

**STRATEGIC ALLIANCES: AN EVALUATION OF THE BENEFITS FOR
SELECTED ZAMBIAN UNIVERSITIES**

By

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the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Master of Business
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DECLARATION

I, **Tisiye Mtonga**, do hereby declare that the work in this study is solely mine. I further declare that this research has not been previously submitted at any other university and that all referencing from other works has been acknowledged.

Signature:

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APPROVAL

This dissertation by Tisiye Mtonga is approved as a fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Business Administration of the University of Zambia.

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ABSTRACT

This study was an evaluation of the benefits of strategic alliances to Zambian universities conducted at University of Zambia, Cavendish and University of Africa. In order to conduct an investigation, the study adopted both qualitative and quantitative methods following the descriptive design. The study sample comprised of 60 respondents sampled using purposive method from from two (2) private and one (1) Government University in Lusaka District. The study adopted a questionnaire survey to collect data and the data was analyzed thematically and statistically using inferential and descriptive statistics. The objectives of this study were; to determine the benefits of strategic alliances in the universities, to establish the challenges of strategic alliances by the participating universities in Zambia, to establish strategies that can be adopted to form beneficial strategic alliances and to probe the effect of strategic alliance on Zambian university. Results of this study revealed that there were benefits in strategic alliances which among others includes, lecturer collaboration in research and student exchange. The assumption of normality was evaluated and found tenable for all groups. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and found tenable using Leven's test, $F(2, 27,600) = .138, p = .872$. The Anova was significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis and conclude there are significant benefits of strategic alliances in Zambian universities. However, the actual difference in the mean score between groups was quite small based on Cohen's (1988) conventions for interpreting effect size. The results for the independent variable, students and lecturer benefits ($M = 1.78, SD = .585$), student exchange ($M = 1.70, SD = .671$), were statistically significant ($t(80) = -9.655, p < .001$). Additionally, student performance through lecturer collaboration ($M = 2.05, SD = 1.21$), library services ($M = 1.73, SD = 1.13$), ($t(73) = -7.941, p < .001$). Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a significant positive association between the performance due to lecturer collaboration and strategic alliances in universities; between student exchange and improved library services and infrastructure development and strategic partnership, $r(60) = .87, p < .001$ and moderately negatively correlated between student exchange and infrastructure $r(60) = .41, p < .001$. The general regression model was not statistically significant in the three data sets: on nature(private or public), $F(1,58) = 9.894, p = > .001$, size of the university, $F(1,57) = 12.417, p = .001$, infrastructure, $F(1,56) = 6.089, p = .003$ with the three variables explaining about 19% ($R^2 = .438$), of the performance variances. The current findings concluded that there are benefits in strategic alliances among universities in Zambian. Therefore, the study recommended, among other things, that universities should consider entering into strategic alliances so as to achieve competitive positioning and alliance partners should be carefully and thoroughly be screened so as to reduce conflict arising due to differences in culture as well as incongruence of management ideologies.

Key words: Strategic alliances, higher education, partnership, mergers.

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DEDICATION

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
UNZA	University Of Zambia
CBU	Copperbelt University
HEA	Higher education Authority
S A's	Strategic Alliances
M & A	Mergers and Acquisitions
MOHE	Ministry of Higher Education

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Strategic Alliances – is an agreement between two or more parties to pursue a set of agreed upon objectives needed while remaining independent organisations.

Acquisitions – is a process of acquiring a company to build on strengths or weaknesses of the acquiring company.

Mergers – is the combination of one or more corporations or business entity into a single business entity, it is also referred as the joining of two or more business to achieve greater efficiencies of scale and productivity.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the general background information that sets the context of the research. The background is followed by the statement of the problem under investigation, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, the research objectives and questions. The chapter also presents the theoretical and conceptual framework in which this study is situated followed by the definition of terms as they have been used in the study.

1.2 Background of the study

Gulati (1998) attributes the business environment to being influenced by current globalization and economic difficulties which in turn makes enterprises form alliances. They facilitate the process of satisfying customer needs, acquiring a competitive advantage and becoming a market leader. Thus, it may provide possibilities for business expansion. Therefore, strategic alliance is defined as a voluntary agreement, the partnership among enterprises that includes exchange of products and development of technologies or services (Gulati, 1998). Ferreira (2017) also defined strategic alliances (SA) as situations where two or more firms agree to benefit from each other's strengths while maintaining their own distinct legal identity. Besides, the motives of the strategic alliance are comprised of possibilities related to better and faster access to technologies, ability to establish in new markets, reduce financial and political risk, form added value and derive profit. (Ferreira, 2017)

In most instances, strategic alliances are formed among enterprises in the developed countries or among enterprises of well-developed countries and countries under the development process. These alliances may be a tool for strategy implementation (Judge and Dooley, 2006; Mockler, 2001; Patel, 2007). Furthermore, the formation of the strategic alliances might be defined as a particular business making philosophy, a form of business model expression. Strategic alliance includes one or more parts of value development network, and it is formed using various enterprises' configurations based on property and activity relations. (Patel, 2007)

The potential of the formation of strategic alliance is based on agreements regarding activity such as contractual non-traditional partnership and property which is either to establish or not

to establish separate entities. Taking that into consideration, there are three types of strategic alliances: learning, hybrid and business. Each type materializes unique strategic goals and each requires particular management (Koza and Lewin, 2000). Learning alliances are formed in order to provide a possibility to exchange insights; their purpose is to deepen and to gain new knowledge and creativity. Such alliance are able to reveal new information of markets, acquire new competences and install new technologies and improve management processes and the main success factor is partners' ability to project, manage organizational processes in alliance using informal interrelations.

Koza and Lewin (2000) further suggest that business alliances are formed because of the rising need of exploitation. Usually, these alliances are used either to create extraordinary position in a geographical market or to overtake a particular market segment. The most important goal of this alliance is to ensure new income using combinations of partners' property. Strong and independent identity is considered as the basic success factor; due to this factor, enterprise becomes a market leader among suppliers and distributors and their loyalty increases as well. Current trends in business alliance formation new value formation in the network. The network is perceived as a form of cooperation among some enterprises, where each member is specialised in creating a new value for market. Alliance based on network is strong if network members are loyal to each other seeking for new value for market and benefit for themselves. (Koza and Lewin, 2000)

Hybrid alliances include a combination of two types of alliance, unification of enterprises' strategic intentions and a need to exploit resources in order to maximise or to create new value (Koza and Lewin, 2000). As Draulans et al (2003) noted, the cooperation among enterprises is a widely known phenomenon, business has been uniting into alliances for more than one century; and during latter decade the number of those has significantly increased. As the mentioned authors noted, the most significant increase in alliances (from 10 per cent to 85 per cent) took place from the beginning of 1970s until the end of 1990s. During this period scientists were focusing on alliances through the scientific perspective, where the attention was mostly paid to cooperation and collaboration among enterprises. It was easier to establish new enterprises through cooperation, new activities and alliances.

Strategic alliances are one of the ways through which businesses can reposition themselves on the market (Park, Mezas & Song, 2004; Simonin, 2004; Hemel, 1991) to improve service delivery, product quality or even customer based (Simonin, 2004). Unlike other forms of

strategic reorganisations such as acquisitions and mergers (M&A), strategic alliances maintain the individual legal identity of the participating partners (He & Balmer, 2006). A strategic alliance is therefore an ideal model where the parties to the agreement want to maintain their individual businesses separately but want to enjoy the competitive advantage and benefits of other organisations (Wohlgezogen, 2013).

Firms can reorganise their market position by acquisitions, unions or alliances (Bauer & Matzler, 2015). In all of these strategic business reorganisations, be it M&As or Alliances, the aim is to benefit from the competitive advantage and good will of another firm (Ellis *et al.*, 2015). It is therefore imperative that the participating entities enter into a special partnership that allows them to mutually benefit from their core competencies such as technology, research, lecturers' expertise and other infrastructure that would be hard to achieve individually (Hernández *et al.*, 2017).

Alliances makes the participating or partner firms much stronger and deliver better services and products than they would if they only used their individual competencies. These alliances can also be important in education establishments especially at tertiary level where research, distinguished lecturer experience and infrastructure can be in short supply and have been observed especially in China (Roberts *et al.*, 2016). Zambia can definitely benefit from these alliances given the rapid proliferation (about 66 universities in Zambia) of both private and public universities in the last ten years (HEA, 2017). Most of these universities are new and still building on their infrastructure, experience, reputation and body of research as compared to the University of Zambia (UNZA) and the Copperbelt University (CBU). Some strategic alliances in education were observed in South Africa when the Tshwane University of Technology and the former Medunsa University jointly offered some programmes by sharing some facilities (Tshwane University, 2006). This was a powerful way of ensuring that the students benefited from the strengths of both universities while remaining enrolled with their distinctive universities. The foregone is a common feature of strategic alliances (Bauer & Matzler, 2014).

Another example is of China that has enjoyed some alliances with western universities, mostly UK, where there is collaboration in research, student exchange and joint seminars, this has made sharing of risks and knowledge easy among the universities (Li, Roberts, Yan & Tan, 2016).

Although there is no unanimous agreement as to why business combinations happen, there is near agreement in the literature that gaining competitive advantage is one of the main reasons firms decide to venture into mergers, acquisitions, alliances or ventures (Healey & Palepu, 1992). However, cooperation among different enterprises or institutions has existed for quite a long period of time approximately for 100 years (Judge and Dooley, 2006) and therefore, it has become a subject matter why scientists and researchers gained deeper insights into strategic alliances. In the Zambian context, strategic alliances among universities have been formed but there has been no literature on record that has evaluated the performance of respective alliances among higher learning institutions. This research will attempt to probe the benefits of these respective alliances among higher learning institutions, in this case the University of Zambia, the University of Lusaka and Cavendish University.

1.3 Problem statement

The last ten years has seen an increase of universities in Zambia with the figure currently standing at 66 legally registered universities. (HEA, 2018) This has, in part, resulted in universities forming strategic alliances in an attempt to widen and better their services to the Zambian population. Universities in Zambia have gone into various alliances, for example, this study will focus on respective alliances in which both private and public universities have ventured in. The study will sample the selected universities in Zambia namely, the University of Zambia, the University of Africa and Cavendish University.

However, the challenges suffered, and the benefits enjoyed by these strategic partnerships have not been evaluated before (to the knowledge of this researcher). The researcher believes that if properly implemented, these alliances can be beneficial to all the stakeholders including students. According to Wohlgezogen (2013) institutions can benefit from the core strengths of other organisations if they are in a strategic alliance. It is in this esteem of improving tertiary education by promoting strategic alliances that this researcher was motivated. Strategic alliances can be achieved in areas such as technology, research and development, expert lecturers' presentations and sharing libraries and other infrastructure (Roberts *et al.*, 2016).

