank & I'.

I believe we have made considerable progress by the amazing strides that we have made over 35 years, when I started with a stockbroking firm, an Issuing House, and thereafter a fully-fledged merchant bank, subsequently aspiring to take deposits, and at a particular stage we were in the forefront to advocate universal banking; and also, the first to be talking of the concept of a financial supermarket. Quietly, we pioneered the group concept. When the Central Bank changed the rules that we could not provide all the subsidiary services in the same company, we did not have any problem in re-structuring ourselves and our different services as subsidiaries in a group structure, known as THE BANK Group Plc. The Bank 2015

> *…tagged as 'entrepreneurial banking'. That was something the market recognised in us as both innovative and unique, and gave us a distinct identity within just 30 years of existence as a bank.*
>
> *With all hands-on deck for this total transformation, I am confident that with our Culture of Excellence, we shall soon become the bank that is on the lips of everyone.*

As part of the reforms, there has been a modification and recreation of components of the bank's credit and lending processes. Several aspects of social practice as well as regulatory amendments have shaped the new manual developed by the group in determining lending decisions.

> *We have integrated environmental and social impact considerations into our lending process. This ensures that we finance businesses whose activities and operations do not endanger the environment and the community. A process has been created that ensures transactions are grouped under specific risk categories by the frontline officers at the origination of credit application. This is reviewed and validated by the credit underwriters as part of the comprehensive credit assessment and appraisal process. Depending on the risk category, a transaction may warrant the appointment of an independent environmental impact assessment (EIA) consultant. This risk assessment process enables the underwriters to identify risks that will require mitigation plans to be signed by the customers as part of transaction terms and conditions.*

While there appears to be evidence of this in terms of the training and a valid report on sustainability in the financial statement, a follow-up question to the officers involved in the credit process did not yield specific instances where a credit decision has been rejected on the basis of noncompliance with the sustainability framework. For instance, the banking subsidiary has arranged and offered loans to firms operating within the oil and gas industry as noted in the country context chapter, oil pollution accounts for approximately 75 % of environmental degradation in Nigeria. Yet instances of the sustainability reporting system informing a loan proposal rejection was not found. Thus, indicating an instance of contradiction where symbolic compliance with rules overrides other values in existence within the group

The Head of Capital Markets alludes to the dominance of oil and gas within the group's activity, stating:

In 2013, we saw our oil and gas franchise come to maturity, earning us numerous advisory and placement roles in the burgeoning indigenous oil and gas sector.

Yet with the dominance alluded above minimal impact of the MAS influencing change within practices of the Energy group was presented at this phase of the study

7.10 Performance management systems

The group's operational risk management process is linked to performance management, which was achieved through a risk and control index that forms a key part of employees' performance appraisal. This process has helped drive desired employee performance levels, irrespective of role or position, which has helped to develop a control attitude and risk awareness among employees. A respondent from the HR division states:

The operational risk management process is linked to performance for all divisions and subsidiaries. While initially this was resisted, we overcame by delegating that role to the internal control group who maintain the risk and control index used bank-wide… while this has achieved the desired level of awareness on risk management bank-wide it has also made the basis of performance measurement and reward more objective…. Also, this is in line with our PACE objectives.

On probing the relevance of the risk index to the dynamic operating environment, a unit head suggests:

The information we get from the system is not static in some circumstances. Major changes or events may result in a trigger to update our risk control index so as to capture emerging trends in the market…. yes…we adopt sufficient flexibility to meet operational or environmental exigencies.

In comparison to these views as expressed by management and operational staff, most perceive the design of the PMS as unfair in operation and as failing to account for unique skills sets and competencies of staff. Some suggest the risk index is a means of achieving low performance scores, as some of the variables are unfairly measured with negative appraisal ratings for staff.

While we are told that our job description will form the basis of our appraisal it does not…the risk assessment criteria are largely something we struggle to understand…. I work in admin…a support role where I am required to support daily branch administration… How do I prevent a fraud being perpetuated on

> *a customer's account in a different branch which resulted in a default "D" rating for the branch and all staff stationed therein…I doubt if you will perceive that type of system as open and fair…? The management intention on such a system is to have a matrix to game the appraisal system in such manner to determine the number qualifying for promotion.*

Exploring the various forms of incentives in place for staff, a review of the employee handbook reveals a significant realignment of the group's incentive system with the general vision and mission of the group. Key within this is an overhaul of the subjective and supervisor-driven appraisal system to one that is aligned to achieve the organisational objectives using the BSC. As earlier noted, group performance and risk and control assessment reports form part of the employees' appraisal matrix. Part of the immediate change in the reward system includes recognition and financial reward for high-performing and long-serving employees.[36] High-performing employees qualify for rapid promotion and movement to higher pay grades outside the traditional semi-annual promotion cycles. This has encouraged on the one hand innovation and desire for excellence amongst employees, but on the other hand there are instances where this has had an impact upon their peers. As noted by a regional credit staff:

> *Indeed, I felt demotivated to know that a peer performing similar functions earns more and is open to more employer benefits than me…. not by technical competence or on-the job performance but because of regional profit points earned. My role as a credit support officer is to ensure timely disbursement and minimal defaults bank-wide, I outperformed my peers accounting for the least defaults in my portfolio…but in reality, the region had some legacy non-performing loans that are charged against regional profits hence the reduction in my overall score….it will interest you that these are legacy loans from an acquired subsidiary …should I be punished for management's insufficient diligence during the merger process? The motivation for the merger was not the profit from this region but for the branch network and market share in another region that formed the basis for the acquisition. I have not qualified for promotion in the last three years in spite of my core job performance. I am in the process of seeking transfer to another unit or a different bank, whichever comes first.*

[36] The benefits alluded to include employer-sponsored holiday trips, mortgages, access to sponsored training and a differential pay system.

The career and succession planning initiative is significantly linked with the organisational learning policy of the business. Appendix Cii provides a list of ten directors over the last ten years to identify their training and initial background. The table indicates a tendency for most of the directors to either have been foreign-trained or educated prior to assuming positions within the group.

As part of the transition period and reforms there appears to have been a deliberate attempt or strategy of retraining key staff of the acquired subsidiaries to assist in the post-merger period. Where such staff were noted to be high achievers, a staff member of the group was attached to work alongside and understudy the member to ensure smooth transition and to prevent customer loss or dissatisfaction.

Following the public listing and dilution of family control a more decentralised management reporting structure evolved, initially by delegation on a regional basis followed by a devolution of roles and responsibilities at zonal level, both to ensure efficiency but also in response to competitors' transaction efficiencies and faster customer transaction processing times. A former regional staff member comments:

> *At a point in the Northern part of the country other banks could initiate and disburse credits within 48 hours to customers...we however could not do the same as credits must be approved centrally…although the control component appears efficient, the effect on our customers includes lost business or delayed transactions. Where my customers' needs cannot be met and it does appear I am not as efficient as I used to be, I had no choice but to move to a bank where customers' requests are processed at regional levels as opposed to head office approval.*

Part of the post-2008 change to the bank's performance measurement criteria was the inclusion of customer satisfaction as a matrix in determining employee annual performance. Internal and external customers formed a major distinction in the categorisation of customer satisfaction as a 'tool'. Several of the tools now used to observe these performance criteria include adherence to service level agreements (SLA), number of customer complaints and incidences or control lapses, all measured on a quarterly basis.

Although elements of these controls were in existence prior to the 2005-2008 reforms, there was no formalisation or inclusion of these systems with the performance management systems. An HR-based respondent clarifies this by comparing the sanctions applicable for service failure:

> *Within the PACE sanction grid, in most cases there were provisions for first and second offenders in that where there was a provision for supervisory counselling as a punishment for repeat offenders there was a provision for delayed promotion, suspension or termination of employment where such service failure results in a financial loss to the group. Within the post-PACE period where service quality was emphasised, the bank's sanction grid was modified to result in a suspension for first time offenders and dismissal for a repeat service failure.*

Other examples entailed linking staff promotion to overall organisational performance and creation of a variable pay concept where customer satisfaction plays a role in determining the amount of incentive staff will be entitled to within a quarterly payment cycle.

The emphasis now placed on service quality is reflected both in the group strategy, control systems and performance measurement systems. This much is stated by the MD/CEO on the influence of customer service quality on overall strategy, which has indirectly shaped the KPIs used for measuring employee performance:

> *Our competitive strategy is centred on delivering excellent and helpful customer experience.*

Although the emphasis on quality was reflected in the performance measurement systems, there was a link between service quality and performance measurement. Specifically, the indices for measuring the responsibility became a challenge, especially between branches and in instances where a multi-unit approach is required to resolve a customer's service request. Several service and quality indicators were developed, however the initial problem of distrust with the appraisal systems continued because unclear scores or the ‘expected’ level of transparency in PMS and appraisal process remained unclear. Similarly, the QMS is based on reports and indicators inputted by frontline staff, customers and the internal control unit (which also depends on data from frontline staff). In instances where the data was inputted into the system without due care or not clarified in terms of purpose and accuracy, a potential conflict occurs. During one of the interviews a mid-tier branch co-ordinator states:

> *A customer’s loan account was overcharged as a result of a systems error, though the customer had the error rectified at the branch (which in this case did not originate from the initial loan nor was the problem source), his response to a customer survey was clearly an unhappy score which is used to negatively assess the branch, assuming the branch as the responsibility unit.*

This does not indicate where the problem lies and which unit is responsible for the service breach. Such customer comments indicate a system where responsibility is tied to branches or service outlets for services breaches that originate from other units or functions. As a result of the perceived weakness by frontline staff, the drive towards a more data-driven and objective appraisal system was considered as an effort by management to streamline operations and introduce standardisation which can be used to attribute service failure to frontline staff.

7.11 Customer-focused control systems

The group’s customer-based control systems monitor and control customer relationships within the business, representing an example of an addition to existing control systems. The customer-focussed control is borne out of a need to align control and performance measurements within the group.

The group's organisational field is made up of state regulators, customers (some of which are multinational companies), competitors (some multinationals as referred to in chapter two), consultancies and foreign correspondent banks. It has in-house PMI capabilities from successfully executing three acquisitions in the past six years, proven industry professionals and additional support from PMI advice from Roland Berger, Accenture, and McKinsey. This in-house capacity partly explains the growth of its successful integration strategy.

Some of the main criteria in determining a suitable target include: the method of information systems, i.e. centralised or decentralised; similarities in banking applications; manageable size of the target companies; and existence of similar and comparable subsidiaries in the target acquisition company.

7.11.1 The role of technology as a component of the MIS

On the use of technology within the group as a competitive advantage, the group cites innovation and creative deployment of technology as some of the factors accounting for improved cost monitoring within the bank and group. The IT team lead commented:

> *Despite a 33% growth in customers in 2015, you will see that we have kept our costs remained flat. We have improved our efficiencies and we are reducing costs generally. We are using technology and other innovations to reach more customers. Our channel strategy has been remarkable and effective.*
>
> *With market turbulence and economic policy uncertainties, we are reasonably confident that with strong capital, more focus on cost efficiencies, capital optimisation and accelerated retail growth; we will see steady improvement in overall performance and sustained profitability. We understand that this requires a committed effort at driving through changes around risk management, operational and funding efficiencies while progressively reducing capital-intensive transactions, while at the same time further strengthening our capital position.*
>
> *We were successful in the planned moderation of our operating expenses. This is a medium-term exercise over 3 years that will gather pace in 2016. The early stages of the implementation of the cost curtailment initiative resulted in a modest 2% growth in operating expenses in 2015 (well below inflation rate), as against an 11.7% growth in 2014.*

Hitherto the group's focus was on using profitability, cost of funds and quality of loan portfolio as the main performance matrix. Subsequent appraisals systems are designed in such a manner to attempt a link with the core values of PACE. Each element of PACE is designed in a manner that performance measurement matrices reflect and measure.

As part of the transition towards a retail banking strategy, the bank refined further the values to include a measure of retail customer satisfaction, the Net Promoter Score (NPS). The bank executive clarifies the role of NPS as part of the modifications to the performance measurement systems. NPS measures customer satisfaction and advocacy, and the dynamics and focus of staff performance. Adducing the strength of the bank's strategies in focusing on customer satisfaction as leading to increased customer retention and acquisition of new customers, the divisional head of retail banking and MD of the bank states:

> *We are now acquiring 55,000 new customers monthly and disbursing 20,000 new loans, with over 2,000 monthly to women-owned micro-enterprises. We are signing on 70,000 new customers every month on our mobile banking solutions.*

When compared with other subsidiaries within the group, the subsidiaries wholly owned by THE BANK Limited performed remarkably better due to a more benign regulatory environment for local non-banks. The group MD provides clarification on the operating environment:

> *Because of the credit losses experienced in 2015, we have made significant changes to our credit underwriting standards and intensified our loan recovery efforts. Accordingly, in both corporate and SME banking where we experienced the highest impairment levels, we expect to begin seeing a turnaround, with steadily reducing cost of risk in both segments.*
>
> *Overall, the group has demonstrated over time its ability to weather challenging economic environments, and we remain confident in our ability to apply a disciplined approach in delivering tailor-made solutions to our diverse client base.*

The head of the investment banking subsidiary reviewed the prior year's performance in the following:

> *The past financial year was particularly challenging for business activities in Nigeria due to the significant and sustained drop in crude oil prices, political uncertainty in the build-up to the country's general elections, and the uncertainties around foreign currency liquidity in the local market. Notwithstanding the macroeconomic headwinds faced, we demonstrated our adaptability and resilience by remaining profitable.*

He commented on regulatory influences in the following:

> *The major challenge witnessed in 2015 was increased competition from both local and international brokers. This resulted in a further squeeze of margins as commission rates fell from 27 basis points (bp) in 2014 to 22bp in 2015. Management is gradually re-orientating its business towards direct client business as against the indirect relationship arrangement currently in practice, as the former offers more margins than the latter. This will complement the company's global broker relationship.*

On the macro-economic challenges of operating as a group, the Head of Brokerage suggests that the cost of increased competition and globalisation was part of the negative impact affecting the business. Examining the brokerage arm, the executive notes:

> *The group's corporate brokerage revenues declined in 2015 as the business environment experienced a lot of fundamental macro-economic challenges ranging from foreign exchange restrictions, a significant decline in crude oil prices, increase in inflation, and political challenges culminating in a change in government. All these led to the abysmal performance recorded in both the primary and secondary market.*

One initial indication of change in the ownership structure appeared through the level of realignment and readjustments implemented by the newly hired managers. One of the key actors in the project PACE initiative commented:

> *At the time of the group's acquisition we were told to expect things to change…. What we had was more of a transformation of processes, people and structure…it was simply a total departure from what we are used to …we were used to a progressive system where managers grow to occupy higher offices by default and virtue of their relationship with the founder …. that changed to more of a result and output driven system...it will shock you for the*

first time managers were mandated to resign or retire for non-performance…that was hitherto unheard of within the group.

The 2005 change was a regulatory-imposed changed that was not expected: a regulatory response to the proliferation of banks in the Nigerian financial industry. As a result, the bank had to radically reposition itself in the face of regulatory and market change. A retired senior manager in charge of strategy in this period observed:

We had the change and capitalisation imposed on us to meet the objective of government and the CBN's reform of the Nigerian financial industry. We found ourselves in a situation of strategize or perish….

The recapitalisation drive of this period required banks to meet the minimum recapitalisation amount of 25 billion Naira, either by mergers and acquisition or foreign investment. For the case study bank the choice of share issue and acquisition with three existing banks with diverse spread represents how the regulatory requirement was met. While there was the regulatory anticipation that the volume and nature of business activities would change to more technical and complex financial transactions, some comments from mainly mid-level managers demonstrate how the situation was close to that which hitherto operated within the sector. A manager in charge of regulatory affairs sheds more light on the limitations of the imposed change.

"although the capital requirement was met, you will notice that most banks within the period of raising extra capital state their reason as that of branch expansion and investment in IT infrastructure… that was in my view a form of the banks attempting a strategic resistance to the regulatory imposed change where symbolic compliance is adopted as opposed to compliance in reality.

7.12 The QMS

As part of the effort to achieve a retail bank strategy and as a mark of the bank's commitment to attaining world-class standards, the group embarked on a process of aligning the bank's procedures and processes towards achieving International Organization for Standardization

NIS ISO – 9001:2008 certifications for its Quality Management System (QMS) and operating processes. While this certification process may lend credence to its vision of being a world-class bank, it also forms part of the change initiatives embarked upon in furtherance of the investment by the funding group. In the view of the MD/CEO, the certification's emphasis is on the customer experience satisfaction. He states:

> *We are delighted to receive the NIS ISO 9001: 2008 certification for our organization. It is also an important step in defining our customer experience and ensuring operational effectiveness. This lays a foundation for continuous improvement and we expect that over time these standards will impact positively on customer and employee satisfaction, our revenues and our costs.*

The NIS ISO 9001:2008 requires the firm to commit itself to continuous improvement of processes and procedures with a view to achieving effectiveness and cost reduction across its service delivery channels. The emphasis on customer satisfaction requires that a certification of the adherence of processes to the ISO standard confers an additional advantage when considered in line with the proposed strategy of acting as a multinational bank, especially to an emerging group of multinationals operating in Nigeria.

Alluding to factors that may have accounted for the success of the QMS certification project, a member of the business process improvement team suggests that the collaboration of staff across all levels provided an avenue for the stringent requirements to be met:

> *…the Group can only be among the best in professionalism, in the conduct and the quality of our business and in endearing ourselves to our clientele and customers. We continue to re-engineer and renew ourselves with new initiatives that are giving us an international outlook. All these are influencing our customers' perception of us; and on our part, we seek to satisfy such customers anywhere within the global dispensation.*

Speaking on the recent merger, the MD believes the added value to customers will include access to additional channels and platforms of business transactions reflective of a world-class bank which focuses on customers having a unique banking experience; an experience which is a product of customer service support, a skilled workforce and a technology-driven banking platform. He suggests that these contact points help validate the world-class vision of a bank that is characterised by constant process and procedures, irrespective of location, with consistent compliance with statutory and regulatory requirements. The significance of this achievement in 2008 is reflected in the fact that as of that time it was the third bank in Nigeria to have achieved such a feat. The MD/CEO[37] notes:

> *We have a track record of success in merging banks to drive value for shareholders and deliver excellent service for our customers... customers of the combined bank will benefit from a product range which blends the very best of both* THE BANK *and FinBank's products…the group is committing significant human and financial resources to ramping up its customer and other stakeholder engagement platforms through its world-class contact centre, mobile, and on-line banking to ensure a convenient and seamless transaction capability and superior customer experience via any of our communication touch points. (sourse;The bank financial Statement 2015)*

Further components of the transformation process include a service quality directorate established to monitor adherence to the given guidelines within the bank. While the unit was in existence there was an unclear synergy regarding the unit roles with the overall strategic goals of the bank, and it was more focused on adherence to service and customer satisfaction in the branches. The post-2008 service quality team[38] not only retained these values but seeked to serve as a point of resolution of customers complaints or areas of dissatisfaction with an overarching objective of maintaining and improving customer loyalty and gaining increasing customer numbers in the banking sector. The service quality unit is part of the internal control unit and is focused on more subtle areas of complaint resolution, service process improvements and working in cohort with the branding team to ensure increased customer loyalty. While the operation manual specifies a nil error rate requirement for processing transactions, there are instances where breaches occur. To manage these service breaches there is a complaint register

[37] Address at NSE presentation on the Acquisition of FB

[38] The service quality team can be described as the equivalent of a quality control unit with objectives of maintaining consistent service quality across the bank's service channels and outlets.

that is updated with the numbers of complaints and the relative values being claimed by customers. As at the 2015 year-end, the following records were contained in the annual statement as a number of outstanding complaints against the bank. There is a complaints management system to ensure that stakeholder complaints are handled in a “fair and appropriate manner”, and each branch as part of the procedure has a dedicated register for customers to register complaints and a central collation is carried out bank-wide to obtain trends and a global view from the head office.

Table 10 Breakdown of customer complaints and associated costs exposures

	Number		**Amount claimed=N='000**		**Amount Refunded =N='000**	
Description	**2015**	**2014**	**2015**	**2014**	**2015**	**2014**
Pending Complaints B/F	64	28	0	0	0	0
Received Complaints	46620	50096	2910339	12608409	0	0
Total Complaints	46684	50124	2910339	12608409	0	0
Resolved Complaints	46572	49897	582186	872282	485550	668644
Unresolved Complaints escalated to CBN for intervention	27	163	2328153	11736127	395166	379264
Unresolved Complaints pending with the bank C/F	85	64	0	0	0	

Increasingly however there are more KPIs for staff members (both customer facing and non-customer facing), which include customer satisfaction as a component of the performance measurement matrix. For instance, there are service level agreements set in place to ensure each unit performs tasks in a timely and efficient manner to ensure adequate customer satisfaction. Common tasks such as account opening, cheque book issuance, loan processing have been ascribed an average processing time to enable staff members to have a relative understanding of the duration of the back-office functions with a view to reducing both office conflicts as well as customer-bank conflicts. While training appears to be a ready solution to problems of this nature, establishing a SLA[39] between units and job functions has reduced further the nature of conflicts on the one hand as well as having improved the quality and efficiency of delivering customer services on the other.

On the imposition of the group structure by the CBN regulatory provisions, a senior management staff member supervising a regional corporate banking team alludes to the imposition of the group structure by the CBN in commercial banks, stating:

> *While we may have had a group structure in place, it is worthy to note that the core business and strength of the group remains wholesale banking and registrar services…. these have not changed much, while we still strive in line with our vision to be a leading commercial bank with active presence in retail and whole sale segments.*
>
> *We plan to underpin the progress in our retail banking business with the successful completion of the acquisition of FinBank Plc, a transaction that tested our resources and resolve in a longer than anticipated acquisition campaign. Our priorities, going forward, will be to accelerate organic growth, driven by the distinct competitive advantage of exceptional customer experience.*

[39] Service level agreement

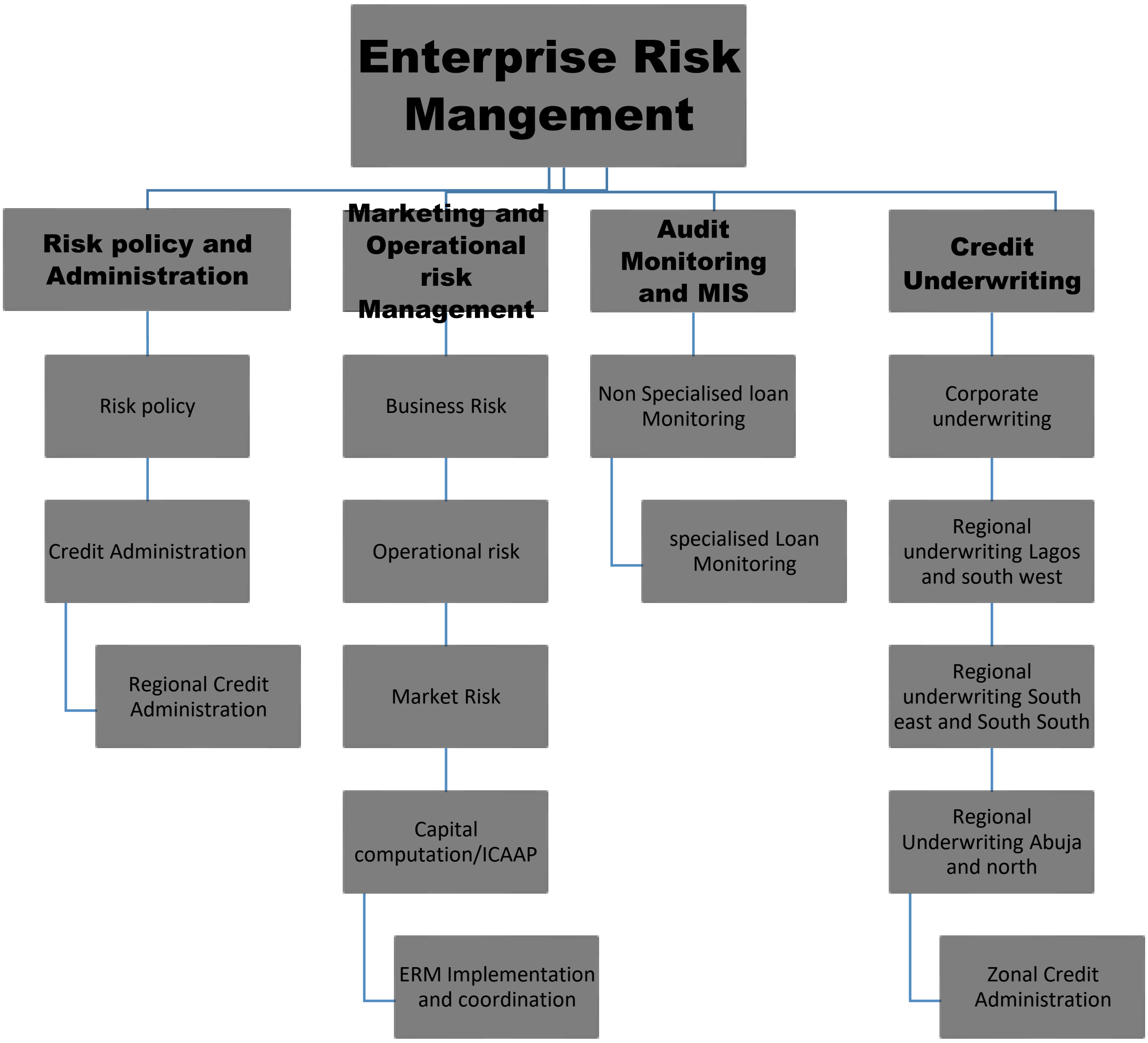


Figure 8 Enterprise Risk Management Framework

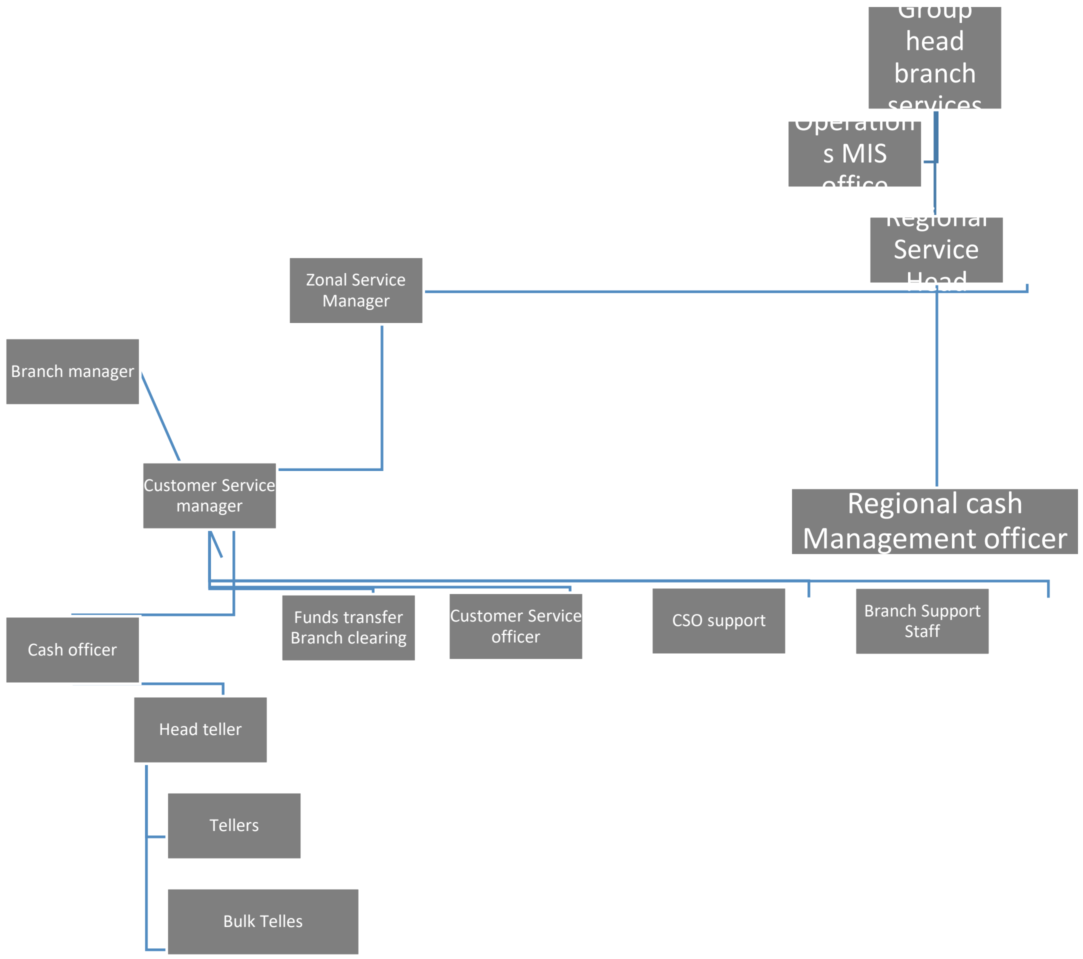


Figure 9 Operational Chart representing a Divisional Structure

7.13 Summary

This chapter presents an overview of the case study organisation attempting an understanding of varied subsystems making up the MAS within the organisation. The chapter also attempts an initial analysis of the case study with instances where elaboration of descriptive information enabled further detailed analysis to be carried out in the subsequent chapter, which discusses the case study and the link with the earlier stated objectives of the thesis.

Chapter Eight - Discussion

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of associated processes of MASC observed within the case study organisation. As earlier noted in the described data collection methods in chapter six, the study discusses the data gatherer about the case study supported with the theoretical framework as presented in chapter four. Thus, the chapter is structured to present detailed insight to the roles, processes, routines, rules and issues of resistance associated with MASC. Elements of change presented in the preceding chapter are classified along themes derived from the respondents' quotes, thus facilitating a comparison with existing theories.

8.2 Issues related to MASC

The discussion of the process of institutionalisation within the organisation adopts Bogts and Scapens' (2013) approach to analysing the PMS within the case study organisation, classifying the institution into two distinct groups, i.e. internal and external institutions.[40]

One of the changes in the context of MASC relates to the shift in nature, value and form of banking within the country. Previously existing structures and ownership of the banking industry were dominated by foreign ownership and banks, leading up to the nationalisation of foreign banks in 1977. The period 1983 to 1992 was characterised by government regulation and ownership following the nationalisation of foreign-owned banks of the 1970s. The nature of the industry post-1990 became increasingly competitive, resulting in a need for change in the logic of the external institution to that of competition and accountability to a wide spectrum of stakeholders i.e. government, foreign investors, shareholders and regulatory bodies.

[40] Note again the distinction between internal and external institutions as posited by Bogts and Scapens (2013) as given earlier: internal is concerned with history and traditions of the organisation; external refers to all organisations within the field as identified by Dillard *et al*. (2004).

8.2.1 MAS and the existing regulatory framework

MASs are not independent of the environment within which they exist, but are rather shaped by their institutional, social, regulatory and political contexts. In terms of an analysis of this case study, further consideration of factors influencing the bank's choice of and approaches to MAS include those of regulation, culture and historical influences; in particular, regulatory factors are significant, given that the financial services operate within a regulated industry. Some examples of regulation-influenced systems within the organisation include the quality management systems and the MIS where the choice of IT systems are prequalified in terms of costs and security attributes. Another example related to the MIS includes the need for a NOTAP[41] certificate detailing requirements of technology transfer agreements and local content provisions. As observed, mainly foreign firms provide software required for the banking industry.

