QRBD

Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines

August 2025

Volume 12
Number 1/2

A Journal of International Academy of Business Disciplines
Sponsored by University of North Florida
ISSN 2334-0169 (print)
ISSN 2329-5163 (online)

QRBD - QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

The *Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines (QRBD)* is published by the International Academy of Business Disciplines in February, May, August, and November.

Manuscript Guidelines/Comments. *QRBD* is a blind peer-reviewed journal that provides publication of articles in all areas of business and the social sciences that affect business. The Journal welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and business excellence. Manuscripts should address real-world phenomena that highlight research that is interesting and different – innovative papers that begin or continue a line of inquiry that integrate across disciplines, as well as, those that are disciplinary. The Journal is interested in papers that are constructive in nature and suggest how established theories or understandings of issues in business can be positively revised, adapted, or extended through new perspectives and insights. Manuscripts that do not make a theoretical contribution to business studies or that have no relevance to the domain of business should not be sent to *QRBD.* Submissions to *QRBD* must follow the journal's Style Guide for Authors, including length, formatting, and references. Poorly structured or written papers will be returned to the authors promptly. Manuscript length is approximately 16 – 20 single-spaced pages. Acceptance rate is 30%.

Description. The *Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines* is a quarterly publication of the International Academy of Business Disciplines (IABD); a worldwide, non-profit organization established to foster and promote education in all of the functional and support disciplines of business. The objectives of *QRBD* and IABD are to stimulate learning and understanding and to exchange information, ideas, and research studies from around the world. The Academy provides a unique global forum for professionals and faculty in business, communications, and other social science fields to discuss and publish papers of common interest that overlap career, political, and national boundaries. *QRBD* and IABD create an environment to advance learning, teaching, and research, and the practice of all functional areas of business. *Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines* is published to promote cutting edge research in all of the functional areas of business.

Submission Procedure. **Manuscripts should be uploaded to Easy Chair using the link provided on our website**. Manuscripts must follow the submission guidelines, **including all formatting requests**, and be well edited. Upon completion of a review by expert scholars who serve on the *QRBD* Editorial Review Board, the first author will be informed of acceptance or rejection of the paper within a one to two-month timeframe from the submission date. If the paper is accepted, the first author will receive a formal letter of acceptance along with the *QRBD* Style Guide for Authors.

IABD members and authors who participate in the IABD annual conference are given first priority as a matter of courtesy. For additional information, please visit www.iabd.org.

QRBD - QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

MISSION STATEMENT

The organization designated as the International Academy of Business Disciplines is a worldwide, non-profit organization, established to foster and promote education in all of the functional and support disciplines of business.

WWW.IABD.ORG
WWW.QRBD.NET

The Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines (QRBD) is listed in *Cabell's Directory of Publishing Opportunities.*

QRBD - QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

VOLUME 12, NUMBER 1/2

AUGUST 2025

ISSN 2329-5163 (online)

CONTENTS

Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines, 12(1/2), August 2025

You Cannot Be Perfect All the Time

Vance Johnson Lewis, Northeastern State University

Abstract

This article examines the paradoxical relationship between professional success and personal leisure in academia, particularly for educators who feel a strong responsibility toward their students. The author reflects on his journey as an academic and editor, drawing on three key points of advice which helped the author re-evaluate his professional boundaries. The article concludes with advice from the author encouraging all to take a balanced approach to success, one that prioritizes self-compassion and recognizes the importance of accepting limitations, thereby making room for both ambition and personal well-being. This perspective encourages a more sustainable and fulfilling academic career.

Keywords: Academic Career, Work-Life Balance, Professional Boundaries, Self-Compassion

---

- You Cannot Be Perfect All the Time

We now face the danger, which in the past has been the most destructive to the humans: Success, plenty, comfort and ever-increasing leisure. No dynamic people has ever survived these dangers.
--John Steinbeck, 1962

I wish that I could say when I first heard this quote from John Steinbeck that it was due to my intense study of literature and knowledge of the greatest writers; but I must confess, that I first heard this quote at the age of nine when proffered by an audio-animatronic Mark Twain quoting John Steinbeck during the stirring finale of *The American Adventure* at EPCOT Center at Walt Disney World. In researching the quote, I found that no one has actually been able to pinpoint when, or even if, John Steinbeck said it; however, it is the statement for which he is most often quoted. Regardless, its warning about the consequences of success has proven motivational for me during my career; however, as we would say in the social sciences, the correlation between success and leisure would seem to be an inverse one as it seems as our success increases, our leisure decreases, forming a different danger than Steinbeck warned.

Looking at the calendar, it is unfathomable that just three years ago, I was excitedly beginning my time as Editor of *Quarterly Review of Business Discipline*s…heck it seems like just yesterday I was eagerly waiting to find out if I had been selected Editor of my high school yearbook, which for the record, I was! Now as I am reflecting on this, my last issue as Editor of *QRBD*, I am thinking back over the past three years not just of being Editor of this journal, but also how I am reaching what is, unless otherwise disrupted, the midway point in my academic career. Over the past few weeks, the idea of my own success has been at the forefront of my thoughts and how I have had to force leisure to be a part of it.

Thirteen years have passed since my committee at Oklahoma State University said "congratulations Dr. Lewis" after which I have added a post-doctorate, earned tenure at a R3 university and gave it up, had a wild adventure as a visiting professor (Lewis, 2025), been appointed editor of two journals, served in multiple program director roles, and won six blue ribbons at the State Fair of Texas (but that is a different story). Always being one to take advice with a grain of salt, I have reflected on what kept me going and who it might have offered it. Truthfully, I would not know John Steinbeck even if Disney created a lifelike version that walked in front of me; however, I do remember the advice to which I contribute my ability to reach some level of success.

You can't save them all.
--Charles Hazzard, 2014

When I first started my career post-graduation, I took on the role of Program Director of Business Administration at The University of Texas at Dallas. Now, this position was not a research position and it was a non-tenure-track position…I can still hear Dean Hasan Pirkil saying "I did not hire you to do research"…but this position allowed me to do what I enjoyed most: working directly

with the students. While teaching my classes, which were primarily Organizational Behavior, Strategic Management and Capstones, I also was able to be the main point of contact for students in my degree program for more one-on-one matters. Of course, I can surmise that many readers of this can relate to those conversations with the students who are confused about what degree to pursue but I also had students for whom I was the only support being offered as there was none coming from home. At UTD, I had a lot of first-generation Americans who were trying to navigate finding success in the United States with expectations that were coming from the cultures of their parents, and certainly not North Texas. Of particular challenge was that I was the director of the "touchy feely" degree program at a school that was highly geared toward the quantitative arts such as information systems, data analytics, finance, and oh yes data analytics. While many students were spending hours in the computer lab, my Society for Human Resource Management students hosted a Super Mario Kart tournament…and we loved every minute of it. (We also won SHRM Chapter of the Year in 2016.)

I also had a lot of tears in that office. I had a student who did not know what to do about an unwanted pregnancy. Several students who had drug and alcohol problems who were looking for help. Veterans who were navigating the challenges of college life being 10 years older than their peers. At that time, in 2012 to 2014, we, as faculty members, were being called upon to be more vigilant about student mental health issues. As strange as it may sound, those were all things that I really enjoyed. Of course not that my students were suffering, but helping them find a solution for their challenges and being able to move forward.

In 2014, my first big success occurred when I had organized enough students to split from Business Administration and form a degree program in Organizational Behavior and Human Resources (in all transparency, the paperwork was not fully recognized by Texas until after my departure from UTD). This was a big deal but my success and happiness had an inverse correlation. During that summer, I began to notice that my own quality of life was going down. To begin, I had never lived in a place as big as Dallas, TX (my hometown of Fort Smith, AR, could fit inside AT&T Cowboys Stadium) and so adjusting to big city life along with being in my 30's was taking its toll. Past this, I started to wake up in the morning thinking "ugghhh….work." (Plus, I had to commute from Downtown Dallas to Richardson on HWY 75 which was like a daily 35 minute Hail Mary.)

There was also the challenge of who my peers were. One of the hard facts about higher education is that it is rather isolating. We do not tend to socialize with one another and like it or not, most interactions I had during the day were with 19 to 21 year olds; thus, my students really became my life and I was putting all of my energies, both in and out of the classroom, into their success. Even though on the surface things were looking good, I felt like a failure and was growing increasingly frustrated with my career and it was showing.

And then one day, relief came. At UTD, we were blessed to have as our Executive in Residence, Charles Hazzard, who, among his many accomplishments, had been a labor relations manager for Ford Motor Company and Executive Vice President of OxyChem. Even better, he liked me and kept an eye out on how things were going for me. Out of the blue, Charlie, who was a rather imposing man, walked into my office and said "You can't save them all" (and then a few words I

will leave lost to history). It was such an easy answer to why I was so frustrated. And that even though I was having a great deal of success, I was not happy and the reason was simple: success in my eyes was based solely on the success of others…sorry John Steinbeck but no leisure for me!

As true educators, I believe we want to help our students. Yes, there are people in our field who are there to get the research grants, to be editors of the top journals, write A* articles, or to be one of the "stars" at the conference. There are even those, and I will redact they who first made this statement to me, who treat their academic position as a part time job so they can run another business or do much more monetarily rewarding consulting. Now granted, I enjoy doing consulting too. But my primary job is that of a teacher and I teach for a living.

When we teach for a living, we are going to encounter some of the afore mentioned challenges. We are going to encounter the students for whom we eagerly arrive on campus every day to see because we know they are going to make it—I always joke on the first day of class that I want them to be successful so they can come back and take me out to lunch (my thirteen year investment has started to pay dividends!). And then there are the ones who keep us up at night and are the first thing on our minds when we wake up because we know they are on the edge and we know deep down that success is not going to come for them.

But those words "you can't save them all" was the key piece of advice that helped me keep going and redirect my career, because what it helped me realize was that I was expending an extraordinary amount of energy trying to save all of them. Trying to make sure they all got everything that they could out of my class. I was placing so much burden on myself that I was not being as effective as I could be. There were people in that classroom (UTD did not have online courses at this point) that if they passed great, if they got an "A" great, if they learned what a VRIO analysis was great…and if they did not great. And of course those who did not care one way or the other but I wanted to make sure that every single one of them got every single bit of information that I had to give on the topic for 16 weeks. Now for those who know me even casually, you will know that mathematical equations are not in my wheelhouse but since this is an interdisciplinary journal, here is the Lewis UTD Formula of Success:

[4 class x 50 students] x [2 student groups] x program director =
eating entire bag off Oreos daily.

And I looked upon it as though if they did not get an "A", or if they were not showing as much excitement for the job or the topic as I was, I was somehow failing. "You can't save them all" was a piece of knowledge which allowed me to forgive myself a little bit. I am able to go into that classroom, and as long as I am giving my best, and as long as I am offering them all the opportunity to get the information, I cannot ask any more of myself and this is where I draw the line of where success ends and leisure begins.

You can't be perfect all the time.
--Frank Carroll, 1997

So now 13 years later, knowing I cannot save them all, probably saved my career. Reprioritizing my investment into my students alongside my investment in my success/leisure balance has empowered me to drive my career in the manner that works for me. Now hopefully anyone who may comment on my job performance will say that I always give it my all but I have allowed myself to back off, pursue other things both on and off campus. In our field, there are two bars which count as success: earning tenure and being promoted to full professor. In 2022, I earned that first badge of success at The University of Central Arkansas and even though it was a tough process, had I not previously learned how to prioritize myself along with my students, the process would have probably driven me insane. Past this, I would have not accomplished anything in the other two important aspects of academia: research and service. My student evaluations (a conversation on which the validity of and inherent bias in will be saved for another day) were most always high but I was also able to accomplish other things such as being elected to Faculty Senate my first year at the University, being named Editor of an ABDC list journal, and serving my community by being a police officer at Six Flags Over Texas and volunteering with Battlefields to Boardrooms. So just as Charlie offered me some career saving advice, as I move on from this current role, I wanted to offer some concluding remark that hopefully helps someone else over that hurdle they are facing.

In 1997, one of the greatest athletes of all time, Michelle Kwan, unexpectedly lost the United States National Figure Skating Championships after going splat on two jumps. While awaiting her fate in the infamous "Kiss and Cry" area, in front of a sold out Nashville, TN, crowd and millions watching on television (*US Figure Skating*, 1997), her coach Frank Carroll gently said "You can't be perfect all the time" (Wilson, 1997). Such a simple and caring statement from a coach but one that embodied the pressure this 16 year old athletic prodigy put on herself and one in which those of us in the self-governed world of higher education, where the lines between work and life are often blurred, can find crucial advice.

Unlike jobs with clearly defined 9-to-5 schedules or delineated tasks, our roles in higher education often demand a seemingly endless list of responsibilities with ambiguous parameters. We are expected to be excellent teachers, prolific researchers, and engaged community members. The pressure to go above and beyond can be immense and while our roles are dynamic and organic to our environment, often our benchmarks are dichotomous: success or failure, with success being set at an extremely high bar…the perfect academic.

I recently spoke with a friend who supervises city employees in Tulsa, OK. He described a "perfectly mediocre" employee who meets all their job expectations but never does anything extra. My friend's supervisor felt that the employee in question needed to be doing more but there was nothing particularly obvious of what this "more" should be. My friend asked my advice on how to handle it and I offered "this person was hired for a position, does it well but not outstanding, so there really is not a problem."

This same pressure to excel where there is neither room for nor need to excel exists greatly in academia. I remember going through the tenure process, where I was required to "exceed expectations" in at least two of the three key areas: teaching, research, and service. While I enjoyed

exceeding expectations in service, it became a double-edged sword. There are countless opportunities for service, both on and off campus: from journal editorships and committee work to community boards and consulting. With only 24 hours in a day, it is easy to get overwhelmed. While accepting I cannot be perfect all the time, I have also had to add a new response to my lexicon: no.

I have learned to on occasion decline committee invitations, say no to advising a student organization, and turn down requests to be a track chair for a conference. Even within my primary job duties, I have had to learn to say, "I'm sorry, but I just cannot make that meeting today" or hop on that unplanned Zoom call. This is not about slacking off; it is about setting boundaries and protecting my time. Particularly for me as a Traumatic Brain Injury Thriver, concentration can be a precious commodity; breaking up a block of time in which research can be accomplished with a Zoom meeting is counterproductive to my overall success. Transitioning from a highly engaging classroom discussion on the four business level strategies to a community safety meeting on rising crime rates, equally challenging. I have learned that I can still be a vital team member, fulfilling my contractual and ethical obligations, without sacrificing my personal life or causing myself undue stress and actually manage to have fun at my job! Just as a cashier at Target or the President of the United States have the same 24 hours in a day, we in academia must also prioritize our time. We need to make time for the things that make us whole—whether that is writing a paper, cycling, knitting, or just reading a book—that has nothing to do with Narcissism and Toxic Work Environments—just for pleasure. We have to recognize, and be recognized for, acceptance that we cannot save them all nor can we be perfect all the time.

And so my advice to you.

Within this essay, I have offered three quotes of wisdom that I hope leads you the reader to a conclusion: take up figure skating!

Ah…I could not resist one last bit of humor.

As I step away as Editor of *QRBD* and close this chapter of my career, I do so with the knowledge that my colleagues and friends have not lost respect for me for making this choice. Viewing the world of academia now as a middle-aged, senior faculty member, the three quotes of advice I have offered here I pray amount to a meaningful lesson to you the reader, be you a doctoral student, junior faculty on the rise, mid career with choices to make, senior faculty looking back…or even a non-academic who somehow found this paper online, please remember:

True success is not about achieving perfection; it is about understanding and accepting our limitations which encourages us to find a balanced approach that values ambition and purpose while acknowledging the necessity of rest, imperfection, and loss. Ultimately, to be driven and dynamic we must also be realistic and compassionate with ourselves, recognizing that a relentless pursuit of perfection can be our most destructive force.
--Vance Johnson Lewis, 2025

References

1997 State Farm U.S. Championships: Nashville Nights. *US Figure Skating Magazine*, retrieved from https://skatingmagazine.azurewebsites.net/article/Skating_199704_02

Lewis, V. J. (2025). Academia's gig economy: visiting professors. *Organization Management Journal*, *22*(1), 31–37.

Sklar, M. & Bright, R. (1982, Oct. 1). *The American Adventure*. Walt Disney Imagineering.

Wilson, D. (1997, Feb. 15). *Ladies Final, US Figure Skating Championships*, ABC Broadcasting.

Epilogue

Charles Hazzard died at age 81 years on December 16, 2024, in Dallas, TX, after a short illness…the illness was probably the one thing Charlie did not invest much time in during his life. Thank you Charlie!

Michelle Kwan went on to win two Olympic medals and a total of nine national championships and five world championships. She also served as the US Ambassador to Belize and Director of Surrogates for President Joe Biden…things seemed to have turned out pretty well for her.

The employee of the City of Tulsa was fired for non-performance related issues. My friend asked me if I knew anyone who might fit the role.

The American Adventure is now in the 43rd year of its run at EPCOT and still uses the same script as it did on opening day; however, the original 1982 Mark Twain animatronic was updated in 1993…he now puffs on a cigar while quoting John Steinbeck.

And I, Vance Johnson Lewis, began the position of Associate Professor of Strategic Management at Northeastern State University, Broken Arrow (Oklahoma) in January 2025 and "[do] not plan to go visiting again" (Lewis, 2025: 37)….ah shameless self-citation.

Gratitude

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to The International Academy of Business Disciplines for the honor of serving as Editor of *QRBD*. Specifically, to Kaye McKinzie, Charles Lubbers, Margaret Goralski, Paul LeBlanc, Cindy Smart, and Paul Fadil…cheers to what has been accomplished and cheers for what is to come.

Sovereign Strategies: Examining Tribal Employment Preference in Native American Workforce Development

Leshay McNack, Northeastern State University

Abstract

Hiring practices within Native American tribal organizations embody a distinctive convergence of cultural preservation, sovereign authority, and strategic workforce development. This paper explores the institutionalized preference afforded to tribal citizens during the recruitment and selection process, analyzing the legal foundations, procedural steps, and ethical dimensions that shape these practices. In doing so, it underscores how such hiring frameworks not only reinforce tribal self-determination but also operate within the broader context of federal employment standards and compliance expectations.

Keywords: Tribal preference, Native American hiring practices, Human resource management, Workforce development

---

Sovereign Strategies: Examining Tribal Employment Preference in Native American Workforce Development

Introduction

Workforce development in Native American tribal organizations is an evolving interplay of sovereignty, self-determination, and modern human resource management. While tribal entities operate as sovereign nations, their internal employment structures must align with both cultural priorities and operational efficiency. Central to this process is the tribal preference policy, a structured hiring approach that prioritizes Native American applicants, especially tribal citizens over non-Native applicants. This analysis explores the practical implementation of tribal hiring policies, evaluates their ethical and procedural considerations, and examines how these practices support Indigenous identity and promote community economic stability.

The Structure of Tribal Hiring Practices

Hiring within a Native American tribal government or enterprise typically begins through an applicant tracking system (ATS). Once applications are submitted, the HR analyst plays a pivotal role in determining eligibility based on tribal affiliation. If the applicant is identified as Native American, by providing tribal membership documentation, they are evaluated against the qualifications of the posted job description. If the applicant meets the qualifications, their application advances to the hiring manager.

In contrast, non-Native applicants, even if qualified, are not immediately considered. Tribal policy mandates that all qualified tribal citizens be interviewed first. Only after all Native American candidates have been interviewed and deemed unqualified or unavailable may non-Native applicants proceed to the interview phase. This policy is rooted in tribal preference laws, which reflect the sovereign right of Native nations to prioritize their citizens in employment, a right upheld in U.S. law through various tribal self-governance compacts and federal court rulings such as EEOC v. Peabody Western Coal Company (9th Cir. 2014) and the Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act of 1975.

Interview and Evaluation Processes

Qualified candidates are reviewed by a panel of three to six interviewers, typically composed of department personnel and supervisors. Notably, Human Resources does not participate in the interview process at this stage. This separation maintains objectivity and departmental autonomy while ensuring adherence to policy. Once interviews are conducted, the hiring manager compiles a formal memorandum with a recommendation for hire or non-selection, which is then returned to HR.

The final stages depend on the job classification. Safety-sensitive positions, for instance, require extensive pre-employment screening, including a background check, drug screening, and fitness-for-duty testing. Non-safety-sensitive roles still necessitate a background check and drug test but

omit physical testing. Drug screenings are administered by independent, third-party laboratories, with preferential consideration given to vendors certified by the tribe. This application of tribal preference to procurement and vendor selection reflects a broader strategy aimed at reinforcing economic self-determination and supporting tribally affiliated enterprises. By prioritizing certified vendors, the tribe not only ensures quality and compliance but also strengthens community trust and fosters long-term economic growth within its jurisdiction.

Employment Offer and Onboarding

Upon completion of all screenings, the HR process is not distinctly different than one might expect in any hiring process. HR extends a formal offer of employment, which includes negotiation of salary, benefits, and review of the standard probationary period. New hires participate in a comprehensive onboarding program, typically lasting one week, which includes an overview of OSHA compliance, organizational policies, benefits orientation, and job-specific training. The onboarding process then transitions to the departmental level, where role-specific integration and training are conducted.

This onboarding is reinforced by scheduled check-ins at 30, 60, and 90 days, conducted by both HR and the hiring manager. At the conclusion of the probationary period, the hiring manager provides a recommendation regarding the employee's permanent status. Employees who are successful transition into regular review cycles; those who do not are then released from employment and are typically ineligible to reapply for one year.

Cultural and Ethical Considerations

From an HR ethics and compliance standpoint, Native American hiring practices may appear exclusionary to external observers unfamiliar with the legal foundations of tribal sovereignty. However, this system operates under distinct jurisdictional authority and cultural priorities. The tribal preference policy is not simply an affirmative action measure—it is an assertion of self-governance. It supports community development, nurtures cultural continuity, and ensures that tribal citizens benefit from employment within their own nations.

This process embodies a collectivist approach to hiring that prioritizes community engagement and shared responsibility over purely individualistic notions of merit. In doing so, it repositions employment practices as mechanisms of nation-building and cultural continuity, rather than solely instruments of talent acquisition. It underscores the role of employment as a relational act, one that reinforces intergenerational ties, cultural values, and the sovereignty of the tribal nation.

Challenges and Opportunities

While effective and beneficial for the population it serves, the tribal hiring system faces operational and perception-based challenges. For one, tribal organizations must still compete in the broader labor market to attract skilled non-Native candidates in specialized roles. The delay in considering non-Native applicants can slow down recruitment and limit access to external talent pools. Additionally, the layered processes require robust HR systems, legal counsel, and leadership buy-in.

Along with these challenges, Native American hiring practices present meaningful opportunities for tribal nations to strengthen their workforce. By investing in internships, professional development programs, and educational incentives, tribes can cultivate sustainable pipelines of tribal talent. Additionally, human resource professionals within these settings are uniquely situated to design and refine employment systems that honor cultural values while operating within sovereign legal and organizational structures.

Conclusion

Native American hiring practices are a profound example of how cultural identity, legal sovereignty, and professional HR practices can converge. The tribal preference policy is not just an administrative formality, it is an expression of Indigenous governance and a strategy for economic self-determination. While logistical and perceptual challenges exists, it also offers a replicable framework for value-based hiring that other sovereign or mission-driven organizations might study. As tribal nations expand their political and economic influence, their hiring practices provide a critical framework for examining the practical exercise of sovereignty in contemporary governance.