The main aim of this research is to investigate the benefits of these respective alliances among higher learning institutions, in this case the University of Zambia, the University of Lusaka and Cavendish University. This is in order to ascertain what can be done differently to improve on them by both Public and Private Universities in Zambia. The research will investigate the core

areas such as research, lecturers' expertise, infrastructure, possibilities of student exchange programmes and duo qualifications.

1.4 Aim

The main aim of this research is to identify, evaluate strategic alliances and benefits with regards to Zambian universities. The research investigates core areas such as collaborative research, lecturers' expertise, infrastructure, possibilities of student exchange programmes and duo qualifications in three universities namely; university of Zambia, Cavendish university and university of Africa.

1.5. Research Objectives

Study objectives define the specific aims of the study and how the study will answer the specific research question. They are vital because they not only help guide the development of the protocol and design of study but also play a role in sample size calculations and determining the power of the study (Hanson, 2006). Therefore, this study consists of both the general and specific objectives.

1.5.1 General objectives

To identify and evaluate benefits of strategic alliance among identified Zambian Universities.

1.5.2. Specific Objectives

The objectives of this study were to;

- i. To determine the effect and benefits of strategic alliances in Zambian universities.
- ii. To establish the challenges of strategic alliances by the participating universities in Zambia.
- iii. To establish strategies that can be adopted to form beneficial strategic alliances.

1.6. Research Questions

A Research questions are questions that the research study sets out to answer. These questions are important since they are the focus of the research and must be accurately and clearly defined (Meltzoff, 1998).

- i. What is the effect and benefits of strategic alliances in Zambian universities?
- ii. What challenges do strategic alliances face?
- iii. What strategies can be adopted to form beneficial strategic alliances in Zambian universities?

1.7. Hypothesis

The researcher has stated both the null and alternative hypotheses and in doing this followed the works of previous researchers.

The null hypothesis (N₀):

N₀: Strategic alliances in universities in Zambia can lead to greater integration of services and improvement in the delivery of university education in Zambia.

Alternative hypothesis (N₁)

N₁: Strategic alliances in universities in Zambia cannot lead to greater integration of services and improvement of the delivery of university education in Zambia.

The decision to accept or fail to accept the N₀ was made based on the 95% confidence interval using the two tail *t-test*. The χ^2 test will be used to test the group differences regarding their expectations of the benefits and challenges of strategic alliances. The *Pearson's correlation coefficient* was used to test the level of association between strategic alliances and the benefits or challenges. This will be in consultation with prior similar research on the subject of strategic alliances. The researcher will not state any hypotheses regarding the qualitative part of the research as this is not necessary since statistical methods are not used to analyse qualitative data (Creswell, 2009).

1.8. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study extended the current understanding on the benefits of strategic alliances among universities in Zambia. Therefore, insights of these findings have extended our understanding of evaluations of such alliances by the higher education authorities, will be able to implement and improve on the current strategic alliances and be able to grow higher education and apply strategic alliances in other universities in Zambia. Additionally, the study

has also provided new insights into current partnerships with an assumption that if strategic alliances are implemented, virtually the whole world would be a global university.

This study has placed significance in the strategic alliances. The higher education sector would also be directly affected by the benefits of strategic alliances. universities, colleges and trade and skills institutions will have benefit with the rise in the number of alliance partners in the country this would lead to a rise in the quality of education and possibly and better services.

This study has contributed to the body of knowledge significant to the researchers, Academicians and Scholars; it will create in them awareness about the performance of the strategic alliances among universities under study. Furthermore, research in the area of strategic alliances will also equip the researcher with both theoretical and practical knowledge in managing a research project.

1.9. Research Scope

The study covered the three universities in Zambia; the university of Zambia, Cavendish University and university of Africa. The research was conducted in Lusaka District for the reason being that the District is a capital city and has the most in terms number of public and private university.

1.10. Limitations of the Study

The data was collected using self-reported questionnaire and may, therefore, have been subject to misreporting either deliberately or unintentionally. Additionally, causation could not be determined because of the nature of the study design. Finally, the number of universities involved in this study was rather small for a multilevel approach, and results of multilevel analysis can be improved by including more universities.

1.11. Theoretical Framework

The research study was guided by four theories namely; the transaction cost theory, knowledge based view and social exchange theory, resource based theory and dynamic capability and alliance capability view. However, each single theory is not sufficient on its own to explain the complexity of the issue. For this reason, a combination of all the identified theories is required and useful to provide a clear understanding of the alliance success phenomenon in global markets.

For example, on the one hand, transaction cost theory identifies the choice of the appropriate governance structure as a success factor, considering the risk of opportunistic behaviour, but gives no solutions on how to prevent and manage it. Then again, the social exchange theory provides the developing of relational capital as a safeguard against the opportunistic behavior, integrating in this way the previous theory.

Similarly, on the one hand, the resource based view looks at strategic alliances as the mean to identify the optimal resources combination for their value maximization, but it does not consider that market competitive conditions are not static and may change. Conversely, dynamic capability view faces the evolution of the market, where resources' endowment is not sufficient to obtain success from a strategic alliance. In fact, this theory supports the importance of resources reconfiguration and looks at strategic alliances as the mean to create a higher order of resources.

1.11.1 Transaction Cost Theory

Transaction cost theory (Coase, 1937; Williamson, 1981) shows how firms choose the most appropriate governance structure. The theory states that transaction costs are due to bounded rationality, opportunistic behaviour and assets specificity. Bounded rationality, caused by complexity and environmental uncertainty, is the impossibility to foresee all possible situations that may arise and their outcome (Cesarani, 2014). Williamson (1981) defines opportunistic behaviour as "self- interest seeking with treachery"; it means that partner pursues personal goals at the expense of the collective ones. Assets specificity are investments made for supporting a particular transaction, which do not create value outside of it. In the field of strategic alliance, they are termed as "investment in partner-specific".

According to Transaction cost theory, when firms choose the mode of transactions, they are moved by the aim to reduce costs. Williamson (1981) states that firms minimize costs when the governance form matches exchange conditions. In the logic of Transaction cost, strategic alliances are an intermediate or hybrid organizational forms, located in the middle, between market and hierarchy. They are the most appropriate governance form to govern relationships that are not very complex as to require the use of hierarchy, but more complex than those entrusted to the market. Alliances allow firms to decrease the amount of production and transaction costs because it is expected that partners behave cooperatively toward common goals.

However, strategic alliances are not exempt from the risk of partner's opportunistic behaviours. In order to reduce such risk, Transaction cost supports the choice of equity joint venture because ownership aspect tends to limit the risk of opportunism. Equity alliances create a situation of "mutual hostage"; in fact, sharing equity fosters the alignment of partner's objectives. Finally, Transaction Cost Theory identifies "the choice of an appropriate governance structure" as a key factor for alliance success.

1.11.2 Knowledge Based View & Social Exchange Theory

Knowledge based view (Grant, 1996; Spender, 1996) states that firms, in choosing alliance strategies, are moved by the aim to "learning". Through cooperative agreements, firms can enhance their knowledge base. According to Kale & Singh (2007) firms, from prior experience, learn more about alliance management and develop alliance know-how that could be used in future alliances. Strategic alliances become a popular vehicle for organization learning and knowledge sharing (Jiang *et al.*, 2016).

Although strategic alliances offer opportunities for knowledge sharing, they also carry the risk of knowledge leakage to partner (Jiang *et al.*, 2016). Firms have to consider also negative aspects, involved in knowledge sharing, such as the risk of core competences appropriation or a learning race. In order to prevent this kind of risks, it is necessary to develop "relational capital" among partners; it acts as a safeguard against the risk of opportunistic behavior. Such assumption introduces the next theoretical perspective: Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964); it supports the logic of "relational based governance", highlighting the importance of developing social capital for reducing the threat of partner's opportunistic behavior (Gulati, 1995).

The theory identifies relational factors such as mutual trust and mutual commitment as forms of relational safeguard. Mutual commitment is a sense of duty toward the partner; it creates a sense of loyalty and cooperation and provides a basis for communication between partners (Muthusamy & White, 2005). Trust is as reliance on another part under conditions of risk. The combination of these two relational factors creates a sense of loyalty and cooperation among partners and reduce the risk of opportunistic behavior (Gulati, 1995). The development of social capital has positive effects on alliance relationship; it enhances openness and accessibility, increases the scope of the relationship and mutual knowledge learning (Kale & Singh, 2009). In a strategic alliance, high degrees of trust and commitment foster not only the mutual learning but also the development of new skills and competencies. Finally, Knowledge

based view and Social exchange theory identify the “development of social capital” as a key factor for alliance success.

1.11.3 Resource Based Theory

The Resource based theory (Barney, 1991; Peteraf, 1993) highlights the critical role played by resources. Strategic alliances are considered as a mean to access to unavailable resources and develop jointly new ones. Firms are bundles of resources and their competitive position is defined by their own resources endowment. Markets are often incomplete and imperfect and therefore it is not easy for firms to acquire the needed resources. Such resources, indeed, may be not perfectly tradable or even not tradable at all. Therefore, companies decide to form or enter into a strategic alliance for filling their gap of resources. They share resources with partners and identify the most optimal configuration that maximizes the value of such resources. Resource based view identifies complementary resources as a key factor for alliance success.

Lambe *et al.* (2002) define complementary resources as the degree in which firms can cover each other’s lack of resources defines them. High similarity among resources allows firms to gain economies of scale and exploit the existent competitive advantages; different but complementary resources allow gaining economies of scope, synergies, developing new resources and subsequently achieving new forms of competitive advantage (Ireland *et al.*, 2002). The combination of complementary resources leads the development of “idiosyncratic resources” (Lambe *et al.*, 2002). They are valuable resources, developed during the alliance lifecycle (Jap, 1999). These resources have little value outside the alliance relationship and allow firms to achieve a strong competitive advantage when they are combined in a way that competitors cannot easily replicate. Finally, Resource based view identifies the “crucial role of complementary and idiosyncratic resources” as key factor for alliance success.