Within the group there also exists a chief compliance officer responsible for monitoring adherence to legal and regulatory provisions. Outputs of the systems making up the MCs are the number of infractions, associated costs of such infractions per annum and the responsibility centres of such infractions. These details are statutorily required by the NDIC and the CBN, and disclosure is also mandatory as part of annual financial statements.

The output of the system is designed to reflect and, in most instances, conform to the requirements of the regulators but this in turn forms the basis of decision-making, hence two major categories of factors account for change in MAS, i.e. the regulatory and the coercive.

[41] The National Office for Technology Acquisition and Promotion (NOTAP), was established by Decree No. 70 of 1979, amended by Decree No. 82 of 1992 now referred to as NOTAP Act cap 268 LFN 1994. NOTAP is a parastatal under the Federal Ministry of Science and Technology (FMST).

8.2.2 Identified MA practices within the group

The analysis and observation of documents and interviews with respondents indicates the existence of several MA practices within the group as well as the bank. While some of these are backed by rules, there is a large domination of routines that in most cases are contradictory to established rules projected by the group. Prominent among these are the roles of cost and fair allocation of indirect costs across component units.

A responsibility system of accounting exists which forms a major component of the group's performance appraisal system and a sub-component of the group's management control system for monitoring units and divisional performance. Worthy of note is the level of trust within the family firm, and family trust of management was noticeable in the extent of MCs and the nature of MIS in place in subsidiaries. This thus supports the view by Eddleston *et al.* (2010) that where family owners have trust and confidence in the management of a subsidiary, less formal mechanisms of control are established.

8.2.3 The role of actors during the change process

Aspects being studied using this approach are efficiency, the characteristics of innovation, and the role of propagators (Ax and Bjørnenak, 2007). As classified by Kauseurien (2002), actors in this family business played multiple roles during the transformation processes; in some instances, members of the family functioned as facilitators or leaders within the change process. In spite of the decision reached, the family business served as a black box for the conversion of change initiatives. While the study adopts Kauseurein's model to examine the role of actors, institutional theory as postulated by Burns and Scapens (2000) and Busco *et al.* (2006) was used to refine the roles of actors, and how they use power and influence to shape the process of MASC. At the societal P/E level, consultants of multinational audit firms, technical advisers from international finance agencies and foreign correspondent banks represent the source of major rules. While these were not mandatory in most instances, it is at times advisory in nature but tend to be adopted given the predisposition of banks to perceive such advice as innovative and following financial sector regulatory guidelines.

The choice of the MAS facilitated the modification of the management reporting system to include and capture more than numeric data: for instance, qualitative measures such as customer satisfaction and performance measurements based on non-financial measures as opposed to the previous fixation on numeric data. Issues like business development and inter-team collaboration formed the basis for developing the new performance template.

During the process of change, formal authority was conferred through the family influence exercised directly by the new MD on existing management, as well as through the former MD (now Chairman) acting through a series of formal and informal networks to shape the process of change while consolidating the hold of the family. For the current MD, formal power was conferred by his role as MD/CEO; for the former MD, influence was informally exercised through associates and representatives on the board as well as formally through associates who remained on the executive management team to stabilise the group during the post-2005 change process. The role of these long-standing associates was to ensure the preservation of established values and routines within the group. New MA or MASC practices were seen to be promoted by trusted promoters of change within the group, thus supporting prior findings by Yazdifar *et al.* (2008).

8.3 Comparison of internal and external change initiatives, motivations and interests

Internal and external forces drive change within the organisation. Internal forces observed include family influence, increased institutional influence, diversification of shareholder base and attempts at succession planning. External forces driving change include competition, globalisation and increased government regulatory overview of the industry. In terms of drivers of change, the study provides evidence of the role of regulation, institutional investors, and internal and external managers as a major source of influence for MASC.

8.4 MASC and drivers of the change process

This section considers and identifies the various drivers affecting the change in MAS within the case study organisation. For this purpose, change is defined as a form of creation modification or abandonment or change in users and uses of the MIS.

As earlier noted, companies only change in instances where compelling reasons warrant such change. Following Hoque and Alam (2004), Wanderley (2014) and Mitchell and Suleiman (2005), the factors observed within the case study organisation as influencing change include regulation, family influence, trust, market environment, as well as other factors. For the purpose of this discussion, this study considers factors by the classifications given by Yazdifar and Tsamenyi (2005)[42], dividing the drivers of change along lines of inter-organisational subjective values and norms or a desire to achieve legitimacy as proposed by Perera *et al.* (2003) and Wanderley and Cullen (2013). Thus, the discussion of the collated data on factors influencing change is given in the following.

8.4.1External regulation and Management controls

Following consolidation, the Nigerian banking industry was constrained to improve its regulatory supervision to include the Basel II requirements on risk-based regulation and internal processes. Regulations amended or enacted include the CBN act, NDIC , SEC and CAC[43].The new regulation to a large extent required detailed information on varying time periods about internal systems and processes[44], with some regulators requiring similar

---

[42] The choice of Yazdifar and Tsamenyi (2005) is influenced by the similarities in the variants of institutional theory adopted for the purposes of both studies.

[43] Refer to Chapter Two for a detailed description of these regulatory bodies.

[44] These processes and systems includes Performance management systems, Credit risk management systems and Customer relationship systems

information in varied formats and modes of delivery. As observed by a regulatory compliance officer:

> *The NFIU information is required electronically; some others (regulators) request hard copies of reports to the CBN.*

Variations in the generation and formatting of reports and reporting periods has placed an additional strain on the MAS of the case study organisation. For instance, the QMS requires documentation and reporting of customer complaints on a monthly and quarterly basis. Where complaints are not resolved within the 90-day grace period, the bank is sanctioned and a customer redress granted pending final resolution. Similarly, where the MIS breakdown results in branch-wide service failures, the bank is sanctioned and failure to comply with the reporting requirement similarly results in regulatory sanctions. Details of loans and credit advanced to directors is also required as part of the regulatory reforms to the banking industry.[45]

The MCs system of MAS is used by the regulators to access the financial strength of banks at any point in time (in addition to other indices as proposed by the BASEL III banking supervision accord). Examples of inputs considered include internal control systems, and the adequacy and efficiency of operations. Others includes adequacy of controls to prevent and detect fraud.

Where new projects are to be embarked upon within the group (such as acquisitions, mergers, branch consolidation, share of establishment of subsidiaries or closure of branches and subsidiaries) there is a need to use information generated from the MAS to support the regulatory application, specifying costs, projected profits and cost savings where applicable to aid regulatory decision. The nature and diversity of information required by the regulatory bodies significantly accounts for the modification of the MASs. The MAS can be said to have

[45] It is worthy of note that no formal credit records system exists in Nigeria, a reflection of the risk serial debtors pose to the security of the |Nigerian Banking Industry.

been coercively and mimetically induced to change by the information requirement imposed by regulatory bodies on the industry as a whole.

Another core area of regulatory influence on the MAS includes the requirements that deposit money banks' operating expenses to income ratio is maintained within the ratio proposed by the regulator. Thus, the MAS is required to be linked with the financial reporting system. While a separate system was not required there was a need to modify the existing system in such a manner to facilitate the multiple generation of information to support the varied needs of regulators, as well as satisfying the financial reporting cycles. Hence on costs and expenses the budgetary system was designed to produce an output to serve the financial reporting requirement, and MAS to meet the needs of regulators, while reflecting management control of expenses and organisational costs.

The risk-based surveillance was designed to aid regulators to assess the safety and soundness of banks by evaluating the risk profiles, risk management practices and overall compliance with rules and regulations. Adoption of RBS by banks has resulted in an increased reliance on MAS-generated information to enable an early assessment, detection and mitigation of risks within the banking industry and banks to prevent the emergence of system risks. Similarly, the Nigerian banking regulatory bodies have adopted the forward-looking regulatory process which places an emphasis on all material entities;[46]this RMF has thus required a review of major risk control areas related to MAS such as board strategy, internal audit risk management and compliance, risk and control functions. The CBN RMF specifically states:

> *Where applicable there is a need to place reliance on organisational internal audit, risk and control functions to obtain an understanding of organisational internal activities.*

[46] Including subsidiaries, branches, joint ventures and associated companies.

Examples of information sought by the regulators from the MAS include total expenditure incurred on activities in relation to total group expenditure, and net income incurred on activity in relation to net group income, indicating a reliance on organisational costing systems.

Hence the regulatory information requirement driving the nature of the report represents a source of MA change within the case study organisation. Similarly, the requirements of Basel III[47] as noted represents another source of change in the nature of MAS output and system: the MAS now produces both qualitative and quantitative information as opposed to a traditional focus on quantitative data, which requires business units within the group to provide the newest of information not previously captured and recorded within the MAS or within the FAS to the benefit of management regulators and senior management. There is an emphasis on the risk management system to identify and assess credit risk, market risk strategy, operational risk, and legal and regulatory risk.

As earlier noted, the introduction of a risk-based supervisory system was an important driver of change within the group as RBF supervision altered the nature and form of regulatory information requirements. Thus, the MAS and larger financial reporting systems had to be modified to meet the needs of regulators. Although some of these needs could be met through the existing systems, others had to be integrated with the MAS. Examples observed include the MIS, budgetary systems and PMS. Following the regulatory-imposed change there has become a need for hitherto non-related areas and systems to interrelate in order to meet the new regulatory requirements. As a result, managers behaviourally have become more involved in the use and input of data to the MAS as opposed to working on the back-end and generation of information on an adhoc basis. It was thus observable that that new users and the influence of

[47] The issues raised by the Basel accord includes capital, the need for risk profiling, assessment of financial and non-financial activities and information.

MAS developed as a result of the regulatory induced requirement; an example of a coercive regulatory change and also a factor accounting for change in the MAS.

8.4.2 Institutional investors and venture capital agreements

As observed in the last chapter, the group embarked on a venture capital agreement with a group backed by former international bankers[48] as part of its growth strategy, representing another influencing change driver of MAS. As a previously private and entirely family-controlled business, information needs were designed and provided for the benefit of a close group of users, with management included within this as being similar to the ownership. However, with changes in ownership, and with the listing of the group's share and the associated dilution of ownership, there arose increased calls for the MAS to provide required information to meet the multiplicity of stakeholder needs internal and external to the organisation. For instance, there was a need to provide and submit the annual group budget to the CBN and the NDIC for the banking arm, but as a result of the change in business form the SEC and NSE became another set of regulators interested in the MAS (budgeting, project costing, and financing).

As a result of the investments made by the two dominant foreign investors, the business' MAS experienced a change in logic with an direct consequence on the MAS of the group which required a system modification to support the needs of a different set of users who were, as observed by a retired manager, "relatively powerful and well informed stakeholders" – and also for the MAS to acquire legitimacy and signal a satisfying logic of a multinational diverse ownership. This has thus created a pressure on MASs to provide additional details to satisfy the stakeholders and to also meet the requirements of a limited liability company operating in a regulated industry. Change was thus a product of a desire to achieve legitimacy, signal the

[48] Helios group investment partners in April 2007 - a 16% stake was acquired by HIP (Helios Investment Partners) from the period 2013 to 2017.

change and achieve an overall improvement in the quality of management, operational processes, control and decision-making, while improving overall organisational communication as part of the PACE change initiative project. Some of the change in MAS attributable to the projects includes new PMS; the MIS and the link between the operating system Finacle and with Infopool has resulted in an in-house development of a new and modified ERP. This link has provided a basis for integrating the operational arm with the commercial arm, thus reducing MAI asymmetry and ambiguity among users and management, and ensuring improvement in budgetary and PMS reporting and relevance which supports the findings of Kholief *et al.* (2007) and Wanderley (2014).

8.4.2.1 Institutional investor influence

Another driver attributable to the change process within the case study organisation is the role of institutional influence in terms of the demand for clarity on the decision-making process and an emphasis on data-driven six sigma methodologies to reach decisions and carry out tasks as individual projects, as opposed to the earlier approach of using historical facts or relying on managerial decisions.

The need for cost efficiency and reduction of staff attrition represents another reason for the change in MAS. Similarly, the institutional investors required a leaner branch and organisational hierarchy. [49] This aimed to achieve a lower staff-to-expenditure ratio as well as a reduction in overall group operating costs. Adopting this approach resulted in a drive to achieve uniformity across the branch network. By so doing, the subsequent decision to embark upon an ISO certification and the implementation of corporate governance codes resulted in the need to modify and change the existing MAS to reflect international best practices to which the institutional investors were required to adhere to by fund providers. From the motivation of the institutional investors the desire from the MAS was to facilitate adequate control and

[49] As part of the proposed reformed tied to the investments.

risk management to take over the stake in the group and MAS was required to reflect this desire. On the other hand, the family desire was to allow this change to achieve the internationalisation phase of a long-term corporate objective. Closely related to this objective was a desire to implement a MIS structure operating with multiple stakeholders within a regulated and competitive industry as opposed to a firm operating with a limited set of stakeholders or as a wholesale bank transitioning to a retail bank.

The MAS was thus designed to adapt to changes within the group's operating environment; the areas significantly affected by the changes include internal control, PMS, QMS, CRMS. The choice of ERP as a tool of integration and control of subsidiaries is supported by Newall *et al.* (2003), indicating that managerial pressure on MAS supports the need to enhance decision-making, shareholder value, overall profitability and survival of the firm. However, the extent of implementation indicate the adoption of MAS as a fad or symbolic response to meet stakeholders' influence to conform with the changed logic of the group.

8.4.3 Competitive influences

8.4.3.1 Industry influence vs industry practices

The Nigerian banking industry is characterised by the operation of multinational banks. As noted in chapter two, six multinational banks operate in the country[50]. In some instances, where new staff or industry products are launched, there is a tendency for other banking firms to mimic such practices to improve efficiency or reduce operational costs within individual firms. Examples of such practices were found to have been encouraged by staff turnover and migration from one organisation to the other, joint industry training or via informal interaction by staff members of the group with other bank staff.

[50] Citibank; Standard Chartered, Stanbic, Sun banking group, Jaiz banking group, Ecobank

As observed in chapter 7, the group is regarded as a mid-tier bank and fits the description of a late adopter as provided by Dillard *et al.* (2004). As a late adopter the bank is found to mimic practices of first tier banks and the international banks operating within the country. As observable from the appendix Cii on the background information of former executive directors, the bank's management is largely composed of directors with varied length experience in first tier banks, multinational banks or international audit firms. As suggested by one of the respondents, "the major challenge appears to be increased competition from both local and international corporations." As Dimaggio and Powell (1991) and Dillard *et al.* (2004) observed, mimetic isomorphism refers to mimicking strategies of a more successful competitor or rival.

While the banking group exhibits elements of mimetic isomorphism, the stockbroking and wholesale banking arm of the group appear to be an early adopter, as former staff of the subsidiary accounting for a large number of senior employees of competitors within the wholesale banking industry in Nigeria. The subsidiary has experienced a high turnover of senior staff as a result of headhunting and staff poaching by competitors in a view to mimic the case study's subsidiary practices. This could account for the changes implemented within the stockbroking arm to improve the high staff turnover ratio. While there is no competition within the sector, the high rate of staff mobility has fostered mimetic isomorphism within the sector. The case study for MAP mobility of people accounts for another strong influence on change as opposed to organisational mimicking of competitor practices.

8.4.3.2 Professional associations

The Nigerian Institute of Bankers, the Association of Chief Compliance Officers and the Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria represent other sources of best practice in MAS within the banking industry. For instance, the case study organisation is classed as a golden employee of chartered accountants with a functional branch of the ICAN that provides training on MIS to members on management control techniques and new innovations on accounting through its CPD[51] which represents an example of normative isomorphism. This again happens as an indirect influence exercised by the regulator in enforcing change. This form of association gives direction and indirect influence to members on areas of improvement required such as control or risk management to prevent fraud and undue risk exposure.

Overall, professional associations, competitors and staff mobility all represent forces for change to MAS, although the level of influence appears to be less predominant and can otherwise be regarded as subtle when compared with a coercive approach as exercised by the regulator in a bid to facilitate a discussion of the findings.

8.4.4 Family pressure

Another source of influence on the MAS remains the influence of the founder and immediate family members heading subsidiaries and key areas of the business. The current management is partly composed of the second generation of the family, hence family influence remains strong and visible in areas of strategy, control, PMS and MIS. Although there has been a reduction of influence due largely to professionalization as suggested by Giovannoni *et al*. (2011) and Duller *et al.* (2011), regulation and the influence of institutionalised investors on the strength of the family group remains visible albeit reduced. For instance, through direct and indirect proxies, the family and founder still account for over 30% of the group's stake, which remains a source of exercising significant influence over the subsidiaries. Other instances of influence are evident in strategy determination, succession and budgeting policies. However, there have been attempts to obfuscate the ownership by transfer of some assets to a trusteeship account. An analysis of the case study indicates how the roles of ownership, regulation, family and professional association accounts for changes in MAS.

[51] Continuing professional development is mandatory training required to retain chartered accountant status

While the factors of family, regulation and institutional investor influence represent sources of coercive isomorphism as having largely shaped the MAS, the absence of large areas of regulatory influence over MAS thus reduces the influence of regulation when compared with FAS, which is almost entirely regulatory shaped. The family and institutional investors wield more influence in terms of coercively influencing MAS change.

Linked to coercion, the choice of a risk-based supervision framework in addition to changes in money laundering and CFT legislation similarly account for change within the MAS, aimed at improving the overall quality of the MAS while adhering to regulatory provisions. It was observed that MAS was thus changed to improve the quality of information generated and communication of group goals.

8.5 Constructing the MASC post-change projects analysis of observed issues

8.5.1 Redesign of MIS

The main issues around MIS entail an uncertainty around staff communication and the overall implication for the MIS of the organisation. Initially in line with Dillard's (2004) model, issues of delayed adoption and trade-off of new innovations arose within the group; the adoption and use of innovative technology appears more noticeable in the head office locations and the regional offices with close proximity to the head office. Mixed uses of the adoption of MASC initiatives between groups and subsidiaries were also observed. In the bank, a subsidiary adoption of new practices and innovation of MIS appears higher, as this is recognised as a tool for easing and conducting daily transactions and in most cases required by law. Examples of these requirements include the e FASS[52] report rendition and the NFIU STR reports for suspicious transactions.

[52] E-FASS: Electronic Financial Audit Sub-System audit tool used by the CBN to monitor deposit money banks.

8.5.2 Redesign of PMS

In terms of communication with actors, where the PMS is designed to reward exceptional performance this can result in feelings of resentment or anger amongst team members; for instance, new members are said to be more likely to bring forward new ideas than old team members who have been immersed in culture. One of the logics that evolved with the new PMS includes that of transforming the role of PM from development focus to one with a judgemental bias thus discouraging supportive future development and or performance focussing on historic evaluation of staff performance as against futuristic capability. A team lead HR respondent summarises the PMS as follows:

> *the PMS appraisal is largely judgemental; and no longer gives credit to developmental efforts and or future capabilities of staff. Increasingly staff experience slower career progression and loss of key staff to competition*

8.5.3 Creation of a QMS framework

There was an increased focus on customer satisfaction and reduced customer complaints, and an increased drive for customer loyalty via value added services; customers' MIS and QMS became normalised and 'taken for granted' in the process of organisational change. This form of change is however linked by means of 'coupling' to the PMS, although an increased reliance is placed on qualitative research and verifiable means of performance measurement as opposed to the earlier subjective measures, 'loyalty', or relationship with the family owners.

While the general characteristics are observed within the group as an institutionalised practice, the rules and routines[53] in practice were observed to differ between the subsidiaries making up the group. The review of the group and subsidiary indicates a shared logic, history and

[53] This is observed through rules and routines as opposed to the institutions which cannot be physically observed - see further distinction by Burns and Scapens (2003), Yazdifar *et al.* (2008).

influences, a function of the common history, group relationship antecedents and historical context. But for acquired firms and subsidiaries, the extent of practice is largely influenced by the level of trust and family control present in some of the subsidiaries accounting for the extent of implementation and use and reliance on the MAS. Where a MASC process is initiated, the extent of change that is expected to occur varies on the nature of logic dominating at the subsidiary level.

Within the banking group for instance, at varied times post-1992 market liberalisation, the logic was survival and sustaining a market share of an increasingly competitive and diversified market. Hence, as observed by Bogts and Scapens (2014), the aim is to strive to achieve "efficiency and effectiveness through control…exercised by professional managers." Thus, the logic and aim of the business has changed from being a national and principally a family business aimed at survival to a competitive one where professional managers are required to maintain survival and profitability within the industry.

During the era of the survival logic state induced by the government regulated market era, managers were centrally controlled and adherence to control remained the dominant logic. Risk appetite was generally low and innovation of new products or practices was low, hence the focus on banking and advisory services where the group was the dominant market leader. However, with a shift in logic to a more competition-centred market and industry, roles and responsibilities became decentralised with managers being given increased levels of control over risks and decision-making at branch regional and directorate levels. Performance measurements using quantitative means developed from criteria such as loan recovery, dormant account reactivation, business growth, low cost deposit mobilisation and cost control. Cabal and Sabal[54] became key for assessing performances under a quantitative PMS based system where tools such as league tables and net promoter scores are used to evaluate managers and

---

[54] CaBal:Current Account Balances; SaBal:Savings Account Balance

their reports, as opposed to more qualitative metrics such as attendance, training, experience, and professional or academic qualifications.

Closely related to this are new systems introduced to assess and appraise senior management staff. Areas of the business with established formal controls and PMS[55] have seen an increased reliance on quantitative measures such as cost management, profitability, growth of business and regulatory compliance; these have become indices and matrices for assessing senior managers. The change in logic also introduced customer satisfaction as a yardstick for measuring performance. For the less regulated subsidiaries within the group, e.g. capital assets and property managers, there still exist elements of informal controls where the focus of the performance system is developmental as opposed to judgemental systems. This supports the view of multiple logics and variants of the PMS operating within a single organisation – in this case the group and its subsidiaries. It also supports the existence of elements of practice variations.

8.5.4 Creation of RMS

The ability and extent of change possible in an organisation is dependent on the nature and form of organisational structure put in place by management (Cobb *et al*., 2005, Abdelkader (2000). The extent of influence the organisational form adopts varies between organisations because sub-components of organisational systems are not "standardised processes", and as argued by Arena *et al.* (2010), it differs with context and variations in organisational values. The risk management processes within the case study organisation is required to comply with both the internal adequacy processes while the second requirement entails a supervision and evaluation of processes which need to comply with the CBN regulations (as noted earlier these regulations are informed by Basel banking accord). To facilitate these new requirements the group developed a new risk control and assessment register across the group but with a special

[55] Within this context the banking and investment banking subsidiary

focus on the banking subsidiary and specifically on credit and operational risk processes. While the formal systems were observed as being recently designed and implemented (post-2009), there also existed an informal credit risk assessment system where formal and informal discussions with customers, clients and regulators help to assess risk and the level of trust to be placed on new relationships with external customers and clients. The new elements introduced as part of the change process entail automation of the credit origination processes and the use of an industry-led credit risk assessment criteria and credit bureau. While this signifies the development of a new system (rules) as with other banks in Nigerian banking industry, the actual origination and disbursal of loans after the period of change in the CRMs did not significantly change the volume or value of loan disbursements.[56] In this case, multinationals, government and high net-worth individuals remain the choice of most sales staff for loan disbursement. This represents a source of systemic decoupling..

8.5.5 Budgetary system

The nature of the budgetary system reflects an existence of uncertainty prevalent within the group's external system. i.e. the political, economic and regulatory environment.[57] As observed in chapter seven, a common theme among interviewees revolves around the existence of flexibility built into the budgetary process of the group. Among the elements are updates on a monthly and quarterly basis, use of rolling budgets, shorter time spans, and varied budgets methods and frameworks.

[56] Dun and Bradstreet considers the rate of credit report generation in Nigeria as one of the poorest in the world with most commercial banks giving preference to loans to major multinationals and high net worth customers as opposed to issuing credit to the SMEs driving the growth of the economy. http://thenationonlineng.net/nigerian-banks-credit-report-poorest-worldwide/

[57] As noted in chapter two, Nigeria's political, economic and regulatory environment is characterised by policy inconsistences that negatively affect organisational planning and forecasting for businesses operating within the country.

Budgetary systems in place within the organisation were observed as being linked to other systems (MCS, MIS, PMS and strategy) and adequately coordinated in actual and daily practice, however the link appears blurred and less obvious. This supports the view of Mundy (2015) who suggests that elements making up the MCS are loosely coupled and separately designed, or coordinated without an intent for elements to function as a whole; in some instances, the budgetary systems relying on informal and formal systems result in inconsistencies across periods in the organisation. These inconsistencies exemplify cases of decoupling as referred to by institutional theory. For instance, the elements of uncertainty in the budgetary system are not clearly linked or provided for in the CRMS as a competitor's reaction to change which hitherto was provided for by the budgetary system.

However, levels of uncertainty within the areas of operation limit the extent to which the budgetary system can accurately function, a further reflection of the societal-level characteristics within which the organisation functions. The overall budgetary system was observed to hold different logics across multiple organisational levels. For midlevel managers for instance, budgets signify a basis of appraisal and assessment of managerial performance, thus supporting the view of Wahlstrom (2009) in relation to the use of budgets in the appraisal of managers.

Subsequent modifications observed in the budgetary system were an attempt to link the system with that of the sustainability and financial reporting elements, and included adjustments to provisions for varied energy and fuelling costs provisions and guidelines to change to the legitimising structure proposed as an energy compliant business. However, special measures such as pollution reporting and carbon tax offsets were not designed, thus indicating the charge on sustainability as contained within the MAS was largely coercive, and the systemic response was largely that of achieving legitimacy within the external environment via sustainability as a legitimising process.

8.6 Role of resistance in MASC implementation and redesign

8.6.1 Resistance at design stage

At the design phase of the MIS, mental allegiance to the existing system and a desire to continue with knowledge domination of the existing system served as a major source of resistance. This phase witnessed the embedding of new rules and routines in MIS processing into the group's daily activities. Training and consultation were adopted as the dominant forms of resistance resolution adopted by management in obtaining employee buy-in.

8.6.2 Resistance in MAS implementation

Resistance in the realm of MASC is a well documented research area in MA literature, as illustrated in chapter three. Although clear cases of resistance did not emerge in themes during interviews, subtle forms of resistance were observed in the case study within the broad areas of risk management, and MIS elements of resistance were also observed.

This section attempts to examine the nature of resistance and how institutional factors have shaped the process of such resistance. To achieve this purpose, the resistance is divided along the two themes highlighted earlier, i.e. internal and external resistance.

8.7 Contradiction and praxis in change

Burns and Nielsen (2005) suggested that though actions of agents shape existing institutional arrangements, these actions are also reshaped by the inevitable by-products of institutions; that is to say, institutional contradictions are identified as ruptures and inconsistencies among established social arrangements. Seo and Creed (2002) identified four main sources of contradictions: technical inefficiency, non-adaptability, institutional incompatibility, and divergent interests. While Burns and Nielsen (2005) argue that these are products of continuous isomorphic adoptions, institutional contradictions do not always result in institutional change.

In the early period of deregulation, the core strength of the group remained the wholesale banking, merchant banking and investment advisory sub-divisions, serving as major issuing houses of shares listed on the emerging Nigerian stock exchange. While within this period it remained a mainly family-owned business, it successfully operated a network of less than ten branches. Emphasis was predominantly on survival and retaining market share of a unique and largely untapped financial sector. With increased competition and market diversification, this began to be questioned with changes in market dynamics in the 1990s and with the government total market liberalisation of the banking sector which resulted in an increased number of banks offering specialised merchant banking to take advantage of hitherto untapped market segments. Similarly, conventional banks began to offer wholesale banking in addition to retail banking products and services.

Following on from the projections, increased competition, challenging business environment, inconsistent government policies and political instability associated with the period, there was a decision to increase the branch network and income stream of the group to retain the market position and explore new market areas. While this may be indicative of a first attempt at changing, the logic was that of a family group with interest in retaining control and ownership over that of economic efficiency. The change during this period was thus internally focused and aimed at improving operational processes and reducing operating costs.

The banking within this period for the first time included deposit activities to improve income stream and to potentially diversify the risk assets base for the group. While the process of adopting such banking procedures was not unique to the group – because the same group of consultants were producing similar services to other participants at the operational field level – the group retained an advantage in providing wholesale banking services and tailored the emerging retail banking services to suit the unique needs of customers. Hence, to facilitate smooth operations within the period, a divisional structure was established for operating units and a regional banking reporting structure was implemented to operate in line with the divisional structure.

Further analysis of the case study indicates elements of contradiction between the new business direction and the institutionalised business practices of merchant banking, thus elements of technical inefficiencies were revealed by the institutionalised practices which masked the unsustainable nature of a small market segment and the operational limitation of a minimal branch network. These identified inefficiencies form the basis of reassessing processes and implementing the first wave of internal change. The case study finding supports propositions by Burns and Nielsen (2006) and Seo and Creed (2002), where a non-adaptability efficiency gap and inter-institutional incompatibility praxis for change are likely to increase when considered in light of the role of actors, group founder, regulators, operations officers and externally-recruited consultants acting as institutional entrepreneurs exploiting perceived contradictions in human praxis.

Minimal resistance was experienced within the organisation through the non-existence of trade union and articulated internal workers unions, as well as the 'top down' manner of the change process. While the process remains an ongoing one it is characterised by occasional pockets of resistance which remain minimal and are overcome by linking adoption and elements of the change outcome to the staff appraisal process. Where powerful individuals feel threatened by imposition of change, resistance is dealt with by obtaining stakeholder buy-in from the more dominant group(s) within the group.

8.7.1 The role of rules and routines during the change process

The Burns and Scapens view of institutional theory suggests that new practices and processes are initially applied and modified until an organisational and process fit is reached, then at this stage employee buy-in can be obtained. Where the change is internal and top down, such practices and routines are then remodified and tested till they become established rules that will be accepted. Using the PMS and QMS lenses, the overall principles have remained consistent, i.e. the aim is to ensure customer satisfaction and prompt complaint resolution. However, there was a shift in terms of the focus on customers and the definition of customer service which was altered to include service via alternate channels and delivery of results in line with the agreed SLA. It can be observed that from conception to implementation to date the QMS has been made operational and reflects modifications to reflect the concerns and needs of lower level staff, while also reflecting the external demands imposed by regulatory bodies who have influenced the encoding and enacting by including desired attributes required in rules and routines related to the QMS. The perceived success of the QMS notwithstanding elements of resistance and contending interests for and against the implementation of the QMS within the case study exists. However, the force and coercive nature by which the goals of the QMS are pursued has largely subdued these elements of resistance and tensions by enabling modification of routines in a manner where rules and routines can co exist. While evidence suggests QMS is institutionalised, the existing QMS still operates with contradictory rules and routines in practice.