Executive Recruitment Process Explained Through Task Analysis

Carlos M. Baldo, University of the Incarnate Word

Donald Flynn, Psychologist in Private Practice

Christi Sanders Via, Colorado Mesa University

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to map and describe from the recruiter's perspective the processes utilized by Executive Search Firms or Headhunters while executing a candidate search for a client. Through a dual method consisting of a systematic literature review and task analysis, 40 academic articles among 98 were identified as related to the search process and integrated on a process mapping. This analysis led to the creation of a descriptive diagram explaining the processes typically utilized by executive recruiters/headhunters. Although the literature review indicated a probable general sequential process, in many instances it becomes cyclical because candidates may become clients. The novelty of the manuscript resides with the integration of academic literature for this narrow process. In the case of practitioners (executive recruiters) the study helps those in the early career stages or new entrants, allowing them to learn more about how to carry on a search. Ultimately, it presents a comprehensive picture for all other professionals (as clients or candidates) that can maximize the use of and interaction with Executive Search Firms.

Keywords: Executive recruitment, headhunters, systematic literature review, task analysis, process.

Executive Recruitment Process Explained Through Task Analysis

Introduction

There is no limit to the impact that an individual can have on the possible career choices of others. These include parents (Levine, 2013), mentors (Ghosh and Reio, 2013), managers (Crawshaw and Game, 2015), friends (Gokuladas, 2010). Some of these individuals will have only passing influence in particular moments of a person's life. But in many cases, individuals know these influencers well and allow them to participate in career decisions.

However, in other cases, individuals who would not be considered a traditional influencer, such as parents or teachers, suddenly may gain the opportunity to influence important career decisions. This is the case with Headhunters, Executive Recruiters, and/or Executive Search Firms. As indicated by Cappelli and Hamori (2013b), many times these recruiters contact potential candidates for job searches using cold calling or email messages. These random interchanges not only impact a job seeker's career, but also the employers who may be facing a potential poach of their talent (Knight, 2015). Therefore, there is value in gaining an understanding how executive recruitment firms operate. For the purposes of clarity, the terms *recruiter*, *headhunter*, *search consultant*, *executive recruiter*, and *executive search firm* are interchangeable terms that will be cited throughout the study.

Previous attempts to understand how executive search firms operate have been made in the past. In some cases through practitioner writers (Jones, 1989; Garrison, 2005), and others through academic research (Dingman, 1993; Finlay and Coverdill, 2002; Hamori, 2004). The former authors followed the traditional pattern of describing an industry, including some generalities on how recruiters operate. The latter group, while providing incredible validity for the academic community, present some research limitations due to the samples, approaches, or types of firms studied. Considering such situation, it is arguable that the executive recruitment process has not been fully reviewed in a manner that connects the academic literature commonly available in research to common practice in the industry.

The main objective of this study is to provide practitioners and academics with a generalizable and clear process map that describes the executive search process in detail. This paper contributes to the literature in career development by providing access to the processes and insights used by executive recruiters. The study may also assist those interested in pursuing a career in executive recruitment by providing a realistic job preview of industry processes. Finally, we believe that the use of a systematic literature review combined with a task analysis is a sound methodological approach to identifying best repeatable practices successfully used by executive recruiters.

The manuscript is structured as follows: First, we define and explain the role of executive recruiters and identify typical characteristics. Second, we elaborate on the methods used to gather and synthesize all the academic research related to this process and rationalize a pedagogical approach (task analysis) used to plot how an executive recruitment process works and how we foresee this as a learning tool. Third, we systematically detail each stage of the process in which the executive

recruiter is involved. Finally, we present a discussion tying these topics together and conclude with future research ideas.

Executive Recruiters, Search Consultants or Headhunters

It is impossible for businesses to meet the demand for goods and services without quality employees. Finlay and Coverdill (2000) argue that executive recruiters, search consultants, or headhunters are intermediaries who, through their services, fulfill structural holes between buyers and sellers. In other words, they carry on the matchmaking between employers and potential employees. Piccolo (2012, p. 213) defines these as middleman or brokers that in exchange for a fee from their clients, execute "attraction, hiring, and development of leaders." They achieve this by pairing some ideal candidate's conditions with job characteristics provided by their clients.

Although at some point there was the perception that executive recruiters focused attention entirely on C-level positions (Hamori, 2010), new evidence (Baldo, 2015) indicated that this is not necessarily absolute, and in many cases depends on the job candidates' perception. The use of headhunter services is usually explained by the inability of employers to produce quality candidates for a position on their own; searches that are highly confidential, precluding the use of traditional recruiting channels; or the high level of specialization required for the position requires niche marketing.

Establishing the timeline of when the field of executive recruitment began has proven difficult. However, Byrne (1986) argued that the proliferation of executive search firms began in the 1960s. Many of the early firms with more longevity (Korn/Ferry, Russel Reynolds, Egon Zehnder, Heidrick and Struggles, among others) were founded by professionals and consultants from accounting or consulting firms. In part, we can argue that this diverse background provided the founders with the social capital (knowing people in power positions) to pursue an executive recruitment enterprise, as well as experience in terms of successful procedures and methodologies that could be adapted to recruitment activities.

From an economic standpoint, executive search firms belong to activities under "contestable markets" (Britton, Clark and Ball, 1992). This type of market holds the following characteristics; short barriers of entry and exit, minimum or non-sunk costs, and equality of accessing needed technologies for all players (Baumol, 1982). In other words, anyone can claim to be a headhunter, because it is not a regulated profession. Nevertheless, in the last few decades these organizations have become more professionalized (Beaverstock, Faulconbridge and Hall, 2010). In some cases they have adhered to ethical guidelines for their operation (Association of Executive Search and Leadership Consultants (AESC), 2012; National Association of Executive Recruiters, 2014) and are professionalizing their operations.

One unique characteristic among headhunters or executive recruiters is their payment scheme. Finlay and Coverdill (2002) indicate that some of these service providers use a contingent payment while others use a retainer. In the first group (contingency headhunters), providers get paid only if they provide a candidate that ends up being hired by the client. The second group (retained

headhunters), receive a two-part payment, one upon enlisting their services, and a final settlement depending on some preconceived conditions (e.g., position final salary, complexity of the search, among many others). Nevertheless, other approaches also exist like a flat fee (Koch, 2013) or hybrid/retainer (Deutsch, 2017). Their fees fluctuate between 10 to 30% of the position's annual salary, but in some cases where the search is difficult to complete or complex, fees can be up to 50%. Nevertheless, retainer and contingent are the most common payment schemes.

The headhunters' operations are not only focused on the corporate sector. For instance, the use of these service providers is documented in government (Ammons and Glass, 1988), higher education (Lingenfelter, 2004), nonprofit organizations (Mckee and Froelich, 2016), and the medical field (Sherman *et al.*, 2006; Shannon, 2008). This multiplicity of industry served is reflected in their financial performance. For instance, in the US this is a sector that has been growing consistently, currently employs around 7,000 people and generated revenues of more than 12 billion US dollars in 2019 (C. Barnes & Co., 2020). This positive pattern appears to be similar around the globe. In early 2020, the Association of Executive Search Consultants released a special report indicating the industry continues to grow worldwide (Association of Executive Search and Leadership Consultants (AESC), 2020). The positive industry growth coupled with strong financial incentives and strong markets indicates that the field of executive recruitment will continue to grow as a desired career option in the future.

Still, executive recruitment is a profession that is not regulated in many countries. For instance, in the U.S. it is not standard to have certifications from professional bodies like the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) or Human Resource Certification Institute (HRCI) to provide search services or act as an executive recruiter. Similar situations exist in many developed countries with minimum or no regulations for this sector (Faulconbridge *et al.*, 2009). In fact, in an interview with Gerald Roche (Ettorre, 1994), a recognized executive headhunter in the industry, he mentioned that he was not initially prepared for this profession. Perhaps, understanding recruitment processes through a systematic approach will help to establish a universal approach to recruiting that will solidify the profession globally.

Method

To understand the executive recruiting process, we used two methodologies. First, we reviewed academic literature, and selected articles to narrow our research interest. Based on these findings, we proceeded to examine methodologies that allowed us to examine the process pedagogically. The methods surveyed suggested that using a task analysis was a valid approach. Integrating both methods allowed us to describe and map the process, thus providing practitioners and academics with an easy-to-understand process.

Systematic literature review

We carried out a systematic literature review defined by Machi and McEvoy (2016) as "a written argument that supports a thesis position by building a case from credible evidence obtained from previous research" (p. 5). EBSCOHost was used to gain access to the databases of Academic

Search Complete, Business Source Complete, SocIndex, and PsychInfo. JSTOR was also used to ensure theoretical breadth. Four keywords and their plural forms were used in this search: *headhunter(s), executive search firm(s), executive recruiter(s), and executive search consultant(s).* Further information was collected from other practitioners' publications such as academic books (e.g. Finlay & Coverdill, 2002; Garrison, 2005; Khurana, 2002). The literature search was conducted between the months of August and November of 2019. In our view, this selection presents traditional approaches followed by them and puts a side potential effect of the pandemic and technological advances that may create different methods. Microsoft Excel was used to organize and collect the needed information from each paper.

The results from these searches totaled 481 articles and periodicals. Many of the keywords gave duplicate results and after accounting for the duplicates the total dropped to 214 with 98 of these being academic journal articles. Several articles were accessed through interlibrary loan or third-party databases. Most of these ended up being periodicals and were not used for this paper as they were highly subjective, first-person accounts, or interviews of individuals. Of the 98 journal articles collected, 40 of them discussed aspects of the search process; where the rest of them mentioned search professionals in passing, explained the role of these professionals in the business world, how businesses can use search professionals, etc.

Task Analysis

Task analysis has been described in multiple ways. According to Drury (1983), the purpose of task analysis is to compare the steps of operation to the capabilities of the operator. Pascual-Leone, Greenberg, and Pascual-Leone (2009) describe the main strategy of task analysis as turning performance components into tasks that are ordered in time. Task analysis is the process on which a task is broken down into components to discover the needed actions for completion (Shipley, Stephen and Tawfik, 2018). These definitions all point to the same idea, that task analysis breaks down a task into a step-by-step understanding.

There are several methods of task analysis. McGrew (1997) describes three methods, each providing a different view of tasks for user computer interactions. Cognitive analysis, also known as cognitive task analysis (CTA), is used to explain task analysis methods that rely on assembly, analysis, and description of task information. Graph-matrix analysis uses graphs and matrices to extract the underlying structure of tasks. Finally, self-organizing neural networks can accumulate data and reveal relations of tasks (McGrew, 1997). Function analysis is presented as a related technique to task analysis by Drury (1983), in which function analysis looks at the overall level of the task. The idea of process analysis is discussed by Piso (1981) as a foundational aspect of task analysis.

Cognitive Task Analysis (CTA) is expanded on in various methods, two being goal-directed task analysis (GDTA) and (AH) abstraction hierarchy (Kaber *et al.*, 2006). CTA analyses knowledge, thought processes, and goal structures regarding cognitive tasks and has a wide range of uses, designing and improving computer systems, human-machine systems, and for training purposes. GDTA focuses on the operator's perception, comprehension, and projection needs to perform

tasks. AH on the other hand uses a hierarchal structured model with multiple levels of abstraction that define the purpose of technology as well as the physical components of the system. A lateral analysis style to cognitive task analysis would be hierarchal task analysis (HTA), a technique that places importance on the subtasks that need to be carried out to meet the goal of the analysis (Kirwan and Ainsworth, 1992). HTA will be the task analysis technique used to visually describe the headhunter process.

In addition, the history of Cognitive Task Analysis is shown to have roots older than task analysis itself, beginning with the introspection period of psychology, then moving to Taylor's (1911) study of Time and Motion in his infamous Principles of Scientific Management. Taylor focused on the observable and easily measured facets of work, which lead him to include the cognitive aspects as well (Militello and Hoffman, 2008). Other aspects of CTA that existed in history were retrospective interviewing techniques, studying humans at work, studying cognition, studying experts, reducing error, and designing technology to support humans. The realms that utilize task analysis are industry, computer science or technology, psychotherapy and psychology, the military, the education system, IT, industrial engineering, ergonomics, management, sociology, and international business (Piso, 1981; Drury, 1983; McGrew, 1997; Kaber *et al.*, 2006; Militello and Hoffman, 2008; Pascual-Leone, Greenberg and Pascual-Leone, 2009; Shipley, Stephen and Tawfik, 2018).

Task analysis has long-standing uses in education. Maria Montessori used it by breaking tasks down to their simplest level to help her students to achieve success (Snodgrass *et al.*, 2017). This reinforces the idea that task analysis can be used to map multiple steps. As Snodgrass *et al.* (2017) indicate there are three methods that can be used to teach task analysis; forward-chaining, backward-chaining, and total task teaching, which all vary in the independence required from the learner.

Using the educational aspects of task analysis as a pedagogical approach to understanding processes, one can see that task analysis is a strong method to outline the job process of headhunters. Inclusive of the team, task analysis highlights the interdependence that headhunters have upon their clients, their candidates, as well as the team they rely on to do their job effectively.

Headhunter Process

To begin, we will describe a high-level overview of the recruitment process. Job orders, assignments or contracts are the starting point in an executive search process. The full process can be seen in the flow chart (see Figure 1). Following the job order being obtained, the headhunter must build a candidate profile. This profile cannot be fully complete without the site visit in which the headhunter gains a feel for the environment and the employees and meets with the hiring manager and with human resources (HR) by going to the work location. This visit can lead to a re-evaluation of the candidate profile as well as one of the ways headhunters obtain *hot buttons* (a concept that we will elaborate more on other subheadings). Once the candidate profile matches knowledge, skills, experience, abilities, and other traits (KSAO's) with the company's culture and

job requirements, the headhunter then begins to fill the pool of placeable job candidates. The headhunter will call various contacts for references or referrals, scouring through his or her own collection of potential job candidates and contacts to find their most placeable candidate.

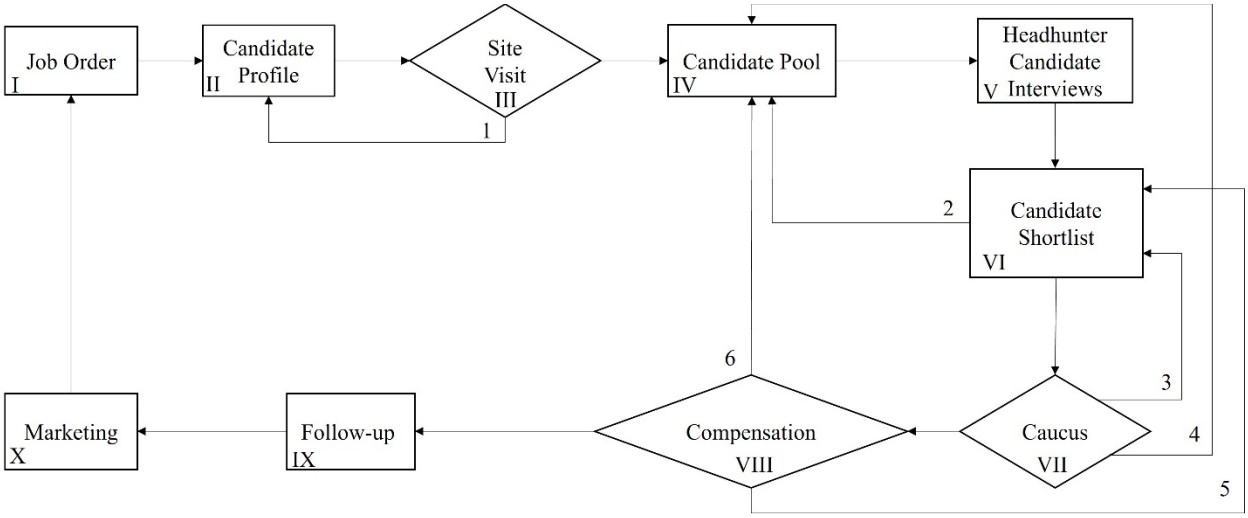

Figure 1. Steps on the Executive Search Process where the Headhunter intervenes

After the marketing and research period, the recruiter begins conducting interviews with job candidates that are willing to be included in the application process to create a short list to present to the client employer. Once the client employer receives this list, their review process takes over. After reviewing the candidate profiles provided, the client employer either rejects the entire list, requiring the headhunter to compile a new short list; or begins conducting initial interviews with the candidates whose resumes meet the client employer's expectations. These interviews between candidates and clients do not always lead to a placement (desirable candidate), so in those cases the recruiter must submit another list of candidates. At any point in this process, the candidate can drop out of the search, thus requiring the recruiter to go back to their pool and start presenting candidates again. Once a candidate is chosen, the compensation negotiation and final steps of the hiring process will take place. The headhunter is involved in this step to ensure that the client employer, job candidate, and recruiter all get the best possible outcomes for the placement. Once the candidate is hired, the headhunter will conduct a follow up with both the candidate and the client employer. This follow-up period can vary for every headhunter and every placement but it is important to ensure continued satisfaction on both the part of the client employer and newly placed candidate. Finally, the recruiter will use this positive placement as part of the marketing efforts to get new job orders.

Job Orders

Job orders or contracts are the bulk of headhunter's work, generated through contacts with potential client employers. Obtaining job orders, to be more specific, is an essential function of a recruiter's job (Dykeman and Dykeman, 1996; Finlay and Coverdill, 2000; Clerkin and Lee, 2010). Recruiters do this in one of three ways; through cold calls, client employer referrals, and/or

previous job candidates turned client employers (Herman, 2001). Cold calls are ranked in the lowest importance/effectiveness for headhunters (Finlay and Coverdill, 2000). These are done mostly by rookie headhunters who are working to make a name for themselves, or during dry spells for seasoned recruiters/firms. In their cold call attempts, they are also attempting to build a reputation in the community (Rohrmeier, Egan and Peisl, 2019), establishing their network one phone call at a time.

Previous job candidates who have turned into client employers are those who had meaningful experience with the headhunter who placed them. These former job candidates then call the headhunter as a client employer who needs someone for a position they are trying to fill (Baldo, 2015).

Lastly, the most important of the three ways to obtain job orders is through client employer referrals. These happen in two ways. The first is when a client employer calls a headhunter with a position and asks him or her to fill it (Finlay and Coverdill, 2000). Another way this happens is when the headhunter calls a previous client employer and secures a repeat job order from that client, calling at the right time. The client referrals are the area in which headhunters' relationship skills come into play (Clark and Salaman, 1998). Each of these job order techniques generate information in which the headhunter builds the job candidate profile for the position.

Candidate Profile

The candidate profile is where the client employer lays out the essential characteristics they are seeking in potential candidates. The client will send the recruiter the job description and the required knowledge, skill, experience, and education expectations for the candidates (Clark, 1993; Cappelli and Hamori, 2013a). Some client employers might recommend specific industries and companies for the headhunter to target and these can be included in the profile as well (Hamori, 2010; Fernandez-Mateo & Fernandez, 2016). Headhunters will seek to find out what the "hot buttons" (Finlay and Coverdill, 2002, p. 121) of the position are. These are key recruiting tools that are found by analyzing what the client finds important in his or her employees, in other words the unique knowledge, skills, abilities, experience, and values that will ensure a strong fit for the position (Clark, 1993; Coverdill and Finlay, 1998; Finlay and Coverdill, 1999; Lim and Chan, 2001; Fish and Macklin, 2004; Thorp, 2005; Dreher, Lee and Clerkin, 2011; Holgersson *et al.*, 2016). The also help headhunters in the recruitment process to peak the potential candidate's interest (Dykeman and Dykeman, 1996; Finlay and Coverdill, 1999). Each position will have a differing emphasis on candidate skills. If a headhunter can identify those traits quickly, they are more likely to place a successful candidate (Hamori, 2014).

A major service that headhunters provide for client employers while creating the candidate profile is by assisting in the shaping of expectations (Hamori, 2010; Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015). The reality of the labor market is one that is often not realized by hiring managers who are seeking new candidates (Beeson, 1965). Often, during recruitment for a C-Level position, with the help of the board of the directors and the headhunter, the client defines his or her ideal candidate (Clark, 1993). Recruiters should routinely ask questions during these interviews to establish the organizational culture (formal, informal, flat, hierarchal, etc.); the company policies and practices on diversity

and inclusion, and expectations of compensation, benefits, perks, and so forth. This information will allow the recruiter to build a candidate pool that meets employer needs.

Headhunters who receive job orders from existing clients will have an easier time with the candidate profile building as they are most likely going to be well acquainted with the company, the hiring manager, and the position (Nazmi, 2005). According to Hamori (2014) this insider knowledge gives headhunters a step above an organization's HR teams as they can mix their field knowledge with the insider knowledge and theoretically have a candidate in mind before the search process even begins. In this case, the headhunter would be familiar-enough with the company details that they would not need to perform a site visit. However, this will not be the case for all headhunters; so, a site visit will typically be an important next step.

Site Visit

The site visit is the period in which a recruiter is able to obtain more information about the *"*hot buttons*"* and culture of the organization and the individual position (Coverdill and Finlay, 1998; Lim and Chan, 2001). The recruiter will focus on meeting several people in the organization; the hiring manager, the people that will be reporting to the position needing to be filled, the person or people that the candidate will report to, and perhaps the board members who have control over the company (Berger, 1983; Dingman, 1993; Clark and Salaman, 1998; Mccannon, 2008). Each of these people will give the headhunter a different perspective on what will be expected of their candidate upon hire. During these interviews, the recruiter will be paying close attention to details about the future of the company and how the candidate will fit in with those plans (Dingman, 1993; Coverdill and Finlay, 1998). Each interview will be intensive to obtain as much information as possible to ensure that the candidates chosen will have the best possible fit with the company (Dingman, 1993; Coverdill and Finlay, 1998). This typically requires the site visit to be a multi-day process, getting to know all the areas of the organization.

Headhunters can also gain an outsider perspective of the organizational culture with the site visit. This first-hand experience will help when building the candidate pool. If the company has customers coming in and out regularly, such as with hotels and retail stores, then the recruiter will be able to gain insight from a guest or customer experience as well (Dingman, 1993). This may help to build a better company outlook for potential candidates and represent the client accurately to candidates (Kenny, 1978; Berger, 1983; Dingman, 1993; Clark and Salaman, 1998; Coverdill and Finlay, 1998). The collection of information gained during this visit will be compiled as the organization script (Dingman, 1993; Clark and Salaman, 1998). This script is essentially a guideline for how the candidate is going to be expected to operate, therefore the headhunter needs to be able to articulate that script to suitable candidates (Dingman, 1993; Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015), producing a candidate pool that are willing and able to perform under the company conditions included on the script.

A last area that makes the site visit important for headhunters is the role they play for the client initially. When a headhunter is called in to fill a position, often the hiring company may not know exactly what they are seeking in a candidate (Beeson, 1965; Berger, 1983). They may have

unrealistic expectations, and in that case the headhunter can provide the needed insight into what is to be expected when searching for candidates (Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015; Rohrmeier, Egan and Peisl, 2019). Furthermore, headhunters can help the hiring manager and board members gain a better sense of their priorities in the hiring process. For example, if a company has a high turn-over in a specific position, perhaps the headhunter should help identify the reason behind this prior to initiating a new recruiting phase. Based on these findings, the recruiter may be able to provide suggestions to the client employer about clarifying expectations before bringing new candidates in for review (Holgersson *et al.*, 2016).

Once the site visit is finished, the recruiter will write up an overview of what he/she learned (Dingman, 1993). This document will serve as a description of the organization's culture, the environment that their candidate will be entering, and the KSAO's that will be the best fit for the position. This may result in a modification of the original candidate profile (see Figure 1, step III, vector 1). The client will accept or reject the analysis of the organization, thus greenlighting or stopping the continuation of the candidate search.