1.11.4 Dynamic Capability and Alliance Capability View

Dynamic Capabilities view (Teece *et al.*, 1994) has been largely used to explain the conditions of alliance success. The theory is considered as an extension of the Resource based view; in fact, it states that under unpredictable market conditions, resources endowment is no more sufficient to justify the heterogeneity in firms’ performance (Saebi, 2011). Dynamic capabilities view emphasizes the reconfiguration of such resources (Helfat and Peteraf, 2003). Firms that operate in a dynamic environment have to identify the best way of integrating, renewing, reconfiguring and recreating their bundle of resources. Companies, in order to

strengthen their competitiveness, need to develop a high order of resources that enhance the productivity of the basic ones. Dynamic capabilities are defined as organizational routines that affect change in the firm’s existing resource base (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000). They are heterogeneously distributed among firms and therefore represent a source of competitive advantage. As stated by Saebi (2011), Dynamic capability view has an important implication on alliance literature; it promotes a shift in research focus from relational or structural factors, peculiar to the individual alliance relationship, towards managerial capabilities specific of a single firm. According to such assumption, alliance success lies not only in the relationship between partners, but also in each firm’s alliance management capabilities (Duyster *et al.*, 2011).

The concept of alliance capabilities derives from the assumptions of Dynamic capabilities view. Alliance management capabilities are a kind of dynamic capabilities, defined as superior firm’s capabilities in managing alliances (Heimeriks & Schreiner, 2010). They are heterogeneously distributed across firms and for this reason are useful to justify performance difference among firms. Lambe (2002) states that alliances are successful if firms develop the capabilities needed for managing them. Finally, Dynamic capability and Alliance capabilities view identify “alliance management capabilities’ as key factor for alliance success.

1.12. Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework explains the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Mwinyi, 2013). The conceptual framework for this study is depicted in Figure 1.1.

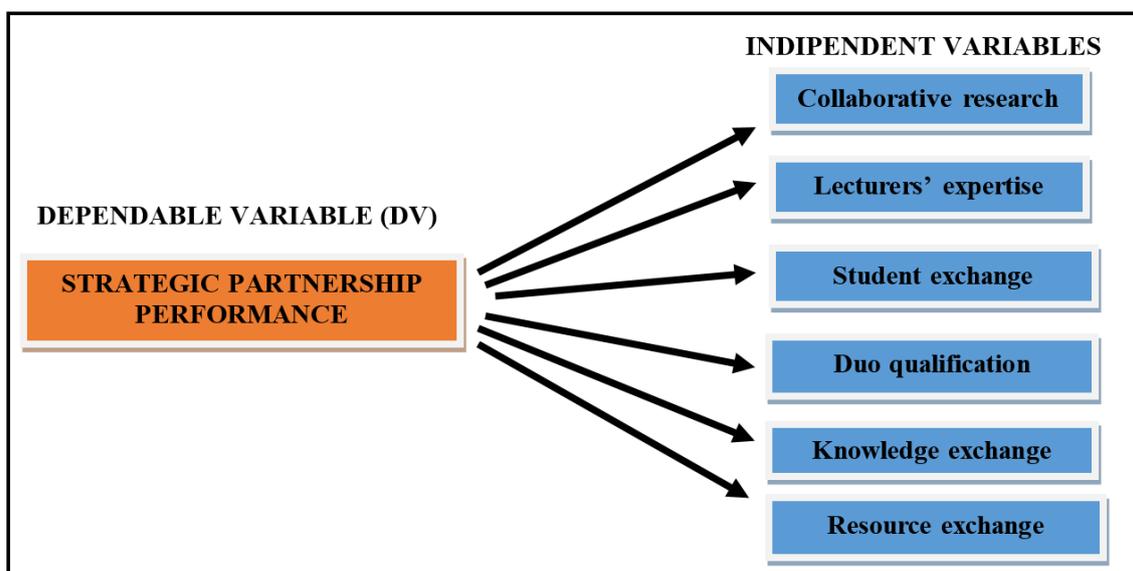


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework.

1.12. Motivation for the study

The main motivation for undertaking this research came from the increasing numbers of universities in Zambia and the need to maintain standards as expected by the public. The fast rate at which universities have increased in Zambia is worrisome as this could lead to falling educational standards especially that some are visibly marked with compromised requisite infrastructure such as limited library space for students, lack of fast internet broadband and so on. This is a bid to investigate whether the strategic alliances would help the private and public universities to improve service delivery thereby maintaining the standards of education in Zambia as expected by the stakeholders. The researcher chose to use the existing strategic alliance within the University of Zambia, University of Africa and Cavendish University as a case study.

The researcher was motivated to conduct this research for two main reasons:

- i. To the best knowledge of the researcher, there has been limited research looking at the strategic alliances of universities in Zambia. The researcher therefore felt it was important to research on this important area and identify areas where such alliances could be achieved or promoted.
- ii. The researcher is currently a serving teacher with the Ministry of General Education and is therefore passionate about ways of improving education because she believes that if the graduates are given a good grounding, then their output in the field will not be compromised.

1.13 Structure of the dissertation

In this chapter the researcher provided and explained the background to the study, the statement of the problem, purpose, the research objectives, and questions. It also provided the significance of the study, theoretical framework, the conceptual framework, delimitation or scope of the study and the operational definitions used in the study.

In chapter Two, the relevant literature of the study has been discussed. Literature has been reviewed from both foreign and local studies which supported and bridged the gap of the study. In chapter Three, the methodology of the study particularly, the research design, research study area or site, study population, study sample, sampling techniques, instruments used for data collection, the procedure for data collection and data analysis. In chapter Four, the findings of

the research study have been presented according to the themes drawn from the research questions. The findings of the study were discussed in chapter Five. The discussion has been done under themes emerging from the findings of the study objectives. In chapter Six, the conclusion and recommendations of the study will be provided.

1.14. Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the background to the study, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives and research questions, significance, delimitation, limitations, and operational definitions. It is clear that a lot of research has been done regarding strategic alliances and benefits to universities in Zambia. The next chapter presents the literature review.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher reviewed some of the relevant literature on the benefits of strategic alliances specifically to universities. The literature review helps to identify the gaps in the existing knowledge that this study aimed to contribute. The researcher also presents some of the studies conducted in Zambia, the world and sub-Saharan Africa. This is done in order to relate to the current evaluation study of the benefits of strategic alliances for Zambian universities. The chapter ends with a summary on the literature that has been reviewed.

2.2 The concept of Strategic Alliances

There are different definitions of the concept of strategic alliances and different names have been used to mean more or less the same thing (Thomas, 2014). Some examples of this are collaboration, partnership, network, strategic alliance and co-operation just to mention a few. Strategic alliances are voluntary agreements between firms involving exchange, sharing, or co-development of products, technology or service Gulati (1998, 93). Strategic network has been defined as strategic alliances formed by multiple firms to compete against other such groups and against traditional single firms (Das & Teng, 2002).

Different writers and scholars in strategic management have defined strategic alliances differently depending on their orientation. For example, Yoshino and Rangan (1995) offer the following definition; a strategic alliance links specific facets of the business of two or more firms. At its core, this link is a trading partnership that enhances the effectiveness of the competitive strategies of the participating firms by providing for the mutually beneficial trade of technologies, skills, or products based upon them.

Matthews (1999) States that, a strategic alliance is an agreement between two or more partner organizations, committing them to pool their efforts and resources in some way. All these definitions encompass the concept of at least two or more organizations coming together, sharing resources but remaining independence (Gulati, 2007; Hamel, 1991).

A strategic alliance is broadly outlined as a contractual agreement among firms to cooperate in reaching an objective without regard to the legal or organizational form the alliance tasks. This

definition accommodates the myriad arrangements that can range from handshake agreements to licensing and equity joint ventures.

Recent years have seen an unprecedented number of strategic alliances (SA) between firms being formed each year. These are not limited to a few industries but occur broadly in all sectors including transportation, manufacturing, finance, electronics, pharmaceuticals and also in education. This study will use define strategic alliance in line with Gurati (1998) who regards strategic alliances as voluntary arrangements between one or more firms willing to share their core strengths to improve customer base, product development, infrastructure and service delivery. Strategic alliances can occur in different varieties depending on the businesses, motives and goals of the participating firms (Meir, 2011).

2.2.1 Forms and Categories of Strategic alliances

A strategic alliance can be referred to as an agreement where two or more firms or partners share the commitment to reach a common goal by pooling resources together and activities coordination (Vonortas and Zirulia, 2015). In addition, Todeva and Knoke (2005) state that many analysts consider strategic alliances as contemporary phenomena even though inter-organizational linkages have been in existence since the origins of the firm as a unit of production. According to Ladki and Shatila (2002), alliances vary with the nature and size of the firms involved.

Todeva and Knoke (2005) further argued that most strategic alliances usually include companies of unequal size. In this regard, the size itself may contribute to bringing the partners together. Alliances also differ based on the needs, capabilities, and objectives of the partner firms involved. Various factors, such as structure of the alliance, characteristics of partners, and nature of specialization, have an impact on the formation of the alliance, maintenance, performance, and consequently its success.

Apart from being trading partnerships that enhance the effectiveness of the participating organizations, Todeva and Knoke (2005) further suggest competitive strategies by providing common exchange of resources, strategic alliances are new forms of businesses that allow partners to improve and control their business relationships in different ways. The alliances can be used to add-on incomplete gaps of capacity, to acquire critical resources in order to hinder competition, acquire means of distribution, overcome barriers associated with regulations, pool resources, reduce risk, achieve competitive advantage, and to generate innovation in areas that

it would have otherwise been impossible if they were working alone (Todeva and Knoke, 2005).

According to Rajasekar and Fouts (2009) there are six categories of strategic alliances. These include; collisions between competitors also referred to as direct competitors as partners, alliances of the weak where two or more weak corporations form alliances, disguised sales which happens when a weak corporation joins a strong one, usually a direct competitor, bootstrap alliances (a weak firm joins a strong one, usually a competitor with a complementary product), evolutions to a sale (sale of one partner), and alliances of matching equals (involves two complementary partners).