8.7.2 Change in rules and routines

Rules as formerly defined are "formalised statements of procedures imposed by actors internal and external to the organisation" (Burns and Scapens 2003). As the family retains a strong hold and influence over strategy and daily operations, the extent to which rules and routines change remains minimal supporting stability within the system. Routines tend towards informality as compared to the formality of rules; once routines are taken as the norm (i.e. they become taken for granted or institutionalised, as suggested by Burns and Scapens [2000]), they are difficult to change. Instances of change in rules and routines were observed from the case analysis, though with more instances of rules changing. Where routine did change, elements of externally-imposed rules were observed to initiate the change. One such routine associated with the PMS entails a reliance and dominance on the quantitative matrices of performance, e.g. sales or profit-generated performance measures. These metrics continue to be the dominant criteria for staff and manager assessment, although other quantitative measures and indices play a secondary role and do not override the existing routine of relying on qualitative measures – the subjective measures of years of experience, self-development and overriding business choice still remain at the core of performance appraisal. Thus, the group's pre-existing informal PMS has not been replaced entirely by the "formalised and professionalised" system of appraisals; the rules and routines related to PMS remain informal although with modifications to improve the level of formality present within a largely informal system. However, as found by Burns and Scapens, evidence from the case study supports inherent difficulties in observing rules and routines as respondents tend to possess sufficient knowledge of rules that they will default to a rules-based mode when the process is known to be under observation. Such ceremonial adoption was observed predominantly at branch level in this particular case of account reactivation.[58]

8.8 Reflections on change initiatives

One of the factors that made the CPI team successful was the decision to include technical and operations specialists as team members/project leaders. It was observed that such leadership brought a hands-on approach to the innovation and change process. As stated by one member, "We try to be flexible and inclusive in determining change in our processers, we try not to impose rather we obtain buy-in earlier on in the process."

This assertion also indicates information front-loading for stakeholder buy-in, so users express all views as a team to create a joint product: not an imposed decision where the benefits are ignored and innovation limitations exaggerated. In this instance, limitations or failures are considered to be challenges to which technical teams willingly provide supportive solutions.

[58] Observed as part of a branch visitation 28.01.17

This arguably accounts for the lower level of SLA breaches in the past four years with 0.5 % achieved and in the last three years not exceeding 0.21%.

This was expressed by another team member, giving an example of how internal processes help to influence and shape the external MAP in operation within the industry:

> *Our strategy process considers all individuals as team members- we do not look down on ideas. May I give an example of the newly introduced cheque and card issuance system was introduces by an entry-level staff who felt service speed could be improved. I am proud to inform you that the idea has resulted in an industry revolution that all other market competitors are attempting to copy; we also respect the fact that some change can come in from shop level as well as from the strategic team of the group.*

Speaking further, another respondent gave some of the ideas that have made the group successful in project implementation is encouraging multiple skills sets in entry recruits as well as in the hire of experienced staff from within the banking and closely associated industries as telecommunications and brand management. The recruitment and placement process is designed to encourage a range of diverse skills sets and knowledge to facilitate the problem-solving skills required of emerging business and market needs. There is an attempt to prevent the PMS from becoming too competitive and secretive, which can prevent the exchange of ideas.

In terms of branding and branch development, while the past reflects the desire to create the unique identity as alluded by the founder. For instance, part of the initial costs of setting up branches entails cost of creating the brand image associated with the pillars and complements required to create the "distinct identity" (see 7.7) alluded to by the founder. While this significantly limited the number of branches built prior to 2007; a stage where the dominant logic was maintaining a family heritage. Post 2007, with the dilution of ownership and investment by institutional investors the efficiency logic became more dominant and hence the consideration as of non-quantitative factors as branch location, cost of investment and potential returns on investments made at each branch giving the group more flexibility in terms of branch design, location and channel access. An analysis of financial accounts indicates there was less spent on branch development and many branches closed with investment in alternate channels and development of technologies to support customer needs outside of traditional banking hours. This also indicates a change in the structure of customer service delivery channels within the industry from face to face medium to embracing alternat channel where cost efficiencies can be achieved.

8.9 Typology of change in the organisation

As noted in chapter three, the study adopts Mitchell and Sulaiman's classifications of MAC. For this purpose, the change is classified along the dimensions of addition, modification, reduction, replacement and output modification. Consistent with this strand of literature, the study identified examples of instances of addition to systems, reduction in use and replacement with innovation or modern updates. Table 8.1 provides examples of each type of change observed within each unit. Instances observed include a reintroduction of an existing system previously discarded but reintroduced in response to changes in the external or internal environment, thus supporting the notion posited by Sulaiman and Mitchell (2005) that MA practices are rarely abandoned by organisations.

Type of Change	**Examples**
Introduction of new systems	QMS, CRMS
Modification and replacement of Existing systems	MCS, MIS, PMS
Cases of abandonment and reintroduction	PMS, MIS

While Sulaiman and Mitchell (2005) did not observe any cases of reduction, the data available from the case study indicates elements of reduction, and it was noted that elements of the MIS and MCXS were significantly less formal and reduced in terms of operational requirements within the subsidiary where influence and control of family members is considered high and without regulatory supervision.

8.10 Institutionalisation process: a three-level analysis

The discussion of the process of institutionalisation within the organisation adopts Bogts and Scapens' (2013) approach to analysing the PMS within the case study organisation, classifying the institution into two distinct groups, i.e. internal and external institutions.[59]

One of the cardinal changes in the context of MASC relates to the change in nature, value and form of banking within the country. Previously, the banking industry was dominated by foreign ownership, leading up to the nationalisation of foreign banks in 1977. The period 1983 to 1992 was characterised by government regulation and ownership, following the nationalisation of foreign-owned banks of the 1970s. The nature of the industry post-1990 became increasingly competitive and resulted in a need for change of the logic of external institutions to one of competition and accountability to a wide spectrum of stakeholders, i.e. government, foreign investors, shareholders and regulatory bodies.

8.11 Institutional theory analysis

The choice of institutional theory as a theoretical lens is founded on its ability to provide multiple levels of analysis to examine MAS change, while the Burns and Scapens framework as earlier noted provides an opportunity to focus on the change process internal to an organisation. Lukka (2007) suggests a loosely coupled system is based on the notion that individual components can function independently without disruption to the overall system operation)

[59] Note again the distinction between internal and external institutions as posited by Bogts and Scapens (2013): internal is concerned with history and traditions of an organisation; external refers to all organisations within the field as identified by Dillard *et al.* (2004).

Considering the early start-up of the MIS, the group witnessed improvement in the usage and processing of transactions and report generation using the new MIS platform Infopool which has become embedded within daily activities, especially at the operational level. However, issues of resistance arose as a result of operational exigencies, technological apathy and innovation apathy by end users, usually at the branch level. The group solution was to involve operational staff during the project design and ignition stage. Another tool used to overcome resistance at this stage was training and using the skills of operations staff involved in the project design team as part of the CPI team.[60]

Dillard *et al.*'s (2004) model represents one of the theoretical lenses adopted by this study. Adopting a three level analysis as presented by the Dillard framework and subsequent modification by Hopper and Major (2007) allows consideration of the change process along societal, organisational field and organisational levels, by considering how the interconnectedness and relationship at each level shapes the process of change within an organisation.

At the initial phase, the power relationships within the group appear distorted and indicate a basis for resistance by actors within the group, hitherto without a comprehensive MIS retrieval system. Specialist units (FINCON and the audit team) were required to generate certain information as required. As illustrated in section 7.2.1, the zonal manager said:

> *[It] was not possible ten years ago…we had to send a mail to FINCON waiting for the turnaround time of 72 hours and the report is sent…but with the development of an integrated MIS retrieval system, linking operational and MIS sub platforms (in this case finacle and Infopool) to function as a system, group staff are able to generate as when required. The linking up of these systems has reduced the existing level of information asymmetry that previously was a source of power and domination between teams, especially cross- functional teams and across levels of the organisation...*

When compared in light of the QMS, PMS and CRMS, it appears that the systems are allowing differing levels of independence indicative of loose coupling or symbolic change in the MAS,

[60] CPI: Continuous Process Improvement team (CPI)

as in practice the independent systems are self-running and are rarely interconnected (except on a 'need' basis as the link between the Finacle sub-system and operations sub-system).

Group and subsidiary MAS discussion appears to be top down from parent to subsidiary, with variations adopted to reflect specific regulatory requirements specific to the subsidiaries' operations, e.g. stockbroking or the capital assets market. Where the nature of the subsidiaries varies there are instances where subsidiary to parent change occurs[61]in terms of rules and routines, but rarely do practices get transformed upwards.

8.11.1 Institutionalisation at the PE level

The lifecycle analysis adopted for the study enables an exploration of multiple factors influencing MASC process within the case study organisation. As discussed in chapter two, the external and political economic context of Nigeria is characterised by major economic social and political reforms. These reforms have had multiple influences over the case study organisation. Borrowing from Duh's (2009) analysis of the influence of economic reforms[62] on MASC, a similar analysis of Nigeria's country context and the case study indicates a situation to the contrary of market competition, arising from the deregulation of the banking industry and presence of foreign banks and representing one of the reasons for adopting changes to the MAS. This view and perception tallies with existing literature on MASC (Hopper and Major, 2007; Soin, 2002). Analysis of the case study also indicates that the relationship between MASC and market forces is a dynamic rather than a linear relationship, further supporting Modell (2009) and Moll and Hoque (2011).

[61] Another example is embodied in the digital payment platform adopted from an acquired subsidiary that has transformed the product offering on alternate channels. While this is outside the scope of the study it represents the most common illustration that respondents provided on how subsidiaries or acquired businesses influence the group's activities.

[62] In this context as noted based on economic reforms in China and its effect on MA practices of Chinese firms.

The nature of competition varied over the period of the banking lifecycle, as noted in chapter seven. At the stage of survival, emphasis was largely on quality and cost management whereas growth was minimal. With increased sophistication, globalisation and in the case of Nigeria liberalisation (with foreign banks allowed to operate again in Nigeria via fully fledged subsidiaries) the nature of competition became more intense, resulting in an increased emphasis on quality and an improved QMS framework. Although regulatory influences were observed in this regard, it is largely market competition and consumer demand that induce change in MAS and the need to embed such modifications in daily activities. Although modification in rules relating to the QMS occurred, the routines as practised remained unchanged which accounts for minimal resistance amongst employees. However, when the output of the QMS is linked with the PMS as criteria for employee evaluation, resistance was observed.

8.11.1.1 Government regulation and international financial organisations' trade regulation

The domination of directives issued within the financial services (CBN, NSE and SEC) accounts for the main examples of directives examined by the study. An example of this is a requirement on the number of branches at each state capital in spite of economic or cost benefit analysis, hence the MAS is subjugated to directives issued by the regulators. A respondent from the zonal operations directorate explains, "Some developmental branches in up country locations and other state capitals have not made a profit". An example of international regulation is the Basel accord's new conventions and procedures on banking requirements for banking supervision to a risk based system which has indirectly shaped the nature and design of MAS. For instance, the RMF introduced a new legitimisation and signification structure that is consistent with the CPE posited by Dillard *et al*. (2004).

The domination structure at the political level (regulation) indicates that the CBN retains control on appointment (and dismissal) of bank executives. Thus, banks are constrained by the policy and regulatory pronouncements of the CBN at the national level and Basel accord at the international level. Resistance is generally minimal due to the coercive nature by which such change is introduced where there are elements of moral suasion, or a comply or report approach is adopted by banks symbolically to prevent any negative signalling effect that noncompliance may indicate. However, the extent of change is observed to legitimise the new rules, but in reality the routines surrounding such MA practices remain stable over time thus supporting Lukka's (2007) conception of loose coupling within organisations.

The government has over time also supported the banking sector, using coercive force to shape market competition within the industry in several ways: through the SPV and AMCON; through the purchase of bad loans to reduce the level of systemic risks prevalent within the banking industry; through the use of public sector funds to boost bank liquidity and their ability to compete internationally; and through concessions to enable banks to manage a portion of Nigeria's foreign reserve in conjunction with global banks through a government-induced level field between international banks and indigenous banks.

The notions of rationality, representation and power can be drawn upon to understand the interaction between criteria and practice across the three levels of political economy, organisational field and organisation. Dillard argues that these axes interact with Giddens' structuration theory on structural types, i.e., signification, legitimation and domination.

8.11.2 Institutionalisation at the organisational field level

At the organisational field level (OFL), the MAS and MA practices to be institutionalised and implemented require an interaction of rules and resources in an ongoing and recursive manner (Dillard *et al.*, 2004; Hopper and Major, 2007). Dillard *et al.* (2004) argue that the OFL translates social, economic and political values into field-specific expectations.

Thus, based on Dillard's conception, the case study's organisational field involves a group of organisations involved in the process of providing financial services related to banking stockbroking and capital assets management. Within the context of the case study, dominant associations include CIBN, Banker's Committee, Association of Discount Houses and ICAN which also represent a large influence on shaping criteria as established at the PE level. Dillard *et al.* (2004) suggest that while legitimation and domination elements shape the organisational field, the organisational field also counteracts or interrupts the process of institutionalisation before it reaches the organisational field. This however was rarely observed in the case study, as the organisational field appears largely compliant with regulations – the domination of the PE level ensures that the organisational field buy-in is obtained during the policy formulation phase.

8.11.2.1 Professional bodies

Professional bodies also present models and innovative practices that have helped shape the process of institutionalising MASC by suggesting innovative tools such as BSC, TQM and ABC, and ABM by developing new practices. Professional bodies influence MASC at the organisational field through guidelines such as those issued by the MA subgroup of ICAN. Domination at the organisational field level includes the relationship with professional bodies. At the organisational field, control is imposed by a mechanism that follows a dominant logic or ideology usually shaped by the politico-economic level. Where these practices are considered irrelevant, the process of institutionalisation is aborted. To facilitate institutionalisation within the group, professional bodies provide training on innovative practices to serve as a tool of legitimisation of the change process. Dillard *et al.* (2004) suggest that there must be an ongoing reproductive interaction of rules and resources. If over time institutionalisation does not occur within this level, it triggers events for change at the organisational field level including change in the regulatory paradigm such as change in the capitalisation requirement for banks.

Part of the liberalisation of the banking industry has entailed the de-unionisation of the workforce in the banking industry, resulting in a reduction of the influence of labour and trade unions on the banking industry and a reduced influence of labour on the financial services sector. For instance, the case study organisation has a policy that bars members from associating with the trade union, and this is adhered to at point of employment. Hence trade unions such as NLC and ASSBFI which act as a source of resistance to "employment related policies" are not allowed to operate as the banks are non-unionised. Issues such as performance related pay, casualisation of labour, and unhealthy work practices or cases of job loss due to technological change are not offered a collective platform of resistance. Thus at the organisational field level the influence of actors appears minimal in resisting or shaping MASC and practices as they are largely informal and with less binding interest on the PE level and organisational influences.

The weakness within the organisational field level can also be attributed to a policy at the political/economy level of minimising the role of labour as a dominant force in the overall political and economic system. The promulgated labour act for instance requires a voluntary opt-in as against mandatory membership which has reduced the extent to which labour and associations can challenge the status quo.

8.11.3 Institutional logics

The study's adoption of an institutional logic approach facilitates an understanding of how macro-level states influence organisational actions, and how preference and beliefs can initiate change at the organisational field level. In this case, the study partly responds to the call by Thornton and Ocasio (2008) on the need to understand how the macro level influences micro level processes and vice versa (see objective one). Specifically, the study shows evidence of stability at the micro level and significant top to bottom coercive influences during the change initiated by the macro state level and international bodies.

8.11.3.1 Institutional logics in the process of MASC

This section presents varied forms of institutional logics that shape the process of MASC within the case study organisation. Though these factors bear close resemblance to the drivers of change, they differ to the extent that they shape what determines the change expected, valued or discounted within the context of the family. Similarly, institutional logic has allowed for an examination of how multiple logics co-exist and compete within the same institutional field, thus facilitating an in-depth understanding of contradictory practices and beliefs inherent in institutions (Alfred and Friedman, 1991).

This section thus examines the institutional logics inherent within the inter-institutional contradictions and systems i.e. family and market, professionals and the organisation, as suggested by Greenwood *et al.* (2011). As earlier identified in the case study context chapter, the context is defined as inter-institutional, with the discussed typology of the context as an inter-institutional system that classes the system as family, market, state community professions and religion.

8.11.3.2 Market logics

In terms of a market logic for survival, profitability and efficiency, Nigeria operates a mixed market economy with ownership of business and firms spread from government to private and multinational ownership (see appendix Cii which shows bank ownership distribution across Nigeria.) The continued existence of the bank itself can be argued to be a product of organisational resistance to the neo-liberal economic logic imposed on the Nigerian state by international donor agencies. The dominant market logic entails efficiency in operations and profit maximisation over economy or performance of the financial intermediary role of the bank or that of developing the capacity of the larger economy. Most MAS practices at the field level are only introduced where they support organisational legitimacy efficiency and benefits outweigh costs. Where there is no regulatory pressure or influence, market-led initiatives are hardly adopted at the organisational level. As exposure to the market goes beyond the immediate market to multinational markets there is a need to compare such practices with multinational banks operating within the country, and other leading banks operating in foreign countries with the case study's operation. The key enactment of the market logic is the process of change; in the case study organisation this was observed through the use of key words such as business case, business justification, cost savings profit per employee and operational efficiency.

Family logic plays a dominant role in business and trust relationships in Nigeria. The concept of loyalty in family is entrenched in business values, thus minimising the degree of accountability required for family-managed or -owned subsidiaries. Hence, in terms of family logic, trust and loyalty are dominant influences with family members believed to be running subsidiaries in the interest of family or of the business. Given this scenario, family members largely tend to resist change initiatives – even if coercively imposed by regulators – if they affect survival or if they contradict existing regulatory performance.

8.11.3.3 Professional logics

MA within the Nigerian banking industry is largely shaped by the legal and financial reporting system modelled after the British system; colonial ties continue to shape the system, as explained in chapter two. Conceptions of MAS, MAP and regulatory frameworks are designed by the BASEL committee, IAASB, IMF and World Bank. These inter- and multi-national agencies shape the practice of MAS and the nature of change or the range of initiatives that organisations consider in the process of change. Given the nature of the group's operations, the market logic perceives some of the market practices as legitimisation practise, thus facilitating access to operations in other countries and an inflow of capital investments from international investors and organisations, as noted by the founder who said, "*the bank is no longer a family bank but a global bank with institutional stakeholders and owners"*.

Although there has been an increased questioning of the roles of accountants in the industry, the regulatory-defined roles of management and financial accountants makes such positions indispensable and the role is required to perform increasing functions such as controlling MIS and providing support for budget planning and implementation. At the organisational field level, issues of training and exposure to best practice arise.

8.11.4 Change in logic of brach network

This can be seen in the instance where branches are no longer built on political or geographical spread but on cost justification and overall economic and efficiency related to such location(s). Specifically, the change associated with the MAS entails a use in branch development as opposed to the personal influence and choice of the founder. Current branch development is based on cost and benefits analysis required in developing branches while previously existing and non-sustainable branches were reassessed and unsustainable ones shut to conserve costs.

Although ironic given the amounts spent on these buildings, the logic emphasised profitability and efficiency in operations as opposed to wide geographical spread or political considerations.

8.11.5 Reflections on the institutionalisation process

Prior to institutionalised-imposed change, successive periods of change had been characterised by symbolic change attributes of attempting to legitimise the institutions as complaints with actions and processes at the organisational field level. This validates Zilber's (2002) and Suddaby and Greenwood's (2009) views of organisation change resulting in a change in meaning and interpretations but that practice largely remains unchanged – classed as a symbolic change. In instances of such symbolic change, the organisational aim is to achieve legitimacy and not system improvement. Following multinational institutional investors' acquisition of a substantial stake[63] in the business, a radical period of change was introduced. This turning point (also classed as the second trigger in the business) required radical change in business processes, practices, events and interpretations within the case study group. Given the presence of these investors across numerous multinational firms, institutional investors were able to influence process norms and actions within the group. Scott *et al.* (2000) observes that major institutional change is usually preceded by a change of institutional logics. Thornton's (2008) study indicates a change in institutional logic from a family controlled business to that of a multi stakeholder firm[64]. Although instances where the firm's objectives as published may appear noble and informed by business rationale, other subtle reasons exist for the family decision to retain elements of control. These decisions of retaining control within the MAS appear to be an influencing factor for the MAS choice made which in most cases

[63] Initially 15% prior to divestment in 2013.

[64] Other forms in change of logic include that of deregulation of the banking industry and the regulator-imposed consolidation aimed at professionalising and creating Nigerian global banking players.

differs from the published or stated objective. Sudabby and Greenwood (2009) suggest this as being influenced by legitimizing influence or efficiency influence. Another as highlighted in chapter 7.9.2, the minimal use of sustainability framework in deciding loan decisions for oil firms represents an instance of contradiction with rules and practices, highlighting the dominance of efficiency and profitability logic which overrides celebrated values and culture of compliance within the organisation.

Using Hopper's (2009:470) definition, modification to MAS means "It embraces processes, structures and information for organisational decisions, governance, control and accountability".

8.11.6 QMS

Following an analysis of the factors resulting in the change in QMS, there appears to be a combination of institutional logic on the one hand and internal and external factors on the other. An increase in the number of customers implies an increase in the possibility and change of service culture and the efficiency with which the service is provided and delivered across the branch network. However, the regulatory environment appears again as the driver and source of imposition for the case study. The organisation's QMS model was shaped by a combination of the regulator's model and the need to seek compliance with the ISO certification guidelines and standards. While the CBN specified the QMS as part of its regulatory requirements, it also specifies the model required and the key areas of operation. External change was also partly imposed by foreign institutional investors influenced by the need to comply with business and regulatory requirements operating in their home country[65]. Similarly, to facilitate reporting on

[65] Some of these institutional investors are largely UK- and US-based. Legal provisions in their home country mean that they are required in material respects to comply with the provisions of corporate and Sabarnes-Oxley governance codes (even in countries of foreign operations), requiring significant compliance to include areas of foreign operations. While under the same provisions Shell, Afren and Haliburton have been charged for poor corporate governance practices in their respective countries for activities related to Nigeria, none of the Nigerian participants have been charged for collaboration.

investments, the foreign equity firms require a certain level of similarity to exist in the structure, processes and procedures within the organisation.

Instances abound where change arises as a result of institutional praxis where there is a need to go beyond the institutional context in search of a solution which may entail the creation of a new system, sub system or modification to existing systems. There are instances of institutional contradiction between the family-perceived interest and those of institutional investors in the areas of MIS reporting and QMS. Other instances of contradiction entail the values and areas of focus of the organisation, the business model and the need to dilute ownership. These factors occasionally contradict the indirect values upon which the business is founded.

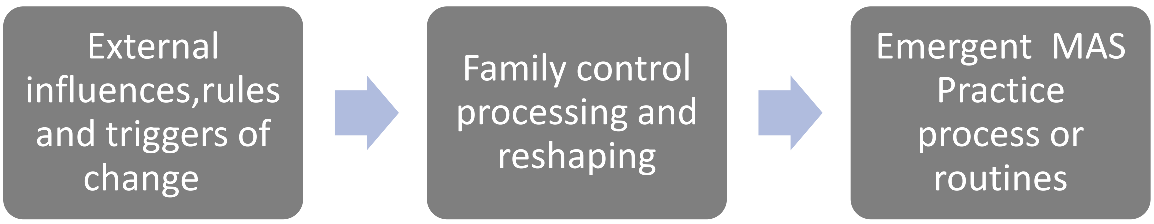


Figure 10 Conversion process though Family box

Conversion process of external influences through "family box" to produce MASC

In the process of drawing up change there is a need to draw on internal family members' support and structure networks to facilitate total owner buy-in to the change process or initiative. Both the founder and current MD/CEO are products of an era where trust played a significant role in the design of MAS. However, changes in the institutional logic of external and internal environments have resulted in an implementation of a formalised and structured MA control system and structure. Closely related to this is the role played by external institutions; institutional investors who have helped reshape the perception of the role of non-qualitative data and increased the capturing of such details represent another change in the institutional logic in terms of what information is considered relevant and required for inclusion in the MIS.

Another relevant area of reflection includes the process of transmitting power and organisational control from the founder to the first generation of descendants. While the case study posits this as a deliberate instance of innovation and a first within Nigerian family-owned banks, the process was similarly imposed through regulations and supported by a network of newly-appointed professional managers. This approach as adopted by the group was to facilitate skills transfer and to ensure group survival in a dynamic period of market uncertainty, competition and industry realignment. Similarly, the issues of crony capitalism as identified by Bakre and Lauwo (2016) shape operations of the case study; the external environment still plays a role in determining staff progression, choice of strategy, key appointments and attrition within the managerial ranks.

8.12 Summary

This chapter presents a discussion of key themes associated with data collated from the study. By adopting the use of an institutional theoretical framework to shape the analysis, this chapter provides a basis to understand the process of MASC and the unique issues experienced by the case study organisation in implementing change process. The chapter shows how various subsystems experienced change within the overall MAS and how these processes can be analysed from the theoretical len of institutional theory while emphasising similarities and areas of difference between existing literature in the MASC process. The next chapter provides a summary and conclusion to the thesis.

Chapter Nine - Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary and findings of the study, its limitations and possible areas for further research. The chapter initially presents an overview of the study and revisits the initial objectives and research questions as stated in chapter one, with a view to determining the extent to which these questions and objectives have been met. This chapter also considers the principal contributions this study has made to existing literature on MAS change, while highlighting some limitations of the study. The chapter concludes with possible areas for future research.

9.2 Main findings of the study

This section presents the main findings of the study. To aid the presentation, the findings are stated in order of research questions presented in chapter one.

> Research question 1: How are MASC processes shaped by institutional macro dynamics (regulatory, political and market forces) and intra-organisational power relations within family controlled financial institutions?

This research question sought to gain an understanding of how internal and external dynamics to the organisation shapes the change process. While the case study organisation operates in a regulated market, family control and issues of trust places a prominent role in the design and implementation of MASC. The dominant factor observed as influencing the change process entails internal factors as opposed to externally determined influences (with the exception of regulatory influences other influences had minimal influences on the MASC processes as opposed to internal factors. prominent internal factors that have shaped the process of MASC includes the dilution of owners influence and control via institutional investors stake, influence of founder’s family on group process and key strategic and operational decisions. This influence helps in reshaping MASC to achieve the multiple purpose of achieving legitimacy and also signalling compliance with industry best practices but also as a tool to attract investment and support an internationalisation strategy. Thus, the main motivators of change include investment by institutional investors who imposed a MASC to achieve operational and cost efficiency meet reporting needs and achieve regulatory requirement imposed by international fund providers. Hence the MASC is used as a tool of regulatory compliance, communication and asserting control by the family group hence is used to achieve multiple objectives by different stakeholder groups.

> Research question 2: How are new MAS institutionalised within family controlled financial institutions?

The study indicates the possibility of change in the values and meaning of MAS without changes in the fundamental structure of organisational MAS reporting. It also indicates that while a change in organisational form in most cases results in a change of values, routines or rituals, it does not automatically translate to a change in MAS processes or structure.

The study also finds the existence of a family and power interest logic that significantly influences the choice and system of implementing MAS change processes. Given the historical nature of this study, sense was made of the change process through an arrangement around periods of time, similarity of events or the strategic focus of the organisation. Critical trigger events of MAS change were identified; it was noted that these were largely influenced by dominant actors within the organisation or by the organisational leader's view. Coercive influences from the external regulatory environment also played an important role in this regard with key trigger events such as banking consolidation and the pronouncements of international regulatory agencies acting to shape the MAS change process.

It was also noted that as the business form became more complex, so the rate of change within the group also increased. Events such as mergers, regulatory change and ownership dilution were observed to be factors that have caused the group to initiate change, referred to as trigger events by institutional theory literature. This reinforces the idea of Wanderley *et al .,(2013)* that has emerged within existing literature that the management initiate change in response to either endogenic or external influences of an organisation. It raises the issue of the extent to which organisations allow the benefits of system change to accrue before subsequent change programmes are initiated to improve existing systems.

> Research question 3: To what extent are family-controlled businesses effective in the design and implementation of MAS, as compared to non-family-controlled firms?

The findings support existing literature on MA, which indicates that family businesses are usually influenced at the design stage by relationships and levels of trust between family members and employees (Hiebl, 2013; Giovannoni *et al.*, 2014). Within the context of this study, these influences were most profound within the performance measurement, reporting and control systems. However, with an increase of professional management and a dilution in ownership, MASs are noticed to be significantly more results-based and performance-driven as opposed to the relationship-based system in place at the time of family control and family-led management. Within the period of change it was also observed that leadership appeared as a mixture of participative and authoritarian modes to enable set targets and goals to be achieved by relevant stakeholders.

The study has offered an insight into the institutional dynamics of the process of change in the MAS of a family-owned financial group and how varied interpretations of influences and actors' roles shaped the process of change. Flowing from the organisational history context, the study supports the assertion that while norms and routines are established over time, alternatives and resistance also evolve and are strengthened over time as opposed to instances of change initiated by exogenous factors. The alternate view of a group structure for instance was internally developed long before the institutional influences from regulators made such a requirement mandatory.

> Research question 4: How and to what extent does practice variation alter the workplace perception of MASC?

In response to this research question, this study highlights the homogenous nature of MA practices within the group, i.e. parent and subsidiaries. It was also noted that while both parent and subsidiary adopt homogenous practices subject to regulatory provisions, the level of implementation and nature of MASC adopted is dependent on the logic and family control within the subsidiary. This supports the notion of practice variation within institutional theory that relates largely to business nature, historical context or unique internal and external institutions present in the subsidiary. Such variations arise because of the multiple factors and influences co-existing within the group.

> Research question 5: How and to what extent does employee resistance influence or inhibit change in MAS?

While resistance represents a major impediment to the process of change, it was observed that although resistance is largely negative in effect, elements of resistance could be used as a basis for process improvement and overall stability within the organisation. As the present study has adopted a multi-level and life-cycle approach to the study of MASC, the nature of actors resisting MASC within an organisation varies over time and does not necessarily represent employees at lower operational levels of organisational hierarchy (Ozdil and Hoque, 2015); meanwhile, other actors such as customers, controlling family and investors do act as sources of resistance to MASC, which could be classed as internal or external resistance. At times, resistance can be seen across the echelons of the organisation, especially to routines that appear to be more effective than rules.

9.3 Contributions of the study

In the process of evolving organisational practices such as MAS there is a need for collaboration with knowledgeable actors who may either take the lead or assist in shaping the process of change within the organisation. There is thus a need to allow such knowledgeable actors to take prominent or leading roles in design of the change process or recruiting specific talents to address needs within the organisation, while also ensuring minimal cases of misfit between change and organisational situations. This study also contributes to existing literature on MA research from an emerging economies perspective. While the perspective joins and emerging body of knowledge with focus on emerging markets, it also facilitates an understanding of the process of MASC as experienced in a varied situational context as Nigeria.

Another significant contribution of the study includes providing evidence on the nature of the influence wielded by family businesses in the process of MASC, and specifically introduces dimensions of that within a regulated service sector. This study suggests that though regulation and competition represent major external influences, family influence and domination reshape MASC in line with family goals and objectives, notwithstanding internal or other external influences from institutional investors or professional manager groups.