Candidate Pool

Building a pool of candidates suitable for the job order, is an early stage in the recruitment process that receives considerable attention from executive recruiters. According to Hamori (2010) and Clark (1993), the hiring organization and search firm will create a list of companies and people to target. Typically a month-long endeavor, if not more, the headhunter usually has a research team who assists in developing the pool (Fernandez-Mateo and Fernandez, 2016). Extensive candidate databases and referrals collected over the years are the first areas reviewed (Faulconbridge *et al.*, 2009). Berger (1983, p. 56), explains how these databases are also referred to as the "applicant pool," and can include up to 50,000 candidate profiles. These databases are evaluated to find qualified candidates who are potentially interested in the open position, as well as hoping to pique the interest of the referral as a potential client (Berger, 1983; Faulconbridge *et al.*, 2009). The candidate pool includes those individuals in the database whose knowledge, skills, abilities, education, and experience fit the needs of the client employer. With technology advancing as quickly as it is and social media allowing a more public eye into people's lives, headhunters are using these tools to find potential candidates with considerably more speed than before (Reiter, 2010). A good example of this is LinkedIn, which has become a well-recognized site in which people use a profile with their resumes and potential job interests, allowing headhunters to collect details before the interview, thus accelerating the selection process. Fernandez-Mateo and Fernandez (2016) show that once the pool reaches about 50 or so candidates, the headhunter begins interviewing. Initial interviews are conducted over the phone, as the headhunter is discretely luring candidates to the job (Whitney, 1969; Bunce, 1984; Dykeman and Dykeman, 1996; Shulman and Chiang, 2007; Cappelli and Hamori, 2013a; Prabhu, 2013).

The candidates who receive the most focus from headhunters are those who are happy in their current positions (Clerkin and Lee, 2010). According to Finlay and Coverdill (1999), and Dreher *et al.* (2011), these "hidden candidates" who have the highest track record are seldom actively looking for work. In some instances, candidates are ready to consider new opportunities that

perhaps their current employers are not providing. They continue this idea by highlighting that candidates in this category are prize stock for the headhunter in that their recruitment would look good to the client company. Whitney (1969) shows that this practice is referred to as "pirating" or "poaching" and is frowned on when a company's HR department does it, but acceptable from headhunters. In these situations, headhunters operate with discretion to protect themselves, the client, and the potential candidate (Fish and Macklin, 2004). Headhunters must maintain a professional reputation, realizing that any company is a potential future client (Lim and Chan, 2001; Shulman and Chiang, 2007). The client employer is therefore protected as recruiters cannot risk portraying a client employer as a poacher. Finally, the candidate is also protected in that their involvement in a candidate search remains confidential until they resign (Shulman and Chiang, 2007).

Cappelli, & Hamori (2014) explain that headhunters use this initial contact with potential candidates as approval to be included in the candidate pool. The headhunter will then take their list of candidates and screen them against the job qualifications and move toward the second interview, conducted in-person (Fernandez-Mateo and Fernandez, 2016; Holgersson *et al.*, 2016). During each interview, recruiters are looking for the *hot buttons* or chemistry of each candidate, particularly in the face-to-face interviews. This chemistry is not mentioned in the job description given by the client company, but rather gathered from observation and conversation during the site visit and used by the headhunter when placing a candidate to ensure person/organization fit (Coverdill and Finlay, 1998). Ghee-Soon and Chan (2001) further the idea of "hot buttons" or chemistry as desirable characteristics of candidates such as creativity, cultural exposure, and previous work experience in the field that employers find desirable. However, with each position being different and each candidate being different, these desirable characteristics can change with every job order.

Short List

Once the candidate pool has been refined and organized, the executive recruiter will then choose 2 or 3 candidates whose KSAOs fit the position the best to present to the client (Shulman and Chiang, 2007). This presentation is usually done over the phone as well as in written form to explain the reasoning why they were chosen and to help expedite the selection process (Hamori, 2010; Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015; Fernandez-Mateo and Fernandez, 2016). The written document will detail the strengths and weaknesses of each candidate as well as what makes him or her stand out for this position (Berger, 1983). More detail will be given to candidate background and qualifications to be as comprehensive as possible (Shulman and Chiang, 2007). This information is obtained during the first round of interviews the headhunter will conduct without the client's involvement (Berger, 1983). These screening interviews add value to the headhunter's services to the client employer as candidates who do not best meet the client's needs are eliminated from the process. Coverdill, & Finlay (1998), point out that this is also where an employer client's "hot buttons" come into play, as identifying these potential deal-breakers can help the recruiter determine if the candidate will make the short list or not. Hamori (2014) brings attention to the idea that candidates who have been previously placed by the headhunter have a higher chance of making the short list than those who have never made the short list cut.

An indispensable aspect of the headhunter's job during this stage is preparation and grooming of the candidates (Clark and Salaman, 1998; Shulman and Chiang, 2007). Each company has its own internal culture, and the client employer will expect candidates to demonstrate knowledge of and agreement with this culture. Therefore, the headhunter becomes a "back-stage coach," aiming to demonstrate that the candidate knows the finer details about the company and position (Clark and Salaman, 1998). Future opportunities with the company and the position itself are also discussed, which helps the candidate remain interested in the new position. The goal is to present candidates who appear to be spontaneous and natural during the interview which comes across as confident and well prepared to the client (Shulman and Chiang, 2007). This is achieved through the process of mock interviews with the headhunter and/or someone from the headhunter team, as well as briefings of the candidates and ensuring a proper match for the company (Clark and Salaman, 1998). Once the short list is presented to the client, face-to-face evaluations between the client and candidates begin (Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015). In the event that the short-listed candidates are not aligned to the characteristics and/or not satisfying the client, the headhunter will go back to the candidate pool to build a new short list (see Figure 1, step VI, vector 2).

Client interviews/Caucus

After receiving the short list provided by the headhunter, clients will evaluate candidates for person/job and person/organization fit and move to the interviews. This interview is the first time clients and candidates will meet face-to-face and is typically setup by the headhunter (Clark and Salaman, 1998). If the client interviews all the short-listed candidates one at a time, and one candidate is eliminated (negative interview), the headhunter will bring in the next candidate on the shortlist (see Figure 1, step VII, vector 3). More commonly, the client interviews all short-listed candidates for a comparative approach. The headhunter will either attend this interview to help mediate the process for both parties or allow the parties to meet alone and then follow up afterwards (Berger, 1983). The reason for their attendance or lack thereof is based around the recruiter's role in the process, and the type of job order they are working under (contingency or retainer). If they attend, headhunters will help with the common problems of lining up client's needs and candidate's abilities as both parties may not have a full awareness of the characteristics they possess (Shulman and Chiang, 2007).

Depending on how the first interview goes, candidates may be invited back to the company for several more interviews before being moved to the next step of the process. Dingman (1993) explains that after these interviews are finished, the client will take some time to choose their favorite candidate from the short list. If none of the candidates are chosen, the headhunter will need to return to their candidate pool and submit another short list (see Figure 1, step VII, vector 4), reprocessing at that stage of the process (Fernandez-Mateo and Coh, 2015). If a candidate is chosen, the headhunter will be notified by the client and will be expected to participate in the final steps of the hiring process, including coaching candidates through the onboarding process (Rohrmeier, Egan and Peisl, 2019). Before the candidate is fully hired, it is expected that headhunters will communicate any previously unspoken nuances that the candidate may have, things that otherwise would not have jeopardized their selection (Kenny, 1978). For instance, some minimum expectations, other work conditions, and family relocation, among others.

For headhunters, these interviews can be a stressful time as it is the most crucial step in the selection process (Baldo, 2015). Having spent months of time selecting and preparing candidates for their client, executive recruiters are subject to the approval from several entities including but not limited to board members, the hiring authority, and in high-profile C-Suite positions, how the market will react to the candidate's placement (Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015; Westphal and Zhu, 2019).

Interaction with boards of directors as a part of the headhunter's services is typically considered *free work* and is an integral part of establishing the right cultural fit. Although it may not be mandatory to talk to each board member, it is recommended as a way to improve the likelihood of their candidate's placement. Ultimately, placing a candidate with the right fit helps to assure the client employer that a favorable image of the organization will continue to be promoted (Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015). With a pleased board, the search firm will be perceived positively and facilitate a further working relationship. Placing strong, successful candidates leads to the development of trusting relationships between recruiters and clients, which places the headhunter in the role of a true "business partner" (Rohrmeier, Egan and Peisl, 2019).

Although extensive information is shared with candidates, there are many instances where the recruiter will not release the identity of the client employer until just before the interviews (Baldo, Valle-Cabrera and Olivas-Lujan, 2019). Every step of the process can be thought of as an opportunity to share information between client, employer, and headhunter, and both will be expected to provide feedback along the way. This feedback loop becomes especially important for the final stages of hiring. According to Steuer *et al.* (2015), it is not enough for the candidate to be likable, they must also fit in with the culture of the company and position demands. A recruiter's extensive knowledge of both client employers and job candidates help ensure the best possible match for everyone

Compensation

The last step before the selection process is finished and a candidate is hired is the compensation negotiation. When an executive search firm is involved, the headhunter is expected to attend compensation negotiation meetings as they are in a better position to inform the committees in control of compensation of the state of the market and costs associated with obtaining candidates (Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015). In some cases, if the search is a C-level position some interaction with a compensation committee may be required. The role played by the headhunter is to help mediate between their client and the candidate, but they are also hoping to gain a higher payout by helping their candidate with salary; this applies more to contingency headhunters than retained headhunters, as retainers are guaranteed payment (Cronin, 1982; Muzio *et al.*, 2011; Cappelli and Hamori, 2013a; Skokic and Coh, 2017).

It is common that when using headhunters, the initial salary or compensation offer is not accepted by the candidate. This usually shows recognition of worth and ability of the candidate, as opposed to accepting a lower pay or not trying to negotiate (Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015). This also stems from the knowledge that most potential candidates will have compensation expectations, and these

must be fulfilled. A starting salary or compensation is defined by the client and headhunter early in the process. However, this is a reference element. As Finlay and Coverdill (2000) indicate, executive recruiters often mediate this issue between a client employer and a final candidate. Shulman and Chiang (2007) explored the idea that headhunters come in as a buffer for the negotiation, so candidates do not feel short-changed and clients feel like they are paying for quality. For headhunters this means acting as a mediator to help both parties achieve favorable outcomes.

In case the compensation negotiation fails and there are other short-listed candidates, the headhunter will pull another one from that group (see Figure 1, step VIII, vector 5). Otherwise, the recruiter should go back and create a new short list from the candidate pool (see Figure 1, step VIII, vector 6).

Follow-up

With compensation negotiated and the selection process finalized, headhunters, clients, and candidates will go their separate ways (Steuer, Abell and Wynn, 2015). Headhunters will continue with other searches, and the client-candidate relationship will start to unfold. During this time, the base expectation is that things will move forward smoothly; however, this is not always the case. Some candidates may not enjoy the new position/company and some clients or boards of directors may not like the chosen candidate over time. Either of these scenarios can lead to the candidate not remaining in the position. For headhunters this can mean two things, the first being that they may need to find another candidate to replace the failed one. This typically only applies to retained headhunters, as they are expected to guarantee their candidates' abilities for up to one year or less (Jones, 1989, p. 238). In the case of contingency headhunters, they may not provide such guarantees to their (previous) client (Guy, 2001; Hamori, 2010).

This gap between the two types of headhunters can set problems for the field overall. Steuer *et al.* (2015) detailed one problem it is that contingency headhunters are not well known for follow-up with their placement, leaving their client employer and job candidate dismayed if the relationship does not hold up. In other words, contingent recruiters are more oriented on the short term, making a placement and moving on. The situation is also complex when it comes to short-term job performance of a placed candidate (Hamori, 2010). A newly-placed candidate may not meet a client employer's performance expectations. Beyond a qualitative assessment from the candidate and client, executive recruiters do not have an objective measurement on this. On the other hand, (retainer) headhunters have a reputation to maintain, as they have more exclusive job orders, so they will be more motivated to follow up regularly (Guy, 2001). This follow-up can be anywhere from one month out to 12 months out, including various check-ups between this time (Dingman, 1993). Following up also helps headhunters to build arguments on their permanence or "stick rate". This refers to how a candidate holds up and feels in the position within the following two to three years (Berger, 1983). There is a clear understanding that a candidate's performance is difficult to obtain after they have been placed, so a follow-up helps to inform on that missing element (Hamori, 2010). This also reinforces a headhunter's *stick rate*, as they can gain a first-person account from the client and candidate about performance.

Marketing

Marketing is an area that changes depending on the field of focus. For executive search recruiters, their marketing tactics focus on obtaining job orders. Making several types of calls to clients and potential clients regarding their services: cold calls, marketing calls, and client calls are largely a marketing effort (Finlay and Coverdill, 2000). Cold calls are used mainly by rookie headhunters to build relationships and often result in high levels of rejection. These calls also come with a lot of competition, as potential clients will receive similar calls from multiple agencies and those without an established reputation may be overlooked. These entities are *pop-up* firms that are operated by professionals in career transition who may have industry contacts and some experience in recruiting or HR, who engage in recruiting until something better comes along. As we indicated before, this is a sector considered a contestable market, and easy to get in. This situation fuels the appearances of unknown firms without established *bona fides* of successful candidate placement.

Finlay and Coverdill (2000) continue with marketing calls next. These calls often take place when a headhunter is attempting to place a candidate without an existing job order. In this context, a headhunter uses their knowledge of the field and the client employer they are calling to open the door for a potential placement of an exceptional candidate that would be a great fit for the client employer. These types of placements provide a strong foundation for a successful relationship between the recruiter and client employer, opening the door for future candidate placements. Experienced headhunters often do not use cold or marketing calls, as their time is well taken up by existing clients or they are satisfied with the established relationships they have. Finally, the client call is the focal area for almost all executive recruiters. When they make or receive a client call, there is little advertising or convincing they need to obtain a new job order. When this call is made, it can come with either referrals for an open position in another company or an open position within that client's company, either way headhunters put much more stock into this type of call.

Some other areas of marketing activities that headhunters will engage in are more traditional looking, using advertisements, publicity, personal selling tactics, and sales promotion (Britton, Clark and Ball, 1992). These are usually cycled or mixed to enhance the likelihood of building one's reputation. These activities are used much less than calling, even cold calling, as they often do not bring direct job orders. Britton, Clark, and Ball (1992) continue by explaining that a headhunter will instead look at ways they can diversify for their existing clients, such as consulting and technological incorporations. This diversification can help ensure future referrals and thus job orders. Diversification highlights an area of executive search referred to as impression management; thus, the way headhunters frame and plant ideas about their services in potential client's minds (Clark and Salaman, 1998). Since existing clients tend to have a strong impression of their recruiter's ability from past experiences, the headhunter does not need to focus on this idea as much with repeat job orders, but they will need to continue to hold up the standard they have established. Loomes, Owens, and McCarthy (2019) show that many headhunters acknowledge the lack of effectiveness when it comes to advertising as it does not attract many candidates, and there is a consensus that only about 10% of candidates come from ads. Desirable candidates may not have the time to look for or respond to ads, but will have more motivation if they receive a call from a recruiter (Loomes, Owens and McCarthy, 2019).

Discussion & Conclusion

This paper presents a valuable idea. It describes in detail a process using a mix of methods (systematic literature review and task analysis) to document it. Although this paper indicates some previous research like Dingman (1993) and Finlay & Coverdill (2002) have reported many of the stages described, it is also made evident that other sources identified in this research add more detail or complement some of their previous findings. As the diagram presented early in the paper, we can see that headhunters follow a cyclical process. This procedure turns complex during the candidate pool and the client interview stages. The complexity at this level is associated with the dependency on others to reach the next step.

From the methodology standpoint, integrating these two methods presents an interesting approach that may be considered to understand other business processes and professions in the business realm. However, although the process described appears well-documented in the literature, our research may have limitations concerning practitioners' point of view. As indicated, we largely considered papers from academic journals in the systematic literature review. We have developed a standard process, but that does not imply it to be universal, as some variants can be found in existing firms. A future extension of this research would be to validate this process using, for instance, a Delphi model or panel of experts. We must also address a potential task analysis weakness. This method relates to observable patterns, not necessarily to the perceptual or cognitive processes. Thus, this paper does not intend to explain the headhunter's rationale.

Additionally, we would like to acknowledge that in several instances, the sources are outdated. This situation relates to the limited numbers of papers obtained by the literature review. This topic (executive search firms) seems to be cyclical. Almost every decade, there is an interest in research for executive recruitment. Thus, some scholarly contributions appear. Then, after a period, there are no academic contributions. We strongly suggest a bibliometric study to define the main subtopics and timing on the executive search firms research process.

Contrary to traditional recruitment and selection (in-house), on which there is an internal client; the client is an outsider for the executive recruitment process. Therefore, this latter must be treated as such; a client who pays for services. In other words, we think some of the traditional recruitment assurances diverge from those executed by headhunters. When HR departments manage recruitment, and the results are negative most companies go back to conduct a new search with the same HR staff. This may not be the case for headhunters. In the executive recruiting profession, past performance is the primary source of new business, so there is not much space to maneuver or fail.

As we indicated, this paper's purpose was to explain, using a systematic literature review and a task analysis, a step-by-step executive recruitment process. This was achieved. This paper contributes to those practitioners in this sector and those who use them (clients or candidates), a comprehensive outline to understand the headhunter's operation. From an academic angle, it provides a non-traditional approach or methods to achieve its objectives.

References

Ammons, D. N. and Glass, J. J. (1988) 'Headhunters in Local Government: Use of Executive Search Fi', *Public administration review*, 48(3), p. 687. Available at: http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb?did=708892&Fmt=7&clientId=47565&RQT=309&VName=PQD.

Association of Executive Search and Leadership Consultants (AESC) (2012) 'The candidate's Bill of Rights'. http://members.aesc.org/eweb/DynamicPage.aspx?webcode=CandidateRights: Association of Executive Search and Leadership Consultants.

Association of Executive Search and Leadership Consultants (AESC) (2020) 'Executive Talent', *Executive Talent*. Association of Executive Search and Leadership Consultants. doi: 10.4324/9781351311007.

Baldo, C. (2015) *The Client-Headhunter-Candidate relationship from the Agency Theory perspective*. Universidad Pablo de Olavide.

Baldo, C., Valle-Cabrera, R. and Olivas-Lujan, M. (2019) 'Executive Recruitment Triads from an Agency Theory Perspective', *Administrative Issues Journal Education Practice and Research*. Administrative Issues Journal: Education, Practice and Research, 9(1), pp. 1–18. doi: 10.5929/9.1.6.

Baumol, W. J. (1982) 'Contestable Markets: An Uprising in the Theory of Industry Structure', *The American Economic Review*. Citeseer, 72(1), pp. 1–15.

Beaverstock, J. V., Faulconbridge, J. R. and Hall, S. J. E. (2010) 'Professionalization, legitimization and the creation of executive search markets in Europe', *Journal of Economic Geography*. doi: 10.1093/jeg/lbp058.

Beeson, W. (1965) 'Ethics and Executive Search', *Management Review*, 54(7), p. 59.

Berger, F. (1983) 'Executive Search: The Headhunter as Matchmaker', *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 24(1), pp. 55–61. doi: 10.1177/001088048302400110.

Britton, L. C., Clark, T. A. R. and Ball, D. F. (1992) 'Executive search and selection: Imperfect theory or intractable industry?', *The Service Industries Journal*. doi: 10.1080/02642069200000025.

Bunce, M. E. (1984) 'An Examination of Placement Services Available to Job Seekers: A Review of Laypersons' Literature', *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 21(4), pp. 175–181. doi: 10.1002/j.2161-1920.1984.tb00801.x.

Byrne, J. (1986) *The Headhunters*. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.

C. Barnes & Co. (2020) *2020 U.S. Industry & Market report (NAICS 561312): Executive Search Service Industry*.

Cappelli, P. and Hamori, M. (2013a) *Understanding Executive Job Search*, *Organization Science*. doi: 10.1287/orsc.2013.0871.

Cappelli, P. and Hamori, M. (2013b) *Who Says Yes When the Headhunter Calls? Understanding Executive Job Search*, *Planta*. doi: 10.3386/w19295.

Clark, T. (1993) 'Selection Methods used by Executive Search Consultancies in Four European Countries: A Survey and Critique', *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*. Wiley Online Library, 1(1), pp. 41–49. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-2389.1993.tb00082.x.

Clark, T. and Salaman, G. (1998) 'Creating the "Right" Impression: Towards a Dramaturgy of Management Consultancy', *The Service Industries Journal*. London, United Kingdom, London: Taylor & Francis Ltd., 18(1), pp. 18–38. doi: 10.1080/02642069800000002.

Clerkin, T. A. and Lee, J. Y. (2010) 'Executive search relationships-contacts between executives and search firm professionals: Scale development and validation', *Organisation Management Journal*, 7(3), pp. 208–228. doi: 10.1057/omj.2010.29.

Coverdill, J. E. and Finlay, W. (1998) 'Fit and skill in employee selection: Insights from a study of headhunters', *Qualitative Sociology*, 21(2), pp. 105–127. doi: 10.1023/A:1023464326912.

Crawshaw, J. R. and Game, A. (2015) 'The role of line managers in employee career management: an attachment theory perspective', *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 26(9), pp. 1182–1203. doi: 10.1080/09585192.2014.934886.

Cronin, C. A. (1982) 'Survey shows brighter outlook for older executives.', *Aging & Work*, 5(1), pp. 7–13.

Deutsch, M. (2017) *How Recruiters Make Money and Get Paid*, *Top Echelon*. Available at: https://www.topechelon.com/blog/how-do-recruiters-make-money-get-paid/.

Dingman, H. B. (1993) 'The Right Fit: Executive Search by Retained Recruiters', *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*. doi: 10.1177/001088049303400607.

Dreher, G. F., Lee, J. Y. and Clerkin, T. A. (2011) 'Mobility and cash compensation: The moderating effects of gender, race, and executive search firms', *Journal of Management*. doi: 10.1177/0149206310365728.

Drury, C. G. (1983) 'Task analysis methods in industry', *Applied Ergonomics*, 14(1), pp. 19–28. doi: 10.1016/0003-6870(83)90215-6.

Dykeman, C. and Dykeman, J. J. (1996) 'Big-Five Personality Profile of Executive Search Recruiters', *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 33(2), pp. 77–86. doi: 10.1002/j.2161-1920.1996.tb00438.x.

Ettorre, B. (1994) 'Gerald Roche: High-powered headhunter', *Management review*, 83(7), p. 60. Available at: http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb?did=26330&Fmt=7&clientId=47565&RQT=309&VName=PQD.

Faulconbridge, J. R. *et al.* (2009) 'The "war for talent": The gatekeeper role of executive search firms in elite labour markets', *Geoforum*. doi: 10.1016/j.geoforum.2009.02.001.

Fernandez-Mateo, I. and Coh, M. (2015) 'Coming with baggage: Past rejections and the evolution of market relationships', *Organization Science*, 26(5), pp. 1381–1399. doi: 10.1287/orsc.2015.0995.

Fernandez-Mateo, I. and Fernandez, R. M. (2016) 'Bending the pipeline? Executive search and gender inequality in hiring for top management jobs', *Management Science*, 62(12), pp. 3636–3655. doi: 10.1287/mnsc.2015.2315.

Finlay, W. and Coverdill, J. E. (1999) 'The search game: Organizational conflicts and the use of headhunters', *Sociological Quarterly*, 40(1), pp. 11–30. doi: 10.1111/j.1533-8525.1999.tb02356.x.

Finlay, W. and Coverdill, J. E. (2000) 'Risk, opportunism, and structural holes: How headhunters manage clients and earn fees', *Work and Occupations*, 27(3), pp. 377–405. doi: 10.1177/0730888400027003006.