Theoretical and research literature has offered a number of basic forms of inter-organizational relations and strategic alliances (Todeva and Knoke, 2005). These classifications are as follows; hierarchical relations which involves one organization or firm takes full control of the other's assets and operations by the ownership rights mechanism through merger or acquisition the other arrangement is equity investment. This occurs where an organization directly purchases stock shares in another organization to become a majority or minority equity holding. On the other hand, a joint venture occurs where one or more organizations jointly create a legally owned organization that will serve a limited purpose like marketing or Research and Development, for the parent or mother organizations. In addition, licensing occurs when one company is granted the right to use production processes or patented technologies in return the company issuing these rights receives fees and royalties. (Todeva and Knoke, 2005)

Another form is franchising materializes when a franchisee is granted the use of brand name identity within a certain geographic location by a franchiser, who still retains control over certain core functions such as marketing, pricing, and standardized service norms. R&D consortia: this happens when inter-firm contracts for research and development collaboration are formed in industries that typically experience rapidity in technological changes; Cooperative: this is a partnership of small enterprises that combine, organize, and manage their resources collectively; Strategic cooperative agreements: these are contractual business systems on the basis of joint multi-party strategic control. The partners work together over vital strategic decisions and share responsibilities for performance outcomes. (Todeva and Knoke, 2005)

In addition to classification to basic forms of inter-organisational alliances are Cartels which are large the corporations that conspire to constrain competition by controlling production and or determining prices in certain industries; Action sets: are short-term firm coalitions where members coordinate their lobbying efforts with the aim of influencing public policy making; Industry standard groups: they are committees that look at the member organizations. agreements on the adoption of technical standards concerned with trade and manufacturing and further in classification is the Subcontractor networks: these are organizations that are inter-linked where a subcontractor negotiates its suppliers long-term costs, delivery schedules, and production runs; Market relations: price mechanism is the main guideline for short transactions between organizations. (Todeva and Knoke, 2005)

According to Heidtmann (2011), strategic alliances can be grouped into diagonal, vertical, and horizontal types according to the industry they belong to and their level of the value chain. Horizontal strategic alliances is a collaboration between two companies that operate on the same value chain level and are in the same industry, with the intention to realize economies of scale. Examples are sales and distribution, and joint R&D. A diagonal strategic alliance on the other hand describes collaboration of two companies in different industries. A vertical strategic alliance can be defined as cooperation between two companies from a different value chain level, whose main aim is optimization within a company by outsourcing proceeding or subsequent activities of the value chain. An example is collaboration between a yoghurt and dairy producer.

Unlike this study that focuses on assessing the benefits of strategic alliances in selected universities in Zambia, most of the forms and categories of strategic alliances in the literature has focused much on companies that operate on the same value chain level and are in the same industry, with the intention to realize economies of scale. Hence, creating a gap for this study to inquire on alliances in the higher education sector.

2.3 Motives for entering a strategic alliance

Globalization of the world economy is a market condition that has forced firms to come up with non-traditional strategies so as to stay competitive. It has had adverse effects on the for-profit and not-for-profit organizations leading them to formulate and implement continuously new strategies (Berkowitz, 1994) thus need for effective strategic management practices.

According to Loranges & Roos (1999) one way of characterizing strategic alliance motives is by looking at the strategic positions of each prospective partner in terms of two dimensions. One dimension concerns the strategic importance of the particular business within which the strategic alliance is being contemplated and how it fits in with the overall portfolio of a particular partner (Gulati, 2007; Rao & Rackett, 1994). It can be queried whether the business is part of the core activity or is it non-core one. Loranges & Roos (1999) further suggest that the second dimension regard the firm's relative position in the business it is in; whether it is a leader or more of a follower, as, a leader, would typically have a larger market.

Gottinger (2007) presented three drivers for alliances which are: network economics, competencies and market structure. Under market structure, Gottinger (2007) argues that certain types of structures force firms to enter into strategic alliances. Because of market power, especially that found in monopolies and monopsonies, firms which want to enter into these markets will be forced to ally with an existing player. The same might happen for highly disaggregated markets whereby firms may form alliances in order to lower costs, create economies of scale, and develop bargaining power against suppliers.

Under competencies, Gottinger (2007) argues that firms enter into strategic alliances so as to leverage knowledge and competencies between firms, create/learn new knowledge and competencies or both combinations. Most common type of alliance under this motivation is licenses where intellectual property is shared. Strategic alliances based on competencies require a lot of cooperation and careful integration of learning, operational and managerial processes between firms.

Network economics refers to industries that are characterized by intensity of information (Gottinger, 2007). Industries impacted by network economies are usually characterized by the demand-side of economies of scale, meaning that the relative number of users can hugely impact the failure or success of a venture

There are various forces or motives that drive companies into forming strategic alliances locally or globally. Gulati (1998) highlighted three main motivations for entering into strategic alliances: transaction costs that result from small numbers bargaining; strategic behavior that leads firms to try to increase their competitive positioning or market power; and a search for organizational knowledge or learning that results when one or both partners want to obtain

some vital knowledge from the other or one partner firm wants to keep its capability while seeking another firm's knowledge.

In the manufacturing industries, numerous structural changes have led to strategic alliances. According to Chan and Wong (1994), strategic alliances are formed to share costs and risks especially where an individual firm cannot recover initial investment costs caused by slow growth rates, market crowding, or rapid technological changes. For example, pharmaceutical companies in Japan want to expand overseas because the Japanese market is too small to recover the heavy costs incurred in Research and Development. On the other hand, American companies want to enter in to the Japanese market because it is the second largest market worldwide accounting for \$13 billion of business (Chan and Wong, 1994). Joint ventures like Takeda and Abbott emerged due to such dynamics.

Companies may also enter into strategic alliances to acquire strategic capabilities rapidly which are needed for global competition. Global competition needs global-scale efficiencies, local responsiveness, and worldwide learning simultaneously. A firm cannot single-handedly possess all these resources and strategic capabilities in order to attain global competitiveness (Chan and Wong, 1994). According to Vonortas and Zirulia (2015) other motives for entering into strategic alliances are: In cases of international agreements, companies want to access product and financial markets, as well as legal political benefits in the host countries; Increase revenues for research organizations that are public especially universities; Creating economies of scale, rationalization and specialization by deploying resources efficiently; and Creation and optimal exploitation of new investment opportunities by increasing strategic flexibility. When organizations are looking for competitive positioning, advantage, and new efficiencies at the same time avoiding uncertainties and rigid hierarchies, they may choose to enter into strategic alliances.

Strategic alliances enable partner firms to gain competitive advantages over non-participating firms through sharing agreed resources and infrastructure (Gulati, 2007; Meir, 2011). Yoshino & Rangan (1995) argued that the key driving force for strategic alliance is competition. Globalization has for instance created opportunities and imperatives for organizations to form strategic alliances (Thomas, 2014). Scholars have further argued that strategic alliances have become a cornerstone of global competitiveness, one that all executives must now understand and manage with skill (Doz & Hamel 1998). They further argue that strategic alliances are a

logical and timely response to intense and rapid changes in the economic activity, technology and globalization.

There are however, other scholars who fear that alliances can expose and weaken the participating firms' trade secrets thereby diluting the individual firms' competitive advantage. However, proponents of strategic alliances argue that in the face of globalisation strategic alliances can much more easily break down the entry barriers into new markets for the participating firms (Naidoo & Hollebeek, 2016). This is in line with the arguments of Johnson and Scholes (2002), who contend that joint development of new strategies has increasingly become popular particularly since the early 1980 in the quest for novel approaches to tackling business problems and finding suitable solutions (Thoams, 2016; Naidoo & Hollebeek, 2016).

The arguments in favour of strategic alliances are further reinforced by increasing customer demands who are in search of near perfect services and products that are of international standards (Naidoo & Hollebeek, 2016; Rao & Rackett, 1994). Other researchers argue that organizations can rarely cope with increasing complex business environments that transcend national boundaries and that developing from their sole internal resources and competencies might be more financially taxing and time consuming (Thomas, 2016). The foregone argument, makes the justification, at least in part, that strategic partnerships might be some good solution for firms wishing to enter new markets and develop new competencies as the requisite resources might be readily available through collaborating partners (Rao *et al.*, 1999). Alliances can also avail skills, markets and infrastructure to participating firms making it much cheaper and faster to enter new markets and to expand in existing markets (Reast; 2005; Hemel, 1999).

The education sector has not lagged behind on this matter, and recent years have seen unprecedented rise in the formation of strategic alliances between universities both locally and internationally as observed by Mutual (2004). In Zambia for instance the University of Zambia is collaborating with a lot of private colleges and Universities in the domestic market. Bannerman (2005) studied strategic alliances in education and training services in Australia, and highlighted the importance of such partnerships in education regardless of whether these co-operations are local or international.

2.4 Strategic alliances and competitive positioning

The competitive positioning (CP) of a product seeks to identify the segment that is being targeted and the differentiated value proposition intended to be delivered to that segment

(Burke, 2011). If the CP is strong, this indicates that the stakeholders know the intended customers of the product and why they need it with regards to the value proposition relative to competitive alternatives. Burke (2011) continues to state that competitive positioning is developed to drive brand choice in a certain segment of a market. There are a number of steps that are required so as to identify competitive positions, assess them and ensure that they are built in efficient and effective ways. These steps include examination of: (1) internal capabilities; (2) competitive factors; (3) scanning the environment; (4) consumer segments; (5) fit between strategic business units' (SBU's) capabilities and alternative position requirements and; (6) profitability of the positions (Burke, 2011).

A high competitive positioning of a firm, according to Burke (2011) will lead to a product commanding high premium prices due to differentiation and the fact that the product's value proposition is relevant to the market segment. Another importance is that high competitive positioning of products will lead to economic improvements in the industries in which the products compete in. Industries where firms compete with distinctive propositions of value that are strongly and consistently perceived by the stakeholders of a market as having a high competitive position should be healthier. This is so because the products will not face collapsing margins brought by price competition because they will not compete on the same attributes.

While Burke (2011) in the above argument suggest that a high competitive positioning of a firm lead to a product commanding high premium prices due to differentiation and the fact that the product's value proposition is relevant to the market segment

2.5 Benefits of Strategic Alliances

Forming strategic alliances is a fast way for acquiring resources. The nature of the resources to be shared may be the same or different. Resources may be complimentary or supplementary. When complimentary resources are pooled together, they enable the creation on new capabilities (Satta, Parolla, Penco, and Falco, 2015), stimulate technological innovation, and favour mutual relations amongst partners because of the non-overlapping nature of the resources (Sà and Lee, 2012). Alliances expose an organization to the outside world.

2.5.1 Acquisition of the resources

This can provide it with a mechanism to bring the challenge of competition to parts of the organization that are normally shielded away from it. A partner can introduce new threats as well as new opportunities by helping to shake off bad habits, re-examine pre-conceived ideas, and generate a desire to change and innovate (Roberts *et al.*, 2016; Meir, 2011). In academia, for instance, alliances would enable newer institutions to benefit from the resources base of relatively older and renowned academic institutions, thereby limiting the required entry capital cost needed to set up the necessary infrastructure (Thomas, 2014; Gulati, 2007).