During the transition of MASC, the role of formalising informal controls as part of the process of professionalising the organisation was observed. Where family presence is minimal the study indicates control and MAS design is generally less formal as when compared with other subsidiaries or the main group, and where the family owner retains management control or where the subsidiary is not subject to specialised forms of regulations a more informal control is in place.

The study has extended the Burns and Scapens framework in MA research and in terms of its application to areas of power domination and institutionalisation across generations of owners, as well as in terms of the process by which power domination occurs within a regulated financial organisation and how these firms are able to implement change in response to external influences.

Another significant contribution of this study is the choice to adopt the use of lifecycle analysis in exploring the process of change, as opposed to the more common use of longitudinal studies, which – although they have provided a basis for understanding change process –are limited to the extent by which the effects and dynamics associated with change can be examined, thus providing a response to calls by Lukka (2007), Quinn (2014) and Terbogts and Burns (2015) for a use of lifecycle studies in examining the change process within organisations

However, in spite of the contribution to existing literature that this study claims to make, it is not without its limitations. Significantly, it is confined to one industry and therefore further studies covering other industries would be required to facilitate a comparative analysis. The limitation also extends to the key institutional constituents interviewed, as it was observed during the fieldwork that stakeholders such as family, investors, regulators and customers exerted certain influence on the company's MAS and MA practices. For contrast, similar studies could be conducted on non-profit-seeking organizations to understand the design of sub-components of MAS, for instance. Furthermore, this study was unable to examine the impact of MASC on the profitability of the case study organisation specifically and Nigeria in general, which could be the focus of further research to explore the link between MASC, changes in MAS practices and organisational profitability. Another limitation was that while consideration was given to the monitoring measures put in place by the regulators and how often they carry out such exercises – especially regarding the quality of internally-generated information and how this influences management decision-making – prior studies have considered the financial accounting impact, therefore there is a need to consider the process from a MA perspective.

9.3.1 Theoretical contributions

The study provides evidence on the workings of multiple sub-levels of MAS and how these interact in practice to form a unified MAS. This responds to further calls for research on MAS working as an integrated unit, and although it has not been able to capture all forms of MAS operating as a whole, the study has adopted a simultaneous study of multiple sub-systems, practices and routines as defined by Hopper *et al.* (2009: 470) as "processes, structures and information for organisational decisions, governance, control and accountability" – arguing that these processes, structures and systems all interact and are best studied in conjunction across specific practices or periods for study.

9.3.2 Methodological contribution

This study has in the process of exploring the process of MASC has been able to adopt the concept of lifecycle analysis as suggested by Neale and Flowerdew *et al.*, (2015) for exploring process of change in longitudinal case study based research. In addition, this study has presented case study evidence of MASC in a regulated industry as opposed to previous studies that have adopted service; Telecoms and Electricity or unit and departmental analysis of a financial institution as opposed to a multi-level analysis approach adopted by this study to examining MASC. the methodological approach has allowed for the examination of the role embedded agents acting as dominant actors and influence in the process MASC.

Finally, the study has been able to combine process study with organisational change to explore MASC. This combination provides insight as MAS responds to periods of organisational change within the organisation and as influenced by the external environment.

9.3.3 Practical implications

Among the perceived benefits of adopting and implementing MAS components or modifications are the potential cost savings and increased efficiency. However, within the family-controlled business an additional influence of varied logic influences the choice and nature of MAS implemented. Where family members remain the dominant owners, there is a need to consider the logic of other stakeholders in the design and implementation of MAS within the organisation. As the institutional theory framework gives the role of managers as influencing the design of the MAS change and that of family members on its implementation, there is a need for managerial choice of MAS to account for multiplicity of institutional logics. Although there is an attempt at customer engagement within the case study organisation, the extent of engagement needs to inform the process of change and MAS coordination. It is suggested that managers are trained and supported to design and implement systems that consider a multiplicity of logics and factors shaping internal and unregulated aspects of MAS. Although this study makes no claim that the reflections represent a national expectation, it does give an indication for factors for consideration by potential initiatives of change, especially within the context of Nigeria as a reflection of most emerging countries. The paper contributes to the MAS literature by providing evidence on the role of regulation and ownership structure on MAS change choices and practices.

9.4 Limitations of the study

The study is without doubt limited in terms of the methodological and theoretical assumptions made to facilitate the study. The case study findings – while subject to limited generalisability in terms of research findings, partly because of its use of interpretive and subjective viewpoints – do facilitate generalisability in terms of process. The findings of this study are mainly case-specific, and although it was found that similarities in context and process exist, limited generalisation may be possible.

Similarly, the interpretive approach has resulted in a reliance on historical accounts and records and the insights of actors and observations from the interviews, and although this does not reduce the importance of the findings, there is a subjectivity associated with such accounts. The study makes an attempt to eliminate elements of this subjectivity by adopting a critical interpretive perspective, however to analyse data.

The study relies on the subjective accounts of respondents and opinion contained in archival documents produced at the time of the study (or produced in the past and relied upon). While this may not invalidate the relevant content, it throws up possible challenges of inconsistences in accounts, which may have been subject to actors' self-re-construction or emotional responses. While the study adopted the use of both data and methodological triangulation to overcome this perceived limitation, the elements of respondent subjectivity and emotional sensitivity were not totally eliminated. This observed limitation supports the assertion by Symon and Cassell (2012) on the role of emotions and ambiguity in cases of retrospective research as opposed to real time longitudinal studies of change.

Although overall there appears to be a fairly consistent account of the origin and history of the group, a variety of actors presented slightly differing accounts of the group and understanding of the actions of management. Whilst this array of respondents may have helped to yield a detailed account of the group's activities, it also throws up a potential problem of multiplicity of opinion related to specific tasks and also that of retrospective bias. The use of triangulation as earlier noted assisted in identifying these instances and giving consideration for such potential bias.

Although this study presents evidence of dominant roles within a family-controlled business, it is not possible to generalise this to other types of business. Also, while the influence of regulatory bodies (agencies) might be focused on certain business areas, there are wider legal obligatory requirements that fall outside the objectives of this study that were not considered when analysing the case study. Similarly, the study pays minimal attention to the role of contextual legislative, political and economic factors affecting the case study organisation. There is a need for similar studies in the future to give in-depth consideration to these factors, as well as to the process of change in other regulated sectors such as education and health or public services such as telecoms, electricity and water which are known to operate a robust system of MA. It is believed that further examination of these would yield rich data to support further MASC analysis.

Despite being in-depth, the research relies on a single case study and thus is not generalisable. No claim for generalisability has been made but where the process is repeated there is a possibility for similar or closely related results to be obtained, thus there is a need for future studies to examine the lifecycle of MASC and how change is transmitted within a group and between subsidiaries.

While the study argues that archival data represents a valid source to explore the process of change, there is no assurance that all relevant records have been kept up to date to reflect all forms and process of change experienced by the organisation; there is thus a need to include longer longitudinal studies to explore the process of change within the case study organisation. Additionally, retrospective bias as posited by Shachar and Eckistein (2007) was observed in some of the respondents who used a modification or restructuring of views and opinion to give justification for current opinions of issues. This however does not invalidate these views, as retrospective knowledge is required to gain understanding of present perspectives and practices within the organisation, especially across the timeline as suggested by Busco (2006).

The family succession model observed within the family follows Giovannoni *et al.* (2009) and Hall and Norquist (2012) in that non-family members are gradually integrated into the family business. Similarly, consistent with Hiebl *et al.* (2013), the family business influences have gradually reduced over the time period of 2007-2016 following the dilution of ownership and control by venture capital firms and institutional investors. The study also supports the existing literature on MASC which finds that introducing new managers to the business results in differences in control and influence, as observed during the post PACE period. Furthermore, as found by Davies (2010), there were notable changes in rules and routines while the overall systems of management control became more formalised especially in the subsidiaries with minimal family representation in management as opposed to informal forms of control in place during periods where family members were in charge of such subsidiaries.

9.5 Future research potential

The limitations highlighted above provide potential areas for future research on MASC in the contexts of family businesses, regulated industries and emerging markets. This study has presented an exploratory view of the process by which organisational MASC evolves over a time period within an organisation and how organisations respond to institutional pressures, while also considering how actors participate in and influence change on a family-controlled business operating within a regulated industry. The study indicates that family members and institutional investors represent a dominant force in shaping the process of MASC, while regulatory influences play a less dominant role than family members who model MASC in line with family interests and regulatory requirements.

The study examined the stages of the change process of organisational MAS over the organisational life and how change influences and is influenced by various institutional factors. In considering the role of actors, the study examined variations in roles across organisations (parent and subsidiary), while also examining the actors' support for or resistance to the process of MASC. The study was also able to examine the process by which MA practices are transmitted between parent and subsidiary as well as between subsidiaries, indicating that the degree of control practice appears inconsistent with more stringent controls and reporting mechanisms put in place when non-family members are responsible for management roles. Future studies may consider the interrelated working of sub-systems in the MAS during periods of organisational change to determine how these systems evolve. Other studies may also adopt a quantitative approach to determine the role of MAS change on organisational and economic performance.

Appendix

Appendix Ai : Pilot Interview Schedule

This interview schedule is divided into six sections as below. It is not expected that each interview will seek to cover every item.

I. Background of the Organization (Group and its subsidiaries)

1. What is the historical background of the organization?
2. What products/services does it sell?
3. Details of markets, customers and suppliers.
4. What are its major competitors? What is the level of competitive pressure in Nigerian financial services industry?
5. Basic demographic, financial and physical information about the organization (e.g. number of employees, sales trends, capitalisation).
6. What are the major opportunities and threats in the business environment?
7. Relative performance of the Group and its subsidiaries in the last few years.
8. Operations technology used. (Management information Systems banking software, etc)

II. Goals

1. What are the major strategic goals of your subsidiary/group?
2. Has there been any change in the strategic goals?
3. How are business unit goals established, evaluated and modified?
4. How are they (goals) communicated within the Group and its subsidiaries?
5. What opinions do managers hold with respect to strategic goals?

III. Change

1. Have there been any significant changes in the recent years in the Group's and its subsidiaries' organizations and/or management styles?
2. What effects have these changes had on the accounting system, accountants and their roles?
3. Opinions of associated changes in the Group and its subsidiaries.
4. Have there been any significant changes in the accounting system in the recent years?
5. What effects have these changes had on the Group and its subsidiaries and its members?

IV. Cost Accounting Practices

1. What sorts of costing systems are used in the Group and its subsidiaries?
2. How satisfied are managers with the methods for calculating product cost?
3. What changes would improve present methods for calculating product costs?
4. What obstacles stand in the way of improvements in calculating product costs?

V. Management Accounting Systems

1. What are the perceived purposes of the management accounting system?
2. Is there pressure and the desire to amend these purposes?
3. What accounting reports do managers receive regularly and how do they use them?
4. Are any departments other than accounting responsible for providing financial or non-financial information to management?
5. What are opinions about the reliability, accuracy and relevance of the accounting data supplied by the accounting department?
6. Who are the main users of the accounting reports within the Group and its subsidiaries?
7. Does the accounting information aid management in making decisions?
8. How satisfied are managers with current management accounting systems? Are the various accounting reports useful? Do they provide all the information required?
9. What changes are sought to improve the system and to make the accounting function more useful to managers and other decision makers?

VI. Performance Measures

1. What performance measures are used in the Group and its subsidiaries (e.g. manufacturing performance; customer service and other performance)? To whom are they applied? Have they been changed in recent years?
2. How and by whom are performance measures established?
3. What sorts of financial and non-financial indicators are used in the Group and its subsidiaries for setting goals?
4. Are they linked to rewards/sanctions?
5. Who gets this information?
6. How satisfied are managers with the performance measurement systems?
7. What do the Group and its subsidiaries consider to be the most important purposes of performance measures?
8. How do managers evaluate the importance of the performance measures used?
9. How are performance results communicated to the responsible managers?

Appendix Aii : Main Interview Schedule

This interview schedule is divided into six sections as below. It is not expected that each interviewee will cover every item.

I. Background of the Organization (Group and its subsidiaries)

1. What is the historical background of the organization?
2. What products/services does it sell?
3. Details of markets, customers, and suppliers.
4. What are its major competitors? What is the level of competitive pressure in this business?
5. Basic demographic, financial, and physical information about the organization (e.g. number of employees, sales trends, capitalisation).
6. What are the major opportunities and threats in the business environment?
7. Relative performance of the Group and its subsidiaries in the last few years.
8. Operations technology used.

II. Goals

1. What are the major strategic goals of your group?
2. Has there been any change in the strategic goals?
3. How are business unit goals established, evaluated and modified?
4. How are they (goals) communicated within the Group and its subsidiaries?
5. What opinions do managers hold with respect to strategic goals?

III. Change

1. Can you please clarify if there has been any significant change(s) in the recent years in the Group's and its subsidiaries' organizations and/or management styles?
2. What effects have these changes had on the accounting system, accountants and their roles?
3. Opinions of associated changes in the Group and its subsidiaries.
4. Have there been any significant changes in the accounting system in the recent years?
5. What effects have these changes had on the Group and its subsidiaries and its members?

IV. Cost Accounting Practices

5. What sorts of costing systems are used in the Group and its subsidiaries?
6. How satisfied are managers with the methods for calculating product cost?
7. What changes would improve present methods for calculating product costs?
8. What obstacles stand in the way of improvements in calculating product costs?

V. Management Accounting Systems

1. What are the perceived purposes of the management accounting system?

2. Is there pressure and the desire to amend these purposes?
3. What accounting reports do managers receive regularly and how do they use them?
4. Are any departments other than accounting responsible for providing financial or non-financial information to management?
5. What are your opinions about the reliability, accuracy and relevance of the Management accounting data supplied by the accounting department(financial control and or performance measurement units)?
6. Who are the main users of the management accounting reports within the Group and its subsidiaries?
7. In your opinion does Management accounting information aid the banks management in making decisions? To what extent please ? any specific examples?
8. How satisfied are managers with current management accounting systems? Are the various accounting reports useful? Do they provide all the information required? Are there complains any instance or examples will be appreciated
9. What changes are sought to improve the system and to make the management accounting function more useful to managers and other decision makers?

VI. Performance Measures(Manager/Executive Management)

1. What performance measures are used in the Group and its subsidiaries (e.g. manufacturing performance; customer service and other performance)? To whom are they applied? Have they been changed in recent years?
2. How and by whom are performance measures established?
3. What sorts of financial and non-financial indicators are used in the Group and its subsidiaries for setting goals?
4. Are they linked to rewards/sanctions?
5. Who gets this information?
6. How satisfied are managers with the performance measurement systems?
7. What do the Group and its subsidiaries consider to be the most important purposes of performance measures?
8. How do managers evaluate the importance of the performance measures used?
9. How are performance results communicated to the responsible managers?

VI. Performance Measures(Manager below)

1. Can you please describe your bank's current performance measurement system?
2. Could you please explain how many times the performance measurement system of your bank has changed during the last (the number of years you have spent with the bank) ?
3. Can you please describe the main features of these changes?
4. Were the changes in the performance measurement systems gradual or dramatic?
5. Were these changes in performance management linked to any wider project?
6. What in your view prompted your bank to change the performance measurement system in the past?
7. How much research did your bank do prior to initiating change in the performance measurement system?
8. Was the research if any commissioned to external consultants or internal staff members?

9. What processes did your bank use to inform and familiarize the changes in performance measurement system amongst the employees and to the business units of your bank?
10. What was the response of employees to the change in MAS or process?
11. Was there any resistance from the employees? Why?
    (If the reply to the question 11 is "Yes" please move to question 12.)

    (If the reply to the question 11 is "No" then please move to question 14).

12. How did you deal with their resistance?
13. What were the features that they (staff resisting) did not like the most?
14. Has there been any failed attempts in changing the performance measurement system by your bank in the past?

    If the reply to the question 14 is "Yes" then move to question 15. If the reply to the question 14 is "No" then move to question 16.

15. Could you please describe the causes of such failure?
16. Can you please describe the factors which influenced your bank the most while changing the performance measurement system?
17. How would you describe the change in your bank's business practices over the years?
18. What do you perceive to be the most serious threats to your bank over the years?
19. Do you think the current performance measurement system of your bank is based on an (i) organizational vision and mission (ii) corporate strategic plan?
    Has this always been the case?

20. How frequently is performance measured in your bank at present?
    What was the practice in the past?

21. In your opinion are business units continuously improving due to changes in the performance measurement system?
22. Do you communicate the results of the outcome of performance reviews to employees?
23. Have you linked employees' performance with their compensation plan?
24. What is your assessment of the new performance measurement system?
25. Are you aware of any shortcomings in the current performance measurement system?
26. Please do you have any further comments concerning the performance measurement system within your bank which you feel is important for this study?

Informed consent package

This appendix contains a copy of the informed consent pack provided to interviewees.

Please rest assured that data collected for this research will be treated subject to the UK Data Protection Act 1998 and the following are some of the consequences of that:

* Your participation is voluntary.

* Data will only be used for the above mentioned purposes.

* You can always contact the researcher if you have any queries regarding this research.

* Any information provided will remain anonymous and will not be disclosed to any other party unless otherwise agreed.

* You will not be identified, unless otherwise agreed.

* Data held on computers and "hard" copy files will be held securely.

* Data collected will be sent to you so that you can make corrections and confirm the accuracy of data transcription.

* Data analysis will be available on request.

* Your name and signature are used only as proof of reading the consent statement below – these will not be used in any other way.

* You can withdraw your consent at any time (using the Consent Withdrawal - section C).

APPENDIX A

Appendix Bi : Participant letter

Thank you for showing an interest in this research project. Please read this information sheet carefully before deciding whether or not you wish to participate.

My name is Babafemi Ogundele**.** Presently, I am a PhD candidate at the University of Salford, Greater Manchester, UK, in the field of Management Accounting, I am in the data collection phase of my research and I look forward to have an opportunity to interview you as a part of selected respondents for this research. My research topic Management Accounting Change, Institutional perspectives from Nigeria.

I would be grateful if you could participate in this research. The researcher is conducted under the supervision of Prof Hassan Yazdifar at the Salford Business School.

Thank You

B.O.Ogundele

Salford Business School

E-mail: B.Ogundele@edu.salford.ac.uk

Signature ……………………………………

Position…………………………………….

Date……………………………..

APPENDIX B ii Participant Information Sheet

Dear Participant,

My name is ***Babafemi Ogundele*** Currently, a PhD candidate at the University of Salford, Greater Manchester, UK, in the field of Management Accounting I would like to invite you to participate in this research.

The Purpose of this Study is to get your views on Management Accounting System Change in Nigeria.

What Participation Involves. Face to face interview: I would like to invite you to participate using Face to face interview data collection which is designed to take between one to two hours.

Risk. If you decide to participate in this study there are no known risks for you, nor are there any costs for taking part.

Anonymity. Please be assured that anonymity is guaranteed and no identifying information is kept on file at the completion of the research. Names and email addresses are optional and are collected so that you can be contacted; and at the completion of the study, the data will be non-identified, which means that any identifying information will be permanently removed. The data will be stored electronically, will be password protected, and any printed material will be kept in a locked storage cabinet in my office.

Withdrawal from the Study. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw your participation at any time. The decision to do so will not affect the research in any way.

Further Information. You can contact me in the United Kingdom Tel: 07584688885
B.O.Ogundele
Salford Business School
E-mail: B.Ogundele@edu.salford.ac.uk

Or My **Supervisor :**

Prof Hassan Yazdifar

Salford Business School

E-mail: H.Yazdifar@salford.ac.uk

Signature ……………………………………

Position…………………………………….

Date…………………………….

Thank you for your willingness to participate and your interest in this research.

APPENDIX B iii : Consent Form:

Management accounting systems change; Institutional perspectives from Nigeria

Consent Form:

I have read and understood Section A above. By signing below I agree that the information that I am going to provide will be used for the above research purpose.

Print Name: ………………………………….

Signature: ………………………………….

Date: ………………………………….

Please forward above Consent Form or Consent Withdrawal to

B.O.Ogundele
Salford Business School
E-mail: B.Ogundele@edu.salford.ac.uk

APPENDIX B iv :Consent Withdrawal

I withdraw my consent to participate in research outlined above in Section A. By signing below I agree that any information given by me will not be used for the above research purpose.

Print Name: ………………………………….

Signature: ………………………………….

Date: ………………………………….

Please forward above Consent Form or Consent Withdrawal to

Babafemi Ogundele,
Salford business school,
Accounting and Economics group,
Maxwell building,
Room 204,
University of Salford, M5 4WT.
Email: B.ogundele@edu.salford.ac.uk

APPENDIX B v Employees Letter

My name is Babafemi Ogundele**.** Presently, I am a PhD candidate at the University of Salford, Greater Manchester, UK, in the field of Management Accounting. I am in the data collection phase of my research and I look forward to having an opportunity to interview some of your employees as a part of selected respondents for this research. My research topic is: Management Accounting Systems Change, Institutional perspectives from Nigeria.

As the topic is on Management Accounting Systems Change it would be appreciated if an appropriate (we suggest senior members of staff who have spent over 15 years and above in the organisation or retired staff who meet these criteria who are consultants to the bank) All answers will be used solely for research purposes. It is believed the research findings will help improve our understanding of management accounting systems change and make change process more efficient in the future.

I would be grateful if you could grant me permission to employees in your organisation for the furtherance of this research work. You are assured that the anonymity of all respondents will be secured in compliance with the relevant data protection laws.
Thank you for your permission.

B.O.Ogundele
Salford Business School
E-mail: B.Ogundele@edu.salford.ac.uk

Signature ……………………………………

Position…………………………………….

Date…………………………….

Appendix B Vi Request to access archived documents and records

My name is Babafemi Ogundele**.** Presently, I am a PhD candidate at the University of Salford, Greater Manchester, UK, specializing of Management Accounting, I am in the data collection phase of my research and I look forward to have an opportunity to interview you as a part of selected respondents for this research. My research topic Management Accounting Change, Institutional perspectives from Nigeria.

I would be grateful if you could grant me permission to have access to these documents in your institution for the furtherance of this research work. You are assured that my access and findings from these documents and records will be used solely for the purpose of this research only.

Thank you for your assistance.

B.O.Ogundele

Salford Business School

E-mail: B.Ogundele@edu.salford.ac.uk

Signature ……………………………………

Position…………………………………….

Date……………………………..

*NB: Since this study involves one case study Group and there is need for permission from the group to cover all organisations within the groups, this letter will not be replicated with the address of each of the organisation rather one letter addressed to the group will be used to obtain access

Appendix C i

Serial Number	Position	Year Of Appointment	Year Of Resignation	Countries of Education	Countries of work experience
1	Chairman/Former MD CEO	1985/2005	2005/2011	UK	UK,Switzerland, Nigeria
2	ED	2005	2008	Nigeria	Nigeria
3	ED	2011	Date	Nigeria	Nigeria
4	ED	2012	2016	Nigeria	South africa India,Nigeria,USA
5	ED	2005	2011	Nigeria;Spain	Nigeria
6	ED	2015	Date	Nigeria;Uk	Nigeria
7	ED	2008	2013	USA /UAE	USA,UAE,Asia,,Africa
8	ED	1993	2005	Nigeria	Nigeria
9	ED/COO	2005	2010	India/UK	India UK,Nigeria, African middle east and indian Ocean
10	ED/DMD	2011	2015	Nigeria UK	UK USA,Uganda ,Kenya ,Tanzania
11	ED/DMD/MD/CEO BANK	2009/2017	2017	Nigeria	Nigeria
12	ED/Group Chairman	2008/2013	2011/Date	Nigeria,Egypt, USA	Nigeria
13	FounderPioneer MD Chairman	2005	2007	Uk Nigeria	UK Nigeria
14	MD/CEO	2005	2017	UK USA Nigeria	UK USA multiple African
15	NED	1984	2011	Nigeria	Nigeria /Usa via mobil nigeria
16	NED	2011	Date	Nigeria	Nigeria
17	NED	2007	Date	UK	UK Europe,Asia
18	NED	pre 2005	2011	UK	UK Nigeria(public sector
19	NED	2012	Date	UK	Uk
20	NED	2012	Date	UK	Nigeria
21	NEd	2002	Date	Uk Nigeria	Uk Nigeria
22	NED	2013	Date	UK Nigeria	UK Nigeria USA
23	NEd	1983	2011	UK USA Nigeria	UK,Nigeria(partner AA)
24	NED	2013	Date	UK USA Switzerland	Nigeria UK
25	NED	2007	2014	USA	USA/Nigeria
26	NED	2011	Date	USA Canada	USA Canada, Nigeria
27	NED	2005	Date	USA Nigeria	UK
28	NED	2010	Date	Nigeria,UK	Nigeria, Western African Head of a global Audit firm
29	NED	2011	2012	Nigeria	Nigeria
30	NED	2011	2011	Nigeria ,USA	Nigeria, USA Subsidiary of Bank Of Boston
31	NED	2013	Date	Netherlands	Ukrain,Nigeria,Kazakhstan

Appendix Cii

Name	Market capitalisation	Market capitalisation	Type of Institution	Old Name	Date Reregistered	Street Address	Ownership Type	Date Licensed
Access Bank Plc	₦ 186,006,857,587.33	£495,080,933.67	Commercial Bank	Access Bank Plc	1/17/1990	1665, Oyin Jolayemi Street, Victoria Island	Domestic	1/17/1990
Citibank Nigeria Limited		£0.00	Commercial Bank	Nigerian International Bank Ltd	10/11/2004	11 Idowu Taylor Street	Foreign	10/08/2004
Diamond Bank Plc	₦ 21,770,765,629.92	£57,945,664.55	Commercial Bank		12/31/1990	Plot 1261 Adeola Hopewell Street	Domestic	12/31/1990
Ecobank Nigeria Plc	₦ 177,990,646,785.50	£473,744,768.00	Commercial Bank		4/24/1989	2, Ajose Adeogun Street		4/24/1989
Enterprise Bank		£0.00	Commercial Bank	now part of heritage banking group	01/03/2006	Plot 143, Ahmadu Bello Way, Victoria Island, Lagos	Domestic	01/03/2006
Fidelity Bank Plc	₦ 24,918,325,439.78	£66,323,295.73	Commercial Bank		01/02/2006	2 Kofo Abayomi Street		01/02/2006
First Bank of Nigeria Plc	₦ 112,711,219,366.88	£299,995,260.62	Commercial Bank	First Bank Plc	1/29/1979	35 Marina		1/29/1894
First City Monument Bank Plc	₦ 24,753,388,442.50	£65,884,294.91	Commercial Bank	First City Monument Bank Plc	11/11/1983	Primrose Towers, 6-10 Floors 17A Tinubu Square		11/11/1983
Guaranty Trust Bank Plc	₦ 774,040,013,591.20	£2,060,206,046.13	Commercial Bank		1/17/1990	Plot 1669, Oyin Jolayemi Street		1/17/1990
Heritage Banking Company Ltd.		£0.00	Commercial Bank		01/01/1900	Plot 292, Ajose Adeogun Street, Victoria Island, Lagos	Domestic	12/27/2012
Jaiz bank	₦ 39,187,451,569.00	£104,302,391.66	Islamic/Commercial Banking					
Key Stone Bank		£0.00	Commercial Bank		05/02/2001	Plot 707, Adeola Hopewell Street,		05/02/2001
MainStreet Bank		£0.00	Commercial Bank	Afribank Plc	01/03/2006	94, Broad Street,		01/03/2006
Skye Bank Plc	₦ 6,940,150,705.00	£18,472,094.71	Commercial Bank		01/03/2006	Plot 708/709, Adeola Hopewell Street, Victoria Isl	Domestic	01/03/2006
Stanbic IBTC Bank Ltd.	₦ 185,000,000,000.00	£492,401,054.00	Commercial Bank	IBTC - Chartered Bank Plc	01/02/2006	Walter Carrington Crescent, Vicoria Island Lagos	Foreign	01/02/2006
Standard Chartered Bank Nigeria Ltd.		£0.00	Commercial Bank		12/01/2004	105B, Ajose Adeogun Street		06/09/1999
Sterling Bank Plc	₦ 21,304,909,413.24	£56,705,728.92	Commercial Bank	NAL Merchant Bank Ltd	1/25/1999	Sterling Towers, 20 Marina, Lagos.		11/25/1960
SunTrust Bank Nigeria Limited		£0.00	Commercial Bank	SUNTRUST SAVINGS & LOANS LIMITED	9/16/2015	1 Oladele Olashore Street	Domestic	03/12/2009
Union Bank of Nigeria Plc	₦ 82,983,451,707.40	£220,871,022.08	Commercial Bank	Union Bank Plc	01/02/2006	36, Marina		01/02/2006
United Bank For Africa Plc	₦ 199,537,394,771.00	£531,094,181.07	Commercial Bank		01/02/2006	57, Marina		01/02/2006
Unity Bank Plc	₦ 7,831,856,421.14	£20,845,483.01	Commercial Bank		01/02/2006	Plot 785, Herbert Macauly Way,	Domestic	01/02/2006
Wema Bank Plc		£0.00	Commercial Bank	Agbomagbe Bank Limited	1/18/1965	Wema Towers 54, Marina Lagos Island		1/17/1945
Zenith Bank Plc	₦ 443,632,457,196.18	£1,180,784,267.64	Commercial Bank	Zenith International Bank Ltd	9/13/2004	Plot 84, Ajose Adeogun Street, Victoria Island, La		6/20/1990

Name	**Market capitalisation**	**GBP equivalent**
Access Bank Plc	₦ 186,006,857,587.33	£495,080,933.67
Diamond Bank Plc	₦ 21,770,765,629.92	£57,945,664.55
Ecobank Nigeria Plc	₦ 177,990,646,785.50	£473,744,768.00
Fidelity Bank Plc	₦ 24,918,325,439.78	£66,323,295.73
First Bank of Nigeria Plc	₦ 112,711,219,366.88	£299,995,260.62
First City Monument Bank Plc	₦ 24,753,388,442.50	£65,884,294.91
Guaranty Trust Bank Plc	₦ 774,040,013,591.20	£2,060,206,046.13
Jaiz bank	₦ 39,187,451,569.00	£104,302,391.66
Skye Bank Plc	₦ 6,940,150,705.00	£18,472,094.71
Stanbic IBTC Bank Ltd.	₦ 185,000,000,000.00	£492,401,054.00
Sterling Bank Plc	₦ 21,304,909,413.24	£56,705,728.92
Union Bank of Nigeria Plc	₦ 82,983,451,707.40	£220,871,022.08
United Bank For Africa Plc	₦ 199,537,394,771.00	£531,094,181.07
Unity Bank Plc	₦ 7,831,856,421.14	£20,845,483.01
Zenith Bank Plc	₦ 443,632,457,196.18	£1,180,784,267.64

Appendix Ciii Customers Complaints register.

	Number		Amount claimed=N='000		Amount Refunded =N='000	
Description	2015	2014	2015	2014	2015	2014
Pending Complaints B/F	64	28	0	0	0	0
Received Complaints	46620	50096	2910339	12608409	0	0
Total Complaints	46684	50124	2910339	12608409	0	0
Resolved Complaints	46572	49897	582186	872282	485550	668644
Unresolved Complaints escalated to CBN for intervention	27	163	2328153	11736127	395166	379264
Unresolved Complaints pending with the bank C/F	85	64	0	0	0	

Bibliography.