Finlay, W. and Coverdill, J. E. (2002) *Headhunters Matchmaking in the Labor Market*. 2002: Cornell University Press.

Fish, A. and Macklin, R. (2004) 'Perceptions of executive search and advertised recruitment attributes and service quality', *Personnel Review*. Farnborough, United Kingdom, Farnborough, 33(1), pp. 30–54. doi: 10.1108/00483480410510615.

Garrison, N. (2005) *Headhunters and how to Use Them*. London: Profile Books Ltd.

Ghosh, R. and Reio, T. G. (2013) 'Career benefits associated with mentoring for mentors: A meta-analysis', *Journal of Vocational Behavior*. Elsevier Inc., 83(1), pp. 106–116. doi: 10.1016/j.jvb.2013.03.011.

Gokuladas, V. K. (2010) 'Factors that influence first-career choice of undergraduate engineers in software services companies: A south Indian experience', *Career Development International*, 15(2), pp. 144–165. doi: 10.1108/13620431011040941.

Guy, C. W. (2001) 'Eroding ethics of executive search', *Consulting to Management*, 12(3), pp. 51–56.

Hamori, M. (2004) *Executive search and selection with mediation: The role of executive search firms in executive succession*. University of Pennsylvania. Available at: http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb?did=766277971&Fmt=7&clientId=47565&RQT=309&VName=PQD.

Hamori, M. (2010) 'Who gets headhunted - And who gets ahead? The impact of search firms on executive careers', *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 24(4), pp. 46–59. doi: 10.5465/AMP.2010.55206384.

Hamori, M. (2014) 'Executive career success in search-firm-mediated moves across employers', *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(3), pp. 390–411. doi: 10.1080/09585192.2013.789443.

Herman, B. K. (2001) 'Working with recruiters. Physicians sound off in CyberForums about their experiences with recruiters.', *Physician executive*, 27(4), pp. 32–36.

Holgersson, C. *et al.* (2016) 'Executive search as ethnosociality', *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*. SAGE Publications, 16(2), pp. 153–169. doi: 10.1177/1470595816660122.

Jones, S. (1989) *The Headhunting Business*. London: The Macmillan Press LTD.

Kaber, D. B. *et al.* (2006) 'Using multiple cognitive task analysis methods for supervisory control interface design in high-throughput biological screening processes', *Cognition, Technology and Work*, 8(4), pp. 237–252. doi: 10.1007/s10111-006-0029-9.

Kenny, R. M. (1978) 'Executive Search Today', *California Management Review*, 20(4), pp. 79–83. doi: 10.2307/41164785.

Khurana, R. (2002) *Searching for a Corporate Savior: The Irrational Quest for Charismatic CEO*. Princeton University Press.

Kirwan, B. and Ainsworth, L. (1992) *A guide to task analysis: the task analysis working group*. Press, CRC.

Knight, R. (2015) 'When the Competition Is Trying to Poach Your Top Employee', *Harvard*

Business Review, pp. 2–7. Available at: https://hbr.org/2015/09/when-the-competition-is-trying-to-poach-your-top-employee.

Koch, R. (2013) *The 80/20 manager: The secret to working less and achieving more*. 1st edn. Little, Brown and Company.

Levine, K. A. (2013) 'History Repeats Itself: Parental Involvement in Children's Career Exploration.', *Canadian Journal of Counselling and Psychotherapy*, 47(2), pp. 239–255.

Lim, G. S. and Chan, C. (2001) 'Ethical values of executive search consultants', *Journal of Business Ethics*, 29(3), pp. 213–226. doi: 10.1023/A:1026449716344.

Lingenfelter, M. (2004) 'Presidential search consultants in higher education: A review of the literature', *Higher Education in Review*, 1(2001), pp. 33–58.

Loomes, S., Owens, A. and McCarthy, G. (2019) 'Patterns of recruitment of academic leaders to Australian universities and implications for the future of higher education', *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*. Routledge, 41(2), pp. 137–152. doi: 10.1080/1360080X.2019.1565296.

Machi, L. A. and McEvoy, B. (2016) *The Literature Review: Six Steps to Success*. 3rd Editio. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Mccannon, B. C. (2008) 'Excessive labour raiding', *Economica*, 75(297), pp. 140–147. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-0335.2007.00604.x.

McGrew, J. (1997) 'A Comparison of Three Methods of Task Analysis: Cognitive Analysis, Graph-Matrix Analysis, and Self-organizing Networks', *International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction*, 9(1), pp. 41–57. doi: 10.1207/s15327590ijhc0901.

Mckee, G. and Froelich, K. (2016) 'Executive Succession Planning: Barriers and Substitutes in Nonprofit Organizations', *Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics*, 87(4), pp. 587–601. doi: 10.1111/apce.12129.

Militello, L. G. and Hoffman, R. R. (2008) 'The Forgotten History of Cognitive Task Analysis', *Proceedings of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society Annual Meeting*, 52(4), pp. 383–387. doi: 10.1177/154193120805200439.

Muzio, D. *et al.* (2011) 'Towards corporate professionalization: The case of project management, management consultancy and executive search', *Current Sociology*. doi: 10.1177/0011392111402587.

National Association of Executive Recruiters (2014) *Code of Ethics*. National Association of Executive Recruiters. Available at: http://www.naer.org/code-of-ethics/.

Nazmi, B. (2005) 'How to get the best from a headhunter: Responding to an approach, seeking out opportunities', *Business Information Review*, 22(4), p. 227. doi: 10.1177/0266382105060599.

Pascual-Leone, A., Greenberg, L. S. and Pascual-Leone, J. (2009) 'Developments in task analysis: New methods to study change', *Psychotherapy Research*, 19(4–5), pp. 527–542. doi: 10.1080/10503300902897797.

Piccolo, J. D. (2012) 'Executive Search Firms', in Rothwell, W. and Prescott, R. (eds) *The Encyclopedia of Human Resource Management*. Pfeiffer: A Wiley Imprint, pp. 213–216. doi: 10.1002/9781118364741.ch38.

Piso, E. (1981) 'Task analysis for process-control tasks: The method of Annett et al. applied', *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 54(4), pp. 247–254. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8325.1981.tb00065.x.

Prabhu, P. (2013) 'A Study on Cost Effective Method of Recruitment At Kgisl', *International Journal of Research in Commerce & Management*, 4(9), pp. 59–66.

Reiter, D. (2010) 'Recruiting High-Level Executives Remains a Relationship Business', *Employment Relations Today*, 37(3), pp. 33–39. doi: 10.1002/ert.

Rohrmeier, J., Egan, T. and Peisl, T. (2019) 'Trust in Executive Search - the Client's Perspective', *Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics*, 16(1), pp. 73–85. doi: 10.33423/jlae.v16i1.1365.

Shannon, D. (2008) 'Physician executive job market appears strong.', *Physician executive*, 34(4), p. 2008.

Sherman, R. *et al.* (2006) 'Why Take the Call ? Firms', *Nurse Leader*, pp. 29–31.

Shipley, S. L., Stephen, J. S. and Tawfik, A. A. (2018) 'Revisiting the Historical Roots of Task Analysis in Instructional Design', *TechTrends*. TechTrends, 62(4), pp. 319–320. doi: 10.1007/s11528-018-0303-8.

Shulman, B. and Chiang, G. (2007) 'When to Use an Executive Search Firm and How to Get the Most Out of the Relationship', *Employment relations today*, 34(1), p. 13. Available at: http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb?did=1259350731&Fmt=7&clientId=47565&RQT=309&VName=PQD.

Skokic, V. and Coh, M. (2017) 'How do executive search firms increase interest in career opportunities? The role of past interactions', *European Management Journal*, 35(4), pp. 505–513. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2017.02.008.

Snodgrass, M. R. *et al.* (2017) 'One Step at a Time: Using Task Analyses to Teach Skills', *Early Childhood Education Journal*. Springer Netherlands, 45(6), pp. 855–862. doi: 10.1007/s10643-017-0838-x.

Steuer, M., Abell, P. and Wynn, H. (2015) 'Head-hunter methods for CEO selection', *Journal of General Management*, 41(1), pp. 3–24. doi: 10.1177/030630701504100102.

Taylor, F. (1911) *The Principles of Scientific Management*. New York, N. Y.: Harper & Brothers Publishers.

Thorp, E. (2005) 'Recruitment Perspectives Head-hunters and their prey', *Journal of Medical Marketing*, 5(2), pp. 179–181. doi: 10.1057/palgrave.jmm.5040225.

Westphal, J. D. and Zhu, D. H. (2019) 'Under the radar: How firms manage competitive uncertainty by appointing friends of other chief executive officers to their boards', *Strategic Management Journal*, 40(1), pp. 79–107. doi: 10.1002/smj.2966.

Whitney, K. (1969) 'Ethics for Recruiting Employees and Executives', *Management of Personnel Quarterly*, pp. 13–16.

Correlation of Motivations to View Social Media Video Advertisements with Willingness to View Future Advertisements

Mokhlisur Rahman, University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Charles A. Lubbers, University of South Dakota

Abstract

Most people are familiar with the concept of video ads that appear online, including in social media platforms. An online survey was conducted at division 1 school in the Great Plains of the USA. The survey looked for user motivations for viewing Facebook video ads. The conceptual framework for this study was chosen as the Uses and Gratifications Theory (UGT). Drawing on the UGT, the study uses a previously established and supported scale used in previous uses and gratification studies to measure the correlation among results. All the participants in this study were university students. The study's objective was to determine if there was any correlation between video entertainment, video informativeness, video irritation, video credibility, overall consumer impression, consumer behavior, and consumer willingness to receive more video ads. Five out of six measurements showed statistically significant, positive associations; these include a correlation between the video ads' entertaining power, informativeness, credibility, consumer attitudes after watching ads, and consumer willingness to receive more video ads. On the other hand, irritation with video ads proved to be an amotivator and is negatively associated with the willingness to receive more video ads, as was expected. This study measures the association and cannot predict the impact among the variables and finally concludes by offering recommendations for future studies that need to focus on finding social media ads' influence on purchases.

Keywords: Uses and Gratifications Theory, Facebook, Online Advertising

---

Correlation of Motivations to View Social Media Video Advertisements with Willingness to View Future Advertisements

INTRODUCTION

Social media enables users to create and modify content (Rauniar et al., 2013), allowing practitioners to better understand user behavior. The emergence of modern social media dates back to the days when technologies became more engaging and participative (Dhingra & Mudgal, 2019). Then, a new community was created during the move from traditional media to the new media age. The community can easily exchange information regarding a particular brand and relate to the social and psychological brand communities (Carlson et al., 2008). Building a long-term relationship between a business and its potential consumers is tricky (Jackson, 1985). Still, the emergence of social media platforms has initiated new tools and features that encourage consumers to be more committed and loyal to brands (eclincher, 2017).

Due to the fast growth of social media networks and their enormous numbers of active users, companies started extending their marketing efforts to popular social media platforms (Dwivedi et al., 2021). The primary focus of social media advertisements was to increase brand awareness and boost consumer engagement by strengthening consumer commitments to the brand (Kang et al., 2014). Marketers need to specify the factors influencing their consumers to buy particular products. Analyzing social media advertisements that have successfully stimulated consumers to make purchasing decisions is essential to make the business more accessible to consumers from different backgrounds (Karnegari et al., 2013). Consumers often influence others among their close networks by recommending products. Marketers read the consumers' feedback and address consumers as opinion leaders who influence others to make the purchasing decision (Raghupathi & Fogel, 2013). Thus, for years social media advertisements have been important for brand marketing.

Market research indicates the upward growth of social media advertising is becoming highly monetized. Business to consumer marketers are seeing increased acquisition costs, but are still highly focused on engagement rates, including those in social media, as a primary focus of their marketing strategy (Schultz, 2025). Marketers know that global internet users spend an average of two hours and 24 minutes on social media daily (Howarth, 2025). To fulfill the demands for more unique ways to reach out to consumers, video ads on social media are replacing the traditional way of promoting a product on TV because of its digital content management (Dwivedi et al., 2021). According to Collins and Conley (2022), audiences spend an average of 19 hours a week watching videos online. Video ads appear with the videos, which is evidence of the importance of brands advertising in this media. It is fun and exciting and can promote brands at a lower cost than traditional television advertising. Therefore, to get the benefit of social media advertising, marketers need to know what motivates consumers to like the advertisement enough to watch it rather than skip it.

Statement of the Problem

Because there are currently at least 4.26 billion social media users worldwide, and that number is expected to be 6 billion users by 2027, it has become critical to understand the behavioral reaction of consumers on these social media platforms (Barnhart, 2022; Statista, 2022b). Understanding consumers' behaviors involves analyzing all kinds of actions consumers take while using social media (Hotjar, 2022). Consumers on social media spend time for emotional and transactional reasons, depending on how the particular social media platform was designed for them (Singh et al., 2020). Watching advertisements requires consumers' time, money to purchase the internet data, and patience to wait for the main content on social networking sites. Therefore, consumers look for content that can be beneficial or aligned with their life values. If consumers consider the message irrelevant or not authentic, they are likely to avoid or ignore it, which conflicts with the purpose of the advertisement (Kelly et al., 2010). Marketers benefit when they can determine the motivating factors behind successful social media advertisements (Arca, 2012). Such factors are prerequisites for a healthy relationship between consumers and brands. Based on consumers' preferences, the advertisement should fulfill consumer needs, and this increases consumer engagement. Advertising is also designed to create intention when intention does not already exist and sometimes ads create need for consumers who may not know or think there is a need. This investigation aims to find the user motivations behind social media video advertising using Facebook as a platform. Facebook was chosen as the social media platform because of its long-term status as a leading platform and because Americans spend an average of 31 minutes per day on Facebook and 93% of marketers use Facebook for advertising (Howarth, 2025). However, not all social media advertising is equally effective. Nobre and Silva (2014) found that Facebook ads need to be more engaging. For example, dialogue with the consumers through ads in a sense to make the ads more interactive. This also confirms how important it is to understand user behavior on Facebook to serve consumers' different intentions (Latka, 2014).

The goal of this study was to find factors that significantly correlate with consumers' willingness to watch future social media video ads. The study begins by reviewing the previous literature to determine what is currently known about user motivation for watching video ads, as well as to establish the theoretical foundation for the investigation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Uses and Gratification Theory

Uses and Gratifications Theory is concerned with the human motivation behind using media. The theory is audience-centered in mass communication in a broader sense. The theory illustrates that audiences search media and consume content to feed their personal needs (Katz & Foulkes, 1962). In this theory, the audiences actively recognize their own selective needs to gratify them through media (Blumler, 1979). This was the first theoretical concept that introduced a passive role of media and an active role of the audience in the media effects arena (Dolan et al., 2016). Audiences find an interesting variety of programs in the media, still, they select one and continue watching because their desires have been satisfied. Audiences select content motivated by gratifications such

as knowledge enhancement, social interaction, entertainment, and relaxation (Sepp et al., 2011). That is why the theory is more about what people do with media rather than discussing what media does for them. So, this theory's core idea is to find out why people knowingly select certain media content to gratify their needs. The theory has two fundamental premises: audiences are variably active in content selection and communication and understand the media effects from audience motivation and behavior (Rubin, 1993).

The principal objectives of the Uses and Gratifications Theory are to determine how users use media to gratify their needs, what motivates them to conduct media behavior, and finally what behavioral actions they take (Katz et al., 1974; Rubin, 2002). The theory focuses on two types of needs that users desire to fulfill; social needs and psychological needs that creates an expectation among the users and lead to taking actions which expects to create more unknown desires (Rubin, 2002). Because individuals have different perspectives and motives to view content, it depends on the individuals' initiatives what will be their next consequential behavior (Rubin & Windahl, 1986). The communication process in this theory is a voluntary form of communication where audiences do it for their own needs; the media does not make the audience take an action (Shade et al., 2015).

The Uses and Gratification Theory stresses the power that individuals play over the media; thus, the same media content can impact different media users in different ways since the users hold the power (Vinney, 2019). Users consume media content to fulfill their information, entertainment, and mood management desires. Shao's (2009) findings support the idea that users consume, participate in content creation, and produce content for various purposes. The category of consuming refers to the audience's passive viewing of media. The participation in and production of media content involves the creation of media content. Users' gratification in new media such as Facebook, Twitter, TikTok and Instagram is being used in negative ways too (Shabahang, 2022). For example, users are considering risky behavior to enhance their fame in social media like getting likes which is Paralinguistic Digital Affordances PDA (Shabahang, 2022). Additionally, the study found people use social media's black market to get likes and this may increase the likelihood of maladaptive fame-seeking behaviors in social media users. Meng and Leung (2021) assessed gratification on social media and found the gratifications that users desired were escape, fashion, entertainment, information seeking, money making, sociability, navigability, modality, and interactivity. This study found that the people who were more open to experience new things tended to create more content on social media and being more narcissist with attitudes and more prone to give likes and comments on other content. The current investigation uses six variables that are correlated with the consumers' willingness to receive more Facebook video ads; which is aligned with the uses and gratification theory model. Figure 1 presents the functional model that has been used in this research. The figure shows entertainment, informativeness, irritation, credibility, overall impression, and consumer behavior as consumer needs and to fulfill these needs consumers view video ads in Facebook. The results section will show how these needs express the association with one another to understand how willing the consumers are to receive further video ads.

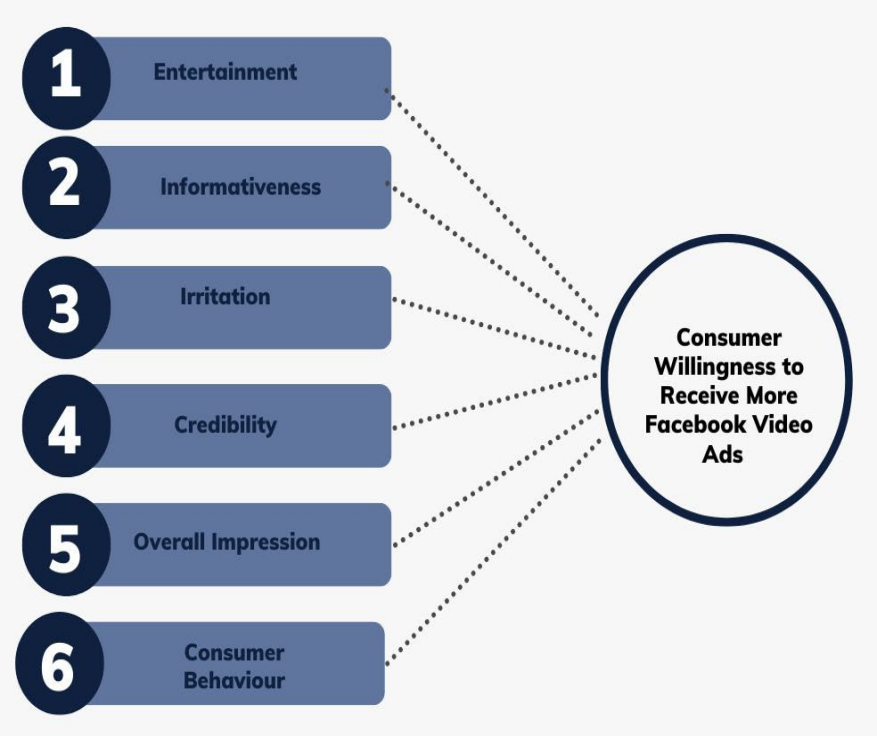

Figure 1. Model of Uses and Gratifications Theory Based on the Variables

Advertisements and Uses and Gratification Theory

Advertisement is one of a brand's most useful marketing techniques on social media, and Facebook is the top choice for ad optimization tools (Nath, 2022). It is essential to master the skills of making impactful ads because it is required for the competitive social media market (Nath, 2022). After placing the first ad on social media networks, marketers must review all the feedback, such as shares and comments. A useful feature of Facebook is when a friend recommends a brand to another friend by simply mentioning the brand's name, the mention will appear in the review tab of that brand's Facebook page (Bojkov, 2021). Audiences' praise regarding the video can direct the marketers on what they need to adopt next time. It works like a tracking tool. The form of gratification of a user becomes successful when the user finds that the advertisement is helpful and provides enough information about the product. Users may also share the advertisement with their friends and family to achieve a reputation. Yang et al. (2019) discovered consumers not only seek information from Facebook business pages but also visit business pages for social reasons such as the desire to be a part of the user community. Consumer share advertisements with their community to increase their social gratifications level (Hustead, 2012). Consumers use social media live streams to fulfill their desires and that may lead to purchasing products (Bawach et al., 2023).

Social Media Usage and Emotional Engagement Result in the Intention to Buy

Emotional engagements and emotional preferences with social media are crucial to understanding for conducting market research, affect the buying process, and impact the business in a broader sense (Turnbull et al., 2004). Purchasing intention is a result of various forms of stimuli that marketers have studied for many years. It is one of the top strategies that help marketers learn consumers' behavioral actions. The statistics on social media usage and consumer behavioral reaction to certain successful advertisements of an old product can help determine consumers' purchasing intention for the next product. Also, purchasing intention can predict consumer sales (Morwitz, 2012). Basically, there is a relation between purchasing intention and purchasing, and the strength of this relationship depends on how a business utilizes its information to predict future sales. For example, knowing consumer behavior is helpful to understanding the demand, but it also helps to predict an overview of the market demand. Marketers need specific information on the product's effectiveness in the market. Social media video ads work like tracking tools to measure the reaction, such as Facebook reactions. Facebook likes, shares, and comments are useful tools to know consumer insight and how to use Facebook audience insights for market research (Tomaro, 2018).

Use of social media significantly impacts on consumer buying intention (Kusumo et al., 2020). A study by Froget et al. (2013) found nine strongest motivations behind using Facebook as information, entertainment, discussion, connect, shop, game, update, product inquiry, and impression management. The presence of attention-grabbing details, celebrity endorsement, and emotional appeal in the video ads in social media found to have a significant impact on consumers buying intention (K V et al., 2021). The above-mentioned psychological motivations clearly include the quest for knowledge, and social media, such as Facebook, feed the cognitive desire of consumers. Business firms find social media sites suitable for advertisements because consumers anticipate quality updates for products and promotions on social media platforms, and media engagement is high on the platforms (Voorveld et al., 2018).

Facebook as a Video Advertising Platform

Dixon (2024) notes the dominance of Facebook in social media use in the United States by stating that there were 246 million users in 2023 and "after the ninth consecutive increasing year, the Facebook user base is estimated to reach 262.8 million users and therefore a new peak in 2028." Facebook's brand awareness among users is high. As of June 2022, 94% of the people in the US use social media and Facebook's brand awareness is high in that group of social media users, since 68% of the social media users expressed that they are likely to be using Facebook next time (Statista, 2022a). According to Dobrilova (2022), in 2021, Facebook had 1.84 billion daily active users. Businesses of all sizes target Facebook's users as prospective consumers to advertise products (Coursera, 2022). Around 86% of the marketers who used video ads claimed that their traffic has increased after using video ads (Mrkonjić, 2022). Social media video advertising seems to be the most effective mode of advertisement on a medium that is saturated with messages and effective for increasing conversion (Yaary, 2020). Almost all social media advertisements contain content increasing consumers' brand awareness, making Facebook an ideal communication

channel for promoting products. It is not only the fastest and easiest way to circulate the ads but also allows the users to share anything within their community, bringing a big revenue to companies. More than 60% of the companies increased their advertising budgets on Facebook in 2021, and Facebook made revenue of $84.17 billion from advertising in 2020 (Databox, 2022).