However, Roberts *et al.*, (2016) caution that education alliances involving cross boarder collaborations rarely succeed mainly due to cultural differences. Thomas (2014) argued that despite their numerous benefits education alliances can lead to opportunistic behaviour and can breakdown if mistrust exists between the parties. That said, most alliances are based on an intention to exchange resources and competences between the partners.

According to Strickland (2003) not only can strategic alliances offset competitive disadvantages or create competitive advantage but they can also result in the allied companies directing their energies more towards rivals and less towards each other. This is important because the biggest resource in academia is staff expertise and if strategic alliances are applied in education, the partners can amplify their list of experts tremendously which would not be possible to build independently due to higher recruitment costs (Thomas, 2014; Roberts *et al.*, 2016, Naidoo & Holleebek, 2016; Harrison *et al.*, 2016). Generally strategic alliances tend to lower the transaction costs through the use of complementary assets and competences and thus to promote productivity growth in the alliance member companies (Johnson & Scholes, 2003). More specifically, the main advantage of strategic alliances includes improved access to capital.

2.5.2 Shared Knowledge and expertise

Major technological breakthroughs often require resources to develop and commercialize that are beyond the scope of a single, even a large company (Wgner & Goosen, 2018). By aligning themselves with firms that possess resources needed for expansion, even small firms can capitalize on their own strengths to a much greater extent (Reast, 2005; Van der Lans *et al.*, 2014). Strategic alliances also lead to better access to new technology and innovations.

Alliances can help contending companies promote their technologies and gain the critical mass required to persuade enough sponsors to join their group.

According to Strickland (2003), SA's allow specialists in each field to co-operate and exploit new opportunities much faster than if each were to try to acquire the industry-specific technology of the others as is happening in the multimedia field where computer technology is merging with telecommunications, video, and audio technologies. Many firms are knowledgeable in some areas especially their core business areas and lack expertise in other areas. Forming a strategic alliance can lead to access to knowledge and expertise in an area that a company or organization lacks. Knowledge is an intangible resource critical in the firm gaining competitive advantage. The information, knowledge and expertise that a firm gains can be used for other projects and purposes. The expertise and knowledge can range from dealing with government regulations, production, marketing, or learning resource acquisition (Isoraite, 2009).

2.5.3 Shared Risk

According to Johnson & Scholes (2003), entrance into new markets and businesses can be facilitated through strategic alliances. They help break through barriers in local and foreign markets as policies set by local and national governments may deny local market access to non-domestic companies. The use of local technical or distributional capability can be one avenue to breaking through legal restrictions (Barmer, 2018). In addition, local partners may provide better information and intelligence about customers and competitors. Strategic alliances lead to shared risks and liability.

According to Hussey (1998), shared risk is another important reason to enter an alliance, particularly in the R&D field. As research forms the backbone of knowledge generation, expansion and modification of original understanding (Thomas, 2014; Roberts *et al.*, 2016), strategic alliances in education would benefit the participating partners by sharing resources including critical expertise (Meir, 2005). Alliances spread the risks as well as returns from developing, validating and introducing new technology and new ways of tackling problems. Again, this concept would ensure that the academic circles benefit from reduced costs of establishing new research centres, computer infrastructure as well as lecturer expertise (Gulati, 2007; Hemel, 1999), thereby limiting the individual firms' cost and risk.

2.5.4 Synergy and Competitive advantage

According to Isoraite (2009) accomplishing synergy and a competitive advantage may be another reason why firms enter into a strategic alliance. Synergy is one of the most important reasons for the formation of strategic alliances because some firms are stronger than others. Strategic alliances are efficient, effective and are more competitive as compared to individual partners performing activities and tasks alone. As compared to entering a market alone, forming a strategic alliance becomes a way to decrease the risk of market entry, international expansion, and research and development. Competition becomes more effective when partners leverage off each other's strengths, leading to synergy that would be hard to achieve if attempting to enter a new market or industry alone.

2.5.5 Organizational learning

Organizational learning is a systematic procedure whereby organizations create knowledge through its employees, teams and groups. It pushes the organization towards better performance and results through development and generation of competences (Leal, Roldán, and Real, 2006). Wittman, Hunt, and Arnette (2009) state that firms involved in strategic alliances tend to have greater performance due to learning and knowledge sharing as well as opportunities available to gain competitiveness. Through organizational learning firms are able to make use of their existing resources and capabilities by converting them into unique capabilities which is a source of sustainable competitive advantage (Real and Roldán, 2014). The process around the creation, transfer and use of knowledge greatly contribute to the success of the alliance and how the alliance performs. Organizational learning enables firms to avoid mistakes which minimize costs that would have been spent during the learning phase.

2.5.6 Entry to new markets and business growth

Firms use different strategies in order to enter new markets. Strategic alliances have been one of the most common ways a firm can diversify into new markets or use this as a market entry strategy. Firms entering a new market will reap more benefits from a strategic alliance (Drago, 1997). Drago (1997) argues that increased market and operational uncertainty are associated with new markets. Firms can reduce these uncertainties through strategic alliances.

The greater the variations in the new market for an organization, the greater the potential for benefiting from alliances. Alliances speed up market entry and increase product lines especially for multinationals seeking to expand into markets that are foreign. They also enable firms to

penetrate foreign markets that have entry barriers. Strategic alliances enable firms to control regulatory bodies by partnering with firms that already have the essential license and thus speed up the process of market entry (Sompong, Igel, and Helen, 2014).

According to Isoraite (2009), in retail, entering a new market is a process that is expensive and time consuming. Forming strategic alliances with an established company which has a good reputation can help create favorable brand image and efficient networks of distribution. Even established reputable companies need to introduce new brands to market. Leveraging off the alliance will help to capture the shelf space which is key for the success of any brand. Strategic alliances have also been used a strategy for business growth (Anslinger and Jenk, 2004).

Most organizations greatly rely on strategic alliances to grow business. From the alliances, firms are able access to new markets by tapping into segments that they would have been unable to reach individually due to limitations based on the geography or size of the firm (Gilmore, Carson, and Rocks, 2006).

2.6 Challenges of strategic alliances

Several factors, including the inherent conflict resulting from goal divergence, partner opportunism and cultural differences contribute to failure of alliances (Ireland, Hitt and Vaidyanath, 2002). Ireland, Hitt and Vaidyanath (2002) also highlight that selecting the wrong partner, failure of anticipated cooperation to emerge and variances in expectations about the value that can be created, also make management of strategic alliances difficult.

2.6.1 Lack of commitment from top management of the Alliance

Some individuals who negotiated and helped in implementing the preliminary alliance may change due to transfers, terminations, promotions or retirement. Such instances may make continuity of total commitment quite difficult. Elmuti and Kathawala (2001) suggested that commitment from the senior management is very critical for the success of a strategic alliance. The senior management should be fully committed to formulating, implementing, managing, and monitoring the overall strategic plans.

Commitment to strategic alliances from the senior management will ensure that the alliances receive the required resources and convince others in the organization of the importance of the alliance. More so, the senior management should demonstrate a strong commitment and play a strong leadership role so as to minimize such a view by the members. Additionally, alliance

leaders have impact on how the teams interact and their effort of working together towards achieving the objectives and goals of the alliance (Schweitzer, 2014). Therefore, a good alliance should not be on the basis of control or ownership but rather commitment and enthusiasm (ibid).

2.6.2 Failure to learn and understand the differences in culture.

Cultural differences will definitely exist among global organizations that are seeking strategic alliances. Corporate cultures may however be different among organizations that are from the same nation. This barrier may be overcome through learning and flexibility. According to Hofstede (1984), there are five cultural dimensions. These dimensions include: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism and femininity vs. masculinity, and long term orientation. These dimensions distinguish members of one national group from another. Cultural differences especially for cross-border alliances lead to widespread differences in managerial philosophies.

To ensure maximum success of a strategic alliance, companies should look for partners with similar philosophies of management or draft an agreement between the partners that will address the differences and provide their resolution. Failure to understand and adapt to new style of management, which requires a change in corporate culture and should be initiated and nurtured from the top management, is a major challenge in strategic alliances. Organizational culture demonstrates how things are done in an organization (Smith, 2003).

Strategic alliances often face the challenge of failure to adapt in the new management styles. Partners in the alliance often suffer from incongruence of organizational cultures and management ideologies. This is mostly manifested when the partners have varying national cultures which generate misunderstanding and also to some extent the local alliance (Brito & Silva, 2009).

2.6.3 Lack of Trust

In any strategic alliance, trust has been identified as an important factor for its success. Mutual trust and commitment are key values for strategic alliances. Aalbers (2010) contends that trust is assumed to lower transaction costs mainly in an uncertain environment and, as such, it is a valuable source of competitive positioning and advantage. The concept of trust is gradually receiving attention in studies on strategic alliances. Trust is assumed to guard against unscrupulous behaviour, thereby stimulating an environment that stimulates knowledge and

skills exchange to take place. In understanding the role of network facilitators in nurturing trust among partners, entails greater comprehension of how it may leverage on the tractor's insights of ability, magnanimity and integrity to foster the development of trusting relationships (Cannatelli and Antoldi, 2012).

Therefore, trust involves choice and existence of risk. It develops over a period of time. For trust to be there, a fundamental condition is that there must be an opportunity to abuse the trust (Chaturvedi and Gaur, 2009). No contract or agreement, however detailed it is, can account for all issues or contingencies in a strategic alliance. It is also not practical to rewrite the alliance agreement every time a new issue arises. Most of the activities in the alliance will develop informally as the alliance develops and therefore trust will be critical (Kale and Singh, 2009). In an atmosphere of no trust, transaction costs are not minimal thus there are no benefits increased from the alliance. According to Nielsen and Nielsen (2009), trust has been shown to facilitate transfer of knowledge, improve flexibility, reduce the cost of running business, and create an environment where there is potential for learning and innovation.

2.6.4 Ambiguity of roles

There always exists a possibility that partners in a strategic alliance may act in an opportunistic manner. While setting up the alliance it is vital that there is no role ambiguity (Kumar, 2014). Ambiguity in role promotes instability in the alliance. While alliances provide an opportunity for resource complementarity, the realization of the alliance benefits depends on how role ambiguity will be managed in the alliance (Kumar and Patriotta, 2011). Running an alliance with ambiguity requires having circumstances where there are many analyses to situations. Role ambiguity makes it difficult for the partners to plan for the alliance since the partners don't know what they expect from it. Alliance partners should be determined to clear ambiguity while negotiating, executing and evaluating the alliances. Ambiguity can arise in the form of partner, interaction or evaluative ambiguity (Das and Teng, 2002).