Abdel-Kader, M. G. (2004). *An empirical investigation of the evolution of management accounting practices*. Colchester: University of Essex, Department of Accounting, Finance and Management.

Abdel-Kader, M., & Luther, R. (2008). The impact of firm characteristics on management accounting practices: A UK-based empirical analysis. *British Accounting Review, 40*(1), 2-27. doi:10.1016/j.bar.2007.11.003

Abdel-Maksoud, A., Cerbioni, F., Ricceri, F., and Velayutham, S. (2010). Employee morale, non-financial performance measures, deployment of innovative managerial practices and shop-floor involvement in Italian manufacturing firms. *British Accounting Review, 42*(1), 36-55.

Abdul Rahman, I. K., Azhar, Z., Abdul Rahman, N. H., and Mohd Daud, N. H. (2012). Strategic management accounting and benchmarking practices in Malaysian hospitals. *Journal of Applied Sciences Research, 8*(3), 1665-1671.

Abernethy, M. A., & Brownell, P. (1999). The role of budgets in organizations facing strategic change: an exploratory study. *Accounting, organizations and society*, *24*(3), 189-204.

Abernethy, M. A., and Brownell, P. (1999). The role of budgets in organizations facing strategic change: An exploratory study. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 24*(3), 189-204.

Abernethy, M., & Mundy, J. (2014). Uncertainty as a determinant of performance measurement and compensation systems: A review of the literature. In *Management control and uncertainty* (pp. 114-133). Palgrave Macmillan UK

Abrahamsson, G., Englund, H., and Gerdin, J. (2011). Organizational identity and management accounting change. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, *24*(3), 345-376.

Adegbile, S. A. Corporate governance attributes and capital structure of listed firms in the Nigerian food and beverages industry.

Adelegan, O. J., & Ariyo, A. (2008). Capital market imperfections and corporate investment behavior: A switching regression approach using panel data for Nigerian manufacturing firms. *Journal of Money, Investment and Banking*, *2*, 16-38.

Agbejule, A. (2011). Organizational culture and performance: the role of management accounting system. *Journal of Applied Accounting Research*, *12*(1), 74-89.

Agbejule, A. (2011). Organizational culture and performance: the role of management accounting system. *Journal of Applied Accounting Research*,*12*(1), 74-89.

Agostino, D., and Arnaboldi, M. (2011). How the BSC implementation process shapes its outcome. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *60*(2), 99-114.

Ahrens, T. and Chapman, C. S. (2007), Management accounting as a practise. *Accounting Organisations and Society* 32 1- 27

Ahunwa B. (2002) Corporate Governance in Nigeria, Journal of Business Ethics 37, 269 – 286

Aier, J. K., Comprix, J., Gunlock, M. T., & Lee, D. (2005). The financial expertise of CFOs and accounting restatements. *Accounting Horizons, 19*(3), 123-135. doi:10.2308/acch.2005.19.3.123

Ainsworth, S., & Cox, J. W. (2003). Families divided: Culture and control in small family business. *Organization Studies, 24*(9), 1463-1485. doi:10.1177/0170840603249004

Ajibolade, S. O. (2012). Management accounting systems design and company performance in Nigerian manufacturing companies: A contingency theory perspective. *British Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*, *14*(2), 228-244

Ajibolade, S. O. (2014). Drivers of Choice of Management Accounting System Designs in Nigerian Manufacturing Companies. *International Journal of Business and Social Research, 3*(9), 45-57.

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behaviour. *Organizational behaviour and human decision processes*, *50*(2), 179-211.

Akande, O. B. (2016). Corporate Governance Issues in the Nigerian Banking Industry.

Alawattage, C., and Wickramasinghe, D. (2009). Institutionalisation of control and accounting for bonded labour in colonial plantations: A historical analysis. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 20*(6), 701-715.

Alawattage, C., Hopper, T., and Wickramasinghe, D. (2007). *Management accounting in less developed countries*: Emerald.

Alawattage, Chandana, Danture Wickramasinghe, and Shazhad Uddin(2008). "Theorising management accounting practices in Less Developed Countries."

Alhazemi, A. A., Rees, C., and Hossain, F. (2013). Implementation of Strategic Organizational Change: The Case of King Abdul Aziz University in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Public Administration, 36*(13), 972-981.

Almquist, R., Grossi, G., van Helden, G. J., and Reichard, C. (2013). Public sector governance and accountability. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 24*(7-8), 479-487.

Amat, J., Carmona, S., & Roberts, H. (1994). Context and change in management accounting systems: A spanish case study. *Management Accounting Research, 5*(2), 107-122. doi:10.1006/mare.1994.1008

Anderson, R. C., & Reeb, D. M. (2003). Founding-family ownership and firm performance: Evidence from the S&P 500. *Journal of Finance*, *58*(3), 1301-1328. doi:10.1111/1540-6261.00567

Anderson, R. C., Mansi, S. A., & Reeb, D. M. (2004). Board characteristics, accounting report integrity, and the cost of debt. *Journal of accounting and economics*, *37*(3), 315-342.

Anderson, S.W. and Young S.M. (2001) Implementing Management Innovations Kluwer Academic Publishers

Andon, P., Baxter, J., and Chua, W. F. (2007). Accounting change as relational drifting: A field study of experiments with performance measurement. *Management Accounting Research, 18*(2), 273-308.

Andrew, J., & Cahill, D. (2016). Rationalising and resisting neoliberalism: The uneven geography of costs. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*

Ang, J. S., Cole, R. A., & Lin, J. W. (2000). Agency costs and ownership structure. *Journal of Finance, 55*(1), 81-106. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Angaye, P. E., & Gwilliam, D. (2008). Corporate governance in infancy and growth–an interview-based study of the development of governance and corporate regulation in Nigeria. In *Corporate Governance in Less Developed and Emerging Economies* (pp. 359-407). Emerald Group Publishing Limited

Appelbaum, S. H., Habashy, S., Malo, J. L., and Shafiq, H. (2012). Back to the future: Revisiting Kotter's 1996 change model. *Journal of Management Development, 31*(8), 764-782.

Argento, D., and van Helden, G. J. (2010). Water sector reform in Italy and in the Netherlands: Ambitious change with an uncertain outcome versus consensus-seeking moderate change. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, *76*(4), 790-809.

Arnaboldi, M., and Azzone, G. (2013). Case study of 'peak performing' public sector units and successful change efforts *Human Resource Management in The Public Sector* (pp. 286-302): Edward Elgar Publishing.

Arnaboldi, M., and Lapsley, I. (2009). On the implementation of accrual accounting: A study of conflict and ambiguity. *European Accounting Review, 18*(4), 809-836.

Arroyo, P. (2012). Management accounting change and sustainability: An institutional approach. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change*, *8*(3), 286-309.

Astrachan, J. H., & Shanker, M. C. (2003). Family businesses' contribution to the U.S. economy: A closer look. *Family Business Review*, *16*(3), 211-219. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Astrachan, J. H., Klein, S. B., & Smyrnios, K. X. (2002). The F-PEC scale of family influence: A proposal for solving the family business definition problem. *Family Business Review, 15*(1), 45-58. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Ax, C., and Bjornenak, T. (2005). Bundling and diffusion of management accounting innovation case of the balanced score card in Sweden. *Management Accounting Research, 16*(1), 1-20.

Azzone, G., and Palermo, T. (2011). Adopting performance appraisal and reward systems: A qualitative analysis of public sector organisational change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *24*(1), 90-111.

Badham, R., Garrety, K., Morrigan, V., Zanko, M., and Dawson, P. (2003). Designer Deviance: Enterprise and Deviance in Culture Change Programmes. *Organization*, *10*(4), 707-730.

Baiman, S. (1990). Agency research in managerial accounting: A second look. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 15*(4), 341-371. doi:10.1016/0361-3682(90)90023-N

Baines, A., & Langfield-Smith, K. (2003). Antecedents to management accounting change: a structural equation approach. *Accounting, organizations and society*, *28*(7), 675-698.

Baines, A., & Langfield-Smith, K. (2003). Antecedents to management accounting change: A structural equation approach. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 28*(7-8), 675-698. doi:10.1016/S0361-3682(02)00102-2

Baker, C. R., & Bettner, M. S. (1997). Interpretive and critical research in accounting: a commentary on its absence from mainstream accounting research. *Critical perspectives on Accounting*, *8*(4), 293-310.

Baker, C. R., & Bettner, M. S. (1997). Interpretive and critical research in accounting: a commentary on its absence from mainstream accounting research. *Critical perspectives on Accounting*, *8*(4), 293-310.

Bakker, A. B., and Demerouti, E. (2009). The crossover of work engagement between working couples. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 24*(3), 220-236.

Bakre, O. M., & Lauwo, S. (2016). Privatisation and accountability in a “crony capitalist” Nigerian state. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*.

Bakre, O. M., & Lauwo, S. (2016). Privatisation and accountability in a “crony capitalist” Nigerian state. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 39*, 45-58

Bakre, O., Lauwo, S. G., & McCartney, S. (2017). Western accounting reforms and accountability in wealth redistribution in patronage-based Nigerian society. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, (just-accepted)

Baldvinsdottir, G. H. (2009). Management accounting and the institutionalization of trust. *Problems and Perspectives in Management, 7*(2), 53-60.

Baldvinsdottir, G., Burns, J., Norreklit, H., and Scapens, R. W. (2009). The image of accountants: From bean counters to extreme accountants. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 22*(6), 858-882.

Balogun, J. (2003). From blaming the middle to harnessing its potential: Creating change intermediaries. *British Journal of Management, 14*(1), 69-83.

Balogun, J. (2007). The Practice of Organizational Restructuring: From Design to Reality. *European Management Journal, 25*(2), 81-91.

Balogun, J. C., Bartunek, J. M., and Do, B. (2010). *Uncovering relationships and shared emotion beneath senior managers' resistance to strategic change.* Paper presented at the 70th Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management - Dare to Care: Passion and Compassion in Management Practice and Research, AOM 2010, Montreal, QC.

Balogun, J., and Floyd, S. W. (2010) Breaking out of strategy vectors: Reintroducing culture. *Vol. 18. Research in Organizational Change and Development* (pp. 51-76).

Balogun, J., and Jenkins, M. (2003). Re-conceiving change management: A knowledge-based perspective. *European Management Journal, 21*(2), 247-257.

Balogun, J., and Johnson, G. (2004). Organizational restructuring and middle manager sense making. *Academy of Management Journal, 47*(4), 523-549.

Balogun, J., and Johnson, G. (2005). From intended strategies to unintended outcomes: The impact of change recipient sense making. *Organization Studies, 26*(11), 1573-1601.

Balogun, J., Gleadle, P., Hailey, V. H., and Willmott, H. (2005). Managing change across boundaries: Boundary-shaking practices. *British Journal of Management, 16*(4), 261-278.

Balogun, J., Jarzabkowski, P., and Vaara, E. (2011). Selling, resistance and reconciliation: A critical discursive approach to subsidiary role evolution in MNEs. *Journal of International Business Studies, 42*(6), 765-786.

Balzli, C. E., and Morard, B. (2012). The impact of an Integrated Financial System implementation on accounting profiles in a public administration: An ethnographic approach. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 8*(3), 364-385.

Bank of England (2003) Bank of England Quarterly Bulletins.

Bannister, A. (2001). Business performance measurement and change management within a TQM framework. *International Journal of Operations and Production Management, 21*(1-2), 88-107.

Barbier, M., Hansez, I., Chmiel, N., and Demerouti, E. (2013). Performance expectations, personal resources, and job resources: How do they predict work engagement? *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 22*(6), 750-762.

Barnett, T., & Kellermanns, F. W. (2006). Are we family and are we treated as family? nonfamily employees' perceptions of justice in the family firm. *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice, 30*(6), 837-854. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6520.2006.00155.

Bartunek, J. M., Balogun, J., and Do, B. (2011). Considering planned change Anew: Stretching large group interventions strategically, emotionally, and meaningfully. *Academy of Management Annals, 5*(1), 1-52.

Bátiz-Lazo, B., & Wardley, P. (2007). Banking on change: Information systems and technologies in UK high street banking, 1919-1969. Financial History Review, 14(2), 177-205+119-123. doi:10.1017/S0968565007000534

Bdour, J. I., & Al-khoury, A. F. (2008). Predicting change in bank efficiency in Jordan: a data envelopment analysis. *Journal of accounting & organizational change*, *4*(2), 162-181.

Beaubien, L. (2012). Technology, change, and management control: a temporal perspective. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, *26*(1), 48-74.

Bechara, J., & Van de Ven, A. H. (2011). Triangulating philosophies of science to understand complex organizational and managerial problems. In *Philosophy and organization theory* (pp. 343-364). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Becker, A., & Messner, M. (2005). After the scandals: A german-speaking perspective on management accounting research and education. *European Accounting Review, 14*(2), 417-427. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Becker, M. (2004), "Organisational Routines: a review of the literature", *Industrial and Corporate Change,* vol. 13, no. 4, pp. 643-677.

Becker, M. (2005), "The concept of routines: some clarifications", *Cambridge Journal of Economics,* vol. 29, no. 2, pp. 249-262.

Becker, M. (ed.) (2008), Handbook of Organisational Routines, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham.

Becker, W., Ulrich, P., & Staffel, M. (2011). Management accounting and controlling in german SMEs - do company size and family influence matter? *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Venturing, 3*(3), 281-300. doi:10.1504/IJEV.2011.041276

Bennett, M., Rikhardsson, P. M., and Schaltegger, S. (2003). *Environmental management accounting: purpose and progress*. Dordrecht; London: Kluwer Academic.

Berland, N., and Chiapello, E. (2009). Criticisms of capitalism, budgeting and the double enrolment: Budgetary control rhetoric and social reform in France in the 1930s and 1950s. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 34*(1), 28-57.

Berry, A. J., Coad, A. F., Harris, E. P., Otley, D. T., and Stringer, C. (2009). Emerging themes in management control: A review of recent literature. *British Accounting Review, 41*(1), 2-20.

Bertz, J., & Quinn, M. (2014). Interpreting management accounting rules: an initial study of public bodies. *Journal of Management Control, 24*(4), 319-342.

Beuren, I. M., and Cordeiro Miiler, E. T. (2009). Controllership institutionalisation process of corporate governance in Brazilian companies. *Corporate Ownership and Control, 7*(1 C CONT. 2), 318-329.

Beuren, I. M., and de Souza, J. C. (2011). Kuhn's Theory of Scientific Revolutions in accounting articles. *Corporate Ownership and Control, 8*(2 A), 77-88.

Bhimani, A and Bromwich, M. (2010), *Management accounting – retrospect and prospect*, Elsevier, London.

Bhimani, A. (1996). Management accounting: European perspectives. *OUP Catalogue*.

Bhimani, A. (2002). European management accounting research: traditions in the making. *European Accounting Review, 11*(1), 99-117.

Birchall, S. J., Murphy, M., & Milne, M. (2016). Mixed Methods Research: A Comprehensive Approach for Study into the New Zealand Voluntary Carbon Market. *The Qualitative Report*, *21*(7), 1351-1365.

Bird, B., Welsch, H., Astrachan, J. H., & Pistrui, D. (2002). Family business research: The evolution of an academic field. *Family Business Review, 15*(4), 337-350. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Birnholtz, J., Cohen, M., Hoch, S. (2007), " Organisational Character: on the regeneration of Camp Poplar Grove, *Organisation Science,* vol. 18, no. 2, pp. 315-332

Bisbe, J., Batista-Foguet, J.and Chenhall, R. (2007). Defining management accounting constructs: A methodological note on the risks of conceptual misspecification. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 32*(7-8), 789-820. doi:10.1016/j.aos.2006.09.010

Bloom, N., & Van Reenen, J. (2007). Measuring and explaining management practices across firms and countries. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *122*(4), 1351-1408. doi:10.1162/qjec.2007.122.4.1351

Blumentritt, T. P., Keyt, A. D., & Astrachan, J. H. (2007). Creating an environment for successful nonfamily CEOs: An exploratory study of good principals. *Family Business Review, 20*(4), 321-335. doi:10.1111/j.1741-6248.2007.00102.x

Boitier, M., and Riviere, A. (2013a). Are French universities under control? *Public Money and Management, 33*(2), 105-110.

Boitier, M., and Riviere, A. (2013b). Freedom and responsibility for French universities: From global steering to local management. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 26*(4), 616-649.

Boland Jr, R. J., Sharma, A. K., and Afonso, P. S. (2008). Designing management control in hybrid organizations: The role of path creation and morphogenesis. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 33*(7-8), 899-914.

Borges, T. B., Mario, P. C., and Carneiro, R. (2013). Implementing costs systems proposed by federal government: An analysis under an institutional lens. *Revista de Administracao Publica, 47*(2), 469-491.

Borio, C. E. V., Tsatsaronis, K., and Bank for International Settlements. Monetary and Economic Department. (2006). *Risk in financial reporting: status, challenges and suggested directions*. Basel, Switzerland: Bank for International Settlements, Monetary and Economic Department.

Börner, T., & Verstegen, B. (2013). Change within institutional theory: towards a framework of coping with change. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, *9*(3), 304-321.

Börner, T., and Verstegen, B. (2013). Change within institutional theory: Towards a framework of coping with change. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 9*(3), 304-321.

Bouten, L., and Hoozee, S. (2013). On the interplay between environmental reporting and management accounting change. *Management Accounting Research, 24*(4), 333-348.

Braam, G. J., & Nijssen, E. J. (2004). Performance effects of using the balanced scorecard: a note on the Dutch experience. *Long range planning*, *37*(4), 335-349.

Bracci, E., Maran, L., and Vagnoni, E. (2010). Saint Anna's hospital in Ferrara, Italy: Accounting and organizational change during the devolution. *Accounting History, 15*(4), 463-504.

Bratnicki, M., & Krys, R. (1992). The propensity for strategic change in Polish companies—A comparative study. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, *8*(3), 193-200.

Bratnicki, M., & Krys, R. (1992). The propensity for strategic change in Polish companies—A comparative study. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, *8*(3), 193-200.

Brignall, S., and Modell, S. (2000). An institutional perspective on performance measurement and management in the 'new public sector'. *Management Accounting Research, 11*(3), 281-306.

Broadbent, J., & Laughlin, R. (2005). Organisational and accounting change: theoretical and empirical reflections and thoughts on a future research agenda. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, *1*(1), 7-25.

Brown, A. D. (1998). Narrative, politics and legitimacy in an IT implimentation. *Journal of Management Studies, 35*(1), 35-58.

Buchanan, D., and Dawson, P. (2007). Discourse and audience: Organizational change as multi-story process. *Journal of Management Studies, 44*(5), 669-686.

Burnes, B. (2005). Complexity theories and organizational change. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 7*(2), 73-80.

Burnes, B. (2009). Managing change London: FT.

Burnes, B. (2010). Call for papers: Journal of change management. *Journal of Change Management, 10*(2), 241-242.

Burnes, B. (2011). Introduction: Why Does Change Fail, and What Can We Do About It? *Journal of Change Management, 11*(4), 445-450.

Burnes, B., and By, R. T. (2012). Leadership and Change: The Case for Greater Ethical Clarity. *Journal of Business Ethics, 108*(2), 239-252.

Burnes, B., and Cooke, B. (2012). Review Article: The past, present and future of organization development: Taking the long view. *Human Relations, 65*(11), 1395-1429.

Burnes, B., and Cooke, B. (2013). Kurt Lewin's field theory: A review and re-evaluation. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 15*(4), 408-425.

Burnes, B., and Jackson, P. (2011). Success and failure in organizational change: An exploration of the role of values. *Journal of Change Management, 11*(2), 133-162.

Burnes, B., & Cooke, B. (2013). Kurt Lewin's field theory: A review and re-evaluation. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *15*(4), 408–425

Burns, J. (2000), The dynamics of accounting change: Inter-play between new practices, routines, institutions, power and politics, *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal,* vol. 13, no. 5, pp. 566-596.

Burns, J. (2009), Addressing definitional ambiguity: management accounting routines as propensities to act, *British Accounting Association, Annual Conference*, Dundee, April 21-23, 2009.

Burns, J. and Baldvinsdottir, G. (2005), An institutional perspective of accountants' new roles – the interplay of contradictions and praxis, *European Accounting Review,* vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 727-757.

Burns, J. and Scapens, R. (2000), "Conceptualising management accounting change: an institutional framework", *Management Accounting Research,* vol. 11, no. 1, pp. 3-25.

Burns, J. and Scapens, R. (2008), "Organisational routines in accounting" in *Handbook of Organisational Routines*, ed. M. Becker, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, pp. 88-106.

Burns, J., & Baldvinsdottir, G. (2005). An institutional perspective of accountants' new roles–the interplay of contradictions and praxis. *European Accounting Review, 14*(4), 725-757.

Burns, J., & Baldvinsdottir, G. (2005). An institutional perspective of accountants' new roles - the interplay of contradictions and praxis. *European Accounting Review, 14*(4), 725-757. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Burns, J., & Baldvinsdottir, G. (2007). The changing role of management accountants. *Issues in Management Accounting,* , 117-132. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Burns, J., & Scapens, R. W. (2000). Conceptualizing management accounting change: An institutional framework. *Management Accounting Research*, *11*(1), 3-25. doi:10.1006/mare.1999.0119

Burns, J., and Quinn, M. (2011). The routinisation of management controls in software. *Journal of Management Control*, *22*(1), 5-24.

Burns, J., and Scapens, R. W. (2000). Conceptualizing management accounting change: An institutional framework. *Management Accounting Research, 11*(1), 3-25.

Burns, J., and Scapens, R. W. (2008). Organizational routines in accounting *Handbook of Organizational Routines* (pp. 87-106): Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.

Burns, J., and Vaivio, J. (2001). Management accounting change. *Management Accounting Research, 12*(4), 389-402.

Burns, J., Ezzamel, M., & Scapens, R. (1999). Management accounting change in the UK. *Management Accounting-London-, 77*, 28-32.

Busco, C. (2009). Giddens' structuration theory and its implications for management accounting research. *Journal of Management and Governance, 13*(3), 249-260.

Busco, C., and Riccaboni, A. (2010). Performance measurement systems and organisational culture: Interpreting processes of unlearning and change *Business Performance Measurement and Management: New Contexts, Themes and Challenges* (pp. 357-376): Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Busco, C., and Scapens, R. W. (2011). Management accounting systems and organisational culture: Interpreting their linkages and processes of change. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management, 8*(4), 320-357.

Busco, C., Giovannoni, E., and Scapens, R. W. (2008). Managing the tensions in integrating global organisations: The role of performance management systems. *Management Accounting Research, 19*(2), 103-125.

Busco, C., Quattrone, P., and Riccaboni, A. (2007). Management Accounting. Issues in interpreting its nature and change. *Management Accounting Research, 18*(2), 125-149.

Busco, C., Riccaboni, A., and Scapens, R. (2006). Trust for Accounting, Accounting for trust. *Management Accounting Research, 17*, 11-14.

Busco, C., Riccaboni, A., and Scapens, R. W. (2006). Trust for accounting and accounting for trust. *Management Accounting Research, 17*(1), 11-41.

By, R. T., and Burnes, B. (2013). *Organizational change, leadership and ethics: Leading organizations towards sustainability*: Taylor and Francis.

By, R. T., Burnes, B., and Oswick, C. (2011). Change management: The road ahead. *Journal of Change Management, 11*(1), 1-6.

By, R. T., Burnes, B., and Oswick, C. (2012). Change Management: Leadership, Values and Ethics. *Journal of Change Management, 12*(1), 1-5.

By, R. T., Oswick, C., and Burnes, B. (2014). Looking Back and Looking Forward: Some Reflections on Journal Developments and Trends in Organizational Change Discourse. *Journal of Change Management, 14*(1), 1-7.

Byrne, S., & Pierce, B. (2007). Towards a more comprehensive understanding of the roles of management accountants. *European Accounting Review, 16*(3), 469-498. doi:10.1080/09638180701507114

Cabrera-Suárez, M. K., De la Cruz Deniz-Deniz, M., & Martín-Santana, J. D. (2011). Familiness and market orientation: A stakeholder approach. *Journal of Family Business Strategy, 2*(1), 34-42. doi:10.1016/j.jfbs.2011.01.001

Cabrera-Suárez, M. K., de la Cruz Déniz-Déniz, M., & Martín-Santana, J. D. (2011). Familiness and market orientation: A stakeholder approach. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, *2*(1), 34-42.

Caccia, L., and Steccolini, I. (2006). Accounting change in Italian local governments: What's beyond managerial fashion? *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 17*(2-3), 154-174.

Cadez, S., & Guilding, C. (2007). Benchmarking the incidence of strategic management accounting in slovenia. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, *3*(2), 126-146. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Cadez, S., & Guilding, C. (2008). An exploratory investigation of an integrated contingency model of strategic management accounting. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 33*(7-8), 836-863. doi:10.1016/j.aos.2008.01.003

Calvasina, R. V., Calvasina, E. J., and Calvasina, G. E. (1989). Beware the new accounting myths. *Management Accounting, 12*, 41-45.

Camillus, J. C., & Grant, J. H. (1980). Operational planning: The integration of programming and budgeting. *Academy of Management Review, 5*(3), 369-379. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Campanale, C., Cinquini, L., and Tenucci, A. (2014). Time-driven activity-based costing to improve transparency and decision making in healthcare A case study. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management, 11*(2), 165-186.

Capie, F.H. and Billings, M. (2001a) 'Accounting issues and the measurement of profits – English banks – 1920–68', Accounting, Business & Financial History,11(2): 225–51.

Capie, F.H. and Billings, M. (2001b) 'Profitability in English banking in the twentieth century', European Review of Economic History, 5: 367–401.

Capie, F.H. and Billings, M. (2004) 'Evidence on competition in English commercial banking 1920–70', Financial History Review, 11(1): 69–103.

Capie, F.H. and Collins, M. (1992) Have the Banks Failed British Industry?, Hobart Paper 119, London: Institute of Economic Affairs.

Carmona, S. Ezzamel, M. and Gutierrez, F. (1998) Accounting and control in the Spanish royal tobacco factory of Seville *Accounting Organisation and Society* 22(5),411-446

Cassell, C. and Symon G. (2004), *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research.* Sage.

Cassia, L., Paleari, S., & Redondi, R. (2005). Management accounting systems and organisational structure. *Small Business Economics, 25*(4), 373-391. doi:10.1007/s11187-004-6494-8

Caudeli, J. A. A., Fillol, A. G., and Feliú, V. M. R. (2009). Analysis of the implementation process of a strategic management system: A case study of the balanced scorecard at the port authority of Valencia. *Revista Espanola de Financiacion y Contabilidad, 38*(142), 189-212.

Chae, B., and Lanzara, G. F. (2006). Self-destructive dynamics in large-scale techno change and some ways of counteracting it. *Information Technology and People, 19*(1), 74-97.

Chandar, N., Collier, D., and Miranti, P. (2012). Graph standardization and management accounting at ATandT during the 1920s.*Accounting History, 17*(1), 35-62.

Chanegrih, T. (2008). Applying a typology of management accounting change: A research note. *Management Accounting Research*, *19*(3), 278-285.

Chanegrih, T. (2008). Applying a typology of management accounting change: A research note. *Management Accounting Research*, *19*(3), 278-285.

Charles, K., and Dawson, P. (2011). Dispersed change agency and the improvisation of strategies during processes of change. *Journal of Change Management*, *11*(3), 329-351.

Chenhall, R. H. (2003). Management control systems design within its organizational context: Findings from contingency-based research and directions for the future. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *28*(2-3), 127-168. doi:10.1016/S0361-3682(01)00027-7

Chenhall, R. H. (2006). *Theorizing contingencies in management control systems research* doi:10.1016/S1751-3243(06)01006-6

Chenhall, R. H., & Langfield-Smith, K. (1998). Adoption and benefits of management accounting practices: An australian study. *Management Accounting Research, 9*(1), 1-19. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Chenhall, R., and Langfield-Smith, K. (1998). Factors influencing the role of management accounting in the development of performance measures within organizational change programs. *Management Accounting Research*, *9*(4), 361-386.

Chirico, F. (2008). Knowledge accumulation in family firms: Evidence from four case studies. *International Small Business Journal*, *26*(4), 433-462. doi:10.1177/0266242608091173

Chittoor, R., & Das, R. (2007). Professionalization of management and succession performance - A vital linkage. *Family Business Review*, *20*(1), 65-79. doi:10.1111/j.1741-6248.2007.00084.x

Chiwamit, P., Modell, S., and Yang, C. L. (2014). The societal relevance of management accounting innovations: Economic value added and institutional work in the fields of Chinese and Thai state-owned enterprises. *Accounting and Business Research, 44*(2), 144-180.

Choe, J. M. (2004). Impact of management accounting information and AMT on organizational performance. *Journal of Information Technology*, *19*(3), 203-214.

Chopra, S. P., Desai, S. N., and Srinivasan, E. V. *Report or management accounting*. [New Delhi]: S.Prakash Chopra and N.S. Desai.

Chow, C. W., Lindquist, T. M., & Wu, A. (2001). National culture and the implementation of high-stretch performance standards: An exploratory study. *Behavioral Research in Accounting*, *13*(1), 85-109.

Chrisman, J. J., Chua, J. H., & Sharma, P. (2005). Trends and directions in the development of a strategic management theory of the family firm. *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice*, *29*(5), 555-575. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6520.2005.00098.x

Chrisman, J. J., Kellermanns, F. W., Chan, K. C., & Liano, K. (2010). Intellectual foundations of current research in family business: An identification and review of 25 influential articles. *Family Business Review*, *23*(1), 9-26. doi:10.1177/0894486509357920

Chua, J. H., Chrisman, J. J., & Bergiel, E. B. (2009). An agency theoretic analysis of the professionalized family firm. *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice*, *33*(2), 355-372. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6520.2009.00294.x

Chua, J. H., Chrisman, J. J., & Sharma, P. (1999). Defining the family business by behaviour. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *23*(4), 19-39. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Chua, J. H., Chrisman, J. J., & Sharma, P. (2003). Succession and non succession concerns of family firms and agency relationship with nonfamily managers. *Family Business Review, 16*(2), 89-107. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Chung, C.-N., & Luo, X. (2008). Human agents, contexts, and institutional change: The decline of family in the leadership of business groups. *Organization Science*, 19(1), 124–142. doi:10.1287/orsc.1070.0272

Cinquini, L., & Tenucci, A. (2010). Strategic management accounting and business strategy: A loose coupling? *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 6*(2), 228-259. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Clayton, J., and Gregory, W. J. (2000). Reflections on critical systems thinking and the management of change in rule-bound systems. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *13*(2), 140-161.

Coad, A. F., and Cullen, J. (2006). Inter-organisational cost management: Towards an evolutionary perspective. *Management Accounting Research, 17*(4), 342-369.

Coad, A. F., and Glyptis, L. G. (2014). Structuration: A position-practice perspective and an illustrative study *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 25*(2), 142-161.

Coad, A. F., and Herbert, I. P. (2009). Back to the future: New potential for structuration theory in management accounting research? *Management Accounting Research, 20*(3), 177-192.

Coad, A., Jack, L., & Kholeif, A. (2016). Strong Structuration Theory in Accounting Research. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, *29*(7).