Targeting a market and promoting the product to that market can be challenging for a business. According to Chaffey (2022), 59% of the world population uses social media and the daily average is 2 hours and 29 minutes. The social network is built based on the relationships of similar interests and perceptions (Curran et al., 2011). Importantly the users can set their preferences on what they would like to see further, and this customization allows them to find what they want. Facebook can customize ads and bring the suggestion of the ads from pages they viewed or liked, or their friends liked (Bojkov, 2021). Facebook offers networked socializing without making people move physically. Creating one Facebook page for a business is undoubtedly one of the most effective tools to create an audience network without paying and is a good platform to advertise.

Facebook video ads are very effective, innovative, and, importantly, engaging for consumers (Tikno, 2016). These ads can be single-image, collective, carousel, or video ads that come right in the news feed when you scroll down. They look very similar to the original posts on the feed made by friends, mutual friends, and family members. Instantly they can grab the attention of anyone who's been scrolling. Dopson (2021) found that 60% of marketers find Facebook video ads more engaging than image ads. Through some online social media groups and forums, the ads receive reactions, including being shared, recommended, or receiving comments. Various products get shared, recommendations, and comments. Sharing ads can support good products and earn credits from friends and family. The reactions of social media communities influence the intention of consumers to buy a particular product (Hajli, 2014).

Facebook's advertising is measured by timing, quality of the videos, duration, size, and entertaining power, and these determine whether the ad will be successful or not (Yaary, 2021). Sometimes the advertising value fluctuates based on the level of distribution of messages. Because consumers usually determine the advertising value and since the value of the ad is changeable, in most cases, the ad's value depends on the consumers' perceptions, such as how entertaining, informative, and credible the ad is (Taylor et al., 2011). Since advertising is a message exchange between the advertisers and potential buyers, the success of that communication partially depends on how the business communicates to demonstrate product value to consumers (Cutting Edge PR, 2020). It is believed that the advertising value is the ultimate result of a contrast between a typical ad and ads that consumers preferably appreciate because they think that was worth investing time and effort (Ducoffe & Curlo, 2000).

Hypotheses

This study correlates the user motivations of entertainment, informativeness, irritation, credibility, attitudes, and consumer behavior, with the consumer's willingness to view video ads in the future. Based on this proposition, the following hypotheses are presented.

---

1. **H1:** The entertaining power of the Facebook ads is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads.
2. **H2:** Informativeness of Facebook video ads is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads.
3. **H3:** Irritation of Facebook video ads is negatively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads.
4. **H4:** The credibility of the Facebook video ads is positively related to the willingness to watch more ads.
5. **H5:** Consumer overall impression after watching Facebook video ads is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads.
6. **H6:** Consumer advertisement viewing behavior is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads.

RESEARCH METHOD

An online survey was used to reduce the cost of reaching out to the participants, to allow respondents to complete it at a time that fits their schedule, and to facilitate data entry free from human error. Qualtrics was used to create the questionnaire that contains 24 questions. The filter questions and demographic questions appeared at the beginning. There are seven variables in this study, including video entertainment, video informativeness, video irritation, video credibility, consumer overall impression, consumer behavior when seeing an online ad, and Consumer willingness to view future video ads.

Measurement Scales

The measurement scales in this research were modified from previous studies. The variables of entertainment, informativeness and irritation were modified from Ducoffe (1996) and Yang et al. (2017); credibility from Tsang et al. (2004), Yang et al. (2017), Brackett and Carr (2001); consumer attitudes from Gao and Koufaris (2006), Yang et al. (2017); and consumer willingness to view Facebook ads was taken from the previous studies of Tsang et al. (2004), and Yang et al. (2017).

Figure 2 presents a graphic representation of the items used to measure the entertainment, informativeness, irritation and credibility motivations, as well as the three variables/measures of overall impression of video advertising.

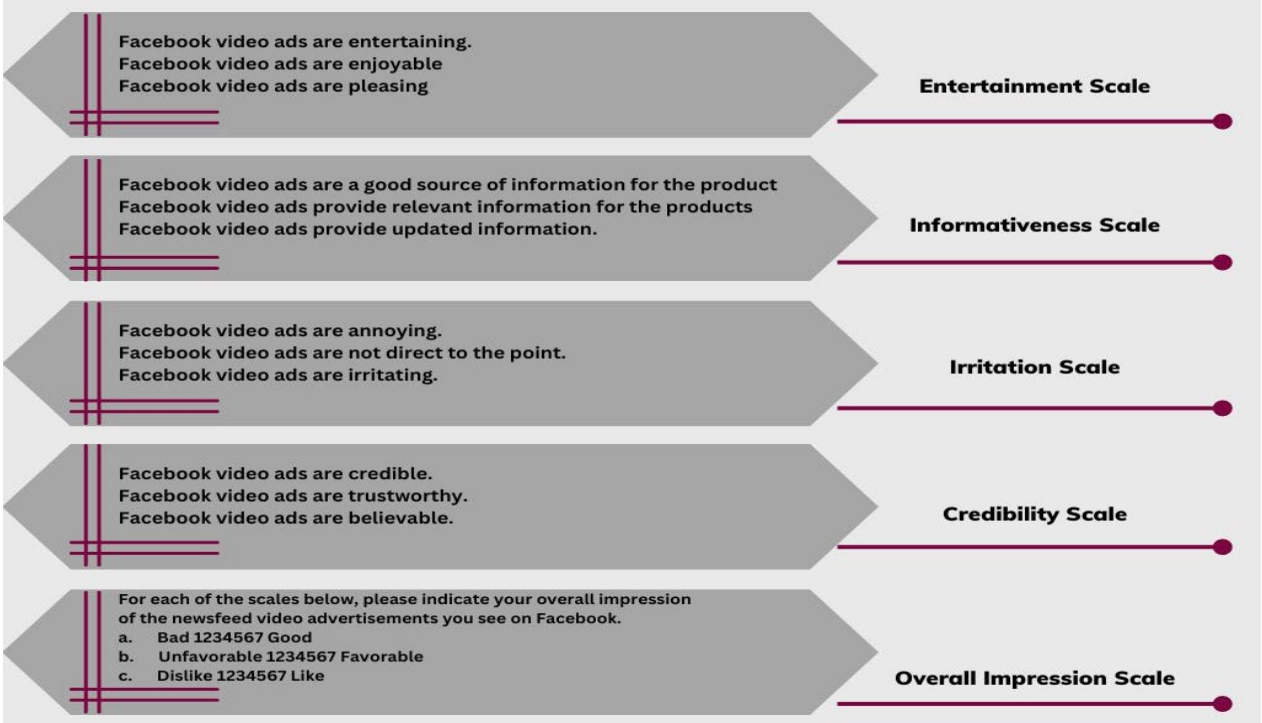

Figure 2. Combined Scales with the Set of Questions of Each Scale.

Table 1 presents the two additional variables in this investigation, the respondent's behavior when receiving an online advertisement and their willingness to view future online video advertisements.

Table 1. Variable Measurement Scales

Construct	**Measurement items (Scale: Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree)**
Behavior	What do you do when you receive an advertisement? Ignore or close it immediately Watch/read it occasionally Watch/read when I get time Watch/read it right away How much do you watch/read the advertisement you receive? Not at all Watch a quarter of an advertisement Watch about half of an advertisement Watch about three quarters of an advertising Watch the whole advertising
Willingness	I am willing to receive advertisements while watching online videos. Less than one advertisement per visit Two advertisements per visit Three advertisements per visit Over four advertisements per visit Unwilling to receive advertising
Note: Both variables were assessed using items adapted from the research of Yang et al., 2017, and Tsang et al., 2004.	

To ensure that the respondents had sufficient knowledge on the topics in the questionnaire, two filter/screening were asked at the outset. The filter questions asked if the respondent has a Facebook account and had logged on to the account in the last month. Positive responses were needed to allow them access to the full questionnaire. The demographic variables asked for the respondent's gender, age, year in school, years of Facebook experience, and the average amount of time spent online.

Sample

The population of the survey includes the undergraduate students attending division 1 school in the Great Plains of the USA. The respondents were contacted by course instructors recruited by the researcher. The course instructors provided the IRB-required recruitment statement and a link to an online questionnaire. Students were selected from courses taught by the Communication and Media Departments. A large number of the respondents were recruited from the introductory communication class which is a required class at the university and students from all majors must take this class.

The respondents were contacted online by their course instructor with the link address and an IRB approved message. An online Qualtrics survey questionnaire containing two filter questions, five demographic questions, and 16 variable questions were used for data collection. The variable questions used a Likert scale of "agree" to "disagree" on a 1 to 7 scale. Using the online Qualtrics form, the recruited respondents were given a cover letter describing the purpose of the study and the respondents' rights. The letter elaborated on anonymity and virtual consent.

MS Excel tools were used to conduct all statistical analyses for this research. A descriptive analysis was conducted to analyze the respondents' demographic information and everyday experience with Facebook video advertisements. The Pearson correlation analysis was used to test the relationship between the motivation variables and the measures of willingness to view future video ads on Facebook. Table 2 presents the terms to be used to describe the relationships strength as evidenced by the size of the correlation coefficient. The correlation analysis was selected for statistical analysis to examine the relationships between variables.

Table 2. Strength of Correlation Coefficient levels

r level	Strength of the Correlation
0.0 < 0.1	no correlation
0.1 < 0.3	low correlation
0.3 < 0.5	medium correlation
0.5 < 0.7	high correlation
0.7 < 1	very high correlation

Results

The results section is divided into two parts. Part one includes the respondents' profile information, year in school, gender, age, years using Facebook, time using Facebook per week, and consumer behavior which includes what respondents normally do when they encounter video ads on Facebook. The mean score of the 12 motivation questions used in this study are also provided in part one. Part two includes the test results of the correlation analysis which looks at the relationship

between the motivations and the willingness to view future ads and provide the results for each hypothesis given earlier.

Respondent Profile

The online survey received a total of 294 responses that passed the screening criteria and were included in the correlation analysis between consumer motivations and willingness to watch video ads. In terms of their year in school, the biggest groups of participants in this survey comes from freshman in the college, with 190 (64.62%) out of a total of 294 respondents. 51 (17.34%) were sophomores, 21 (7.14%) were junior and 21 (7.14%) were senior students. Only 3(1.02%) of the students recorded studying in their fifth year, and 8 (2.72%) of the respondent chose other as an option.

The results for the gender identification show that female participation in this study was the highest with 176 (59.86%) identifying as female and 111 (37.75%) identifying as male. Only 4 (1.36%) of respondents identified as nonbinary, 2 (0.68%) as other, and 1 (0.34%) of the respondents chose not to answer. These numbers closely mirror the percentages for the university's undergraduate population.

A total of 287 respondents provided their age information in the online survey. The participants' ages ranged from 17 to 40 years. From the collected data, the ages were grouped into 3 age groups. Age range 17 – 20 was 82.22%, 21 – 30 was 16.72% and 31 – 40 was only 1.04%. The mean of all participant ages was 19.26.

Table 3. Frequency of Years Using Facebook

How long have you used a Facebook account?	**Freq (N)**	**Freq (%)**
Less than 1 year	56	19.04
1 year — less than 2 years	36	12.24
2 years — less than 3 years	40	13.60
3 years — less than 4 years	40	13.60
More than 4 years	122	41.49

In addition to the demographic questions, respondents were asked about their use of Facebook and response to viewing Facebook video ads. Table 3 shows the frequency of years using Facebook. This social media usage question was asked to see how long the respondents were familiar with Facebook to express their opinion regarding their motivation behind watching ads. The valid sample size was 294. The years the consumers have been using was measured by categorizing them into five different categories, less than 1 year, 1 year to less than 2 years, 2 years to less than 3 years, 3 years to less than 4 years, more than 4 years. The largest percentage of responses fell into the more than 4 years category with 41.49% of the total responses.

A second question asked the amount of time spent on Facebook in an average week. Nearly two-thirds of the respondents (191, 64.96%) of the respondents reported spending less than one hour

per week on Facebook, whereas 77 (26.19%) say 1 hour to less than 3 hours, 15 (5.10%) spend 3 to less than 5 hours per week, 6 (2.04%) said their time on Facebook was 5 to 7 hours, and only 5 (1.7%) reported they spent more than 7 hours.

A third question determined the respondent's immediate behavior when they encounter Facebook video ads in their newsfeed. While 117 (39.5) of the respondents watch none of the ad, just under half (145, 49.31%) of the participants indicated that they watch a quarter of an advertisement. A smaller number of participants indicated watching half of the ads (25, 8.5%), about three-quarter of the ads (5, 1.7%) or the whole advertisement (2, 0.70%),

Question means of correlations

With regard to the first twelve variable questions, Table 4 shows the means of the variables from the highest to the lowest. The twelve variables presented in Table 4 originated from the measurement scale set of questions which later were combined and created new variables, the set of questions are located in Table 1 and Figure 2. The question regarding "annoying" has the highest mean score among all twelve variables. Annoying was later grouped with "irritating" and "not direct to the point" variables to create the score for the "irritation" scale (see figure 2). The three variables comprising the "irritation" scale have the highest (most negative) mean scores. The next three variables on Table 4 related to the informativeness of the ads good source of information, relevant and updated were fourth through sixth on the table of mean scores among all twelve variables with a means of 3.66, 3.56 and 3.26. Interestingly, while the three items for two of the scales have mean scores that group the items together, the mean scores for the remaining six items that comprised the other two scales are mixed together. Believable was in the seventh highest position, whereas entertainment becomes just above the credibility variable with a mean score of 2.92. Credibility, enjoyment, pleasing and trustworthy variables are found to have a range of 2.8 to 2.9. The mean score for the twelve items (four scales) that the negative/amotivators received this least level of agreement from the respondents, the informativeness items were slightly on the agreement side of the scale, but the six items related to entertainment and credibility received the highest levels of agreement from the respondents.

Table 4. Question Means of Correlations

Variables	Scale	Mean
Annoying	Irritating	5.72
Irritating	Irritating	5.35
Not Direct to the point	Irritating	4
Relevant	Informativeness	3.66
Updated	Informativeness	3.59
Good Information Source	Informativeness	3.26
Believable	Credibility	3.2
Entertaining	Entertainment	2.92
Credible	Credibility	2.9
Enjoyable	Entertainment	2.89
Pleasing	Entertainment	2.86
Trustworthy	Credibility	2.84

Hypothesis Testing

Pearson correlation tests were conducted to look at the correlation of the variables in each of the hypotheses presented earlier. The results will be presented for each of the hypotheses.

H1: The entertaining power of the Facebook ads is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads. A Pearson correlation was performed to test whether there was an association between the willingness of receiving further ads in Facebook news feed and entertainment scale (Facebook video ads entertaining, enjoyable and pleasing). The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was a statistically significant association between consumer willingness to watch more ads and the entertaining power of the video ads, r (291) = 0.38, p <.001. There is a medium high, positive correlation between the variables with r= 0.38. Therefore, as the entertainment value of the ads increases so does the willingness to watch more ads increase among the users.

H2: Informativeness of Facebook video ads is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads. The Pearson correlation revealed that there was a statistically significant association between willingness to watch more ads and the informativeness scale which was created by combining the questions related to good source of information, relevant information and updated information, r (293) = 0.33, p <.001. There is a medium, positive correlation between the variables with r= 0.33. The results show when the informativeness value of Facebook video ads increase so does the willingness to receive more Facebook video ads in the news feed.

H3: Irritation of Facebook video ads is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads. To test H3, a Pearson correlation was conducted to measure the correlation between willingness to watch more ads and the irritation scale that combines the questionnaire items saying video ads are annoying, not direct to the point and irritating. The resulting correlation was a statistically significant, weak negative association between consumer willingness to watch more ads and Irritation scale, r (293) = -0.14, p = .015. There is a low, negative correlation between the variables consumer willingness to watch more ads and Irritation scale with r= -0.14. Which means the irritation of the Facebook video ads decreases and willingness to receive more Facebook video ads increases or the irritation increases the willingness to receive more ads decreases.

H4: The credibility of the Facebook video ads is positively related to the willingness to watch more ads. A Pearson correlation was conducted to test whether there was an association between willingness to watch more ads and the credibility scale that combined individual items related to credibility, trustworthiness and believability in the ad's information. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was a statistically significant, weak positive association between those variables, r (290) = 0.19, p = .001. There is a low, positive correlation between the variables with r= 0.19. Thus, the increase of credibility value of the Facebook video ads so does the willingness to receive more Facebook video ads increases minimally.

H5: Consumer attitudes after watching Facebook video ads is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads. A Pearson correlation shows the positive association between

consumer willingness to watch more ads and consumers' overall impression. The overall impression is a newly created scale that includes the scores on three items that used the semantic differential scales of bad to good, unfavorable to favorable, and dislike to like. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was a statistically significant, positive association between consumer willingness to watch more ads and the overall impression scale, r (281) = 0.39, p = <.001. There is a medium high, positive correlation between the variables with r= 0.39, which means the result is statically significant and supports the hypothesis. Also, this result has nearly the same association as the entertainment scale has with the consumer willingness. The consumers may give great credence to the entertainment of advertisements when determining their overall impression.

H6: Consumer advertisement viewing behavior after watching Facebook video ads is positively related to the consumer willingness to watch more ads. The correlation analysis was conducted between the respondent's typical response when confronted with a video ad in their Facebook news feed (amount watched, if any) and their willingness to view future video ads. The Pearson correlation shows there was a statistically significant, association between the variables, r (294) = 0.49, p = <.001. There is a medium-high, positive correlation between the variables of what the respondents do when they receive an advertisement and consumer willingness to watch more ads with r= 0.49.

DISCUSSION

Using the uses and gratification theory, this study explores consumers' perceptions and motivations regarding social media video ads. Facebook was used as a social media platform to understand the motivations among consumers because of its leading role as a social media advertising platform. In this section, the factors that played key gratifications among the consumers are analyzed, and the following is a summary of the study's findings.

As the dominate social media platform used by the advertising industry, Facebook has been an influencing platform. This study contributes to a better understanding of consumer perceptions regarding Facebook video ads. The findings of this study indicated that the motivations chosen for this study reflected in the respondent's perception found an overall positive correlation with the willingness to receive more Facebook ads. The only negative correlation coefficient was with the three measures of the "irritation" scale. Since past research has found that variable is a negative (amotivator) variable that is associated with a reduced willingness to watch advertising, the negative correlation supports the idea that advertisers decreasing the annoyance in ads will lead to an increase in willingness to view advertisements.

H1 identifies the motivations, entertaining ability, enjoyableness, and pleasantness of Facebook video ads. The results supported the hypothesis with a significant level of correlation, and that suggests that the consumers' priority to receive future social media video ads is closely related to entertainment. Therefore, as perceptions of enjoyableness, pleasantness, and overall entertainment power in video ads increase, we are likely to see higher levels of the willingness to receive more social media video ads. This result supported this study's hypothesis and matches previous research

findings that user entertainment is one of the popular motivations (Ducoffe, 1996; Nguyen-Viet, 2022; Saho, 2009; Sepp et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2017).

H2 identifies the motivation of informativeness of the Facebook video ads and was measured with the variables of a good source of information, relevant information, and updated information. The result revealed that the stronger the perception of information, the higher the willingness to receive additional video ads. Similar results are evident in relevant research work in the past that focused on information as a motivating factor (Ducoffe, 1996; Hussain et al., 2019; Nguyen-Viet, 2022; Sun et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2017).

H3 identifies the irritation of the Facebook video ads, which has been found to correlate negatively with the willingness to watch more video ads. This result does not support the hypothesis of this study. Previous researchers also found that if the users find the content is irritating, they are more likely to ignore and change the media (Sundar & Limperos, 2013). Facebook ads' irritation makes users have negative attitudes toward the ads (Nguyen-Viet, 2022). Jeon et al. (2022) suggested that short social media advertisements could reduce users' irritation.

H4 identifies the credibility value of the Facebook video, and the statistical analysis shows that credibility has a very low association with the willingness to receive more ads. This finding is in line with the previous research (Kaye & Johnson, 2016). Accuracy, fairness, and believability were combined and served as the respondent's measure of credibility (Gaziano & McGrath, 1986). Keib and Wojdynski (2018) reported that perceived credibility significantly impacted the willingness to like and share content in social media. The current results, however, found only a low-medium positive correlation between credibility and willingness to view future advertisements.

H5 identifies consumers' overall impression or attitudes of Facebook video ads, and the result finds a positive medium-high association between overall impression/attitudes and consumers' willingness to receive further video ads. The participants were asked to use the 1 to 7 scale to measure the ads' capacity of being good to bad, favorable to unfavorable, and like to dislike. According to the results, the predicted hypothesis is supported. Since our current opinions and attitudes help to define future actions, it is not surprising that a positive impression of the ads would lead to greater willingness to see more. Other studies have been in line with the result of the current results (Lee, 2013; Tikno, 2016).

H6 identifies consumer behavior after watching Facebook video ads. Consumer behavioral action was significantly related to the willingness to receive more Facebook video ads. Regarding the actions the consumer takes, the result finds that 57.48% of the respondents said they would ignore or close the ads immediately, 39.79% of respondents answered that they would watch the ads occasionally when they find them on their Facebook newsfeed, and only 2.72% expressed they will watch/read the ads when they get time. No responses were found regarding watching the ads right away. The correlation result indicates that the immediate reactions of the respondents and their willingness to receive more video ads are correlated, supporting the hypothesis. Past research also supports the result (Jeon et al., 2022).

Overall, the findings of this study indicate that the entertaining power is significantly correlated to the willingness to receive further video ads which must be considered by the advertisers while producing Facebook video ads.

The Practical Implications and Limitations of the Study

This study provides valuable insight into understanding consumer motivation and behavior and information for content writers, advertisers, and business firms that aim to measure the user's motivations. All the variables examined correlated with the willingness to receive further ads, which can be used in market research to understand consumer perception before launching new products. The combined scales used in this study answer the questions of consumer motivation by taking into account several dimensions for each of the variables under investigation. Using several dimensions is generally superior to measuring a concept with a single item.

Additionally, the study was conducted based on Facebook video ads, the social media platform that consistently has the highest rate of advertising expenditures. In addition to focusing on the social media platform with the highest ad expenditures, the results of this study show the intensity of motivations, which can contribute to certain advertising strategies and boost social media-driven product conversion. Most of the past research emphasized generic discussions, combined studies on all social media platforms, and used image-only ads. The current investigation corrects for more general studies of the past by focusing on a particular social media platform and the most popular advertising format.

There are many other rich social media platforms capable of promoting products through advertisements. This study does not include those social media platforms. Therefore, results may not apply to other platforms. Additionally, since advertising operates differently on different social media platforms, the results of the current investigation will not necessarily apply to the advertising options available on other platforms.

This study used correlation analysis, which can only reveal the association between the variables but cannot predict any effect or cause. Therefore, the study does not test/show causality. Further studies on finding the causality among the motivations and how likely these factors influence consumers to watch more ads are recommended. Furthermore, future studies may wish to conduct experiments on user behavior which may be more beneficial for advertising agencies.

The sample is comprised of a younger group of consumers which limits the participation of other age groups. Also, since this study uses a convenience sample of students on one campus, it does not represent the larger population. Although the younger generation is the heaviest social media users, this study's results cannot be generalized to all social media users. Future studies can focus on participation from a variety of demographic groups and include more older users' views.

This study examines the user motivations and perception towards ads which are designed to collect data on Facebook video ads in general, not a particular product ad on Facebook. Therefore, future research should focus on exemplifying the online survey about particular products. Also, further experimental studies can be conducted on the same subject matter.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study indicate that before creating and placing social media ads, advertisers should consider the user motivations. The variables used in this study are very realistic and appropriate to understand consumer perception. This study follows the uses and gratification perspective to measure the correlations between all the variables and found statistically significant results for entertaining power, informativeness, credibility, irritation, overall impression, and consumer behavior after viewing Facebook video. It is clear that entertaining power of Facebook video ads is much more appreciated by the users over other motivations in regard to their willingness to receive more ads in future. The result shows the intensity of desire of the users which is supported by the results of past research. Thus, advertisers should strongly consider making ads more entertaining by adding innovative technological tools to get the maximum user-friendly review.