Kale and Singh (2009) propose that role ambiguity can be reduced by having top management support, collaborative problem solving, subdividing tasks, building relationships amongst the alliance partners, and an enhanced effort towards governance of the alliance. Clarity in roles ensures all the parties know what is expected of them. Elmuti and Kathawala (2001) argue that clearly understood roles will increase the chances of success for a strategic alliance. The question of control should be addressed before the alliance is formed. The degree to which each partner has control over operations and can offer input that is influential on decision making

must be determined before formation of the alliance. When a strategic alliance is being formed, all the partners should decide each other's roles up front so as to prevent misunderstanding and uncertainty leading to an amicable relationship.

2.6.5 Poor strategy

Clearly defined, shared goals and objectives also determine the success of a strategic alliance as Elmuti and Kathawala (2001) state. Some companies are highly integrated with the parent organizations and share resources like management staff, manufacturing facilities, and support functions such as research and development. On the other hand, some organizations are autonomous and independent from their parent organizations. It is very important that strategic alliances be aligned to the company strategy because two or more partners with separate corporate cultures merge.

Elmuti and Kathawala (2001) recommend that the best strategy for growth through alliances would be to move slowly, and begin with not-so complex alliances and upon success, these organizations can move towards more complex ones after gaining the necessary experience and talent. Top management need to articulate a clear link between expectations of where the industry's profit pools in the future will be, how the alliance will capture a larger share, and how the alliance fits in the plan. According to Elmuti and Kathawala (2001), a McKinsey study found that 50 percent of strategic alliances fail due to poor strategy.

2.6.6 Poor Leadership

Most alliances are organized in a manner whereby there is a shared leadership function but informal leadership structures evolve within the partnership. Leading a strategic alliance often has exceptional challenges. The leader will need to factor in different leadership skills that encompass issues such as the nature of the contract between the organizations, relationship between the partners, and the characteristics between the team members in the alliance (Schweitzer, 2014).

The alliance leaders will have an impact on how the team interacts and their effort of working together towards achieving the objectives and goals of the alliance. Ineffective communication between partners may lead to dissolution of an alliance resulting from mistrust or doubt between parties. Effective communication will build and maintain relationships in strategic alliances. Transformational leadership supports organizational learning and effectiveness of

teams. This leadership style inspires the team, is charismatic, stimulates their intellectual capacity and considers the opinion of everyone in the team. Conflict is eliminated and the alliance is unified enabling to move in one direction (Schweitzer, 2014).

2.7. The Global Perspective of Strategic Alliances among Universities

The growing trend of partnership and alliances of education or universities, has called either government public universities or private sponsor universities to take up the challenges. At this point, the study will discuss the findings from a partnership process of higher education providers who formed strategic alliance with the purpose to achieve learning and seek competitive advantage.

2.7.1. Strategic Alliances in Higher Education in Asia

Transnational partnerships between universities can illustrate the changing political, social, and cultural terrain of global higher education. Drawing on secondary data analysis of government educational statistics, university web pages, and a comprehensive literature review, this part focuses on transnational partnerships with particular reference to China in order to illuminate the diversifying relationships between networks of global universities. International partnerships develop in historical, geographic, social, and cultural contexts and the analysis of Chinese universities' partnerships across different social, cultural, and geopolitical contexts indicates that, even within the elite groups of universities, transnational partnerships are diverse and complex. (Gunn and Minstrom, 2013)

From early in the history of higher education (HE), universities have been influenced by a strong international and transnational dimension (Gunn and Minstrom, 2013) and have, from their inception, moved across national boundaries. In the past three decades, however, transnational partnerships have become increasingly significant, being at a complex and contradictory relationship of both collaboration and competition (Oleksiyenko and Yang, 2015).

Although historically transnational partnership in HE centred on research and scholarship, latterly programme coordination or Transnational Higher Education (TNHE), where students study part or all of a foreign degree in their home country, has emerged as an increasingly significant element of internationalization across a range of countries (Huang, 2007; Trahar, 2015). Global higher education partnerships are diversifying and becoming increasingly

important in a broader range of ways. The rise in transnational partnership in the UK has been mirrored in other parts of the globe, with particularly rapid development in East Asia, with Malaysia, Singapore, and China being the top three countries for activity (HESA, 2015).

Transnational higher education in China has also been growing in the last three decades and more than 1000 programmes and institutions have now been approved by the Chinese government (Fang, 2012). TNHE plays out differently in different national contexts, however, and in China the emphasis is on controlled cooperation with joint investment in forms of capital including land, intellectual property, brands, and management systems (Fang, 2012). The underlying purpose of TNHE partnerships often varies internationally, with the motivation of UK TNHE being predominantly financial and the driving force for China relating to access to an international higher education at home for a broader range of the population (Huang, 2006; Hou et al., 2014).

Research interests around the concept of transnational partnership are also beginning to intensify (Oleksiyenko, 2015) and there has been a sharp increase in published work in this area since 2006 (Caruana and Montgomery, 2015), including initiatives around EU programme collaboration and research carried out by the British Council. Notwithstanding this increase in research, Oleksiyenko and Yang (2015) note that there has been a dearth of research on partnerships and their associated policies and challenges, particularly with regard to the emerging global and economic powers of the BRICS nations (Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa), and China in particular.

For instance, Malaysia has incorporated an open policy for SAs that enhance technological know-how, domestic learning and experience in selected industries, so that local people get the opportunity to learn, acquire and experience new skills (Bank Negara, 2002). Further, Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) are concentrating in improving the quality of education services and ensuring that program offered by the public and private higher educational institutions in Malaysia are of high quality and international standards. In their endeavour to achieve these goals, they have established promotional offices in Dubai, Jakarta, Ho-Chi Minh City and Beijing (MOHE, 2009).

MOHE also has taken up other marketing strategies that include offering incentives to institutions promoting education overseas; recognition of Malaysian degrees by foreign countries and the establishment of the new national quality agency for both private and public

higher educational institutions, i.e. Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA). The ultimate aim of all these strategies is to make Malaysia a “favoured” destination for international and local students to pursue their tertiary education besides making education an important export commodity that will generate foreign exchange for the country (MOHE, 2009).

2.7.2. Strategic Alliances in Higher Education in America

In America, Colleges and universities have often been required to evolve in response to shifting societal priorities. Over the past century, this occurred in the context of an ever-expanding system of higher education built with a substantial investment of public money. If society needed more professional programs, institutions added them. In the current context, however, the expectation of institutional accountability remains undiminished despite an increasingly resource-constrained environment. This places colleges and universities in a double bind. They are expected to address society’s needs, yet they often do not have the resources to respond to them. These institutions of higher learning are limited in the ways they can generate additional capital, and efforts to free resources by reducing administrative overhead and reallocating responsibilities have often produced pyrrhic victories (Eckel, 2003).

However, one promising means for developing new capacities is the creation of strategic partnerships between colleges and universities. Such arrangements are well documented in the management literature. Termed interorganizational relationships (IORs), such collaborative enterprises assume a variety of forms (Bailey & McNally Koney, 2000; Barringer & Harrison, 2000). They may be differentiated from one another on a number of dimensions, including: (a) the financial support contributed by each partner, (b) the extent to which the organizational and/or governance structure is formalized and centralized, and (c) the relative contribution of each partner in the development and production of a given good or service.

This study focused on academic IORs that are strategic in nature (i.e., they extend beyond the mere sharing of library books or bulk purchasing or similar consortia activities) and have been “established for a variety of reasons relating to the inability of one of the partners to solve an important problem” (Borys & Jemison, 1989, p. 241). To put it simply, they are working together because no single partner can accomplish what it seeks on its own. The management literature on strategic alliances points out that they are formed for a variety of reasons (Gulati & Singh, 1998) and notes that the rationales for holding them together may shift over time (Spekman, Forbes, Isabella, & MacAvoy, 1998).

Alliances open doors to markets by pooling financial and human resources, thereby producing new combinations of products, services, and expertise (Bailey & McNally Koney, 2000; Gulati & Singh, 1998; Hagadoorn, 1993; Oliver, 1990). They extend capabilities, improve the delivery of services, generate greater economies of scale, and reduce expenses by linking complementary technologies or sharing facilities and capacities and jointly investing in new innovations, such as technology (Bailey & McNally Koney, 2000; Borys & Jemison, 1989; Gulati & Singh, 1998; Hagadoorn, 1993; Whetten, 1981). Alliances have been shown to facilitate the development of new ideas and products and allow participating organizations to “leapfrog” into new areas (Gulati & Singh, 1998; Hagadoorn, 1993).

Partners that join together learn from one another (Doz, 1996; Hagadoorn, 1993), which is an advantage since buying knowledge and expertise in the marketplace can be prohibitively expensive (Barringer & Harrison, 2000). Together, organizations may find it easier to monitor the changing environment and better understand emerging opportunities or risks (Gulati & Singh, 1998; Hagadoorn, 1993). Alliances may also be formed to defend a current strategic position (Barringer & Harrison, 2000). Finally, an organization may join an alliance to gain legitimacy through association with others, particularly larger, visible, reputable, and prestigious firms (Bailey & McNally Koney, 2000; Barringer & Harrison, 2000).

However, managing IORs in the private sector has proven remarkably challenging. Park and Russo (1996) cite a series of studies that put the failure rate of strategic corporate alliances at 7 in 10, 2 in 3, and 1 in 2. This uneven history of success points to two principal challenges. First, a successful alliance requires participants to reconcile their organizational goals and to develop clear and compatible expectations (Doz, 1996). This is easier said than done, however, because not only do partners enter the alliance for different reasons, they often harbour divergent objectives, for example, one may wish to expand market share while the other is interested in maximizing revenues.

The absence of shared assumptions can make reconciling such differences challenging (Borys & Jemison, 1989). Second, partners may have different organizational norms about decision making (Rondinelli & London, 2001) their operating procedures, policies and governance structures (Borys & Jemison, 1989; Saxton, 1997) and their accepted means of establishing trust (Ring & Van de Ven, 1994) may therefore be difficult to reconcile. In a real sense, the central challenge of IORs was addressing disparate sets of values and assumptions that is, reconciling organizational cultures.