Coad, A.H., and Herbert, I.P. (2009). Back to the future: New potential for structuration theory in management accounting research Management Accounting Research, 20, 177-192.

Coates, J. B., & Longden, S. G. (1989). *Management accounting: the challenge of technological innovation*. Chartered Institute of Management Accountants.

Coates, J. B., & Longden, S. G. (1989). *Management accounting: the challenge of technological innovation*. Chartered Institute of Management Accountants.

Cobb, A. T., Wooten, K. C., & Folger, R. (1995). Justice in the making: Toward understanding the theory and practice of justice in organizational change and development. *Research in organizational change and development*, *8*(1), 243-295.

Cobb, I., Helliar, C. and Innes, J. (1995), Management accounting change in a bank, *Management Accounting Research*, 6 (2) 155-76.

Cohen, S., & Karatzimas, S. (2011). The role of the human resources department in budgeting: Evidence from Greece. *Journal of Human Resource Costing & Accounting*, *15*(2), 147-166.

Cohen, S., and Karatzimas, S. (2011). The role of the human resources department in budgeting: Evidence from Greece. *Journal of Human Resource Costing and Accounting*, *15*(2), 147-166.

Cohen, S., Kaimenakis, N., and Venieris, G. (2013). Reaping the benefits of two worlds: An explanatory study of the cash and the accrual accounting information roles in local governments. *Journal of Applied Accounting Research, 14*(2), 165-179.

Collier, D. M. (2012). A contextual analysis of the development and diffusion of depreciation accounting at the Bell System, 1910-37. *Accounting History Review, 22*(1), 23-45.

Collier, P. M., and Woods, M. (2011). A Comparison of the Local Authority Adoption of Risk Management in England and Australia. *Australian Accounting Review, 21*(2), 111-123.

Commission recommendation of 6 may 2003 concerning the definition of micro, small and medium-sized enterprises. (2003). *Official Journal of the European Union,* (124), 36-41.

Conrad, L., and Guven Uslu, P. (2011). Investigation of the impact of 'Payment by Results' on performance measurement and management in NHS Trusts. *Management Accounting Research, 22*(1), 46-55.

Contrafatto, M., and Burns, J. (2013). Social and environmental accounting, organisational change and management accounting: A processual view. *Management Accounting Research, 24*(4), 349-365.

Corbetta, G., & Salvato, C. (2004). Self-serving or self-actualizing? models of man and agency costs in different types of family firms: A commentary on "comparing the agency costs of family and non-family firms: Conceptual issues and exploratory evidence". *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice*, *28*(4), 355-362. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6520.2004.00050.x

Corsi, K., and Mancini, D. (2011). *The AIS compliance with law: An interpretative framework for Italian listed companies.* Paper presented at the 7th Conference of the Italian Chapter of the Association for Information Systems, ItAIS 2010, Naples.

Covin, T. J. (1994). Perceptions of family-owned firms: The impact of gender and educational level. *Journal of Small Business Management, 32*(3), 29-39. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Coyte, R., Emsley, D., and Boyd, D. (2010). Examining Management Accounting Change as Rules and Routines: The Effect of Rule Precision. *Australian Accounting Review*, *20*(2), 96-109.

Crecente-Maseda (2013) Institutional Change in Land Planning: Two Cases from Galicia, European Planning Studies, 21:8, 1276-1296, DOI: 10.1080/09654313.2012.722947

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches,* Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.

Cromie, S., Stephenson, B., & Monteith, D. (1995). The management of family firms: An empirical investigation. *International Small Business Journal*, *13*(4), 11-34. Retrieved from www.scopus.com.

Cruz, I., Major, M., and Scapens, R. W. (2009). Institutionalization and practice variation in the management control of a global/local setting. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, *22*(1), 91-117.

CSO, (2008), *Small Business in Ireland – 2008 edition*, Central Statistics Office, Cork, Ireland

Cull, R.,and Peria, M. S. (2007). Foreign bank participation and crises in developing countries.

Cullen, J., Tsamenyi, M., Bernon, M., and Gorst, J. (2013). Reverse logistics in the UK retail sector: A case study of the role of management accounting in driving organisational change. *Management Accounting Research*, *24*(3), 212-227.

D'Aunno, T. Succi, M. and Alexander, J.A, (2000), The role of institutional and market forces in divergent institutional change *Administrative Science Quarterly* 45 679–703

Dambrin, C., Lambert, C., and Sponem, S. (2007). Control and change analysing the process of institutionalisation. *Management Accounting Research, 18*(2), 172-208.

Davila, A., & Foster, G. (2005). Management accounting systems adoption decisions: Evidence and performance implications from early-stage/startup companies. *Accounting Review, 80*(4), 1039-1068. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Davila, A., & Foster, G. (2007). Management control systems in early-stage startup companies. *Accounting Review, 82*(4), 907-937. doi:10.2308/accr.2007.82.4.907

Davila, A., & Foster, G. (2008). *The adoption and evolution of management control systems in entrepreneurial companies: Evidence and a promising future* doi:10.1016/S1751-3243(07)03006-4

Davila, A., Foster, G., & Oyon, D. (2009). Accounting and control, entrepreneurship and innovation: Venturing into new research opportunities. *European Accounting Review, 18*(2), 281-311. doi:10.1080/09638180902731455

Davila, T. (2005). An exploratory study on the emergence of management control systems: Formalizing human resources in small growing firms. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 30*(3), 223-248. doi:10.1016/j.aos.2004.05.006

Davis, J. H., Allen, M. R., & Hayes, H. D. (2010). Is blood thicker than water? A study of stewardship perceptions in family business. *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice, 34*(6), 1093-1116. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6520.2010.00415.

Davis, J. H., Schoorman, F. D., & Donaldson, L. (1997). Toward a stewardship theory of management. *Academy of Management Review, 22*(1), 20-47. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Davis, S., & Albright, T. (2004). An investigation of the effect of balanced scorecard implementation on financial performance. *Management accounting research*, *15*(2), 135-153.

Dawson, P. (2003a). Organisational change stories and management research: Facts or fiction. *Journal of Management and Organization, 9*(3), 37-49.

Dawson, P. (2003b). *Reshaping change: A processual perspective*: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.

Dawson, P. (2014). Reflections: On Time, Temporality and Change in Organizations. *Journal of Change Management*.

Dawson, P., and Buchanan, D. (2005). The way it really happened: Competing narratives in the political process of technological change. *Human Relations, 58*(7), 845-865.

Dawson, P., and Daniel, L. (2010). Understanding social innovation: A provisional framework. *International Journal of Technology Management, 51*(1), 9-21.

Dawson, P., and Gunson, N. (2002). Technology and the politics of change at work: The case of Dalebake Bakeries. *New Technology, Work and Employment, 17*(1), 35-45.

Dawson, P., and McLean, P. (2013). Miners' Tales: Stories and the Storying Process for Understanding the Collective Sense making of Employees During Contested Change. *Group and Organization Management*, *38*(2), 198-229.

Dawson, P., and Spedding, T. (2010). Simulation modelling and strategic change: Creating the sustainable enterprise. *Australasian Journal of Information Systems, 16*(2), 71-80.

Dawson, P., Farmer, J., and Thomson, E. (2011). The power of stories to persuade: The storying of midwives and the financial narratives of central policy makers. *Journal of Management and Organization, 17*(2), 146-164.

De Jesus Barros Costa, A., and Lustosa, P. R. B. (2012). Rankings of graduate programs in accounting: Review of scientific literature in management accounting (2000-2009). *Custos e Agronegocio, 8*, 129-152.

De Lema, D. G. P., & Durendez, A. (2007). Managerial behaviour of small and medium-sized family businesses: An empirical study. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research, 13*(3), 151-172. doi:10.1108/13552550710751030

De Loo, I. (2006). Action and organizational learning in an elevator company. *Learning Organization, 13*(3), 204-214.

De Waal, A. A., and Coevert, V. (2007). The effect of performance management on the organizational results of a bank. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management, 56*(5-6), 397-416.

De Waal, A., Hermkens-Janssen, M., and Van De Ven, A. (2011). The evolutionary adoption framework: Explaining the budgeting paradox. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 7*(4), 316-336.

Del Giudice, M., Della Peruta, M. R., and Maggioni, V. (2013). Collective Knowledge and Organizational Routines within Academic Communities of Practice: An Empirical Research on Science-Entrepreneurs. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy, 4*(3), 260-278.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., and Fried, Y. (2012). Work orientations in the job demands-resources model. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*(6), 557-575.

Demirag, I., Khadaroo, I., and Clark, W. (2009). The institutionalisation of public-private partnerships in the UK and the nation-state of California. *International Journal of Public Policy, 4*(3-4), 190-213.

Dent, E. B., & Goldberg, S. G. (1999). Challenging “resistance to change”. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *35*(1), 25-41.

Dent, E. B., & Goldberg, S. G. (1999). Challenging “resistance to change”. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *35*(1), 25-41.

Denzin, K. N., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2009). Qualitative research. *Yogyakarta: PustakaPelajar*.v

Denzin, N. K., and Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (2011). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. Sage.

Dibella, A. J. (2007). Critical perceptions of organisational change. *Journal of Change Management*, *7*(3-4), 231-242.

Dillard, J., Rigsby, J. and Goodman, C. (2004), "The making and remaking of organisation context - duality and the institutionalization process", *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal,* vol. 17, no. 4, pp. 506-542.

Dillard, J., Rogers, R., and Yuthas, K. (2011). Organizational change: In search of the golden mean. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 7*(1), 5-32.

DiMaggio, P.J., Powell, W.W. (1983), The iron cage revisited: institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields, *American Sociological Review*, 48(2)147-60

Dolfsma, W. (2006). Accounting as applied ethics: Teaching a discipline. *Journal of Business Ethics, 63*(3), 209-215.

Doolin, B. (2003). Narratives of change: Discourse, technology and organization. *Organization*, *10*(4), 751-770.

Dossi, A., and Patelli, L. (2008). The decision-influencing use of performance measurement systems in relationships between headquarters and subsidiaries. *Management Accounting Research, 19*(2), 126-148.

Dossi, A., Patelli, L., and Zoni, L. (2010). The missing link between corporate performance measurement systems and chief executive officer incentive plans. *Journal of Accounting, Auditing and Finance, 25*(4), 531-558.

Douglas Howcroft, (2006),"Spreadsheets and the financial planning process: a case study of resistance to change", Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change, Vol. 2 Iss 3 pp. 248 – 280

Dreveton, B. (2014). Study of the role of objects in the implementation process of public organizations. *Comptabilite Controle Audit, 20*(1), 43-66.

Drury, C., and Tayles, M. (2006). Profitability analysis in UK organizations: An exploratory study. *British Accounting Review, 38*(4), 405-425.

Duller, C., Feldbauer-Durstmüller, B., & Mitter, C. (2011). Corporate governance and management accounting in family firms: Does generation matter? *International Journal of Business Research, 11*(1), 29-46. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Dyer, W. G. (1989). Integrating professional management into a family owned business. *Family Business Review, 2*(3), 221-235. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Eddleston, K. A., Chrisman, J. J., Steier, L. P., & Chua, J. H. (2010). Governance and trust in family firms: An introduction. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 34*(6), 1043-1056

Eddleston, K. A., Kellermanns, F. W., & Sarathy, R. (2008). Resource configuration in family firms: Linking resources, strategic planning and technological opportunities to performance. *Journal of Management Studies, 45*(1), 26-50. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.2007.00717.x

Eddleston, K. A., Kellermanns, F. W., & Zellweger, T. (2010). Exploring the entrepreneurial behavior of family firms: Does the stewardship perspective explain differences? *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice, 34*(1), 1-21. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Edwards, J.R. (ed.) (2000a) The History of Accounting: Critical Perspectives on Business and Management, Volume I, Method and Theory, London: Routledge.

Edwards, J.R. (ed.) (2000b) The History of Accounting: Critical Perspectives on Business and Management, Volume III, Cost and Management Accounting, London:Routledge.

Edwards, P., Ezzamel, M., and Robson, K. (2005). Budgetary reforms: Survival strategies and the structuration of organizational fields in education. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 18*(6), 733-755.

Egbe, I., Tsamenyi, M., Sa'id M A Study of the Operations of Formal and Informal Controls in a Multinational Subsidiary in Nigeria In Accounting in Africa. Published online: 09 Mar 2015; 1-29. Permanent link to this document: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3563(2012)000012A005

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Agency theory: An assessment and review. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(1), 57-74. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Ekanayake, A., and Perera, S. (2014). The role of accounting in corporate governance in a developing country: Institutional political economy perspective. *International Journal of Accounting, Auditing and Performance Evaluation, 10*(2), 109-132.

Emsley, D. (2005). Restructuring the management accounting function: A note on the effect of role involvement on innovativeness. *Management Accounting Research, 16*(2), 157-177.

Emsley, D., and Chung, L. H. (2010). How management accountants' cognitive style and role involvement combine to affect the effort devoted to initiating change. *Abacus, 46*(3), 232-257.

Emsley, D., Nevicky, B., and Harrison, G. (2006). Effect of cognitive style and professional development on the initiation of radical and non-radical management accounting innovations. *Accounting and Finance, 46*(2), 243-264.

Endenich, C. (2014). Economic crisis as a driver of management accounting change: Comparative evidence from Germany and Spain. *Journal of Applied Accounting Research, 15*(1), 123-149.

Englund, H. and Gerdin, J. (2008), "Structuration theory and mediating concepts: Pitfalls and implications for management accounting research", *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, vol. 19, no. 8, pp. 1122-1134.

Englund, H., & Gerdin, J. (2012). Structuration theory in accounting research: Applications and applicability. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*.

Englund, H., and Gerdin, J. (2011). Agency and structure in management accounting research: Reflections and extensions of Kilfoyle and Richardson. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 22*(6), 581-592.

Englund, H., and Gerdin, J. (2012). Structuration theory in accounting research: Applications and applicability. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*.

Englund, H., and Gerdin, J. (2014). Structuration theory in accounting research: Applications and applicability. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, *25*(2), 162-180.

Englund, H., Gerdin, J., and Abrahamsson, G. (2013). Accounting ambiguity and structural change. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, *26*(3), 423-448.

Englund, H., Gerdin, J., and Burns, J. (2011). 25 Years of Giddens in accounting research: Achievements, limitations and the future. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 36*(8), 494-513.

Englund, H., & Gerdin, J. (2011). Agency and structure in management accounting research: Reflections and extensions of Kilfoyle and Richardson. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 22, 581–592. doi:10.1016/j.cpa.2011.03.002.

Erturk, I., Solari, S. (2007), Banks as continuous reinvention, *New Political Economy*, 12 (3)369-88

EU, (2009), *European Business – fact and figures, 2009 edition,* Eurostat, Luxembourg

Evans, E. C. D., and Slough College of Higher Education. Management Accounting Research Unit. (1965). *A selection of case studies and surveys conducted by the Management Accounting Research Unit at Slough College*. London: Macdonald.

Ewert, R., & Wagenhofer, A. (2006). *Management accounting theory and practice in german-speaking countries* doi:10.1016/S1751-3243(06)02021-9

Ezzamel, M., and Burns, J. (2005). Professional competition, economic value added and management control strategies. *Organization Studies*, *26*(5), 755-777.

Ezzamel, M., Lilley, S., and Willmott, H. (1997). Accounting for management and managing accounting: Reflections on recent changes in the UK. *Journal of Management Studies, 34*(3), 439-463.

Ezzamel, M., Lilley, S., and Willmott, H. (2004). Accounting representation and the road to commercial salvation. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *29*(8), 783-813.

Ezzamel, M., Robson, K., and Stapleton, P. (2012). The logics of budgeting: Theorization and practice variation in the educational field. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 37*(5), 281-303.

Ezzamel, M., Robson, K., Stapleton, P., and McLean, C. (2007). Discourse and institutional change: 'Giving accounts' and accountability. *Management Accounting Research, 18*(2), 150-171.

Ezzamel, M., Willmott, H., and Worthington, F. (2001). Power, control and resistance in 'the factory that time forgot'. *Journal of Management Studies, 38*(8), 1053-1079.

Ezzamel, M., Willmott, H., and Worthington, F. (2004). Accounting and management-labour relations: The politics of production in the 'factory with a problem'. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 29*(3-4), 269-302.

Ezzamel, M., Xiao, J. Z., and Pan, A. (2007). Political ideology and accounting regulation in China. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 32*(7-8), 669-700.

Fama, E. F., & Jensen, M. C. (1983). Separation of ownership and control. *Journal of Law and Economics, 26*(2), 301-325. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Fay, E., Introna, L., and Puyou, F. (2010). Living with numbers: Accounting for subjectivity in/with management accounting systems. Information and Organization, 20, 21-43.

Feldbauer-Durstmüller, B., Duller, C., & Greiling, D. (2012). Strategic management accounting in austrian family firms. *International Journal of Business Research, 12*(1), 26-42. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Feldbauer-Durstmüller, B., Wimmer, B., & Duller, C. (2008). Controlling in österreichischen familienunternehmen - dargestellt am bundesland oberösterreich. *Zeitschrift Fur Planung Und Unternehmenssteuerung, 18*(4), 427-443. doi:10.1007/s00187-007-0039-7

Feldman, M. and Pentland, B. (2003), "Reconceptualising organisational routines as a sources of flexibility and change", *Administrative Science Quarterly,* vol. 48, no. 1, pp. 94-118.

Ferreira, A., & Otley, D. (2009). The design and use of performance management systems: An extended framework for analysis. *Management Accounting Research, 20*(4), 263-282.

Fiegener, M. K., Brown, B. M., Prince, R. A., & File, K. M. (1996). Passing on strategic vision: Favored modes of successor preparation by CEOs of family and nonfamily firms. *Journal of Small Business Management, 34*(3), 15-26. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Fiorentino, R. (2010) Performance measurement in strategic changes. *Vol. 20. Studies in Managerial and Financial Accounting* (pp. 253-283): Emerald Group Publishing Ltd.

Fisher, R. (1997). *Social work and community in a private world: Getting out in public*. Prentice Hall.

Flachere, I. (2014) Management accounting tools as mediators of a new organisational construction: A study of the interaction between tools and 'physician-managers' in a French public hospital. *Vol. 28. Studies in Managerial and Financial Accounting* (pp. 81-103).

Flören, R. H. (1998). The significance of family business in the netherlands. *Family Business Review, 11*(2), 121-134. doi:10.1111/j.1741-6248.1998.00121.x

Fowler, F. J. (1993). *Survey Research Methods,* Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Frey, U., Halter, F., Klein, S. B., & Zellweger, T. (2004). Family business in switzerland: Significance and structure. *Research Forum Proceedings, Family Firms in the Wind of Change,* , 73-89. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Frezatti, F., Aguiar, A. B., Guerreiro, R., & Gouvea, M. A. (2011). Does management accounting play role in planning process? *Journal of Business Research, 64*(3), 242-249. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.11.008

Frezatti, F., Relvas, T. R. S., and Junqueira, E. (2010). The BSC and the attributes structure of management accounting: An analysis within the Brazilian environment. *RAE Revista de Administracao de Empresas, 50*(2), 187-198.

Friedman, A. L., & Lyne, S. R. (1997). Activity-based techniques and the death of the beancounter. *European Accounting Review*, *6*(1), 19-44.

Friedman, A. L., & Lyne, S. R. (1997). Activity-based techniques and the death of the beancounter. *European Accounting Review*, *6*(1), 19-44.

Gabriëls, X., and Jorissen, A. (2008) Empirical evidence on the (perceived) value of information for performance measurement purposes in an erps environment. *Vol. 18. Studies in Managerial and Financial Accounting* (pp. 147-175): Emerald Group Publishing Ltd.

Garcia-Castro, R., & Casasola, M. J. (2011). A set-theoretic analysis of the components of family involvement in publicly listed and major unlisted firms. *Journal of Family Business Strategy, 2*(1), 15-25. doi:10.1016/j.jfbs.2011.01.002

Garibaldi A., Wetzel, U., and Ferreira, V. (2009). Organizational culture and performance: a Brazilian case. *Management Research News*, *32*(2), 99-119.

Gazely, A. M. (2006). *Management accounting*. London; Thousand Oaks: London; Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

Gedajlovic, E., Lubatkin, M. H., & Schulze, W. S. (2004). Crossing the threshold from founder management to professional management: A governance perspective. *Journal of Management Studies, 41*(5), 899-912. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6486.2004.00459.x

Geiger, M. A., & North, D. S. (2006). Does hiring a new cfo change things? an investigation of changes in discretionary accruals. *Accounting Review, 81*(4), 781-809. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Gersick, K. E., Davis, J. A., Hampton, M. M., & Lansberg, I. (1997). *Generation to Generation: Life Cycles of the Family Business,* Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Gersick, K. E., Lansberg, I., Desjardins, M., & Dunn, B. (1999). Stages and transitions: Managing change in the family business. *Family Business Review, 12*(4), 287-297. doi:10.1111/j.1741-6248.1999.00287.x

Giddens, A. (1984), *The Constitution of Society,* Polity Press, Cambridge.

Giovannoni, E., Maraghini, M. P., & Riccaboni, A. (2011). Transmitting knowledge across generations: The role of management accounting practices. *Family Business Review, 24*(2), 126-150. doi:10.1177/0894486511406722

Giovannoni, E., Quarchioni, S,& Riccaboni, M., (2014): The Role of Roles in Risk Management Change: The Case of an Italian Bank, European Accounting Review, DOI:10.1080/09638180.2014.990475

Giraud, L., and Autissier, D. (2013). Uncovering the intellectual development of the Journal of Organizational Change Management: A knowledge-stock and bibliometric study, 1995-2011. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 26*(2), 229-264.

Giuliani, M. (2009). Intellectual capital under the temporal lens. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, *10*(2), 246-259.

Gnan, L., Songini, L., & Malmi, T. (2011). Call for papers: Special issue 'the role and impact of accounting in family business'. *Journal of Family Business Strategy, 2*(1), 52-53. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Goddard, A. (2005). Accounting and NPM in UK local government–contributions towards governance and accountability. *Financial Accountability & Management*, *21*(2), 191-218.

Goddard, A. (2005). Accounting and NPM in UK local government–contributions towards governance and accountability. *Financial Accountability & Management*, *21*(2), 191-218.

Gong, M. Z., & Tse, M. S. C. (2009). Pick, mix or match? A discussion of theories for management accounting research. *Journal of .Accounting Business and Management, 16*(2), 54-66. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

González, J. M. G. (2012). Business process reengineering (BPR): Analysis of a case from the perspective of the new sociological institutionalism. *Innovar, 22*(46), 129-148.

González-González, J. M., and Zamora-Ramírez, C. (2013). Towards the consolidation of climate change strategies in organizations: The case of Heineken Spain. *International Journal of Climate Change Strategies and Management, 5*(1), 6-20.

Gordon, G. G. (1991). Industry determinants of organizational culture. *Academy of Management Review*, *16*(2), 396-415.

Goretzki, L., Strauss, E., and Weber, J. (2013). An institutional perspective on the changes in management accountants' professional role. *Management Accounting Research*, *24*(1), 41-63.

Gosselin, M. (Ed.). (2007). *A review of Activity Based Costing: Technique Implementation and consequences*.

Graham, A., Davey-Evans, S., and Toon, I. (2012). The developing role of the financial controller: Evidence from the UK. *Journal of Applied Accounting Research, 13*(1), 71-88.

Grande, J. F., & Beuren, I. M. (2011). Changes in managerial accounting practices: Application of the critical discourse analysis to the family company's administration report. *Revista De Administração e Contabilidade Da Unisinos, 8*(2), 133-145. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Granlund, M. (2001). Towards explaining stability in and around management accounting systems. *Management accounting research*, *12*(2), 141-166.

Granlund, M. (2001). Towards explaining stability in and around management accounting systems. *Management Accounting Research*, *12*(2), 141-166.

Granlund, M. (2011). Extending AIS research to management accounting and control issues: A research note. *International Journal of Accounting Information Systems*, *12*(1), 3-19.

Granlund, M., & Lukka, K. (1998). Towards increasing business orientation: Finnish management accountants in a changing cultural context. *Management Accounting Research*, *9*(2), 185-211. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Granlund, M., & Modell, S. (2005). Nordic contributions to the management accounting change literature. *Accounting in ScandinaviadThe Northern Lights. Liber and Copenhagen Business School Press, Malmo*, 159-192.

Granlund, M., and Malmi, T. (2002). Moderate impact of ERPS on management accounting: A lag or permanent outcome? *Management Accounting Research*, *13*(3), 299-321.

Granlund.,M and Lukka K. (1998), It's a small world of management Accounting practices. *Journal of Management Accounting Research* 10 153-179

Greeff, W. J. (2015). Organizational diversity: making the case for contextual interpretivism. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*,*34*(6), 496-509.

Green, F., Amenkhiennan, F. and Johnson G. (1992). Performance Measures and JIT. *Management Accounting, 10*, 32-36.

Greenwood, R., and Suddaby, R. (2006). Institutional entrepreneurship in mature fields: The big five accounting firms. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(1), 27-48.

Greenwood, R., Suddaby, R., and Hinings, C. R. (2002). Theorizing change: The role of professional associations in the transformation of institutionalized fields. *Academy of Management Journal, 45*(1), 58-80.

Grossi, G., and Steccolini, I. (2014). Accounting for public governance. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management*, *11*(2), 86-91.

Guerreiro, R., Pereira, C. A., & Frezatti, F. (2006). Evaluating management accounting change according to the institutional theory approach: a case study of a Brazilian bank. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, *2*(3), 196-228.

Guerrini, A. (2012). Performance measurement system change: A consulting company perspective. *International Journal of Business Performance Management, 13*(2), 168-197.

Guilding, C., Cravens, K. S., & Tayles, M. (2000). An international comparison of strategic management accounting practices. *Management Accounting Research, 11*(1), 113-135. doi:10.1006/mare.1999.0120

Gulamhussen, M. A., and Guerreiro, L. (2009). The influence of foreign equity and board membership on corporate strategy and internal cost management in Portuguese banks. *Management Accounting Research, 20*(1), 6-17.

Gupta, A., Messerschmidt, D. C., and Herath, S. K. (2006). Business process reengineering and the management accountant. *International Journal of Management and Enterprise Development, 3*(1-2), 98-113.

Gurd, B. (2008). Structuration and middle-range theory: A case study of accounting during organizational change from different theoretical perspectives. Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 19, 523-543.

Guseh, J. S., & Oritsejafor, E. O. (2009). The African Growth and Opportunity Act and Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Whitehead J. Dipl. & Int'l Rel.*, *10*, 123.

Haas, T. (2010). State of the art of management accounting in international family businesses: System-theoretical conceptualization & empirical study. *State-of-the-Art Des Controllings in International Tätigen Familienunternehmen: Systemtheoretische Konzeption & Empirische Studie*, Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Habbershon, T. G., & Williams, M. L. (1999). A resource-based framework for assessing the strategic advantages of family firms. *Family Business Review, 12*(1), 1-25. doi:10.1111/j.1741-6248.1999.00001.

Hailey, V. H., and Balogun, J. (2002). Devising context sensitive approaches to change: The example of Glaxo Wellcome. *Long Range Planning, 35*(2), 153-178.

Hajjawi, O. (2012). Management accounting practice in Palestine: An empirical evidence. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences* (49), 28-40.

Hall, A., & Nordqvist, M. (2008). Professional management in family businesses: Toward an extended understanding. *Family Business Review, 21*(1), 51-69. doi:10.1111/j.1741-6248.2007.00109

Hammersley, M. (2008). *Questioning qualitative inquiry: Critical essays*. Sage

Hansen, A. (2010). Nonfinancial performance measures, externalities and target setting: A comparative case study of resolutions through planning. *Management Accounting Research, 21*(1), 17-39.

Hansen, S. C., Otley, D. T., & Van der Stede, W. A. (2003). Practice developments in budgeting: An overview and research perspective. *Journal of Management Accounting Research, 15*(1), 95-116. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Harrington, J. (1997). *Organizational change management: the leading factor in quality.* Paper presented at the Annual Quality Congress Transactions.

Harrison, C. (2005). Teachers developing assessment for learning: Mapping teacher change. *Teacher Development*, *9*(2), 255-263.

Harun, H., Van Peursem, K., and Eggleton, I. (2012). Institutionalization of accrual accounting in the Indonesian public sector *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 8*(3), 257-285.

Hassan, M. K. (2005). Management accounting and organisational change: An institutional perspective. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 1*(2), 125-140. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Hassan, M. K. (2008) The corporate governance inertia: The role of management accounting and costing systems in a transitional public health organization. *Vol. 8. Research in Accounting in Emerging Economies* (pp. 409-454).

Hassan, M.K. (2005), "Management accounting and organisational change: an institutional perspective", *Journal of Accounting and Organisational Change,* vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 125-140.

Hatum, A., Pettigrew, A., & Michelini, J. (2010). Building organizational capabilities to adapt under turmoil. *Journal of Change Management, 10*(3), 257-274. doi:10.1080/14697017.2010.493292

Haverland, M., & Yanow, D. (2012). A hitchhiker's guide to the public administration research universe: Surviving conversations on methodologies and methods. *Public Administration Review*, *72*(3), 401-408.

Hawkins, J. G., Horngren, C. T., Foster, G., & Datar, S. M. (2000). *Instructor's manual: Cost accounting: a managerial emphasis, /Horngren, Foster, Datar*. Prentice hall.

Hawkins, J.and Mihaljek, D. (2001), The Banking Industry in the Emerging Market Economies: Competition, Consolidation and Systematic Stability – An Overview

Helden, G. J. V., Meer-Kooistra, J. V. D., and Scapens, R. W. (2001). Co-ordination of internal transactions at Hoogovens steel: Struggling with the tension between performance-oriented business units and the concept of an integrated company. *Management Accounting Research, 12*(3), 357-386.

Helliar, C., Cobb, I. and Innes, J. (2002) 'A longitudinal case study of profitability reporting in a bank', British Accounting Review, 34: 27–53.

Helliar, C., Cobb, I. and Innes, J. (2002) A longitudinal case study of profitability reporting in a bank, *British Accounting Review,*.34(1) 27-53

Henri, J. F. (2006). Management control systems and strategy: A resource-based perspective. *Accounting, organizations and society*, *31*(6), 529-558.

Henttu-Aho, T., & Järvinen, J. (2013). A field study of the emerging practice of beyond budgeting in industrial companies: an institutional perspective. *European Accounting Review*, *22*(4), 765-785

Herath, S. K., and Gupta, A. (2006). A framework for analysing cost structures in business process reengineering. *International Journal of Services and Standards, 2*(1), 84-100.

Herath, S. K., Herath, A., & Azeez, A. A. (2006). Family firms and corporate culture: A case study from a less developed country (LDC). *International Journal of Management and Enterprise Development, 3*(3), 227-243. doi:10.1504/IJMED.2006.008822

Herbert, I. P., and Seal, W. B. (2012). Shared services as a new organisational form: Some implications for management accounting. *British Accounting Review, 44*(2), 83-97.