REFERENCES

Arca, C. (2012). *Social media marketing benefits for businesses* (p. 90). Master of International Marketing. https://vbn.aau.dk/ws/files/63562608/CelineArca_MScInternationalMarketing.pdf

Barnhart, B. (2022, March 22). *41 of the most important social media marketing statistics for 2022*. Sprout Social. https://sproutsocial.com/insights/social-media-statistics/

Bawack, R. E., Bonhoure, E., Kamdjoug, J.-R. K., & Giannakis, M. (2023). How social media live streams affect online buyers: A uses and gratifications perspective. *International Journal of Information Management*, *70*, 102621. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2023.102621

Bojkov, K. (2021). Facebook reviews complete guide for 2021. *EmbedSocial*. https://embedsocial.com/blog/facebook-reviews-guide/

Carlson, B. D., Suter, T. A., & Brown, T. J. (2008). Social versus psychological brand community: The role of psychological sense of brand community. *Journal of Business Research*, *61*(4), 284–291. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2007.06.022

Chaffey, D. (2022, August 22). *Global social media statistics research summary 2022*. Smart Insights. https://www.smartinsights.com/social-media-marketing/social-media-strategy/new-global-social-media-research/

Collins, A., & Conley, M. (2022). *The Ultimate guide to video marketing*. https://blog.hubspot.com/marketing/video-marketing

Coursera. (2022). *A guide to Facebook marketing in 2022*. Coursera. https://www.coursera.org/articles/facebook-marketing

---

Curran, K., Graham, S., & Temple, C. (2011). Advertising on Facebook. *International Journal of E-Business Development (IJED)*. file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/Advertising_on_Facebook%20(3).pdf

Cutting Edge PR. (2020, June 1). *How to communicate value to customers*. Cutting Edge PR Insights. https://cuttingedgepr.com/communicate-value-to-customers/

Databox. (2022, March 14). The 2022 state of Facebook ads performance | Databox blog. *Databox*. https://databox.com/state-of-facebook-ads-performance

Dhingra, M., & Mudgal, R. K. (2019). Historical evolution of social media: An overview. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3395665

Dixon, S. J. (2024). Facebook users in the United States 2019-2028, *Statista*. https://www.statista.com/statistics/408971/number-of-us-facebook-users/

Dobrilova, T. (2022). *25+ Facebook ad revenue statistics you should know in 2022*. Techjury. https://techjury.net/blog/facebook-ad-revenue-statistics/

Dolan, R., Conduit, J., Fahy, J., & Goodman, S. (2016). Social media engagement behaviour: A uses and gratifications perspective. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, *24*(3–4), 261–277. https://doi.org/10.1080/0965254X.2015.1095222

Dopson, E. (2021a, June 28). Videos vs. images: Which drives more engagement in facebook Ads? *Databox*. https://databox.com/videos-vs-images-in-facebook-ads

Dopson, E. (2021b, June 28). Videos vs. images: Which drives more engagement in Facebook ads? *Databox*. https://databox.com/videos-vs-images-in-facebook-ads

Dreben, J. (2022, September 8). *What U.S. consumers want from advertising: Survey results*. https://www.valpak.com/advertise/blog/what-u-s-consumers-want-from-advertising-survey-results

Ducoffe, R. H., & Curlo, E. (2000). Advertising value and advertising processing. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *6*(4), 247–262. https://doi.org/10.1080/135272600750036364

Dwinanda, B., Syaripuddin, F. A., Hudaifi, , & Hendriana, E. (2022). Examining the extended advertising value model: A case of TikTok short video ads. *Mediterranean Journal of Social & Behavioral Research*, *6*(2), 35–44. https://doi.org/10.30935/mjosbr/11820

Dwivedi, Y. K., Ismagilova, E., Hughes, D. L., Carlson, J., Filieri, R., Jacobson, J., Jain, V., Karjaluoto, H., Kefi, H., Krishen, A. S., Kumar, V., Rahman, M. M., Raman, R., Rauschnabel, P. A., Rowley, J., Salo, J., Tran, G. A., & Wang, Y. (2021a). Setting the future of digital and social media marketing research: Perspectives and research

propositions. *International Journal of Information Management*, *59*, 102168. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2020.102168

eclincher. (2017, July 25). *Improve Brand Loyalty through social media marketing*. https://eclincher.com/improve-brand-loyalty-through-social-media-marketing/

Froget, J. R. L., Baghestan, A. G., & Asfaranjan, Y. S. (2013). A uses and gratification perspective on social media usage and online marketing. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, *15 (1)*, 13. https://www.idosi.org/mejsr/mejsr15(1)13/18.pdf

Gaziano, C., & McGrath, K. (1986). Measuring the concept of credibility. *Journalism Quarterly*, *63*(3), 451–462. https://doi.org/10.1177/107769908606300301

Hajli, M. N. (2014). A study of the impact of social media on consumers. *International Journal of Market Research*, *56*(3), 387–404. https://doi.org/10.2501/IJMR-2014-025

Hotjar. (2022). *How tracking user behavior on your website can improve customer experience*. https://www.hotjar.com/blog/user-behavior/

Howarth, J. (2025, June 5). Worldwide daily social media usage (New 2025 data). Exploding Topics. https://explodingtopics.com/blog/social-media-usage

Hussain, A., Taimoor-ul-Hassan, D., & Shabir, D. G. (2019). Personal integrative needs and use of social media: Uses and gratification theory perspective. *Library Philosophy and Practice (e-Journal)*. https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/libphilprac/3978

Hustead, A. D. (2012). *Virial video advertisements: Uses and gratifications theories research* [University of Missouri – Columbia]. https://mospace.umsystem.edu/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10355/15265/research.pdf?sequence=2

Jackson, B. B. (1985). *Build customer relationships that last*. Harvard Business Review. https://hbr.org/1985/11/build-customer-relationships-that-last

Jeon, Y. A., Son, H., Chung, A. D., & Drumwright, M. E. (2019). Temporal Certainty and Skippable In-Stream Commercials: Effects of Ad Length, Timer, and Skip-ad Button on Irritation and Skipping Behavior. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *47*(1), 144–158. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2019.02.005

Kang, J., Tang, L., & Fiore, A. M. (2014). Enhancing consumer–brand relationships on restaurant Facebook fan pages: Maximizing consumer benefits and increasing active participation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *36*, 145–155. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.08.015

Karnegari, K. R., Karnam, V. S., & Shaik, G. (2013). *An analysis of business through social media*. https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1309214/FULLTEXT01.pdf

Katz, E., & Foulkes, D. (1962). On the use of the mass media as "Escape": Clarification of a concept. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *26*(3), 377. https://doi.org/10.1086/267111

Katz, E, Blumler, J. G., and Gurevitch, M. (1974). "Utilization of mass communication by individual" in J.G. Blumler, and E. Katz (Eds), *The Uses of Mass Communications: Current Perspective on Gratifications Research* (pp. 19-32). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Kaye, B. K., & Johnson, T. J. (2017). Strengthening the core: Examining Interactivity, credibility, and reliance as measures of social media use. *Electronic News*, *11*(3), 145–165. https://doi.org/10.1177/1931243116672262

Keib, K., & Wojdynski, B. (2018). *Staying Alive: TV news Facebook posts, perceived credibility, and engagement intent*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1931243118767733

Kelly, L., Kerr, G., & Drennan, J. (2010). Avoidance of advertising in social networking sites: The teenage perspective. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, *10*(2), 16–27. https://doi.org/10.1080/15252019.2010.10722167

Latka, N. (2014, July 28). 25 Facebook facts and statistics you should know in 2014. *Jeffbullas's Blog*. https://www.jeffbullas.com/25-facebook-facts-and-statistics-you-should-know-in-2014/

Lee, C. S., & Ma, L. (2012). News sharing in social media: The effect of gratifications and prior experience. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *28*(2), 331–339. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2011.10.002

Meng, K. S., & Leung, L. (2021). Factors influencing TikTok engagement behaviors in China: An examination of gratifications sought, narcissism, and the Big Five personality traits. *Telecommunications Policy*, *45*(7), 102172. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.telpol.2021.102172

Mrkonjić, E. (2022, January 3). *Video Marketing statistics 2022: Platforms and consumption*. Serpwatch.Io. https://serpwatch.io/blog/video-marketing-statistics/

Nath, B. (2022, April 26). *9 Best Facebook ad optimization tools for 2022*. Geekflare. https://geekflare.com/facebook-ad-optimization-tools/

Nguyen-Viet, B., Nguyen, Y. T. H., & Bao Do, T. H. L. and S. (2022). *Factors driving consumers' attitudes towards Facebook advertisements in an emerging market: A case study of vietnam*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/361751381_Factors_Driving_Consumers'_Attitudes_towards_Facebook_Advertisements_in_an_Emerging_Market_A_Case_Study_of_Vietnam

---

Nobre, H., & Silva, D. (2014). Social network marketing strategy and SME strategy benefits. *Journal of Transnational Management*, *19*(2), 138–151. https://doi.org/10.1080/15475778.2014.904658

Raghupathi, V., & Fogel, J. (2013). Facebook advertisements and purchase of weight-loss products. *Journal of Medical Marketing: Device, Diagnostic and Pharmaceutical Marketing*, *13*(4), 201–211. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745790414531427

Rauniar, R., Rawski, G., Johnson, B., & Yang, J. (2013). Social media user satisfaction—Theory development and research findings. *Journal of Internet Commerce*, *12*(2), 195–224. https://doi.org/10.1080/15332861.2013.817864

Ray, S. K., Saeed, M., & Subrahmaniam, S. (2015). Empirical analysis of user behavior in social media. *2015 International Conference on Developments of E-Systems Engineering (DeSE)*, 359–364. https://doi.org/10.1109/DeSE.2015.32

Rubin, A. M. (1993). Audience activity and media use. *Communication Monographs*, *60*(1), 98–105. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637759309376300

Rubin, A. M. (2002). The uses and gratifications perspective of media effects. In *Media effects: Advances in Theory and Research* (Second, pp. 525–548). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rubin, A. M., & Windahl, S. (1986). The uses and dependency model of mass communication. *Critical Studies in Mass Communication*, *3*(2), 184–199. https://doi.org/10.1080/15295039609366643

Sepp, M., Liljander, V., & Gummerus, J. (2011). Private bloggers' motivations to produce content – a gratifications theory perspective. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *27*(13–14), 1479–1503. https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257X.2011.624532

Schultz, R. (2025, June 6). Acquisition chill: It costs more to pull in new customers. MediaPost, https://www.mediapost.com/publications/article/406462/acquisition-chill-it-costs-more-to-pull-in-new-cu.html

Shabahang, R., Ghaemi, Z., Aruguete, M. S., Saeedi, M., Shim, H., & Farnaz Sedighian, S. (2022b). Measuring gratification from and consequences of likes: The potential for maladaptive social media behavior. *Journal of Media Psychology: Theories, Methods, and Applications*, *34*, 395–400. https://doi.org/10.1027/1864-1105/a000328

Shade, D. D., Kornfield, S., & Oliver, M. B. (2015). The uses and gratifications of media migration: Investigating the aActivities, motivations, and predictors of migration behaviors originating in entertainment television. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *59*(2), 318–341. https://doi.org/10.1080/08838151.2015.1029121

Shao, G. (2009). Understanding the appeal of user-generated media: A uses and gratification perspective. *Internet Research*, *19*(1), 7–25. https://doi.org/10.1108/10662240910927795

Singh, S., Kumar, M., Rawat, A., Khosla, R., & Mehendale, S. (2020). Social media and its impact on user behavior- A methodological and thematic review. *Journal of Content Community and Communication*, *12*, 236–249. https://doi.org/10.31620/JCCC.12.20/22

Statista. (2022a). *Facebook brand profile U.S. 2022*. Statista. https://www.statista.com/forecasts/1304985/facebook-social-media-brand-profile-in-the-united-states

Statista. (2022b). *Number of worldwide social network users 2027*. Statista. https://www.statista.com/statistics/278414/number-of-worldwide-social-network-users/

Sun, Y., Liu, Y., & Zhang, J. (2020). Excessive enterprise social media use behavior at work: Role of communication visibility and perspective of uses and gratifications theory. *IEEE Access*, *8*, 190989–191004. https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2020.3032035

Sundar, S. S., & Limperos, A. M. (2013). Uses and grats 2.0: New gratifications for new media. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *57*(4), 504–525. https://doi.org/10.1080/08838151.2013.845827

Taylor, D. G., Lewin, J. E., & Strutton, D. (2011). Friends, fans, and followers: Do ads work on social networks?: How gender and age shape receptivity. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *51*(1), 258–275. https://doi.org/10.2501/JAR-51-1-258-275

Tikno. (2016). Measuring performance of facebook advertising based on media used: A case study on online shops in indonesia. *Procedia Computer Science*, *111*, 105–112. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2017.06.016

Turnbull, O. H., Jenkins, S., & Rowley, M. L. (2004). The pleasantness of false beliefs: An emotion-based account of confabulation. *Neuropsychoanalysis*, *6*(1), 5–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/15294145.2004.10773432

Vinney, C. (2019). *What Is uses and gratifications theory?* ThoughtCo. https://www.thoughtco.com/uses-and-gratifications-theory-4628333

Voorveld, H. A. M., van Noort, G., Muntinga, D. G., & Bronner, F. (2018). Engagement with social media and social media advertising: The differentiating role of platform type. *Journal of Advertising*, *47*(1), 38–54. https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.2017.1405754

Yaary, Y. (2020). *Why use Facebook video ads? 9 benefits you just can't ignore*. https://madgicx.com/blog/why-use-facebook-video-ads-9-benefits-you-just-cant-ignore

---

Yaary, Y. (2021). *2022 Facebook ad size & specs – because size matters*. https://madgicx.com/blog/when-it-comes-to-facebook-ads-size-matters

Yang, K.-C., Huang, C.-H., Yang, C., & Yang, S. Y. (2017). Consumer attitudes toward online video advertisement: YouTube as a platform. *Kybernetes*, *46*(5), 840–853. https://doi.org/10.1108/K-03-2016-0038

Yang, M., Ren, Y., & Adomavicius, G. (2019). Understanding user-generated content and customer engagement on Facebook business pages. *Information Systems Research*, *30*(3), 839–855.

Youth Entrepreneurship and Gender in the Caribbean: A Guyana Case Study

Donna E. Danns, University of North Georgia

George K. Danns, University of North Georgia

ABSTRACT

This article examines entrepreneurship from two key perspectives – youth and gender. Research on involvement of women in entrepreneurship is replete with notions of gender inequities. Studies on youth entrepreneurs, particularly in developing countries, seem to confirm this broad pattern. We examine whether gender inequities persist among youth entrepreneurs in the Caribbean country of Guyana or whether there are signs of change. In Guyana and the broader Caribbean, there is emergent cultural conduciveness allied with an active promotion of youth entrepreneurship by governments in partnership with non-governmental, educational and other institutions. In interrogating gender and youth entrepreneurship in this study, we utilized data derived from a survey of youth entrepreneurs conducted in two urban areas in Guyana and examined gender differences in the types of ventures established; perceptions of entrepreneurial challenges faced; access to support systems for establishing and running their businesses; and their mindsets that may influence business sustainability. This study found that 81% of female youth businesses operated in four main categories of business. Male youth businesses, however, were spread across a wider spectrum, while also competing in the areas in which female youth businesses clustered. Youth male and female entrepreneurs were almost uniform in their perceptions of entrepreneurial challenges. They were equally confident in their abilities to sustain their businesses. Both female and male youth entrepreneurs similarly accessed financial, family and entrepreneurial educational support. They evidenced few differences in the mindsets that can influence business sustainability.

Keywords: youth entrepreneurship; gender and entrepreneurship; entrepreneurial challenges, Guyana; Latin America and the Caribbean.

Youth Entrepreneurship and Gender in the Caribbean: A Guyana Case Study

INTRODUCTION

High level of youth unemployment has been a long-term problem in many Caribbean countries (International Monetary Fund, 2017), particularly among young women, with rates averaging 30% compared to their male counterparts at 22% (Jones, 2024). Many Caribbean countries have embraced "youth entrepreneurship" as a core strategy for combating such unemployment. While this strategy is relatively recent for Caribbean countries, including Guyana, youth entrepreneurship has been promoted, for somewhile, as a viable pathway for engendering job creation, personal fulfillment, economic growth and for the alleviation of poverty, especially in developing countries. Our focus on youth entrepreneurship as opposed to general entrepreneurship stems then from the active promotion of this core strategy in Guyana and other Caribbean countries.

This article examines entrepreneurship from two key perspectives – youth and gender. Male entrepreneurs are generally more numerous and often more privileged than female entrepreneurs (Chauke, 2022; Esnard, 2021; Global Economic Monitor (GEM), 2017; GEM, 2023; GEM, 2025). The narratives of research on involvement of women in entrepreneurship are replete with notions of the persistence of gender inequities (Esnard, 2022; Idowu, 2023). Some studies on youth entrepreneurs confirm this manifestation (Ahmed & Kar, 2019; Chauke, 2022; Idowu, 2023). We examine whether patterns of gender inequity persist among youth entrepreneurs (YE) in the Caribbean or whether there are signs of change. We interrogate female and male youth entrepreneurs to pinpoint similarities and differences in types of businesses established, perceptions of challenges faced, access to support systems, and the mindsets that may influence business sustainability.

The Caribbean is an interesting research domain for the examination of youth entrepreneurship and gender. Based on key educational indicators, girls and young women in the Caribbean have been outperforming their male counterparts (Burunciuc, 2023; Jones, 2024). In Guyana, for example, in the over-25-year-old population, 58.1% of females completed at least lower secondary education compared to 55.6% of males; 36.3% females and 33.8% males completed at least upper-secondary education; and 12.0% females and 10.6% males completed post-secondary education (World Bank, 2024). Female students are outnumbering males at alarming rates at the University of Guyana, the nation's public university. Of the 8,291 students that were enrolled at that institution, for the 2019-2020 academic year, 63.3% were females and 36.7% males (Guyana Chronicle, 2021). Similar trends obtain in other parts of the Caribbean (Jones, 2024).

Additionally, policy initiatives and pronouncements related to the promotion of youth entrepreneurship in the Caribbean are generally gender neutral. For example, the National Youth Policy (2015) promulgated by the Guyana government recognized the extent of Guyana's youth unemployment problem and vowed: "To create an enabling environment for the reduction of youth unemployment through self-employment, entrepreneurship, and demand-driven education and training" (Government of Guyana, 2015). This policy document promised strengthening of

vocational training and entrepreneurial services and improving mechanisms for coordinating youth entrepreneurship among other non-governmental agencies.

Gender-neutral policy stances relating to youth entrepreneurship, however, can be limited by broader socio-political, cultural and historical norms that may give rise to differences in the entrepreneurial operations, perceptions and experiences of the young men and women in the Caribbean. Esnard (2021) addressed these norms in the context of "(un) freedoms" for women entrepreneurs in the Caribbean, explaining that some cultural norms helped to introduce constraints on "the being and becoming of women entrepreneurs" (p. 23). Other researchers on Caribbean entrepreneurship (Ferdinand, 2001; Pounder, 2015; Terjesen & Amoros, 2010; Verheul, Stel & Thurik, 2006) chronicled similar norms, conflicts and complexities that constrained Caribbean women in entrepreneurship. Expanding on the socio-cultural norms, Ferdinand included gender discrimination against women in entrepreneurial endeavors, conflicting pressures from balancing domestic responsibility and business commitments, and prevailing perceptions about women's choices of employment.

Historically, women in Guyana and the broader Caribbean, have had low participation in remunerated economic activity compared to men. Women undertook much of the child-rearing tasks; were involved in unpaid work in family businesses; were in occupations paying exploitative wages and overly represented in community organizations performing unpaid work (Danns, D. 1997). Income earned by many women was largely derived from the informal sector and seen as supplementary income obtained mainly from activities such as food preparation, sewing, art and craft and selling agricultural goods in local markets.

Impacting changes, however, took place in response to Guyana's severe economic difficulties during the late 1970s and 1980s. Many women, mostly young, left their low-salaried jobs, and along with others, joined the entrepreneurial sphere, predominantly as international traders, vendors and smugglers in the underground economy (Danns, G., 1988). Danns explained that what differentiated these activities from the formal and informal economies was their essentially illegal nature. In analyzing the role of women in the underground economy, Danns stated then that:

> *Women are pre-eminent actors in the underground economy in Guyana. Women are involved in the underground economic activities as consumers and housewives, international traders, foreign products vendors, smugglers and as officials in the state sector who use their offices for private gain. (*Danns, G., 1988, p.221*)*

Women and men alike, smuggled out gold, foreign currency and other valuables, returning with goods necessary for the upkeep of the Guyanese people and economy. Much of this was self-employment involving significant risk-taking and entrepreneurial thinking and actions (Danns G, 1988). Some women, who started off in the informal and underground economies, emerged as business leaders in the formal sector, establishing boutiques, specialty shops, broader retail stores and other businesses. There is evidence therefore, that like their male counterparts, Guyanese women, as it is for the broader Caribbean, have for decades been involved in entrepreneurship in differing forms.

This article utilized data derived from a survey of youth entrepreneurs, conducted by the authors, in the developing country of Guyana and examined differences in the types of businesses established by male and female youths in Guyana, their perceptions of the challenges faced, their access to entrepreneurial support systems – entrepreneurial training and financing - for establishing and running their businesses and the mindsets that may influence business sustainability.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Gender and entrepreneurship, as a distinct field of research enquiry, gained momentum in the 1980s as scholars and researchers sought an increased understanding of women's entrepreneurial activity and the factors that impacted and distinguished their entrepreneurial success from that of their male counterparts (Brush, 1992; Hughes, Jennings, Brush, Carter & Welter, 2012; Mustafa & Treanor, 2022). Youth entrepreneurship is an even more recent research domain, with most of scholarly work on the topic being conducted on the continent Africa (Fubah, Kansheba, Marobhe & Mohammadparast, 2025). Research at the intersection of youth entrepreneurship and gender has generated some interest, with researchers examining the role of gender, gender differences and gaps in areas such as finance, family support, entrepreneurial education, and perceived barriers (Clauke, 2022; Idowu, 2023; Senou & Manda, 2022; Sharma, 2018; van Ewijk & Belghiti-Mahut, 2018). This article adds to the field by focusing on both gender and youth entrepreneurship in Guyana. It is a contribution also to the emergent scholarly literature on youth entrepreneurship and female entrepreneurship in the broader Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) region.

Defining Youth Entrepreneurship

Definitions of 'youth' vary widely across countries, spanning from 12 years old in several developing countries and extending to 35 years (UNCTAD, 2015). The Bureau of Statistics, Government of Guyana, defined youth as persons between ages 15 – 35 and reported that youth comprised 33.9% of Guyana's population (Bureau of Statistics, 2012). For the purposes of this paper, youth is defined as individuals between ages 18 – 35 years. An entrepreneur is an individual who establishes and manages a business for profit and growth; that business is the primary source of income, and it consumes most of the time and resources of the entrepreneur. Consequently, the activity of establishing and managing a business for profit and growth is called entrepreneurship (Goel, Vohra, Zhang & Arora, 2007). The concept of "youth entrepreneurship" has been linked to the concept of "self-employment among youth" (OECD, 2017), both of which are sources of new jobs and economic dynamism; can improve economic livelihoods for young people; generate income, self-reliance and provide innovative paths to earning a living (Schoof, 2006).