Colleges and universities in America have a long history of collaborating (Martin & Samels, 2002; Whealler Johnson & Noftsinger, 2004) through consortia and exchange agreements, shared resources, coordinated curricula (such as 2+3 programs and articulation agreements), athletic conferences, and joint research. These traditional partnerships differ in important ways from the inter-institutional programs in this study. The first tend to be operational in nature, more concerned with efficiencies (doing things better or cheaper) than with effectiveness creating new activities in response to a changing environment; Pfeffer & Salancik (1978). They extend and enhance the existing capacities of the partners. Sharing library resources, joint purchasing, or cross-enrollments of students exemplify these kinds of arrangements (Dotolo & Strandness, 1999).

In a research which focused on a particular type of strategic alliance, what is called curricular joint ventures (CJVs; Eckel, Hartley, Affolter-Caine, 2004), which are partnerships where two or more institutions collaborate with one another including making shared financial investments (thus assuming shared financial risks) to develop an academic venture neither partner could launch on its own (Dussauge & Garrette, 1999; Hamel, 1996; Porter, 1996). Although there are an increasing number of examples, higher-education alliances have been inadequately studied, especially curricular alliances. Further, what little has been written tends of evaluating the performance of these alliances.

2.7.3. Strategic Alliances in Higher Education in Europe

In Europe, in the past years, institutes for scientific education and vocational training have increasingly been searching for strategic alliances to reinforce their position in the educational market. In the Netherlands, which has 14 universities and some 60 schools of higher vocational training, a jumble of co-operations, consortia and alliances can be observed (Digital University, E-merge, Apollo, and SURF, among others). The tendency for close collaboration and mutual involvement is not only a direct consequence of Dutch culture, which indeed values highly harmony and mutual agreement, but the inclination to that behaviour is enforced by economic circumstances too. Clearly, all collaborations between universities are strategic in nature and serve an economy-of-scale concept.

A large scale is nowadays a prerequisite for allocating budgets needed to keep educational services up to date (Bates, 2000). Today, the need for educational changes and innovations is greatly amplified by the ascent of the information and communication technologies (ICTs) and their applications. For instance, many Web-based learning management systems are being

introduced right now in order to improve the flexibility, service level and cost efficiency of education. The introduction of such educational technologies deeply intervenes in the institute's organizational structure, its internal workflow as well as its technical infrastructure. High investments are needed for many years, even though the outcomes may be insecure. Various authors (Bates, 1995; Westera et al., 2000, among them) pointed out that new technologies in education would lead to increased unit cost, even when no substantial improvements are made.

The need for an economy of scale that justifies the high investments for ICT-based innovations urges universities to enter into strategic alliances with fellow institutes. However, all too often strategic alliances appear to be nothing but 'hot air'. Boards of management may have raised their glasses to celebrate new agreements, while after some time fundamental differences in culture, interest and pedagogical approach make all 'beautiful' intentions fade away. In a paper to review the establishment of one of the very few university alliances in the Netherlands that actually succeeded in building up a mutual win-win situation. As part of a wider consortium between universities, the CIHO (Consortium for Innovation of Higher Education in the Netherlands and Flanders), the project was evaluated to be one of the best two projects out of many dozens. The project was called K-Web, short for Knowledge Engineering Web. In Dutch the project was first called the BOK-project (1997–2000) and then the LOKproject (2000–2002) (BOK stands for Brede Onderwijsinnovatie Kennistechnologie; LOK stands for Landelijk Onderwijsweb Kennistechnologie). Its main point was the joint creation, sharing and delivery of learning materials in the domains of knowledge engineering and artificial intelligence.

2.8. Strategic Alliances among Universities: The African Outlook

Fifteen universities from eight African countries launched an alliance of research universities, at the African higher education summit in Senegal's capital Dakar. The focus of the group was to build African research excellence as a vital precondition for the continent to develop and exert control over its future. Leading institutions with strong research and postgraduate training joined the African research alliance, or ARUA, with its first chair being Dr. Max Price of the University of Cape Town.

Public universities in Kenya have linkages with universities in developed countries. The University of Nairobi has linkages with many universities in Eastern Africa Belgium,

Germany, the UK and the USA. For example, the link between the University of Nairobi and the Free University of Belgium has in the past six years provided funding for ICT infrastructure and joint Masters and Doctoral degree programmes.

Moi University has links with Indiana University in the USA, and the Free University of Belgium that support doctoral training, faculty exchange and joint research programmes. Egerton University offers a joint degree in Aeronautical engineering with Michigan University in the USA. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) has linkages with Japanese universities that have traditionally been funded by JICA, the Japanese development agency. Similarly, all the private universities have links with international universities for faculty and student exchange programmes. For example, Kenya Methodist University has linkages with a Canadian university that supports joint research programmes. USIU maintains links with universities in China, Germany, India, Japan and the USA for faculty and student exchanges, while Strathmore University has links with universities in Nigeria, South Africa, Spain and the USA.

Kenyan universities also collaborate with Eastern African universities through the Inter-University Council of East Africa (IUCEA). These linkages support limited student and faculty exchanges as well as joint student competitions. In addition, they support joint research projects, like the Lake Victoria research project that involves faculty from universities in the three East African countries working in multidisciplinary programmes. Some faculty members have created research networks in various areas of regional and global concern. All the Kenyan universities are also members of the Association of African Universities (AAU) which supports faculty exchanges. Both IUCEA and AAU organize annual meetings for Vice Chancellors to share experiences.

Kenyan universities have been collaborating in the area of internet bandwidth purchases and development of campus networks as members of the Kenya Education Network (KENET). All the universities are members of KENET. KENET is already coordinating joint production of on-line teaching materials and research databases by faculty at different universities.

All the Kenyan universities also share library resources through the interuniversity library loan system. University libraries are increasingly being automated and about 25% have OPAC available off-campus to students and faculty in other universities. Thus Kenyan universities

already recognize the need for collaboration in teaching, research and management of the universities. (Wandiga, 2017)

Research institutions in Kenya are area-specific and as such, they have excellent equipment and qualified manpower that can be utilized to enrich teaching and research at the universities. The institutes can carry out joint research and training with the universities and their facilities can also be used by both faculty and students thus exposing them to the requisite infrastructure for research. Some research institutions have strong partnerships with development partners through whom they get substantive funding and expertise. (Wandiga, 2017)

Universities can similarly benefit through collaboration and also benefit from such funds. There are many international research organizations which operate in Kenya. (Wandiga, 2017) These research institutes are often disconnected from the local research environment and experts. There is therefore, need to review the legal framework, protocol and conventions that set up these institutions to allow for more collaboration with the universities and local researchers.

2.9. The Zambian viewpoint of Strategic Alliances among Universities

There are more than 60 universities in Zambia and each university has its strategic partners both local and international. For instance, according to the university of Zambia strategic plan (2017- 2022), UNZA outlines to engage in more partnership than it has at present. The University of Zambia has more than 50 partnership at present which includes local and international. (UNZA, 2018). One typical example of Universities in Zambia that has also sought partnerships is the Copperbelt University. CBU has partnered strategically with other institutions on the basis of commonality in academic, research collaboration, industrial and student exchange.

On the other hand private universities have emerged in the higher education sector in Zambia. The emergence of these institution of higher learning has been necessitate by the demand of higher education due to population and economic growth. Private university have also created opportunities that accommodate partnership based on academic, philosophy and culture. For example, the University of Africa has managed to secure 500 partnerships with other universities around the world while Cavendish University has more than 40 partnerships with other universities. Not much literature is available on the evaluation of strategic alliances and their benefits in the Zambian context.

2.10. Knowledge Gap analysis

This study was an assessment of strategic alliances and an evaluation of the benefits for selected Zambian universities. Most literature reviewed in this text has similarities in the tool and assessment methods but does not directly relate to an evaluation of the benefits with strategic alliances in such an industry as universities specifically in Zambia. Most assessments of strategic alliances in this literature has covered the corporate and the banking sector, the communication sector, the hotel and hospitality sector and mobile service provider. Hence causing some gaps in the way strategic alliances are being managed in the higher education sector, especially that of universities. The research will investigate the core areas such as research, lecturers' expertise, infrastructure, possibilities of student exchange programmes and duo qualifications.

2.11. Chapter Summary

In this chapter the researcher reviewed existing literature that was related to the topic under study. The various literature related to strategic alliances which was considered to be relevant to this study with a view of putting it into the context of similar works done so far, thereby providing a justification for this study. In the next chapter, the methodology that was employed in this study has been presented.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methods which were employed in this study. It constitutes the following: research design, research philosophy, target population, sample size, sampling procedure, research instruments, data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to how the researcher views the world and how they ultimately construct meaning from it (Polit & Beck, 2018; Saunders, Thornhill & Lewis, 2009; Creswell, 2009). A good research philosophy should be linked to the aims, objectives and the research question together (Creswell, 2009). This therefore challenges the research to have a clearly defined research philosophy and carefully chosen suitable research methods to answer the stated research question (Westbrook, 1994).

In this dissertation the interpretivist and positivist approaches was followed. The interpretivist approach is largely associated with qualitative research. This approach however, requires identifying and using an objective measure that can be measured on a metric scale (Bowers, 1991) and is reproducible on repeated measures (Ryan, 2006). Clearly, this would pose a huge problem when it comes to measuring quality which relies on evaluating how an institution behaves relative to set standards or future intentions of an institution to form strategic partnerships.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is the plan and structure that is used to analyse the subject matter being researched on with the intention of answering the research questions (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). A research design can also be described as a systematic planning of research, usually including; the formulation of a strategy to resolve a particular question; the collection and recording of the evidence collected; processing and analysis of these data and its interpretation; and finally the publication of results (Cooper and Schindler, 2014).

It is the blueprint that guides the whole study to attain the research objectives as well as answer the questions. The choice of research design is influenced by, among other things, the availability of a large pool of methods, techniques and sampling plans. A mixed method sequential explanatory research design was used in this study. In line with this approach, quantitative data was collected first and analysed and was then followed by qualitative data (Sloman, 2010). A further illustration has been shown in Figure 3.2.

Furthermore, Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2007) have shown that surveys are one of the most utilized methods in business research because they allow the collection of large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economic and effective way at the same time describing the status quo. The survey method was therefore justified for this study as it had many characteristics that were advantageous given the large sample size and short time span for administration. Some of the characteristics include; control of the data collection environment, flexibility of data collection, range of questions, sample management, number of data, response rate, rate and expenditure. A survey was undertaken in the population with the dependent variable being Evaluation of benefit. The independent variables are going to be the types of strategic alliances, benefits of the strategic alliances, and the challenges of the strategic alliances.