Hiebl, M. R. W. (2012). Peculiarities of financial management in family firms. *International Business & Economics Research Journal, 11*(3), 315-322. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Hiebl, M. R. W., Duller, C., & Feldbauer-Durstmüller, B. (2012). Do management accountants play a different role in family firms? empirical evidence on management accountants' qualification and roles in family and non-family firms. *International Journal of Business Research, 12*(2), 94-103. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Hiebl, M. R. W., Feldbauer-Durstmüller, B., & Duller, C. (2013). The changing role of management accounting in the transition from a family business to a non-family business. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 9*(2), 119-154. doi:10.1108/18325911311325933

Hinings, C. R., Casebeer, A., Reay, T., Golden-Biddle, K., Pablo, A., and Greenwood, R. (2003). Regionalizing Healthcare in Alberta: Legislated Change, Uncertainty and Loose Coupling. *British Journal of Management, 14*(SPEC. ISS.), S15-S30.

Hirschhorn, L. (2002). Campaigning for change. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(7), 98-106.

Hodgson, G. (2006), "What are institutions?", *Journal of Economic Issues*, vol. XL, no. 1, pp. 1-25.

Hodgson, G. (2008), "The concept of a routine" in *Handbook of Organisational Routines*, ed. M. Becker, Edward Elgar, UK, pp. 15-28.

Hodgson, G. 1988, *Economics and Institutions*, Polity Press, Cambridge.

Hofstede, G. (2001). Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across cultures.

Hofstede, Geert. "Identifying organizational subcultures: An empirical approach." *Journal of management studies* 35.1 (1998): 1-12.

Holland, P. G., & Boulton, W. R. (1984). Balancing the "family" and the "business" in family business. *Business Horizons, 27*(2), 16-21. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Hookana, H. (2011). The challenges to create and learn accounting innovations in the public sector. *International Journal of Innovation and Learning, 9*(4), 372-387.

Hopper, T., & Bui, B. (2016). Has management accounting research been critical? *Management Accounting Research, 31*, 10-30.

Hopper, T., & Major, M. (2007). Extending institutional analysis through theoretical triangulation: regulation and activity-based costing in Portuguese telecommunications. *European Accounting Review, 16*(1), 59-97

Hopper, T., and Major, M. (2007). Extending institutional analysis through theoretical triangulation: Regulation and activity-based costing in Portuguese telecommunications. *European Accounting Review, 16*(1), 59-97.

Hopper, T., Otley, D., and Scapens, B. (2001). British management accounting research: Whence and whither: Opinions and recollections. *British Accounting Review, 33*(3), 263-291.

Hopwood, A. G. (1987). The archaeology of accounting systems. *Accounting, organizations and society, 12*(3), 207-234.

Hoque, Z. (2003). *Strategic Management Accounting: Concepts, Processes and Issues,* Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Hoque, Z. (2005). Securing institutional legitimacy or organizational effectiveness? A case examining the impact of public sector reform initiatives in an Australian local authority. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, *18*(4), 367-382.

Hoque, Z. and Hopper, T. (1997), Political and industrial relations turbulence, competition and budgeting in the nationalized jute Mills of Bangladesh Accounting *Business Research*, 27 (2) 125–143

Hoque, Z., & James, W. (2000). Linking balanced scorecard measures to size and market factors: Impact on organizational performance. *Journal of Management Accounting Research, 12*(1), 1-17. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Hoque, Z., Covaleski, M. A., and Gooneratne, T. N. (2013). Theoretical triangulation and pluralism in research methods in organizational and accounting research. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 26*(7), 1170-1198.

Horngren, C. T., Sundem, G. L., & Elliott, J. A. (2000). *Introduccion a la contabilidad financiera*. Pearson Educacion.

Horngren, C. T., Sundem, G. L., & Stratton, W. O. (2002). *Introduction to Management Accounting,* Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Howorth, C., Westhead, P., & Wright, M. (2004). Buyouts, information asymmetry and the family management dyad. *Journal of Business Venturing, 19*(4), 509-534. doi:10.1016/j.jbusvent.2003.04.002

Humphrey, C. and Scapens, R. (1996), "Methodological Themes: Theories and case studies of organisational accounting practices: limitation or liberation?", *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal,* vol. 9, no. 4, pp. 86-106.

Hussain, M. (2005). Management accounting performance measurement systems in Swedish banks. *European Business Review*, *17*(6), 566-589.

Hussain, M.D. and Hoque, Z. (2002), Understanding non-financial performance measurement practices in Japanese banks: a new institutional sociology perspective *Accounting Auditing Accountability Journal*, 15(2) 162–183.

Hutaibat, K., Von Alberti-Alhtaybat, L., and Al-Htaybat, K. (2011). Strategic management accounting and the strategizing mindset in an English higher education institutional context. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 7*(4), 358-390.

Hyvonen, T., Oulasvirta, L., Järvinen, J., and Pellinen, J. (2012). Contracting out municipal accounting: The role of institutional entrepreneurship. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 25*(6), 944-963.

IFERA. (2003). Family businesses dominate. *Family Business Review*, *16*(4), 235-240. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Ikpeze, N. I., Soludo, C. C., & Elekwa, N. N. (2004). 13. Nigeria: The Political Economy of the Policy Process, Policy Choice and Implementation. *The Politics of Trade and Industrial Policy in Africa: Forced Consensus?*, 341.

IMA, I. O. (1999). *Counting More Counting Less transformations in the Management Accounting Profession (Executive Summary)*. Montvale NL: Institute of Management Accountants(IMA) Publishing.

Inanga, E. L. (1978). The First 'Indigenisation Decree'and the dividend policy of Nigerian quoted companies. *The Journal of Modern African Studies*, *16*(2), 319-328.

Innes, J. and Mitchell, F. (1990), the process of change in management accounting: some field study evidence, *Management Accounting Research*, 1(1) 3-19

Innes, J., Mitchell,F. and Sinclair D. (2000). Activity based Costing in the largest based UK's largest companies: A comparism of 1994 and 1999 survey results. *Management Accounting Research, 11*, 349-362.

Irvine, H. (2011). From go to woe: How a not-for-profit managed the change to accrual accounting. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 24*(7), 824-847.

Iveroth, E. (2012). Leading global IT-enabled change across cultures. *European Management Journal, 30*(4), 340-351.

Jack, L. (2005). Stocks of knowledge, simplification and unintended consequences: The persistence of post-war accounting practices in UK agriculture. *Management Accounting Research, 16*(1), 59-79. doi:10.1016/j.mar.2004.08.003

Jack, L. (2006). Protecting agricultural accounting in the UK. *Accounting Forum, 30*(3), 227-243.

Jack, L., & Kholeif, A. (2007). Introducing strong structuration theory for informing qualitative case studies in organization, management and accounting research. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal*, *2*(3), 208-225.

Jagd, S 1994, Structuration Theory and Management Accounting Studies in MK Pedersen (ed.), *Beyond the Firm: Social Relations.* Roskilde Universitet, Roskilde, pp. 91-110.

James, W. (2006). A processual view of institutional change of the budget process within an Australian government-owned electricity corporation. *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 19*(1), 5-39.

Jansen, E. P. (2011). The effect of leadership style on the information receivers' reaction to management accounting change. *Management Accounting Research, 22*(2), 105-124.

Järvenpää, M. (2007). Making business partners: A case study on how management accounting culture was changed. *European Accounting Review, 16*(1), 99-142. doi:10.1080/09638180701265903

Jasch, C. (2009). *Environmental and material flow cost accounting: principles and procedures*. [New York]: Springer.

Jayasinghe, K., and Thomas, D. (2009). The preservation of indigenous accounting systems in a subaltern community. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 22*(3), 351-378.

Jazayeri, M., and Scapens, R. W. (2008). The Business Values Scorecard within BAE Systems: The evolution of a performance measurement system. *British Accounting Review, 40*(1), 48-70.

Jennings, P. D., Greenwood, R., Lounsbury, M. D., and Suddaby, R. (2013). Institutions, entrepreneurs, and communities: A special issue on entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing, 28*(1), 1-9.

Jensen, J. C., and Berg, N. (2012). Determinants of Traditional Sustainability Reporting Versus Integrated Reporting. An Institutionalist Approach. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 21*(5), 299-316.

Jepperson, R. L. (2002). The development and application of sociological neoinstitutionalism. *New directions in contemporary sociological theory*, 229-266

Jick, T. D. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative science quarterly*, *24*(4), 602-611.

Jick, T. D. (2000). Values-based management: a tool for managing change. *The Organization in Crisis: Downsizing, Re-structuring and Privatisation. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd*.

Johannisson, B., & Huse, M. (2000). Recruiting outside board members in the small family business: An ideological challenge. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 12*(4), 353-378. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Johansson, I. L., and Baldvinsdottir, G. (2003). Accounting for trust: Some empirical evidence. *Management Accounting Research, 14*(3), 219-234.

Johansson, T., and Siverbo, S. (2009). Why is research on management accounting change not explicitly evolutionary? Taking the next step in the conceptualisation of management accounting change. *Management Accounting Research*, *20*(2), 146-162.

Johansson, U., Koga, C., Skoog, M., and Henningsson, J. (2006). The Japanese Government's intellectual capital reporting guideline: What are the challenges for firms and capital market agents? *Journal of Intellectual Capital, 7*(4), 474-491.

John Bechara, J., and Van de Ven, A. J., Triangulating philosophies of science to understand complex organizational and managerial problems In Philosophy and Organization Theory. Published online: 08 Mar 2015; 343-364

Johnson, H. T., and Kaplan, R. S. (1987). *Relevance Lost: The Rise and Fall of Management Accounting*. Boston MA: Havard University Press.

Johnson, S.T. (1993), *Work teams: what's ahead in work design and rewards management?*, *Compensation and Benefits Review*, Vol. 29 No. 1, pp. 48-51.

Jones, E., Watson, B., Gardner, J., & Gallois, C. (2004). Organizational communication: Challenges for the new century. *Journal of Communication*, *54*(4), 722-750.

Jones, T. M., Felps, W., & Bigley, G. A. (2007). Ethical theory and stakeholder-related decisions: The role of stakeholder culture. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*(1), 137-155.

Jose María Tubío-Sánchez , Francisco Onega-Lopez , Wim Timmermans & Rafael

Joseph, G. (2006). Understanding developments in the management information value chain from a structuration theory framework. *International Journal of Accounting Information Systems*, *7*(4), 319-341.

Joshi, P. L., Bremser, W. G., Deshmukh, A., and Kumar, R. (2011). Diffusion of Management Accounting Practices in Gulf Cooperation Council Countries. *Accounting Perspectives, 10*(1), 23-53.
Journal of Learning and Intellectual Capital, 8(3), 290-309.

Justesen, L., and Mouritsen, J. (2011). Effects of actor-network theory in accounting research. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 24*(2), 161-193.

Kahn, William A. "To be fully there: Psychological presence at work." *Human relations* 45, no. 4 (1992): 321-349.

Kanter, R. M., Stein, B. A., & Jick, T. D. (1992). The challenges of execution: roles and tasks in the change process. *The Challenge of Organizational Change*, 369-94.

Kasurinen, T. (2002). Exploring management accounting change: the case of balanced scorecard implementation. *Management accounting research*,*13*(3), 323-343.

Katsikas, E., Dixon, R., and Woodhead, A. (2013). *Management accounting change from a hybrid institutional and managerial perspective.* Paper presented at the 22nd International Business Information Management Association Conference, IBIMA 2013, Rome.

Kennedy, T., and Affleek-Graves, J. (2001). The impact of ABC techniques on firm's performance. *Journal of Management Accounting Research, 13*, 19-45.

Khadaroo, I. (2014). The valuation of risk transfer in UK school public private partnership contracts. *The British Accounting Review*, *46*(2), 154-165.

Khadaroo, I., and Shaikh, J. M. (2007). Corporate governance reforms in Malaysia: Insights from institutional theory. *World Review of Entrepreneurship, Management and Sustainable Development*, *3*(1), 37-49.

Khadaroo, M. I. (2005). An institutional theory perspective on the UK's Private Finance Initiative (PFI) accounting standard setting process. *Public Management Review, 7*(1), 69-94.

Kholeif, A. (2010) A new institutional analysis of IFRS adoption in Egypt: A case study of loosely coupled rules and routines. *Vol. 10. Research in Accounting in Emerging Economies* (pp. 29-55).

Kilfoyle, E., and Richardson, A. J. (2011). Agency and structure in budgeting: Thesis, antithesis and synthesis. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 22*(2), 183-199.

Kimball, R. C. (1997). Innovations in performance measurement in banking. *New England Economic Review*, 23.

Kingston, C. and Caballero, G. (2009), "Comparing theories of institutional change", *Journal of Institutional Economics,* vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 151-180.

Kloot, L. (1997). Organizational learning and management control systems: Responding to environmental change. *Management Accounting Research, 8*(1), 47-73.

Kolehmainen, K. (2012). *On the interface between strategy and management accounting: four essays*. Espoo: Aalto University School of Economics.

Kontinen, T., & Ojala, A. (2010). The internationalization of family businesses: A review of extant research. *Journal of Family Business Strategy, 1*(2), 97-107. doi:10.1016/j.jfbs.2010.04.001

Korhonen, T., Laine, T., and Suomala, P. (2013). Understanding performance measurement dynamism: A case study. *Journal of Management and Governance, 17*(1), 35-58.

Kotter, J. P. (1990). How leadership differs from management. *New York: Free Press*, *240*, 59-68.

Kujansivu, P. (2009). Is there something wrong with intellectual capital management models *Knowledge Management Research and Practice, 7*(4), 300-307.

Kujansivu, P. (2010). IC management: Explaining the gap between theory and practice *Managing Knowledge Assets and Business Value Creation in Organizations: Measures and Dynamics* (pp. 205-221): IGI Global.

Kunstler, B. (2005). The hothouse effect: A model for change in higher education. *On the Horizon, 13*(3), 173-181.

Laine, T., Paranko, J., and Suomala, P. (2012). Management accounting roles in supporting servitisation: Implications for decision making at multiple levels. *Managing Service Quality*, *22*(3), 212-232.

Laitinen, E. K. (2001). Management accounting change in small technology companies: towards a mathematical model of the technology firm. *Management Accounting Research*, *12*(4), 507-541.

Laitinen, E. K. (2001). Management accounting change in small technology companies: Towards a mathematical model of the technology firm. *Management Accounting Research, 12*(4), 507-541.

Laitinen, E. K. (2011). Effect of reorganization actions on the financial performance of small entrepreneurial distressed firms. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 7*(1), 57-95.

Laitinen, E. K. (2014). Influence of management accounting change on performance of small entrepreneurial reorganising firms. *International Journal of Management and Enterprise Development, 13*(2), 164-187.

Langfield-Smith, K. (2006). A review of quantitative research in management control systems and strategy. *Handbooks of management accounting research*, *2*, 753-783.

Langfield-Smith, K., (2008), Strategic management accounting; how far have we come in 25 years? *Accounting Auditing and Accountability Journal* 21,204-228.

Langfield-Smith, K., and Smith, D. (2003). Management control systems and trust in outsourcing relationships. *Management Accounting Research, 14*(3), 281-307.

Langfield-Smith, K., Smith, D., and Stringer, C. (2000). *Managing the outsourcing relationship*. Sydney, N.S.W.: UNSW Press.

Lansiluoto, A., and Jarvenpaa, M. (2010). Greening the balanced scorecard. *Business Horizons, 53*(4), 385-395.

Lansiluoto, A., Jarvenpaa, M., and Krumwiede, K. (2013). Conflicting interests but filtered key targets: Stakeholder and resource-dependency analyses at a University of Applied Sciences. *Management Accounting Research, 24*(3), 228-245.

Lapavitsas, C. and Santos, P.L.D. (2008), Globalisation and contemporary banking: on the impact of new technology, Contributions *to Political Economy*, 27 (1) 31-56

Lapsley, I., and Pallot, J. (2000). Accounting, management and organizational change: A comparative study of local government. *Management Accounting Research, 11*(2), 213-229.

Lauwo, S. G., Otusanya, O. J., & Bakre, O. (2016). Corporate social responsibility reporting in the mining sector of Tanzania: (Lack of) government regulatory controls and NGO activism. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, *29*(6), 1038-1074.

Lavarda, R. A. B., Giner, M. T. C., and Bonet, F. J. P. (2011). Understanding how the strategy formation process interacts with the management of complex work. *European Business Review, 23*(1), 71-86.

Lawrence, T. B., Leca, B., & Zilber, T. B. (2013). Institutional work: Current research, new directions and overlooked issues. *Organization Studies*, *34*(8), 1023-1033

Lecci, F., and Morelli, M. (2011). Cost management and organizational change. The long road toward integration. *Mecosan, 20*(80), 47-63.

Lee, B., Collier, P. M., and Cullen, J. (2007). Reflections on the use of case studies in the accounting, management and organizational disciplines. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal*, *2*(3), 169-178.

Lee, J. Y., & Epstein, M. J. (2007). *Advances in Management Accounting*. Amsterdam: Elsevier JAI.

Leitner, S. (2012) Interactions among biases in costing systems: A simulation approach. *Vol. 662. Lecture Notes in Economics and Mathematical Systems* (pp. 209-220).

Leitner, S. (2014). A simulation analysis of interactions among intended biases in costing systems and their effects on the accuracy of decision-influencing information. *Central European Journal of Operations Research, 22*(1), 113-138.

Leotta, A., and Ruggeri, D. (2012) Changes in performance measurement and evaluation systems as institutional processes: The case of an Italian teaching hospital. *Vol. 25. Studies in Managerial and Financial Accounting* (pp. 427-463).

Li, P., and Tang, G. (2009). Performance measurement design within its organisational context Evidence from China. *Management Accounting Research*, *20*(3), 193-207.

Libby, T., & Waterhouse, J. H. (1996). Predicting change in management accounting systems. *Journal of management accounting research*, *8*, 137.

Liguori, M. (2012). The Supremacy of the Sequence: Key Elements and Dimensions in the Process of Change. *Organization Studies, 33*(4), 507-539.

Liguori, M., and Steccolini, I. (2012). Accounting change: Explaining the outcomes, interpreting the process. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, *25*(1), 27-70.

Liguori, M., and Steccolini, I. (2014). Accounting, innovation and public-sector change. Translating reforms into change *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 25*(4-5), 319-323.

Lindvall, J., and Iveroth, E. (2011). Creating a global network of shared service centres for accounting. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 7*(3), 278-305.

Lines, R. (2005). How social accounts and participation during change affect organizational learning. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 17*(3), 157-177.

Liu, L. Y. J., and Pan, F. (2007). The implementation of Activity-Based Costing in China: An innovation action research approach. *British Accounting Review, 39*(3), 249-264.

Lopez, O. L., & Hiebl, M. R. W. (2015). Management accounting in small and medium-sized enterprises: Current knowledge and avenues for further research. *Journal of Management Accounting Research, 27*(1), 81-119. doi:10.2308/jmar-50915

Lounsbury, M. (2008). Institutional rationality and practice variation: New directions in the institutional analysis of practice. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 33*(4-5), 349-361.

Lucas, M., and Rafferty, J. (2008). Cost analysis for pricing: Exploring the gap between theory and practice. *British Accounting Review, 40*(2), 148-160.

Luft, J. and Shields, M.D. (2003), Mapping management accounting: graphics and guidelines for theory-consistent empirical research, *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, .28 (2) 169-249

Luisa, M., Elorza, V., Manuel, J., Vázquez, S., and Pinzon, P. A. (2005). The influence of management accountants in accounting and organizational change programs: Empirical evidence in an organizational context of continents improvement. *Revista Espanola de Financiacion y Contabilidad, 34*(124), 77-112.

Lukka, K. (2007). Management accounting change and stability: Loosely coupled rules and routines in action. *Management Accounting Research, 18*(1), 76-101.

Lukka, K., and Partanen, V. (2014). The Role of Managerial Interventions and Organizational Ideologies in Advancing Radical Change. *Journal of Change Management, 14*(1), 66-98.

Lusiani, M., and Zan, L. (2011). Change and continuity in managerialism: 100 years of administrative history at the international museum of ceramics in Faenza. *Management and Organizational History, 6*(1), 59-80.

Luther, R. G., and Longden, S. (2001). Management accounting in companies adapting to structural change and volatility in transition economies: A South African study. *Management Accounting Research, 12*(3), 299-320.

Ma, Y., and Tayles, M. (2009). On the emergence of strategic management accounting: An institutional perspective. *Accounting and Business Research, 39*(5), 473-495.

Macintosh, N. B., & Scapens, R. W. (1987). Giddens' structuration theory: its implications for empirical research in management accounting. In *Annual Convention, American Accounting Association, Cincinnati*.

Macintosh, N. B., and Scapens, R. W. (1987). Giddens' structuration theory: its implications for empirical research in management accounting. In *Annual Convention, American Accounting Association, Cincinnati*.

Mah'd, O., and Buckland, R. (2009) The budget process in Jordanian private universities (JPUS). *Vol. 9. Research in Accounting in Emerging Economies* (pp. 193-228).

Mahdi, M. O. S., and Dawson, P. (2006). Technology policy and change in developing economies: Advancing a banking strategy for world developments. *International Journal of Technology, Policy and Management, 6*(3), 256-273.

Mahdi, M. O. S., and Dawson, P. (2007). The introduction of information technology in the commercial banking sector of developing countries: Voices from Sudan. *Information Technology and People, 20*(2), 184-204.

Major, M. and Hopper, T. (2003), Extending new institutional theory: a case study of activity-based costing in the Portuguese telecommunications industry

Major, M., & Hopper, T. (2005). Managers divided: Implementing ABC in a Portuguese telecommunications company. *Management Accounting Research*, *16*(2), 205-229

Mäkikangas, A., Bakker, A. B., Aunola, K., and Demerouti, E. (2010). Job resources and flow at work: Modelling the relationship via latent growth curve and mixture model methodology. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 83*(3), 795-814.

Malinić, S., and Todorović, M. (2012). How does management accounting change under the influence of ERP? *Ekonomska Istrazivanja*, *25*(3), 722-751.

Malmberg, A., and Maskell, P. (2006). Localized learning revisited. *Growth and Change, 37*(1), 1-18.

Malmi, T., & Brown, D. A. (2008). Management control systems as a package—Opportunities, challenges and research directions. *Management accounting research*, *19*(4), 287-300.

Malmi, T., and Brown, D. A. (2008). Management control systems as a package—Opportunities, challenges and research directions. *Management accounting research*, *19*(4), 287-300.

Malmi, T., and Ikaheimo, S. (2003). Value Based Management practices - Some evidence from the field. *Management Accounting Research, 14*(3), 235-254.

Mancini, D., Ferruzzi, C., and De Angelis, M. (2011). *The mandatory change of AIS: A theoretical framework of the behaviour of Italian research institutions.* Paper presented at the 7th Conference of the Italian Chapter of the Association for Information Systems, ItAIS 2010, Naples.

Manes Rossi, F., Aversano, N., and Christiaens, J. (2014). IPSASB's Conceptual Framework: Coherence with Accounting Systems in European Public Administrations. *International Journal of Public Administration*, *37*(8), 456-465.

Manson, S., Sherer, M., Wearing, B., Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales. Research Board., University of Essex. Department of Accounting Finance and Management., and Accounting Standards Board (Great Britain). (1996).*Reductions in disclosure requirements*. London: Research Board, Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales.

Maraghini, M. P. (2010). New integrated information systems and management control change in small and medium enterprises *Business Performance Measurement and Management: New Contexts, Themes and Challenges* (pp. 13-37): Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Marginson, D., & Ogden, S. (2005). Coping with ambiguity through the budget: the positive effects of budgetary targets on managers' budgeting behaviours. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *30*(5), 435-456.

Marginson, D., & Ogden, S. (2005). Coping with ambiguity through the budget: the positive effects of budgetary targets on managers' budgeting behaviours. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *30*(5), 435-456.

Mattimoe, R., and Seal, W. (2011). Pricing in a service sector context: Accounting and marketing logics in the hotel industry. *European Accounting Review, 20*(2), 355-388.

Mayr, S. (2012). Management accounting in Eastern Europe: Cultural influence and empirical evidence from Slovakia. *International Journal of Business Research, 12*(3), 161-169. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

McCarthy, B. (2012). From fishing and factories to cultural tourism: The role of social entrepreneurs in the construction of a new institutional field. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 24*(3-4), 259-282.

McCreadie, C, & Tinker, A (2005). The acceptability of assistive technology to older people. *Ageing and Society*, *25*(1), 91–110. Cambridge University Press.

Meaney, M. and Pung, C. (2008) McKinsey global results: Creating organizational transformations, The McKinsey Quarterly, August, pp. 1–7.

Mehrsa, Z., Farahmandian, A., Gharakhani, D., and Maghferati, A. P. (2013). The relations among changes in management accounting systems and business performance. *Life Science Journal, 10*(SUPPL.3), 378-383.

Mia, L. (2000). Just- in -time manufacturing management accounting systems and profitability. *Accounting and Business Research, 30*(2), 137-151.

Minnaar, R. A., and Vosselman, E. G. J. (2013). Shared service centres and management control structure change: Exploring the scope and limitations of a transaction cost economics approach. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 9*(1), 74-94.

Miraglia, R. A., and Leotta, A. (2010) The interaction between information and trust in the control of transactional relationships: Theoretical perspectives and empirical support. *Vol. 20. Studies in Managerial and Financial Accounting* (pp. 143-175): Emerald Group Publishing Ltd.

Modell, S (2002), Institutional perspectives on cost allocations: integration and extension *European Accounting Review*, 11 653–679

Modell, S. (2003), "Goals versus institutions: the development of performance measurement in the Swedish university sector", Management Accounting Research, vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 333-359.

Modell, S. (2007). Integration of Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Management Accounting Research: A Critical Realist Approach. *SSRN eLibrary*.

Modell, S. (2012). The politics of the balanced scorecard. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change*, *8*(4), 475-489.

Modell, S. (2015). Theoretical triangulation and pluralism in accounting research: a critical realist critique. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, *28*(7), 1138-1150

Modell, S. (2016). Critical realist accounting research: In search of its emancipatory potential. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*.

Modell, S., 2005. Triangulation between case study and survey methods in management accounting research: an assessment of validity implications. Management Accounting Research 16, 231–254.

Modell, S., 2007. Mixed methods research in management accounting: opportunities and obstacles. In: Granlund, M. (Ed.), Total Quality in Academic Accounting. Essays in Honour of Kari Lukka. Publications of Turku School of Economics and Business Administration, Turku.

Modell, S., 2009. In defence of triangulation: a critical realist approach to mixed methods research in management accounting. Management Accounting Research 20, 208–221

Modell, S., Jacobs, K., and Wiesel, F. (2007). A process (re)turn? Path dependencies, institutions and performance management in Swedish central government. *Management Accounting Research, 18*(4), 453-475.

Moilanen, S. (2007). Knowledge translation in management accounting and control: A case study of a multinational firm in transitional economies. *European Accounting Review, 16*(4), 757-789.

Moilanen, S. (2008). The role of accounting in the management control system: A case study of a family-led firm. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management, 5*(3), 165-183. Retrieved from www.scopus.com .

Molinsky, A. L. (1999). Sanding down the edges: Paradoxical impediments to organizational change. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, *35*(1), 8-24.

Moll, J., Burns, J. and Major, M. 2006, “Institutional theory” in *Methodological Issues in Accounting Research: Theories, Methods and Issues*, ed. Z Hoque, Spiramus, London.

Moore, D. R. J. (2011). Structuration theory: The contribution of Norman Macintosh and its application to emissions trading. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 22*(2), 212-227.

Moore, D. R. J. (2013). Sustainability, institutionalization and the duality of structure: Contradiction and unintended consequences in the political context of an Australian water business. *Management Accounting Research, 24*(4), 366-386.

Morelli, M., and Lecci, F. (2014). Management control systems (MCS) change and the impact of top management characteristics: The case of healthcare organisations. *Journal of Management Control, 24*(3), 267-298.

Mundy, J. (2010). Creating dynamic tensions through a balanced use of management control systems. *Accounting, Organizations and society, 35*(5), 499-523.

Munir, R., Baird, K., and Perera, S. (2013). Performance measurement system change in an emerging economy bank. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 26*(2), 196-233.

Mutiganda, J. C. (2013). Budgetary governance and accountability in public sector organisations: An institutional and critical realism approach. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 24*(7-8), 518-531.

Mutiganda, J. C. (2014). Circuits of power and accountability during institutionalisation of competitive tendering in public sector organisations A field study in public care of the elderly. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management, 11*(2), 129-145.

Myers, M. D., & Avison, D. (1997). Qualitative research in information systems. *Management Information Systems Quarterly*, *21*, 241-242.

Myers, M. D., and Avison, D. (1997). Qualitative research in information systems. *Management Information Systems Quarterly*, *21*, 241-242.

Myreteg, G. (2010). *On the embeddedness of ERP systems: An institutional analysis.* Paper presented at the 4th European Conference on Information Management and Evaluation, ECIME 2010, Lisbon.

Naani, A., Miller, J. G., and Vollmann, T. E. (1988). What shall we account for? *Management Accounting, 69*, 42-48.

Naranjo-Gil, D., Maas, V. S., and Hartmann, F. G. H. (2009). How CFOs determine management accounting innovation: An examination of direct and indirect effects. *European Accounting Review, 18*(4), 667-695.

Nath, N., and Sharma, U. (2014). Performance management systems in the public housing sector: Dissemination to diffusion. *Australian Accounting Review*, *24*(1), 2-20.

Ndiweni, E. (2008) Towards a theoretical framework of corporate governance: Perspectives from southern Africa. *Vol. 8. Research in Accounting in Emerging Economies* (pp. 335-357).

Ndiweni, E. (2010) A trail of unintended consequences: Management accounting information in a volatile environment. *Vol. 10. Research in Accounting in Emerging Economies* (pp. 1-27).

Neale, B (2013) Adding Time into the Mix: Stakeholder Ethics in QL research. *Methodological Innovations Online* (special issue). December.

Neale, B (2015 in press) Time and the Life course: Perspectives from Qualitative Longitudinal Research. in N.Worth and I. Hardill (eds) *Researching the Life Course*. Policy Press.

Neale, B., & Flowerdew, J. (2004). *Parent Problems 2: Looking Back at Our Parents' Divorce*. Young Voice.

Neely, A., Gregory, M. and Platts, K. (1995), Performance measurement system design: a literature review and research agenda, *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, 15 (4) 80-116.

Nelson, R. and Winter, S. (1982), *An evolutionary theory of economic change,* Harvard College, USA.

Neubauer, H., Mayr, S., Feldbauer-Durstmüller, B., & Duller, C. (2012). Management accounting systems and institutionalization in medium-sized and large family businesses -empirical evidence from Germany and Austria. *European Journal of Management*, *12*(2), 14-69. Retrieved from www.scopus.com

Nguyen, H., & Kleiner, B. H. (2003). The effective management of mergers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *24*(8), 447-454.

Nielsen, S., Jacobsen, M., and Melander, P. (2009). The knowledge, attitude, priority of usage and benefits associated with management accounting practices: A survey of Danish companies. *International Journal of Accounting, Auditing and Performance Evaluation*, *5*(3), 252-284.

Nixon, B., and Burns, J. (2012). Strategic management accounting. *Management Accounting Research, 23*(4), 225-228.

Nooreen, E. W. (1991). Conditions under which ABC system provide relevant costs. *Journal of Management Accounting, 7,* 148-166.