Youth, Gender and Business Ownership

A significant gender gap exists in established business ownership with only one in every three entrepreneurs running a business worldwide being a woman (GEM, 2023). Despite the dominance of males in the entrepreneurial sphere, there has been a slight closing of the gender gap in recent years, stemming from a trend of increasing female entrepreneurial activities (GEM, 2017). The

LAC region, with female business start-up rates of 21.25% for 2022/23 stood out as the most entrepreneurial region in the world for women (GEM, 2023). Additionally, female enterprise ownership rates in some parts of the Caribbean are higher than for the broader LAC region, ranging from 32% to 57% for Jamaica, St Lucia and Grenada compared to 31% in the entire region (Burunciuc, 2023). These trends extend also to youth-owned businesses. World Bank (2015) dubbed the LAC region "a breeding ground for new businesses led by young people" and explained that young people in region did not wait for job opportunities but instead were job creators.

Youth, Gender and Business Choices

Researchers on gender and business choices generally concluded that women were more involved in the retail and services sectors and that family responsibilities prevented them from devoting the time that men did to grow their businesses (Bardasi, Sabarwal & Terrell, 2011; Esnard, 2021; Ferdinand, 2001; Robichaud, Cachon & McGraw, 2015; Salman, 2002). Women's business decisions were often influenced by members of their households, especially spouses, and intrahousehold dynamics stymied women businesses, contributing to gender gaps in outcomes (Akpalu *et al*., 2012). Caribbean women operated mainly in micro-enterprises, in few industries and with limited access to finance (Burunciuc, 2025; Ferdinand, 200l; infoDev, 2015; Pounder, 2015). Ferdinand explained that Caribbean women entrepreneurs had a significant presence in the small-scale sector and dominated in the areas of retail/distribution, agriculture and light manufacturing. They were found in large concentrations in areas such as food processing, garment manufacturing, hairdressing and catering. Explanations for this clustering included that business choices were based on their compatibility with women's family caring roles, the businesses' closeness to home, allowance for working time flexibility, and the avoidance of financially risky undertakings (Ferdinand, 2001).

In sub-Saharan Africa, researchers point to a gendering of youth business choices and a clustering of their businesses generally in the consumer-oriented sector, comprising retail sales, transportation services, restaurants, health, education and other consumer services (Chigunta & Mwanza, 2016; Gough & Langevang, 2016; Namatovu *et al*., 2016; Owusu *et al*., 2016;). Almost 88 % of Uganda's young women entrepreneurs compared to 77% of young men entrepreneurs were in the consumer-oriented services sector, while more young men (16.8%) than women (7.6%) operated businesses in construction, manufacturing, transportation and utilities (Gough & Langevang, 2016). In Ghana, young entrepreneurs often had two or more businesses, grabbing opportunities in several areas. Approximately 77% of Ghana's young women entrepreneurs were in the consumer services sector (mainly retail trading) compared to 54.6% for the men (Owusu *et al*., 2016). Ghana's robust extractive sector attracted young men entrepreneurs (25.7%) at rates higher than their female counterparts (12.5%). Young women entrepreneurs were dominant in the provision of catering services, restaurants and bars for Ghana's mining industry (Kala, 2016) while in rural Uganda, young men found entrepreneurial opportunities in the transportation business, operating motorcycle taxi (*boda-boda*), in manufacturing, tailoring and welding (Kristensen *et al.,* 2016*).*

Youth, Gender and Entrepreneurial Challenges

There is an overlap of challenges affecting both youth and women entrepreneurs and such challenges impact both their start-up and continuance in business (Bryan, 2023; Chigunta, 2002; Danns & Danns, 2022; Ferdinand, 2001; GEM, 2017). Women entrepreneurs, particularly in developing economies encounter cultural obstacles and patriarchal attitudes, gender discrimination; lack of education, finances, societal acceptance and business-ownership experience; an inability to obtain loans, own land or other assets; conflicting family responsibilities, and a myriad of other challenges (Ahmed & Kar, 2019; Alam, Senik & Jani, 2012; Hanson & Blake, 2009; Idowu, 2023; Moses & Amalu, 2010; Muhumad, 2016; Robichaud *et al*., 2015; Smith-Hunter, 2006). Idowu found that Nigerian youth, irrespective of gender, displayed remarkable entrepreneurial enthusiasm but female youth entrepreneurs faced distinct challenges securing investment financing, navigating patriarchal expectations, and accessing male-dominated markets. Ferdinand found that challenges for women entrepreneurs in the Caribbean, arose from factors directly related to gender issues and their position in the society but posited that some challenges affected both men and women entrepreneurs in the Caribbean setting. Bryan (2023) writing about Jamaica, explained that institutional classism presented significant barriers to entrepreneurial success especially for marginalized groups, including women entrepreneurs and youth entrepreneurs.

Similar to research on women entrepreneurs, researchers pointed to several challenges facing youth entrepreneurs including lack of business skills and entrepreneurial education, inability to recruit employees outside the family, limited innovation and access to finance (Danns & Danns, 2022; OECD, 2017). Access to finance is probably the key challenge for young entrepreneurs (Danns & Danns 2019; Dzisi, 2014; Gwija, Eresia-Eke & Iwu, 2014; UNCTAD, 2015). Typically, lenders view young people as risky; lacking credit history, work history, banks accounts and having insufficient collateral to secure loans or lines of credit (UNCTAD). Other challenges included lack of management experience and the unavailability of youth support structures (Gwija, Eresia-Eke & Iwu, 2014). Youth entrepreneurship is also impacted by social and cultural factors including negative orientations to business (Dzisi, 2014); low tolerance for risk and fear of failure; and legal factors where youth entrepreneurs may face a multiplicity of administrative issues such as obtaining licenses and permits and registering their businesses.

Youth, Gender and Entrepreneurship Support

Perusal of practices and patterns worldwide reveal a composite of international, regional, national, governmental, non-governmental, educational, community, private sector and other groupings and institutions lending support to youth entrepreneurs and youth entrepreneurship promotion strategies especially in developing countries (Danns & Danns, 2022; Green 2013; ILO, 2012; IMF, 2017; OECD, 2016;). Danns and Danns (2022) developed a Youth Entrepreneurship Institutional Support (YEIS) Model as a framework for explaining the support system for youth entrepreneurship in developing countries and described it as:

> *a multi-actor framework which exists on the international, regional, national and local levels and which provides policies, programs, funding, as well as counselling, mentoring and training through the public sector, private sector, nonprofit agencies, international institutions, communities and families*. (Danns & Danns, p. 144)

In the LAC region, public and private sector support for young people involved training, technical assistance and small credits, all aimed at reducing the failure rate of youth enterprises and addressing critical issues during their start-up process (Listerri *et al.,* 2006). There is also a pivotal role for social capital - family, friends and linkages to the local community - in the support and success of youth entrepreneurs (De Gobbi, 2014).

METHODOLOGY

This article seeks to examine the differences in the types of businesses established by male and female youths in Guyana, their perceptions of the challenges faced, their access to entrepreneurial support systems for establishing and running their businesses and, the mindsets that may influence business sustainability. The research questions answered by this study were:

- Are there gender differences in the types of businesses established by youth entrepreneurs in Guyana?
- Are there gender differences in access to entrepreneurial support – entrepreneurial training and business financing - by youth entrepreneurs?
- Are there gender differences in the perceptions of challenges faced by youth entrepreneurs?
- Are there gender differences in mindsets that may influence business sustainability?

This study utilized data from a survey of youth entrepreneurs in the urban areas of Linden and Rose Hall/Port Mourant, Guyana. The town of Linden is the second largest town in Guyana with a population of approximately 30,000 persons (Bureau of Statistics, Government of Guyana, 2012). Linden was once a thriving mining town. The bauxite industry which was Linden's economic mainstay has diminished considerably resulting in an escalation of youth unemployment in the town. The Rose Hall/Port Mourant urban area has a population of approximately 11,000 persons (Bureau of Statistics, Government of Guyana, 2012). The sugar industry, upon which this area was heavily dependent, suffered a similar fate to the bauxite industry and at the time of our survey, the industry was diminishing considerably. Sugar and bauxite are two major industries owned by the government and upon which the Guyana economy was reliant. The decline in the two industries and concomitant diminution in employment opportunities prompted our selection of the study communities.

Youth entrepreneurs in the studied communities function mainly as self-employed informal/semi-formal economic operatives. Most of their businesses are unregistered; taxes and social security obligations invariably are not adhered to and, limited official records are available on these entrepreneurs. Due to these circumstances, it was necessary to use non-probability sampling. Access to youth entrepreneurs for interviewing was accomplished through the assistance of community leaders; fanning out of research teams in key business districts and other areas within

the towns/communities to identify youth entrepreneurs; and, by employing the snowball technique to find and interview additional youth entrepreneurs. One hundred and seventy-eight (178) youth entrepreneurs were identified and interviewed using a survey instrument. Seventy-seven (77) respondents derived from the town of Linden and 101 were from the Rose Hall/Port Mourant urban communities. This combination of techniques assured access to available youth entrepreneurs in the communities. No limit was placed on the number of youth entrepreneurs needed for the survey. All available youth entrepreneurs in the two communities were accessed and interviewed. In the absence of an official registry, we were confident that we reached a significant and essentially representative number of youth entrepreneurs in the study areas. Our topic was not a sensitive one and we found entrepreneurs were willing to provide answers to our survey questions.

The survey instrument comprised demographic, business characteristics, business operations and economic assessment questions. Included in these broad categories were questions on business type, startup capital, revenue, profit, access to loans and other forms of financing, access to entrepreneurial skills training, number of employees, working hours, family and other support systems, perceptions about business successes and challenges facing youth entrepreneurs.

Survey data from the entrepreneurs are used and various tests employed (T-test; Z-tests; chi square; Fisher's exact tests on contingency tables) to determine primarily the differences in means, and statistically significant differences between and among respondents by gender. Although the focus of this paper is on gender differences, other demographic factors are interrogated to find answers when significant deviations from means were noted.

RESULTS

One hundred and seventy-eight (178) youth entrepreneurs between the ages of 18 and 35 were interviewed. Seventy-seven (43.3%) respondents were from the town of Linden and 101 (56.7%) were from the Rose Hall/Port Mourant community. Of the 178 youth entrepreneurs, 84 or 47.2% were females and 94 or 52.8% males. Seventy-one (39.9%) were between the ages of 18 and 25; 45 or 25.3% were between 26 and 30 years old; and 62 or 34.8% fell within the 31 to 35 years age group.

Ninety-nine of the 178 youth entrepreneurs (55.6%) reported that secondary school was their highest level of education, while 12 (6.7%) attained only primary education. Forty-eight respondents (27%) reported that technical/vocational education was their highest level of education, and 16 respondents (9%) attended university. In sum, 64 respondents (36%) had tertiary or post-secondary education.

Gender Differences in Business type and Business Characteristics

Table 1 provides a breakdown of respondents by length of time in business and gender. Almost 15% of respondents were in business for less than 2 years; 36.5% were in business for 2 to less than 6 years; 20.8% were in business for 6 to less than 10 years while 25.8% reported being in business for 10 years or longer. Notably, 6.7% reported being in business for 15 years or more.

There was a statistically significant difference ($p < .01$) between the length of time women and men entrepreneurs were in business. Male respondents in this survey were generally in business longer than the female respondents. This ties in with the fact that 46.4% of the females in the survey were in the youngest age bracket (18 – 25) compared to just 34% of the males.

Table 1: Length of time in Business by Gender

	% of Females	% of Males	% of Total
Less than 2 years	21.4%	8.5%	14.6%
2 to less than 6 years	42.9%	30.9%	36.5%
6 to less than 10 years	16.7%	24.5%	20.8%
10 to less than 15 years	15.5%	22.3%	19.1%
15 years and more	1.2%	11.7%	6.7%
Can't Remember/ no response	2.4%	2.1%	2.2%
P-value = 0.0055			

Almost 86% of respondents earned most of their income from their owned businesses while 6.2% had jobs or gigs along with their businesses and 6 others assisted their spouses to earn other income. One hundred and twenty-seven respondents started their businesses at 18 years or older while 48 or 27% started at ages younger than 18; 69.1% of the respondents started their businesses between the ages of 16 and 25 years. One hundred and twenty-seven respondents (71.3%) were the sole owners of their businesses while 49 (27.5%) were in business with others including parents, siblings and other relatives. One hundred and twenty-six respondents (70.8%) reported having no employees with no statistically significant difference between the genders.

Table 2 provides a breakdown of respondents' types of business activity by gender. The most dominant business type in which respondents operated was retailing/vending with 38% or 73 respondents naming this category. Other popular business types were beauty and grooming services (12%), snack preparation/catering (9%), livestock rearing (7%) and transportation services (7%). Besides these more prevalent business types, youth entrepreneurs were engaged in event planning, agriculture, appliances/computer repairs, carpentry and garment manufacturing. They owned restaurants, bars and meat shops; and provided art and craft services, tutoring, printing and other services.

Table 2: Business Types by Gender			
Businesses type	**Female N = 84**	**Male N = 94**	**Total N = 178**
Agriculture	0	2	2
Appliances/Computer Repair Shops	0	6	6
Bar/Restaurant	2	3	5
Beauty & Grooming services	14	10	24
Carpentry/Welding/Fabrication/ Mechanical/ Electrical services	0	5	5
Construction	0	2	2
Garment Manufacturing	2	0	2
Jewelry Manufacturing	1	1	2
Livestock rearing	4	9	13
Lumber yard	0	1	1
Meat shop	0	1	1
Other services	13	14	27
Retailing/Vending	41	32	73
Snack preparation/Catering	13	4	17
Transportation services	0	13	13
***Total**	**90**	**103**	**193**

** Some youths had more than one business*

A breakdown by gender pointed to some interesting differences in the types of businesses owned by young men and young women. Eighty one percent (81%) of the female youth entrepreneurs clustered in 4 main areas – retailing/vending, snack preparation, beauty and grooming and other services which included printing, event management, art and craft and tutoring. Male youth entrepreneurs, on the other hand, operated in all the represented areas except garment manufacturing. Male-only areas were transportation services, mechanical/electrical services, owning meat shops and lumber yard, construction businesses, welding and fabrication, agriculture, appliances and computer repairs. Table 2 shows that male entrepreneurs were also competing in the areas where the female youth entrepreneurs clustered. Women therefore operated in the highly competitive business areas in their communities, undoubtedly affecting their possible revenue, profitability and growth potential. It should be noted that no statistical tests were conducted on the contents of table 2 because of the low cell frequency in a large percentage of the cells.

The distribution of male entrepreneurs into more varied business areas prompted an examination of whether the technical training that favored males in this survey was a key factor in the many male-only entrepreneurial choices. Data did not show this to be the case. In general, both the male and female youth entrepreneurs tended not to credit their highest level of official schooling for providing them with the necessary skills for their chosen entrepreneurial activity. When asked how they acquired relevant skills for their businesses, there were few differences in the way men and

women said that they acquired the requisite skills. The dominant ways were from family members (28.7%); Self-taught (22.5%); from friends/acquaintances (5.1%); taking specialized courses (12.4 %) and from previous employment (14%). See table 3 for a further breakdown.

Table 3: Places and People that respondents acquired skills for their businesses			
	% of Female	**% of Male**	**% of Total**
Family member(s)	25.0%	31.9%	28.7%
Friends/Acquaintances	3.6%	6.4%	5.1%
Specialized workshops/courses/classes	16.7%	8.5%	12.4%
Self-Taught	26.2%	19.1%	22.5%
From Previous employment/work attachment	8.3%	19.1%	14.0%
Secondary School	6.0%	5.3%	5.6%
Technical /Vocational School	1.2%	1.1%	1.1%
University	1.2%	0.0%	0.6%
Observing others	2.4%	3.2%	2.8%
Social media/Internet	4.8%	2.1%	3.4%
Can't remember/don't know/no response	14.3%	11.7%	12.9%

While there were no significant differences in the way young women and men entrepreneurs acquired the skills necessary for their entrepreneurial activities, the women were more likely than men to report being self-taught and to taking short courses and workshops specific to their chosen business type. This was especially true for women in beauty and grooming and in snack preparation and catering businesses. The men were more likely than women to acquire the necessary skills from their previous jobs and from family and friends.

Most of the youth entrepreneurs in the survey (69 females - 82.1% and 69 males - 73.4%) grew up seeing close relatives operate their own businesses or supplementing family income through entrepreneurial activities and were likely socialized into the entrepreneurial culture. Of those who saw close relatives undertake entrepreneurial activities, 76.1% (females - 79.7% and males - 72.5%) pointed to parents and siblings among those close relatives.

Table 4: Relatives who youth entrepreneurs grew up seeing run businesses			
	% of Female N = 69	**% of Male N =69**	**% of Total N = 138**
Mother only	30.4	26.1	28.3
Father only	8.7	14.5	11.6
Both Parents only	15.9	11.6	13.8
Siblings only	4.3	4.3	4.3
Parent(s) and siblings	7.2	4.3	5.8
Other relatives only	20.3	27.5	23.9
Parent(s)/siblings and other relatives	13.0	11.6	12.3

Gender differences in the perception of challenges faced by youth entrepreneurs

Respondents were posed with a list of 29 subject areas for which they had to state whether they strongly disagree, disagree, agree or strongly agree that it was a challenge facing them as a young entrepreneur. A Likert scale was used to ascertain the level of the specific challenges (1- Strongly disagree that it is a challenge, 2 – disagree, 3 – agree and 4 – strongly agree). Means and standard deviations were calculated by gender and T-tests done to determine the differences (if any) between female and male respondents' perceptions. Table 5 presents the results by gender.

Table 5: Mean scores for Perception of Entrepreneurial Challenges faced by Gender

Entrepreneurial challenges	Female Resp.		Male Resp.		All Resp.	
	N	Mean score	N	Mean score	N	Mean score
Lack of information	82	2.23	91	2.10	173	2.16
Necessary skills and knowledge	83	2.17	93	2.05	176	2.11
Getting loans*	83	2.48	90	2.00	173	2.23
Family members to help	84	1.89	91	1.89	175	1.89
Crime or fear of crime	83	2.52	93	2.76	176	2.65
Not Enough opportunity in market	84	2.58	92	2.58	176	2.58
Uncertainty about future	82	2.60	93	2.69	175	2.65
Support from government	82	2.78	92	2.57	174	2.67
Finding a business partner	82	1.94	91	1.99	173	1.97
A weak economic environment	82	3.13	93	3.16	175	3.15
Getting funding information*	84	2.49	94	2.18	178	2.33
Getting money to invest	83	2.48	93	2.52	176	2.50
Lack of family and friends to help	84	1.93	92	1.97	176	1.95
Lack of collateral to obtain loan	81	2.41	94	2.21	175	2.30
Lack of business experience	84	1.74	94	1.85	178	1.80
Fear of Risk	83	2.31	94	2.50	177	2.41
No people encouraging me	84	1.82	94	1.87	178	1.85
Limited mgmt & entp knowledge	84	2.15	93	2.18	177	2.17
High cost of running business	83	2.70	94	2.49	177	2.59
Making enough profit	83	2.51	91	2.47	174	2.49
Having a good understanding of accounting	82	1.94	94	2.02	176	1.98
Finding good labor	80	2.10	93	1.88	173	1.98
Finding materials/ stocks for business	83	2.01	94	1.96	177	1.98
Having good ideas to grow business	84	1.88	94	1.79	178	1.83
Having right contacts to grow business	84	2.18	94	2.17	178	2.17
Not the right time to expand	81	2.21	94	2.18	175	2.19
Too young for this responsibility	84	1.43	94	1.43	178	1.43
Business involves too much work*	84	2.20	93	1.92	177	2.06
Support from community*	84	2.19	93	1.85	177	2.01

Source: (List of challenges were adapted from: Fatoki, & Chindoga, 2011)
** Indicate a statistically significant difference by gender ($p < .05$)*

Data analysis indicated statistically significant differences of perceptions of challenges by gender in just four areas. Youth female entrepreneurs perceived the amount of work involved in running a business, the lack of funding information, the lack of support from the community and getting loans as greater challenges for them than did the youth male entrepreneurs. Of these four challenges the widest variation in perception between female and male entrepreneurs was in the areas of getting loans.

The overall results held some useful insights into the general perception of youth entrepreneurs. Results showed that greater than 50% of respondents *agreed or strongly agreed* that the following were challenges facing them – the weak economic environment (76.6%); lack of support from the government (58.0%); lack of money to invest (50.5%); not enough opportunity in the market (55.6%); crime or fear of crime (56.2%); the high cost of running their business (54.7%); uncertainty about the future (59.4%); not enough profit (50.1%); and the fear of risk (50.2%).

Delving a little more into this data, we found a greater number of statistically significant differences in perceptions of challenges by community and by age group rather than by gender. Youth entrepreneurs in the Linden community perceived a lack of funding information, lack of support from government, difficulty getting loans, lack of collateral to get loans, lack of money to invest and not having the right contacts to grow their businesses as much greater challenges than their counterparts in the Rose Hall/Port Mourant area. On the other hand, the Linden entrepreneurs perceived crime or fear of crime, not enough opportunities in the market, uncertainty about the future, a weak economic environment, lack of business experience, limited management and entrepreneurial ability and lack of good ideas to grow their businesses as less of a challenge than their counterparts in Rose Hall/Port Mourant.

When analyzed by age, results revealed statistically-significant higher level of perceived challenges among the 31 – 35 age group than respondents between 18 and 30 in relation to following challenges - lack of support from government, fear of risk, not enough profit. Conversely, the lack of collateral to obtain loans and difficulty getting loans were perceived as much greater challenges for the 18 - 30 age group than the 31 – 35 age group.

Irrespective of gender, community or age, respondents were confident or sure about their own abilities to run their businesses and about the support from family and community. Greater than 70% of youth entrepreneurs disagreed or strongly disagreed that the following were challenges for them - family members or friends to help (77.2%); finding a business partner (76.2%); lack of business experience (77.4%); no persons to encourage me (80.9%); do not have a good understanding of accounting for business (78%); finding good labor (76.9%); finding materials/stocks for the business (72.3%); don't have good ideas to grow the business (83.1%); too young for this responsibility (94.9%); business involves too much work (71.2%); lack of support from community (71.2%).

Gender differences in access to entrepreneurial support systems

In this section, we analyzed two main areas of entrepreneurial support – entrepreneurial education/ training and access to funding - to determine how youth entrepreneurs interact with the support system by gender.

Entrepreneurial training. Forty-three respondents (24.2%) attended workshops/seminars or special training programs that taught them about entrepreneurship and business management prior to starting their businesses. One hundred and thirty-five respondents (75.8%) did not receive any special training in entrepreneurship and business management. There was no statistically significant difference between male and female youth entrepreneurs' attendance or entrepreneurial training prior to establishing their businesses. However, a statistically significant difference was found between communities ($p = 0.0044$). Youth entrepreneurs from the town of Linden were 2.3 times more likely to attend entrepreneurship and business training than those from the Port Mourant/Rose Hall area. Female respondents in Linden were far more likely to obtain business or entrepreneurship training than their male counterparts in Linden or than youth entrepreneurs in general in the Rose Hall/Port Mourant area.

Respondents were asked about business training since starting their businesses. Thirty-one respondents (17.4%) reported receiving business training since starting their business but there was no statistically significant difference by gender (15% male; 20% female).

Sources of Funding. Two questions were asked to ascertain what financial support youth entrepreneurs got from the institutional support system. They were asked: 1. Where did you get financing from to start your business and 2. Have you been able to secure any financing to grow your business since starting: if yes from where/whom? Table 6 presents findings on sources of start-up capital by gender.

Table 6: Sources of Start-up capital by Gender

Where did financing come from*	**Female**		**Male**	
Own funds	48	57%	57	61%
Borrowed from the bank	3	4%	14	15%
Borrowed from another agency	4	5%	1	1%
Someone financed and I have to repay	2	2%	8	9%
Someone financed and I do not have to repay (Family and friends)	25	30%	25	27%
Grant from a Guyana governmental agency	1	1%	0	0%
Grant from a non-governmental agency	4	5%	1	1%
Other	0	0%	1	1%
I did not need start-up money	2	2%	3	3%
No response	1	1%	1	1%
*Some respondents named more than one source				

Statistical tests did not reveal significant differences in how males and females got their start-up financing. However male entrepreneurs reported receiving more loans from banks for start-up businesses than their female counterparts - 15% for males and 4% for females. There were a few notable differences when analyzed by community. A greater percentage of Rose Hall/Port Mourant youth entrepreneurs (37%) said they got financing from family and friends compared to Linden respondents (16.9%). When the categories of financing were merged, 82.6% reported getting start-up funds from their own savings and/or family and friends. Linden female entrepreneurs were the main recipients of non-governmental grants.

Most respondents (89.2% females, 88.3% males) reported reinvesting profits to grow their business. Only 13 got loans from banks; 21 got expansion financing from family; 2 got financing from government programs; 2 got from non-governmental organizations. Eleven of the 13 who got loans from banks were in the 31-35 age category.

Gender differences in youth entrepreneurs' mindsets about their businesses

There was a group of seven questions asking youth entrepreneurs about their feelings when they think about their businesses. We gleaned from responses to these questions, the positive and negative emotions experienced and whether respondents felt they could run their businesses for a long while. Using a Likert scale from 1 to 4, with 1 being "not at all" and 4 being "very much so," respondents were asked to give a numerical response representing how they felt when they think of their business based on the following measures: a. happy; b. proud; c. I like what I do; d. I can do this for a long time; e. frustrated; f. worried; and g. overwhelmed. These data were analyzed and summary statistics reported by gender in table 7.

Table 7: How Youth Entrepreneurs feel when they think of their Business

	Female Resp.		Male Resp.		All respondents		
When I think of my business, I feel:	**N**	**Mean score**	**N**	**Mean score**	**N**	**Mean score**	
Happy	83	3.78	94	3.70	177	3.74	0.53
Proud	83	3.73	94	3.70	177	3.72	0.56
I like what I do	84	3.88	94	3.87	178	3.88	0.41
I can do this for a long time	81	3.58	94	3.67	175	3.63	0.77
Frustrated	81	2.20	92	2.04	173	2.12	0.91
Worried	80	2.29	94	2.06	174	2.17	0.98
*Overwhelmed	79	2.45	93	2.15	172	2.28	1.02

* Indicate a statistically significant difference by gender at the $p < 0.1$; actual level ($p = .0507$)

Z-tests of means were conducted on each measure to determine whether differences existed between the responses by gender. Youth entrepreneurs of both genders responded to the high end of the Likert scale when asked about being happy, proud, liking what they do and feeling they can do entrepreneurial activities for a long time. Modal scores for these categories were 4, overall

means between 3.63 and 3.88 and there was no statistically significant difference between responses by gender.

On the other hand, when asked about negative emotions, on the Likert scale between 1 and 4, youth entrepreneurs recorded mean levels closer to 2, indicating that they were not too frustrated, worried and overwhelmed with their business activities. For the three measures, overall mean scores were between 2.12 and 2.28 with a mode and median of two. Analysis did not reveal statistically significant differences in two of these measures – "frustrated" and "worried" when tested by gender. However, the "overwhelmed" measure showed significant differences ($p < 0.1$ level) in responses by gender. The "overwhelmed" responses were further interrogated for other impacting factors. Broken down into four groups using gender by community, T-tests revealed statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) between the responses given to this measure by female entrepreneurs in Linden compared to their female counterparts in Rose Hall/Port Mourant and their male counterparts in both communities. The mean scores for the "overwhelmed" measure by group were 2.72 for Linden female; 2.07 for Linden male; 2.11 for Rose Hall/Port Mourant female and 2.19 for Rose Hall/Port Mourant male.

These indicators suggest that both male and female youth entrepreneurs liked what they did and were committed to being engaged in their businesses for a long while. Additionally, almost 90% said that their businesses had grown since starting, with no difference in how men and women answered this question – (90.4% females, 89.4% males). They were also reinvesting some profits to grow their businesses, indicative of them wanting their businesses to survive.

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND LIMITATION

Globally, female entrepreneurs have been found to be disadvantaged relative to their male counterparts (Esnard, 2022; Idowu, 2023; GEM, 2017). The findings from this study indicate that the playing field may be leveling for youth female and male entrepreneurs in the Caribbean country of Guyana. This may be a result of several factors. There are no laws or engrained communal norms and values that debar women from activist participation in business and economic life. Indeed, Guyana's constitution, Section 149F provides women equal rights and status with men. Females are entitled to equal access with males to academic, vocational and professional training, equal opportunities in employment, remuneration and promotion and in social, political and cultural activity. Further, based on some key educational and other indicators, girls and young women in the Caribbean have been outperforming their male counterparts. In Guyana, this is enhanced by the constitutional provision of free education from kindergarten to university.

World Bank Group (2015) dubbed Latin America and the Caribbean "a breeding ground for new businesses led by young people." From our study, it does appear that youth entrepreneurs in Guyana are becoming bold in the pursuit of business ventures, regardless of gender. This entrepreneurial drive is being supported by parents, other family members, friends and the wider community. Cultural and other barriers to entrepreneurs are being diminished as international, regional, governmental, private sector and other operatives continuously declare the virtues and viability of entrepreneurship as an occupational choice. Secondary schools in Guyana are

becoming pivotal to teaching business and entrepreneurial studies, initiating students to the entrepreneurial disposition and exposing them, through mentoring and support to the possibilities of running their own businesses and employing others. It is unsurprising therefore that our research found youth entrepreneurs in the survey, both male and female, proud of their businesses and happy with what they are achieving.

Consistent with the literature (Chigunta & Mwanza, 2016; Gough & Langevang, 2016; Namatovu *et al*., 2016; Owusu *et al*., 2016;), we found youth businesses predominantly in the consumer-oriented sectors. Respondents in our survey reported businesses predominantly in retailing/ vending, beauty and grooming services, snack preparation, livestock rearing and transportation services. Besides these more prevalent business categories, youth entrepreneurs were engaged in event planning, catering, agriculture, appliances/computer repairs, carpentry/welding/ block making and garment manufacturing. They owned restaurants, bars and meat shops; and provided art and craft services, tutoring, printing and other specialties.

The literature on youth entrepreneurship pointed to a clustering of women businesses in few areas (Burunciuc, 2025; Ferdinand, 200l; infoDev, 2015; Pounder, 2015). This study found similar patterns. Eighty one percent (81%) of the female youth entrepreneurs clustered in four main areas – retailing/vending, snack preparation, beauty and grooming and other services. Male youth entrepreneurs, on the other hand, operated in all the represented areas of businesses except garment manufacturing. Male-only areas were transportation services, mechanical/electrical services, owning meat shops and lumber yard, construction businesses, welding and fabrication, agriculture, appliances and computer repairs. Male entrepreneurs were also competing in the areas in which the female youth entrepreneurs clustered. Young women therefore operated in the highly competitive areas, undoubtedly affecting their possible revenue, profitability and growth potential.

A sizeable number of both male and female youths grew up seeing family members run business or supplement income from entrepreneurial activities. Some respondents reported acquiring the requisite skills for their business from these sources. Parents were the leading sources for both male and female youth being socialized and inspired into starting their own business. These inter-generational patterns of business socialization, while very positive, may be partly responsible for the continued differentiated patterns of business types chosen by young men and young women. Such socialization may be a positive influence in the embrace of entrepreneurship by youths irrespective of gender.

Female and male respondents were almost uniform in their perceptions of challenges they faced with their businesses with differences only in a few areas. From the list of 29 possible entrepreneurial challenges, youth female entrepreneurs perceived the high cost of running a business, the lack of funding information, the lack of support from the community and getting loans as greater challenges than did the youth male entrepreneurs. Irrespective of gender or age, respondents were confident about their own abilities to run their businesses and about the support from family and community. Contrary to the literature outlining the enormity of challenges faced by female entrepreneurs (Ahmed & Kar, 2019; Alam, Senik & Jani, 2012; Hanson & Blake, 2009; Moses & Amalu, 2010; Muhumad, 2016; Robichaud *et al*., 2015; Smith-Hunter, 2006) , the young

female respondents, like their male counterparts, in this study were certain that a number of areas were not challenges for them. Greater than 70% of respondents across genders disagreed or strongly disagreed that the following were challenges - family members or friends to help, finding a business partner; lack of business experience, persons to encourage them; not having a good understanding of accounting for business; finding good labor; finding materials/stocks for the business; not having good ideas to grow the business; too young for the responsibility; business involves too much work; and, lack of support from community. The perception of the foregoing as not being challenges for most respondents speaks to support offered by family and the local community. These findings are consistent with what De Gobbi (2014) pinpointed as the pivotal role of social capital - family, friends and linkages to the local community - in the support and success of youth entrepreneurs.

Female youth entrepreneurs in Guyana accessed financial, family and other institutional support largely similar to their male counterparts. Overall, there were no significant differences in how males and females got their start-up financing or finances to expand their businesses. Most of the youth entrepreneurs used their own savings or got family financial support to start their businesses. We did not find a statistically significant difference between the genders receiving entrepreneurial training, but we found that female respondents in the town of Linden were far more likely than their counterparts to obtain business or entrepreneurship training. This was particularly true for women in the beauty and grooming and in the restaurant/catering businesses.

A surprising finding from this study was that youth entrepreneurs generally did not credit their highest level of formal education for the acquisition of the necessary skills for their line of business. There were few differences in the way young men and women said they acquired the requisite skills. Dominant ways were from family members (28.7%); Self-taught (22.5%); from friends/acquaintances (5.1%); taking specialized courses (12.4 %) and from previous employment (14%). The young women entrepreneurs in particular credited their hair dressing and beauty courses and, catering classes for the acquisition of skills.

Youth entrepreneurs of both genders responded to the high end of the Likert scale when asked about being happy, proud, liking what they do and feeling they can do entrepreneurial activities for a long time. In contrast, respondents generally had lower mean scores for feelings such as worried, frustrated and overwhelmed. These had higher deviations from the mean and were further investigated. Females reported a statistically significant higher level of being "overwhelmed" than their male counterparts.

In Guyana, as indeed the rest of the Caribbean there are indications that youths are being exposed to entrepreneurial and business training in the school curriculum at a younger age. In some cases, this pattern carries over to vocational and technical college training. Universities in the region are also doing their part in providing entrepreneurial incubators and training. Additionally, the support system is expanding in communities, with mentorship and linkages to some funding agencies. Female youths are accessing some of these facilities and embracing the challenges.

Limitations. This research used non-probability sampling techniques to find and access youth entrepreneurs for the survey. The limitations to the generalizability of non-probability sampling

---

are well known and here acknowledged. However, the trained research teams, some members of whom were university students who derived from the studied communities, worked closely with community leaders, community agencies and others to find as many youth entrepreneurs as possible in the towns. No limit was placed on the number of youth entrepreneurs needed for the survey. All available youth entrepreneurs in the two communities were accessed and interviewed. We were confident that we reached a significant and essentially representative number of youth entrepreneurs in the study areas. Our topic was not a sensitive one and we found entrepreneurs were willing to provide answers. Future research can possibly replicate this study in other Caribbean countries.

REFERENCES

Ahmed, Y., & Kar, B., (2019). Gender differences and entrepreneurial challenges in Ethiopia. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal, 25*(2), 1-6.

Akpalu, W., Alnaa, S., & Aglobitse, P. (2012). Access to microfinance and intra household business decision making: Implication for efficiency of female owned enterprises in Ghana. *The Journal of Socio-Economics,41*(5), 513-518.

Alam, S., Senik, Z.C., & Jani, F.M. (2012). An exploratory study of women entrepreneurs in Malaysia: Motivation and problems. *Journal of Management Research*, *4*(4), 282-297.

Bardasi, E., Sabarwal, S., & Terrell, K. (2011). How do female entrepreneurs perform? Evidence from three developing regions. *Small Business Economics*, 37, 417-441.

Brockhaus Sr., R., & Horwitz, P. S. (1986) The psychology of entrepreneurs. in Sexton D. L. and Smilor, R. W. (Eds.), *The art and science of entrepreneurship (*pp. 25-48). Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Brush, C.G. (1992). Research on women business owners: Past trends, a new perspective and future directions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 16*(4), 5-30.

Bryan, G.A. (2023, July 18). The classism of entrepreneurship in Jamaica. https://www.linkedin.com/pulse/classism-entrepreneurship-jamaica-germaine-a-bryan

Bureau of Statistics, Government of Guyana. (2012) *Population and Housing Census, Final Results.* [online] http://www.statisticsguyana.gov.gy/census.html#comp

Burunciuc, L. (2023, March 08). World Bank Blog: Five trends in gender (in)equality in the Caribbean. https://blogs.worldbank.org/en/latinamerica/five-trends-gender-inequality-caribbean

Chauke, T. (2022). Gender and entrepreneurship: Towards a transformative agenda for young women. *Youth Voice Journal, 12(*5), ISSN (online): 2056-2969.

Chigunta, F. (2002) *Youth entrepreneurship: Meeting the key policy challenges.* USA: Education Development Center.

Chigunta, F., & Mwanza, V. (2016). Measuring youth entrepreneurship in Zambia. In K. Gough and T. Langevang (Eds.). *Youth Entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa* (pp. 48-58*).* London and New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.

Danns, D. (1997). Poverty and women in Guyana. *Report commissioned by the National Commission on Women in series of issue papers – Status of women in Guyana: Monitoring, research and policy.* Georgetown, GY: National Commission on Women.

Danns, D., & Danns, G. (2019). Financing youth entrepreneurship in a developing country. *Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines*, *6*(3), 193–217.

Danns, D. E., & Danns, G. K. (2022). Institutional support and the challenges facing youth entrepreneurs in developing countries: A Guyana case study. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business, 46*(2), 139-161.

Danns, G. (1988). The role of women in the underground economy of Guyana. In F. Abraham and S. Abraham (Eds.). *Women, Development and Change: The third world experience.* Bristol, IN: Wyndham Hall Press, pp 217 - 244

De Gobbi, M. (2014). Making youth entrepreneurship work in Sub-Saharan Africa: Some factors of success. *Open Journal of Business and Management, 2014*(2), 305–313

Dzisi, S. (2014). Youth entrepreneurship: Investigating obstacles to youth enterprise creation and development. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management, 2*(7), [online] http://ijecm.co.uk

Esnard, T. (2021). Tackling (Un)freedoms: The challenge for women entrepreneurs in the Caribbean. In M. McAdam and J. Cunningham (Eds.). *Women and global entrepreneurship*: *Contextualizing everyday experiences* (pp. 15-29*).* New York, NY: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Fatoki, O., & Chindoga, L. (2011) An investigation into the obstacles to youth entrepreneurship in South Africa. *International Business Research, 4(*2), 161-169.

Ferdinand, C. (2001). Jobs, gender and small enterprises in the Caribbean: Lessons from Barbados, Suriname and Trinidad and Tobago. ILO Working Papers 993495373402676, International Labor Organization. https://www.ilo.org/publications/jobs-gender-and-small-enterprises-caribbean-lessons-barbados-suriname-and

Fubah, C., Kansheba, J., Marobhe, M., & Mohammadparast, A. (2025). Youth entrepreneurship: A systematic literature review of the domain and future research

agenda. Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 32* (2), 496-516. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1108/JSBED-07-2024-0346

Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. (2017). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: Women's entrepreneurship 2016/17 report: https://www.gemconsortium.org/report

Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. (2023). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2022/23 Women's entrepreneurship report: Challenging bias and stereotypes. https://www.gemconsortium.org/report

Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. (2025). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2024/2025 Global report. https://www.gemconsortium.org/report

Goel, A., Vohra, N., Zhang, L., & Arora, B. (2007). Attitudes of youth towards entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship: A Cross-cultural comparison of India and China. *Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability, 3(*1), 1-35.

Green, F. (2013) *Youth Entrepreneurship*. OECD Centre for Entrepreneurship, SMEs and Local Development, OECD, Paris.

Gough, K., & Langevang, T. (2016). Introduction: Youth entrepreneurship in Sub-Saharan Africa. In K. Gough and T. Langevang (Eds.). *Youth Entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa* (pp. 1-11*).* London and New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.

Government of Guyana (2015). National youth policy of the Co-operative Republic of Guyana. [online] https://consensomontevideo.cepal.org/en/instrumento/national-youth-policy-cooperative-republic-guyana

Guyana Chronicle, (2021, January 16). Women 'alarmingly' outnumber men at UG. https://guyanachronicle.com/2021/01/16/women-alarmingly-outnumber-men-at-ug/

Gwija, S., Eresia-Eke, C., & Iwu, C. (2014). Challenges and prospects of youth entrepreneurship development in a designated community in the Western Cape, South Africa. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies,* 6(1), 10-20.

Hanson, S., & Blake, M. (2009). Gender and entrepreneurial networks. *Regional Studies*, *43*(1), 135-149.

Hughes, K. D., Jennings, J. E., Brush, C., Carter, S., & Welter, F. (2012). Extending women's entrepreneurship research in new directions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *36*(3), 429-442. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2012.00504.x

Idowu, F. (2023). Gender dynamics in financial empowerment: Exploring disparities in youth-led entrepreneurship in Nigeria. https://ssrn.com/abstract=4553112

International Monetary Fund (IMF). (2017). Crime and youth unemployment in the Caribbean. [online] 13 November. https://www.imf.org/en/News/Articles/2017/11/13/na111417-crime-and-youth-unemployment-in-the-caribbean

infoDev. 2015. *Profiling Caribbean women entrepreneurs: Business environment, sectoral constraints and programming lessons*. Washington, DC: The World Bank. http://www.infodev.org/EPIC. License: Creative Commons Attribution CC BY 3.0

International Labor Organization (ILO). (2012) *The youth employment crisis: A call for action. Resolution and conclusions of the 101st Session of the International Labor Conference,* ILO. Geneva.

Jones, F. (2024). Population and development in the Caribbean (2018–2023): Accelerating implementation of the Montevideo Consensus, *Studies and Perspectives series-ECLAC Subregional Headquarters for the Caribbean,* No. 124. Santiago: Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC).

Kala, M. (2016). Youth entrepreneurship in a small-scale gold mining settlement in Ghana. In K. Gough and T. Langevang (Eds.). *Youth Entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa* (pp. 181 – 192*).* London and New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group

Kristensen, S., Namatovu, R., & Dawa, S. (2016). Rural youth entrepreneurship in eastern Uganda. In K. Gough and T. Langevang (Eds.). *Youth Entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa* (pp. 132-145*).* London and New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group

Llisterri, J., Kantis, H., Angelelli, P., & Tejerina, L. (2006). Is youth entrepreneurship a necessity or an opportunity? A first exploration of household and new enterprise surveys in Latin America. *Technical Papers Series.* Sustainable Development Department. Washington, DC: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB).

Loscoco, K., & Robinson, J. (1991). Barriers to women's small business success in the United States. *Gender and Society*, *5* (4), 511-531.

Moses, C., & Amalu, R. (2010). Entrepreneurial motivations as determinants of women entrepreneurship challenges. *Petroleum-Gas University of Ploiesti Bulletin*, *1*(2), 67-77.

Muhumad, A. (2016). Challenges and motivations of women entrepreneurs in Somali region of Ethiopia. *Journal of Sociological Studies*, *2*(54), 169-198.

Mustafa, M., & Treanor, L. (2022). Gender and entrepreneurship in the new era: New perspectives on the role of gender and entrepreneurial activity. *Entrepreneurship Research Journal*, *12(*3), 213-226. https://doi.org/10.1515/erj-2022-0228

Namatovu, R., Langevang, T., Dawa, S., & Kyejjusa, S. (2016). Youth entrepreneurship trends and policies in Uganda. In K. Gough and T. Langevang (Eds.). *Youth Entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa* (pp. 18-31*).* London and NY: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group

OECD (2016). Youth entrepreneurship in Latin America and the Caribbean", in *Latin American Economic Outlook 2017: Youth, Skills and Entrepreneurship*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/leo-2017-9-en.

OECD (2017*) Unlocking the potential of youth entrepreneurship in developing countries: From subsistence to performance.* Development Centre Studies, OECD, Paris.

Owusu, G., Yankson, P., & Osei, R. (2016). Youth entrepreneurship in Ghana: Current trends and policies. In K. Gough and T. Langevang (Eds.). *Youth Entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa* (pp. 32-47*).* London and New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group

Pounder, P. (2015). Entrepreneurship and gender disparity in the Caribbean. *Journal of Research on Women and Gender, 6*, 4-23

Robichaud, Y., Cachon, J., & McGraw, E. (2015). Why are female-owned businesses smaller?: An empirical study in Canada and the United States. *Journal of Management Policy and Practice, 16(*1), 62-75.

Salamzadah, A., & Kirby, D. (2017). New venture creation: How start-ups grow? *AD-minister 30*, Jan./June 2017.

Salman, K. (2002). Women without borders: A cross-national perspective on common hurdles and needs for female entrepreneurs. *Journal of Public and International Affairs*, B, 164-180.

Sharma, L. (2018), Entrepreneurial intentions and perceived barriers to entrepreneurship among youth in Uttarakhand state of India: A cross-cultural investigation across genders. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, *10* (3), 243-269. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJGE-02-2018-0009

Schoof, U. (2006) *Stimulating youth entrepreneurship: Barriers and incentives to enterprise startups by young people.* SEED Working Paper No. 76. ILO. Geneva.

Senou, M., & Manda, J. (2022). Access to finance and rural youth entrepreneurship in Benin: Is there a gender gap? *African Development Review 34(*1), 29-41 https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8268.12623

Smith-Hunter, A. (2006). *Women entrepreneurs across racial lines: Issues of human capital, financial capital and network structures*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Terjesen, S., & Amoro, J. (2010). Female Entrepreneurship in Latin America and the Caribbean: Characteristics, Drivers and Relationship to Economic Development. *European Journal of Development Research ,22*(3), *313–330.*

United Nations. (2013). Definition of Youth. https://www.un.org/esa/socdev/documents/youth/fact-sheets/youth-definition.pdf

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), (2015) *Policy Guide on youth entrepreneurship.* https://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/webdiaeed2015d1_en.pdf

van Ewijk, A., & Belghiti-Mahut, S. (2018), Context, gender and entrepreneurial intentions: How entrepreneurship education changes the equation, *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, *11*(1), 75-98. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJGE-05-2018-0054

Verheul, I., Stel, A., & Thurik, R. (2006). Explaining female and male entrepreneurship at the country level. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, *18*(2), 151–183.

World Bank Group. (2015). Entrepreneurship is the trend in Latin America. https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2015/09/30/emprender-esta-de-moda-en-america-latina

World Bank Group (2024). *Educational Attainment Guyana* https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SE.SEC.CUAT.PO.MA.ZS?locations=GY

Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines

Volume 12 Number 1/2 August 2025

This issue is now available online at www.iabd.org.

A Journal of International Academy of Business Disciplines
Sponsored by University of North Florida
ISSN 2334-0169 (print)
ISSN 2329-5163 (online)