Nor-Aziah, A. K., and Scapens, R. W. (2007). Corporatisation and accounting change. The role of accounting and accountants in a Malaysian public utility. *Management Accounting Research, 18*(2), 209-247.

Nordin, N., Md Deros, B., Wahab, D. A., and Ab. Rahman, M. N. (2012). A framework for organisational change management in lean manufacturing implementation. *International Journal of Services and Operations Management, 12*(1), 101-117.

Norreklit, H. (2000). The balance on the Balanced Scorecard-a critical analysis of some of its assumptions. *Management Accounting Research, 11*, 65-83.

North, D. (1990), *Institutions, Institutional Change and Economic Performance*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge MA.

Nurunnabi, M., Pereira, E., and Chowdhury, A. H. (2012). Dream and the reality: The adoption of "digital concept" in an emerging country *Disruptive Technologies, Innovation and Global Redesign: Emerging Implications* (pp. 357-376): IGI Global.

Nwankwo, G. O. (1980). *The Nigerian financial system*. Macmillan.

Nyor, T., and S. Mejabi. "Impact of corporate governance on non-performing loans of Nigerian deposit money banks." *Journal of Business and Management* 2, no. 3 (2013): 12-21.

Obembe, O. B., Adebisi, S. A., & Adeleye, O. K. (2010). Corporate governance, ownership structure and performance of manufacturing firms in Nigeria. *Corporate Ownership and Control*, *8*(1), 689-696.

Obembe, O. B., and Soetan, R. O. (2015). Competition, corporate governance and corporate performance: substitutes or complements? Empirical evidence from Nigeria. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, *6*(3), 251-271.

Ogata, K., and Spraakman, G. (2013). The persistence of delegitimised structures: Insights from changes to management accounting at the Hudson's Bay Company, 1670-2005. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 9*(3), 280-303.

Ojerinde D (2000). Secondary Education for Sustainable National Integration and Development in Nigeria, Keynote Address Presented at the Fourth National Conference for Research on Schooling Organized by Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo Nigeria: 25th – 29th September

Okonjo-Iweala, N., & Osafo-Kwaako, P. (2007). Nigeria's economic reforms: Progress and challenges.

Oliveira, J, (2010), *Power and organisational change*, PhD Thesis, University of Dundee

Omankhanlen, A. E. (2013). *Nigerian Banks' Efficiency Performance-A post 2004 Banking Reforms Evaluation* (Doctoral dissertation, Covenant University, Ota, Ogun State).

ONS, (2010), *UK Business Activity, Size and Location, September 2010*, Office for National Statistics, Newport, UK

Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. *European journal of work and organizational psychology*, *15*(1), 73-101.

Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. *European journal of work and organizational psychology*, *15*(1), 73-101.

Orlikowski, W. J., & Baroudi, J. J. (1991). Studying information technology in organizations: Research approaches and assumptions. *Information systems research*, *2*(1), 1-28.

Otley, D. (1994). Management Control in Contemporary Organisations: towards a wider framework. *management Accounting Research, 5*(3/4), 289 -299.

Otusanya, O. J. (2011). The role of multinational companies in tax evasion and tax avoidance: The case of Nigeria. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, *22*(3), 316-332.

Otusanya, O. J., Lauwo, S., Ige, O. J., & Adelaja, O. S. (2015). Sweeping it under the carpet: the role of legislators in corrupt practice in Nigeria. *Journal of Financial Crime*, *22*(3), 354-377.

Panozzo, F., 1997. The making of good academic accountants. Accounting, Organizations and Society 22, 447–480.

Parisi, C., and Hockerts, K. N. (2011). Causal maps and the performance measurement of CSR related intangibles: A case study. *International*

Parisi, C., and Kai, H. N. (2008). Managerial mindsets and performance measurement systems of CSR-related intangibles. *Measuring Business Excellence, 12*(2), 51-67.

Parker, L., Guthrie, J., 2009. Editorial. Championing intellectual pluralism. Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal 22, 5–12.

Parl, U. (2014). The role of dialogue between executives and ground-level employees mediated by MACS. *Baltic Journal of Management*, *9*(2), 189-212

Pelikan, P. (2003), "Bringing institutions into evolutionary economics: another view with links to changes in physical and social technologies", *Journal of Evolutionary Economics,* vol. 13, no .3, pp. 237-258.

Pentland, B. and Feldman, M. (2005), "Organisational routines as a unit of analysis", *Industrial and Corporate Change,* vol. 14, no. 5, pp. 793-815.

Pentland, B. and Feldman, M. (2008), "Issues in field studies of organisational routines" in *Handbook of Organisational Routines*, ed. M. Becker, pp. 281-300.

Pentland, B., (2011), “The foundation is solid, if you know where to look: comment on Felin and Foss”, *Journal of Institutional Economics*, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 279 -293.

Pentland, B., Haerem, T. and Hillison, D. (2010), “Comparing organizational routines as recurrent patterns of action”, *Organization Studies*, vol. 31, no. 7, pp 917-940.

Perera, S., McKinnon, J. L., and Harrison, G. L. (2003). Diffusion of transfer pricing innovation in the context of commercialization—a longitudinal case study of a government trading enterprise. *Management Accounting Research, 14*(2), 140-164.

Perez, E. A., Ruiz, C. C., and Fenech, F. C. (2007). Environmental management systems as an embedding mechanism: A research note. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 20*(3), 403-422.

Petrou, P., Demerouti, E., and Breevaart, K. (2013). Job crafting as a key to successful organisational change. *Gedrag en Organisatie, 26*(1), 32-45.

Petrou, P., Demerouti, E., and Häfner, M. (2013). When fit matters more: The effect of regulatory fit on adaptation to change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*.

Pettigrew, A., & Whipp, R. (1993). *Managing change for competitive success*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Pettigrew, T. F. (1998). Intergroup contact theory. *Annual review of psychology*, *49*(1), 65-85.

Pieterse, J. H., Caniëls, M. C., & Homan, T. (2012). Professional discourses and resistance to change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, *25*(6), 798-818.

Pimentel, L., & Major, M. J. (2009). Management accounting change: a case study of Balanced Scorecard implementation in a Portuguese service company. *Contabilidade e Gestão, 8,* 89-109.

Pina, V., Torres, L., and Yetano, A. (2009). Accrual accounting in EU local governments: One method, several approaches. *European Accounting Review, 18*(4), 765-807.

Pinzon, P. A. (2003). New sociological institutionalism and the structuration theory in management accounting. *Revista Espanola de Financiacion y Contabilidad, 32*(118), 693-724.

Pishdad, A., Haider, A., and Koronios, A. (2012a). *An institutionalisation perspective on technology lifecycle- A literature review.*Paper presented at the 18th IBIMA Conference on Innovation and Sustainable Competitive Advantage: From Regional Development to World Economies, Istanbul.

Pishdad, A., Haider, A., and Koronios, A. (2012b). *Institutionalisation of technology in contemporary business organizations.* Paper presented at the 2012 Portland International Conference on Management of Engineering and Technology - Technology Management for Emerging Technologies, PICMET'12, Vancouver, BC.

Pitkanen, H., and Lukka, K. (2011). Three dimensions of formal and informal feedback in management accounting. *Management Accounting Research, 22*(2), 125-137.

Pukall, T. J., & Calabrò, A. (2014). The internationalization of family firms: A critical review and integrative model. *Family Business Review, 27*(2), 103-125. doi:10.1177/0894486513491423

Quattrone, P. (2009). 'We have never been Post-modern': On the search of management accounting theory. *European Accounting Review, 18*(3), 621-630.

Quattrone, P., & Hopper, T. (2005). A 'time–space odyssey': management control systems in two multinational organisations. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *30*(7), 735-764.

Quattrone, P., and Hopper, T. (2001). What does organizational change mean? Speculations on a taken for granted category. *Management Accounting Research*, *12*(4), 403-435.

Quattrone, P., and Hopper, T. (2005). A 'time–space odyssey': management control systems in two multinational organisations. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *30*(7), 735-764

Quattrone, P., and Hopper, T. (2006). What is IT? SAP, accounting, and visibility in a multinational organisation. *Information and Organization, 16*(3), 212-250.

Quinn, M. (2011). Routines in management accounting research: Further exploration. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 7*(4), 337-357.

Quinn, M. (2014). Stability and change in management accounting over time A century or so of evidence from Guinness. *Management Accounting Research*, *25*(1), 76-92.

Quinn, R. W., & Dutton, J. E. (2005). Coordination as energy-in-conversation. *Academy of management review*, *30*(1), 36-57.

Quinn, R. W., & Dutton, J. E. (2005). Coordination as energy-in-conversation. *Academy of management review*, *30*(1), 36-57.

Raagmaa, G., Kalvet, T., and Kasesalu, R. (2014). Europeanization and De-Europeanization of Estonian Regional Policy. *European Planning Studies, 22*(4), 775-795.

Rajamanoharan, I. D., and Collier, P. (2006). Six Sigma implementation, organisational change and the impact on performance measurement systems. *International Journal of Six Sigma and Competitive Advantage, 2*(1), 48-68.

Rautiainen, A. I. (2009). The interrelations of decision-making rationales around BSC adoptions in Finnish municipalities. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management, 58*(8), 787-802.

Rautiainen, A., and Scapens, R. W. (2013). Path-dependencies, constrained transformations and dynamic agency: An accounting case study informed by both ANT and NIS. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management, 10*(2), 100-126.

Ribeiro, J. and Scapens, R. (2006), "Institutional theories in management accounting change: Contributions, issues and paths for development", *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management,* vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 94-11.

Riccaboni, A., and Leone, E. L. (2010). Implementing strategies through management control systems: The case of sustainability. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *59*(2), 130-144.

Riccaboni, A., Giovannoni, E., Giorgi, A., and Moscadelli, S. (2006). Accounting and power: Evidence from the fourteenth century. *Accounting History, 11*(1), 41-62.

Ritchie, J., and Richardson, S. (2004). Disclosing smaller business success and failure. *British Accounting Review, 36*(3), 233-250.

Robalo, R. (2013). Explanations for the gap between management accounting rules and routines: An institutional approach. *Revista de Contabilidad*.

Robalo, R. (2014). Explanations for the gap between management accounting rules and routines: An institutional approach. *Revista de Contabilidad, 17*(1), 88-97.

Roberts, J. and Scapens, R. (1985), “Accounting systems and systems of accountability — understanding accounting practices in their organisational contexts”, *Accounting, Organisations and Society,* vol. 10, no. 4, pp. 443-456.

Rom, A., and Rohde, C. (2007). Management accounting and integrated information systems: A literature review. *International Journal of Accounting Information Systems, 8*(1), 40-68.

Roslender, R., Dillard, J.F., 2003. Reflections on the interdisciplinary perspectives on accounting project. Critical Perspectives on Accounting 14, 325–351.

Rouleau, L., and Balogun, J. (2011). Middle managers, strategic sense making, and discursive competence. *Journal of Management Studies, 48*(5), 953-983.

Rugman, A., & Hodgetts, R. (2001). The end of global strategy. *European Management Journal*, *19*(4), 333-343.

Russo, P. T., Parisi, C., Da Silva, A. F., and Weffort, E. F. J. (2014). Perception of managers of the process of balanced scorecard institutionalization in a sanitation company. *Producao, 24*(4), 927-939.

Rutherford, M. (1994), *Institutions in Economics: The Old and the New Institutionalism*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Ryan, B., Scapens, R.W., Theobald, M., 2002. Research Method and Method-ology in Finance and Accounting, 2nd ed. Thomson, Padstow.

Rynes, S., & Gephart, R. (2004). From the Editors: Qualitative Research and the "Academy of Management Journal" *The Academy of Management Journal, 47*(4), 454-462. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/20159596

Saldana, J. (2003) *Longitudinal Qualitative Research: Analyzing ChangeThrough Time* Altamira Press

Saliterer, I., and Korac, S. (2013). Performance information use by politicians and public managers for internal control and external accountability purposes. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 24*(7-8), 502-517.

Salvato, C., & Moores, K. (2010). Research on accounting in family firms: Past accomplishments and future challenges. *Family Business Review*, *23*(3), 193-215. doi:10.1177/0894486510375069

Sandalgaard, N., & Nikolaj Bukh, P. (2014). Beyond Budgeting and change: a case study. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, *10*(3), 409-423.

Sandalgaard, N., Nikolaj Bukh, P., , (2014),Beyond Budgeting and change: a case study, Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change, Vol. 10 Iss 3 pp. 409 – 423

Sartorius, K., and Kirsten, J. (2005). The boundaries of the firm: Why do sugar producers outsource sugarcane production? *Management Accounting Research, 16*(1), 81-99.

Scapens, R. (1994), "Never mind the gap: towards an institutional perspective on management accounting practice", *Management Accounting Research*, vol. 5, no. 3-4, pp. 301-321.

Scapens, R. (2004), "Doing case study research" in *The Real Life Guide to Accounting Research – A Behind the Scenes View of Using Qualitative Research Methods*, eds. C. Humphrey and B. Lee, Elsevier, Oxford, pp. 257-279.

Scapens, R. (2006), "Understanding management accounting practices: A personal journey" *British Accounting Review*, vol. 38, no. 1, pp. 1-30

Scapens, R. and Jazayeri, M. (2003), "ERP systems and management accounting change: opportunities or impacts? A research note", *European Accounting Review*, vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 201-233.

Scapens, R. W. (2006). Understanding management accounting practices: A personal journey. *British Accounting Review*, *38*(1), 1-30.

Scapens, R. W., and Bromwich, M. (2010). Editorial board changes. *Management Accounting Research, 21*(3), 145.

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (Vol. 2). John Wiley & Sons.

Scott, W.R. (1995), Institutions and Organizations,

Seal, W. (2001). Management accounting and the challenge of strategic focus. *Management Accounting Research, 12*(4), 487-506.

Seal, W. (2006). Management accounting and corporate governance: An institutional interpretation of the agency problem. *Management Accounting Research, 17*(4), 389-408.

Seal, W. (2010). Managerial discourse and the link between theory and practice: From ROI to value-based management. *Management Accounting Research, 21*(2), 95-109.

Seal, W., Garrison, R., and Noreen, E. (2012). *Management Accounting* (4th ed.): Mc Graw Hill.

Searle, J. (2005), "What is an institution?", *Journal of Institutional Economics*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 1-22.

Senior, B. (1997). Team roles and team performance: is there 'really'a link?. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, *70*(3), 241-258.

Senior, B., & Fleming, J. (2006). *Organizational change*. Pearson Education.

Seo, M. G., and Creed, W. D. (2002). Institutional contradictions, praxis, and institutional change: A dialectical perspective. *Academy of management review*, *27*(2), 222-247

Seo, M. G., & Creed, W. E. D. (2002). Institutional contradictions, praxis, and institutional change: A dialectical perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 27(2), 222–247

Sharma, U., and Lawrence, S. (2008). Stability and change at FPTL: An institutional perspective. *Australian Accounting Review*, *18*(1), 25-34.

Sharma, U., Lawrence, S., and Lowe, A. (2010). Institutional contradiction and management control innovation: A field study of total quality management practices in a privatized telecommunication company. *Management Accounting Research, 21*(4), 251-264.

Shields, M. D. (1995). An Empirical Analysis of Firms implementation experiences with ABC. *Journal of Management Accounting Research, 7*, 148-166.

Siegel, G., and Sorensen, J. E. (1999). *Counting More, Counting Less Transformations in the Management Accounting Profession The 1999 Practice Analysis of Management Accounting*: Institute of Management Accountants (USA).

Sikka, P. (2015). The hand of accounting and accountancy firms in deepening income and wealth inequalities and the economic crisis: Some evidence. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 30*, 46-62.

Sikka, P. (2015, March). The corrosive effects of neoliberalism on the UK financial crises and auditing practices: A dead-end for reforms. In*Accounting Forum* (Vol. 39, No. 1, pp. 1-18). Elsevier.

Sikka, P., & Lehman, G. (2015). The supply-side of corruption and limits to preventing corruption within government procurement and constructing ethical subjects. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, *28*, 62-70.

Sikka, P., Willmott, H., & Lowe, T. (1989). Guardians of Knowledge and Public Interest: Evidence and Issues of Accountability in the UK Accountancy Profession. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*,*2*(2).

Sirmon, D. G., & Hitt, M. A. (2003). Managing resources: Linking unique resources, management, and wealth creation in family firms. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, *27*(4), 339-358.

Siti-Nabiha, A. K., and Scapens, R. W. (2005). Stability and change: An institutionalist study of management accounting change. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 18*(1), 44-73.

Skordoulis, R., and Dawson, P. (2007). Reflective decisions: The use of Socratic dialogue in managing organizational change. *Management Decision, 45*(6), 991-1007.

Smets, M., Morris, T., and Greenwood, R. (2012). From practice to field: A multilevel model of practice-driven institutional change. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*(4), 877-904.

Smith, J. A., Morris, J., and Ezzamel, M. (2005). Organisational change, outsourcing and the impact on management accounting. *British Accounting Review, 37*(4), 415-441.

Smith, V. M. (1976). A History of the Igbo People: Isichei, Elizabeth:(African History): New York: St. Martin's Press, 303 pp., Publication Date: February 3, 1976. *History: Reviews of New Books*, *4*(8), 169-169.

Soin, K., and Scheytt, T. (2008) Management Accounting in Financial Services. *Vol. 3. Handbooks of Management Accounting Research* (pp. 1385-1395).

Soin, K., Seal, W., and Cullen, J. (2002). ABC and organizational change: An institutional perspective. *Management Accounting Research*, *13*(2), 249-271.

Soltani, E., Lai, P. C., and Mahmoudi, V. (2007). Managing change initiatives: Fantasy or reality? The case of public sector organisations. *Total Quality Management and Business Excellence, 18*(1-2), 153-179.

Sorensen, J. E. (2009). Management accountants in the United States: practitioner and academic views of recent developments. *Handbooks of Management Accounting Research*, *3*, 1271-1296.
Sorensen, J. E. (2009). Management accountants in the United States: practitioner and academic views of recent developments. *Handbooks of Management Accounting Research*, *3*, 1271-1296.
Spicer, A., and Levay, C. (2012). Critical theories of organizational change. *The Routledge companion to organizational change*, 276-290

Spraakman, G. (2006), "The impact of institutions on management accounting changes at the Hudson's Bay Company", *Journal of Accounting and Organisational Change,* vol. 2, no. 2, pp. 101-122.

Stacey, R. D., Griffin, D., & Shaw, P. (2000). *Complexity and management: fad or radical challenge to systems thinking?*. Psychology Press.55

Stergiou, K., Ashraf, J., and Uddin, S. (2013). The role of structure and agency in management accounting control change of a family owned firm: A Greek case study. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting, 24*(1), 62-73.

Stoica, M., Chawat, N., & Shin, N. (2004). *An investigation of the methodologies of business process reengineering*. School of Computer Science and Information Systems, Pace University.

Stoica, M., Liao, J., & Welsch, H. (2004). Organizational culture and patterns of information processing: The case of small and medium-sized enterprises. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, *9*(3), 251.

Stoica, M., Liao, J., & Welsch, H. (2004). Organizational culture and patterns of information processing: The case of small and medium-sized enterprises. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, *9*(3), 251.

Strumickas, M., and Valanciene, L. (2010). Development of Modern Management accounting system. *Engineering Economics, 21*(4), 377-386.

Suddaby, R., and Greenwood, R. (2001). Colonizing knowledge: Commodification as a dynamic of jurisdictional expansion in professional service firms. *Human Relations, 54*(7), 933-953.

Suddaby, R., and Greenwood, R. (2005). Rhetorical strategies of legitimacy. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 50*(1), 35-67.

Suddaby, R., Cooper, D. J., and Greenwood, R. (2007). Transnational regulation of professional services: Governance dynamics of field level organizational change. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 32*(4-5), 333-362.

Sulaiman, S., and Mitchell, F. (2005). Utilising a typology of management accounting change: An empirical analysis. *Management Accounting Research, 16*(4), 422-437.

Sulaiman, S., Mitchell, F., 2005. Utilising a typology of management accounting change: an empirical analysis. Management Accounting Research

Suppa, A., and Zardini, A. (2011) The implementation of a performance management system in the Italian army. *Vol. 210 CCIS. Communications in Computer and Information Science* (pp. 139-146).

Symon, G., Buehring, A., Johnson, P., Cassell, C., (2008). Positioning qualitative research as resistance to the institutionalization of the academic labour process. Organization Studies 29, 1315–1336.

Tagesson, T. (2007). Does legislation or form of association influence the harmonization of accounting? A study of accounting in the Swedish water and sewage sector. *Utilities Policy*, *15*(4), 248-260.

Taipaleenmäki, J. (2014). Absence and Variant Modes of Presence of Management Accounting in New Product Development - Theoretical Refinement and Some Empirical Evidence. *European Accounting Review*, *23*(2), 291-334.

Ter Bogt, H. J. (2003). A transaction cost approach to the automatization of government organizations: A political transaction cost framework confronted with six cases of automatization in the Netherlands. *European Journal of Law and Economics*, *16*(2), 149-186.

Ter Bogt, H. J., and Van Helden, G. J. (2011). The role of consultant-researchers in the design and implementation process of a programme budget in a local government organization. *Management Accounting Research*, *22*(1), 56-64.

Tessier, S., and Otley, D. (2012). From management controls to the management of controls. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 25*(5), 776-805.

Thomsen, J. (2008). Processes of localization and institutionalization of local managers in economic functions in Danish owned subsidiaries in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania around the 21st century. *Journal of Business Economics and Management, 9*(4), 279-287.

Thrane, S. (2007). The complexity of management accounting change: Bifurcation and oscillation in schizophrenic inter-organisational systems. *Management Accounting Research, 18*(2), 248-272.

Tsamenyi, M., Cullen, J., and González, J. M. G. (2006). Changes in accounting and financial information system in a Spanish electricity company: A new institutional theory analysis. *Management Accounting Research, 17*(4), 409-432.

Tuanmat, T. Z., and Smith, M. (2011). Changes in management accounting practices in Malaysia. *Asian Review of Accounting, 19*(3), 221-242.

Tuomela, T. S. (2005). The interplay of different levers of control: A case study of introducing a new performance measurement system. *Management Accounting Research, 16*(3 SPEC. ISS.), 293-320.

Uche, C. U. (2007). The Future of the Past in Banking. *24th Inaugural Lecture. University of Nigeria, Nsukka*

Uche, C., (1998) Accounting and control in Barclays Bank (DCO): the lending to Africans episode, Accounting, Business & Financial History, 8:3, 239-260, DOI:10.1080/095852098330404

Ugrin, J. C. (2009). The effect of system characteristics, stage of adoption, and experience on institutional explanations for ERP systems choice. *Accounting Horizons, 23*(4), 365-389.

Upping, P., and Oliver, J. (2012). Thai public universities: Modernisation of accounting practices. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change, 8*(3), 403-430.

Valanciene, L., and Gimzauskiene, E. (2009). Dimensions of performance measurement system in changes research. *Engineering Economics, 4*(64), 41-48.

Van den Heuvel, M., Demerouti, E., and Bakker, A. B. (2014). How psychological resources facilitate adaptation to organizational change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, *23*(6), 847-858.

Van den Heuvel, M., Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., and Schaufeli, W. B. (2013). Adapting to change: The value of change information and meaning-making. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 83*(1), 11-21.

Van den Heuvel, M., Demerouti, E., Schreurs, B. H. J., Bakker, A. B., and Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). Does meaning-making help during organizational change? Development and validation of a new scale. *Career Development International, 14*(6), 508-533.

Van der Meer-Kooistra, J., and Scapens, R. W. (2008). The governance of lateral relations between and within organisations. *Management Accounting Research, 19*(4), 365-384.

Van der Stede, W. A. (2003). The effect of national culture on management control and incentive system design in multi-business firms: evidence of intra-corporate isomorphism. *European Accounting Review, 12*(2), 263-285.

Van der Steen, M. (2009). Inertia and management accounting change: The role of ambiguity and contradiction between formal rules and routines. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 22*(5), 736-761.

Van der Steen, M. (2009). Uncovering inertia: Ambiguity between formal rules and routines of interaction *Organizational Routines: Advancing Empirical Research* (pp. 159-182): Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.

Van der Steen, M. (2011). The emergence and change of management accounting routines. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 24*(4), 502-547.

van Helden, J., & Uddin, S. (2016). Public sector management accounting in emerging economies: A literature review. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*.

Vann, J. L. (2004). Resistance to change and the language of public organizations: A look at "clashing grammars" in large-scale information technology projects. *Public Organization Review*, *4*(1), 47-73.

Vann, J. L. (2004). Resistance to change and the language of public organizations: A look at "clashing grammars" in large-scale information technology projects. *Public Organization Review*, *4*(1), 47-73.

Vann, J. L. (2004). Resistance to change and the language of public organizations: A look at "clashing grammars" in large-scale information technology projects. *Public Organization Review*, *4*(1), 47-73.

Veblen, T. (1898), "Why is economics not an evolutionary science?", *Quarterly Journal of Economics,* July, pp. 373-397.

Vermeulen, P., Büch, R., and Greenwood, R. (2007). The impact of governmental policies in institutional fields: The case of innovation in the Dutch concrete industry. *Organization Studies, 28*(4), 515-540.

Verstegen, B. H. J. (2001). Nine ways for a decision maker to use theoretical notions, with special reference to teaching agency theory for management accounting. *Journal of Accounting Education, 19*(2), 119-127.

Verstegen, B. H. J. (2006). Relating the institutional approach in management accounting to institutional economics: An essay on dual-mode rationality. *Journal of Economic Issues, 40*(4), 1137-1151.

Verstegen, B. H. J. (2011). A socio-economic view on management control. *International Journal of Social Economics, 38*(2), 114-127.

Victoria Garibaldi de Hilal, A., Wetzel, U., & Ferreira, V. (2009). Organizational culture and performance: a Brazilian case. *Management Research News, 32*(2), 99-119.

Vieira Machado, M. J. C. (2013). Balanced scorecard: An empirical study of small and medium size enterprises. *Revista Brasileira de Gestao de Negocios, 15*(46), 129-148.

Viktor, E. (2015). *Essays on performance management systems, regulation and change in Swedish Banks*.

Vosselman, E. G. J. (2002). Towards horizontal archetypes of management control: A transaction cost economics perspective. *Management Accounting Research, 13*(1), 131-148.

Wagner, E. L., Moll, J., and Newell, S. (2011). Accounting logics, reconfiguration of ERP systems and the emergence of new accounting practices: A socio material perspective. *Management Accounting Research, 22*(3), 181-197.

Wahlström, G. (2009). Risk management versus operational action: Basel II in a Swedish context. *Management Accounting Research, 20*(1), 53-68

Waldron, M., and Everett, A. M. (2002). *Perceptions of Change in Management Accounting Systems.* Paper presented at the Decision Sciences Institute 2002 Proceedings, San Diego, CA.

Wanderley, C., & Cullen, J. (2013). Management accounting change: A review. *Revista Base (Administração e Contabilidade) da UNISINOS, 10*(4).

Waweru, N., and Uliana, E. (2008). Predicting change in management accounting systems: A contingent approach. *Problems and Perspectives in Management, 6*(2), 72-84.

Waweru, N., Hoque, Z., and Uliana, E. (2004). Management accounting change in South Africa: case studies from retail services. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, *17*(5), 675-704

Weick, K. E. (2000). Emergent change as a universal in organizations. *Breaking the code of change*, 223-241.

Wells, A. (2007). A prototype twenty-first century university library: A case study of change at the University of New South Wales Library. *Library Management, 28*(8-9), 450-459.

West, P., and Burnes, B. (2000). Applying organizational learning: Lessons from the automotive industry. *International Journal of Operations and Production Management, 20*(10), 1236-1252.

Williams, J. J., & Seaman, A. E. (2001). Predicting change in management accounting systems: national culture and industry effects. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, *26*(4), 443-460.

Williams, J. J., and Seaman, A. E. (2010). Corporate governance and mindfulness: The impact of management accounting systems change. *Journal of Applied Business Research, 26*(5), 1-18.

Williamson, D. (2007). The COSO ERM framework: A critique from systems theory of management control. *International Journal of Risk Assessment and Management, 7*(8), 1089-1119.

Wincek, J. C. (2009). *Organizational change risk assessment one company's approach.* Paper presented at the 24th International Conference of the Centre for Chemical Process Safety 2009 - Topical Conference at the 2009 AIChE Spring National Meeting.

Windels, P., and Christiaens, J. (2006). Management reform in Flemish Public Centres for Social Welfare: Examining organisational change. *Local Government Studies, 32*(4), 389-411.

Winter, S. (1995), "Four rs of profitability: rents, resources, routines and replication" in *Resource-based and evolutionary theories of the firm: Towards a synthesis*, ed. C. Montgomery, Kluwer, Boston, pp. 147-178

Yamamoto, K., and Noguchi, M. (2013). Different scenarios for accounting reform in non-Anglophone contexts: The case of Japanese local governments since the 1990s. *Accounting History, 18*(4), 529-549.

Yanow, D., & Schwartz-Shea, P. (2009). Interpretive research: Characteristics and criteria. *Revue internationale de Psychosociologie*,*15*(35), 29-38.

Yanow, D., & Ybema, S. (2009). Interpretivism in organizational research: On elephants and blind researchers. *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods. Los Angeles and London*, 39-60

Yazdifar, H., and Tsamenyi, M. (2005). Management Accounting change and the changing role of Management Accountants: a comparative analysis between dependent and independent organisations. *Journal of Accounting and Organisational Change, 1*(2), 180-198.

Yazdifar, H., Zaman, M., Tsamenyi, M., & Askarany, D. (2008). Management accounting change in a subsidiary organisation. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, *19*(3), 404-430.

Yetano, A. (2013). What drives the institutionalization of performance measurement and management in local government. *Public Performance and Management Review, 37*(1), 59-86.

Yin, R.K. (2004), Case Study Research: Design and Methods,

Yin, R.K. (2014), Case Study Research: Design and Methods,

Youssef, M. A. (2011). Electronic commerce and management accountants in Egypt: New opportunities and threats *Cases on Business and Management in the MENA Region: New Trends and Opportunities* (pp. 27-40): IGI Global.

Youssef, M. A. (2013). Management accounting change in an Egyptian organization: An institutional analysis. *Journal of Accounting and Organizational Change*, *9*(1), 50-73.

Zatzick, C. D., and Zatzick, D. F. (2013). The effect of perceived person-job fit on employee attitudes toward change in trauma centres. *Health Care Management Review*, *38*(2), 115-124.

Zilber, T. B. (2002). Institutionalization as an interplay between actions, meanings, and actors: The case of a rape crisis center in Israel. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*(1), 234-254

Zilber, T. B. (2009). Institutional maintenance as narrative acts. *Institutional work: Actors and agency in institutional studies of organizations*, 205-235

Zilber, T. B. (2012). The relevance of institutional theory for the study of organizational culture. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, *21*(1), 88-93

Zoni, L., Dossi, A., and Morelli, M. (2012). Management accounting system (MAS) change: Field evidence. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Accounting and Economics, 19*(1), 119-138.

[i] Edwards, 2000a: provides a brief survey of this literature and Edwards (2000b) provides examples drawn from the literature.

[ii] MAR GAOC 2008 Mar.