3.4 Deductive or Inductive approach

This research also followed an inductive approach in order to build a new theory related to strategic alliances in higher institutions of learning in Zambia. Inductive approach involves collecting the data in the form of participant experiences and observations allowing for the collection of rich data (Westbrook, 1994; Creswell, 2009). In addition, an inductive approach has no pre-stated hypothesis against which the results of the data are tested, but rather, themes to be tested emerge from the data making it possible to get deeper meanings of the phenomenon of interest (Westbrook, 1994; Strauss & Corbyn, 1990).

In the deductive approach, the researcher needs to pre-define the hypotheses to be tested (Saunders et al., 2009; Hart, 2011. Ryan, 2007; Cooper & Schindler, 2006). This restricts, scholars have argued (Bernard, 2013; Creswell, 2009;8) that the level of detail can be obtained from the data but rather just follows the narrowly defined null and alternative hypotheses (Denscombe, 2017; Sarantakos, 2013). Nonetheless, some researchers reject the two narrow distinctions and argue that both approaches can be used in the same research and that the

differences between them are not razor sharp (Ryan, 2006). For the purposes of this dissertation, the deductive approach will be used as well.

3.5 Study Area

A study area is simply a place where a research is going to take place. The study was carried out in Lusaka. Lusaka was purposively sampled because this is where most universities are situated in Zambia and it is where educational policies are formulated. This study was conducted in three universities of Zambia and these includes; the University of Zambia, Cavendish University and University of Africa. Universities in Lusaka district will be chosen because of the convenient proximity of universities under study which made data collection easier. This, therefore, provided the researcher with a sample that could have variable information concerning the implementation strategic alliances and its benefits in universities of Zambia.

3.6 Target Population

According to Cooper and Schindler (2014), the target population includes those people that contain the desired information and can answer the measurement questions. Target population includes persons meant to be administered instruments. The target population for this study constitute of the University of Zambia, Cavendish University and the University of Africa a combination of public and private universities in Lusaka District. University staff, academic and non-academic, were used in this study because of their involvement in decision making of their respective institutions and their consultancy prowess in higher education administration as they have a professional responsibility of ensuring that the implementation of all educational policies within institutions are carried out effectively.

3.7 Sample Size

According to Mugendo and Mugendo (1999), a sample is a smaller group obtained from the target population. This sub-group is carefully selected so as to be representative to the whole population. The sample of the study consisted of 60 respondents. According to the three universities staff establishment of total 2000, of which the study only targeted 100 participants who had the work experience and of the duration required for this study which in this case constitute 60% of the target population. This number was arrived at as it was hoped that this sample population would provide rich information regarding the topic of this study. This number is deemed adequate for the study as the sample of respondents was drawn from the

senior staff consisted of the administrative registrars, deans of faculties and heads of the various schools of different disciplines of all the sampled universities. For the convenience of the research survey, there was 60 respondents who were stratified by departments in order for the researcher to evaluate the perceived benefits of the exiting alliances if any in these Universities.

3.8 Description of Sample and Sampling Techniques

Sampling is the procedure a researcher uses to gather people, places or things to study (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). A sample is a subset of the population containing same characteristics of a larger population. Samples are used in statistical testing when the population size is too big for the test to include all members for observation. To ensure that the sample stand for the whole population and not reflect prejudice toward a precise feature, the sampling techniques employed in this research are Purposive and probability techniques. Purposive sampling was used to select the universities where the study was to be conducted and probability to select 20 respondents drawn from the University of Zambia, 20 respondents from Cavendish University and 20 respondents from the University of Africa.

3.8.1. Purposive Random Sampling

The criteria which was used in collecting the data will be both purposive and convenience sampling in selecting university. Purposive sampling will be used to select the participants (lecturers and academic staff members at universities). Purposive sampling procedure is a method where the researcher purposively targets a group of people believed to be for the study (Kasonde-Ng'andu, 2013)

Kombo and Tromp (2006:82) state that “the power of purposive sampling lies in selecting participants who will provide the richest information for in- depth analysis related to the central issue being studied”. And in this case, that is why grade sixty (60) members of staff from universities will be purposely selected since they are involved in most strategic planning and alliances of universities. In line with Kombo and Tromp (2006), the researcher found this method very suitable for the study because these people are expected to have knowledge adequate on the subject.

However, simple random sampling will be employed to select the lecturers to participate in the study. “A simple random sample (SRS) of size “n” consists of “n” individuals from the population chosen in such a way that every set of “n” individuals has an equal chance to be the sample actually selected” (Moore and George(2006). This method will be used in that it will

provide each participant an equal chance to be selected. Random samples are used to avoid bias and other unwanted effects, thus this method will be used above all other methods because it avoids bias and other effects.

3.9 Data Collection Instruments

Data collection instruments include questionnaires, interview schedules, focus group discussions and observation schedule guide (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). Questionnaires were the main research instruments that were used in this study.

3.9.1. Questionnaire

The researcher used a semi-structured questionnaire with a total of 40 questions (Appendix 2) that dealt with the subject matter with selected members of staff from the three universities. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches to collecting data were used. The Likert scale self-explanatory questionnaire was administered and divided into four sections to gather both qualitative and quantitative research findings. The collection of data in research is very important, according to Oppenheim (1992), there are two decisions that must be made by the researcher regarding data collection. These are, the first being which data is relevant to the research purpose and from which sources.

Secondly which tool is the most suitable to collect data? For this research, the researcher, valued the relevance of obtaining data regarding understanding the strategic alliance: an evaluation of the benefits for selected Zambian universities. As mentioned above, the researcher adopted a semi structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was made of (3) three parts. Part A: personal and background information of both the members of academic and non-academic staff participated in the study. Part B: included job performance on strategic alliances. Part C: included the overall perception of the pros and cons of strategic alliances. In this section, Staff were required to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with specific statements on a five (5) point scale as follows: strongly agree (1), agree (2), undecided (3) disagree (4) and strongly disagree (5). The questionnaires were distributed using the drop and pick later system by the researcher. Participation in the research was entirely voluntary and the whole process was carried out with great courtesy. 60 questionnaires were distributed. From the 60, 60 questionnaires were received representing a response rate of 100%. Questionnaires were employed because they allow for the collection of data from a large population at the same time (Marsden & Wright, 2010).

3.10 Validity, Reliability and Trustworthiness

In the following section, the researcher explains how validity, reliability and trustworthiness was applied in this study.

3.10.1 Validity

Validity is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences which are based on the research results (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). In other words, validity is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. There is content validity and construct validity. Content validity refers to the representativeness of the content of the instrument (De Vos, 2002). To ensure content validity, the content of the instruments of the study were reviewed by the supervisor and peers so that appropriate questions were included in the questionnaires and interview schedules.

Thus in this study, face validity was ensured by making use of the comments from the supervisor and a statistician to evaluate the questionnaire on completion. Construct validity, on the other hand, is a measure of the degree to which the data obtained using an instrument meaningfully and accurately reflects or represents a theoretical concept. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) explained that to assess construct validity, there should exist in a study a theoretical foundation regarding the concept to be measured.

In this case, the researcher made use of the literature as a secondary source of data, which supplemented the validation of the accuracy of the findings. The research ensured validity by using multiple methods of data collection. This is supported by Brewer and Patton (2002) who argued that the combination of methods complements each other by eliminating overlapping flaws. Thus, when methods are combined, which is known as triangulation, inconsistencies are taken care of, thus valid and reliable data emerges (Patton, 1990).

3.10.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the accuracy and consistency of the measuring instrument (Burns & Grove 2001, p.395). In other words, reliability relates to the precision and accuracy of the instrument. If used on a similar group of respondents in a similar context, the instrument should yield similar results (Cohen et al 2000). The accurate and careful phrasing of each question to avoid ambiguity and leading respondents to a particular answer ensured the reliability of the tool. Therefore, the questionnaire was then given to the researcher's supervisor and colleagues with

experience in compiling questionnaires and to the statistician to review. Then necessary amendments were made accordingly. Thereafter, a pilot study was conducted in Lusaka district, by making use of participants similar to the respondents and then amendments to the questionnaire were made accordingly. The following comments and suggestions were made by the pilot participants, they are indicated exactly as they were given by the participants; to make the instructions clear by indicating whether to tick or cross the correct answer.

According to DeVellis (2006), internal consistency reliability is the measure of reliability used to evaluate the degree to which different test items that probe the same construct produces similar results. It examines whether or not the items within a scale or measure are homogeneous. Kimberlin and Winter (2008), define internal consistency reliability as the estimate of equivalence of sets of items from the same test. The coefficient of the internal consistency provides an estimate of the reliability of measurement and assumes that items measuring the same values must correlate.

For this research, the researcher used the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for measuring the internal consistency reliability. According to Shuttleworth and Wilson (2008), Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a statistic tool generally used as a measure of internal consistency or reliability of a psychometric instrument.

A reliability analysis was carried out on the perceived task values scale comprising 40 items. Cronbach's alpha showed the questionnaire to reach acceptable reliability, $\alpha = 0.78$. This figure suggests that internal consistency was excellent. Garson (2006) postulated that reliability of 0.60 is commonly acceptable in exploratory research. However, an overall alpha of at least 0.70 or higher is needed for an instrument to be accepted as reliable. Therefore, the instrument for this study was considered reliable as its alpha level at .78. This reliability statistic is presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.787	40

Source: Field data (2019)

3.9.3 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness incorporates strategies for validation of qualitative studies. (Creswell, 2007) enumerated eight procedures of trustworthiness (Creswell, 2007) prolonged engagement and persistent observation in the field; triangulation and multiple sourcing of data; peer review and debriefing for external checks; negative case analysis; clarifying of researcher bias; member checking; thick description; and external audits. Lincoln and Guba (1985) used the terms credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability to group various procedures together under larger aims, and to offer alternative terms to positivist concepts. In this study, trustworthiness focused on credibility, dependability and conformability of the study. In order to validate the findings in this study, the researcher recorded some of the interviews so as to check for unclear information and then cross check with the respondents. During cross-checking, the researcher made use of the responses in order to verify the findings and made follow-ups on issues that needed clarity.

3.9.4 Credibility

The basis of any claim to trustworthy knowledge is credibility. Rather than assume that there is a “truth value” in the research, for example, for the singular truth to be uncovered, credibility establishes that the representation constructed through research is indeed valid and believable (Seale, 1999) . In order to validate the findings in this study, the researcher recorded the interviews and then cross checked with the respondents. During cross-checking, the researcher made use of the responses for the verification of the findings and made follow-ups on issues that needed clarity. In addition, the researcher compared the findings from the interviews, and questionnaires in order to check whether the analysed data represented the phenomenon under study.

3.9.5 Dependability and conformability

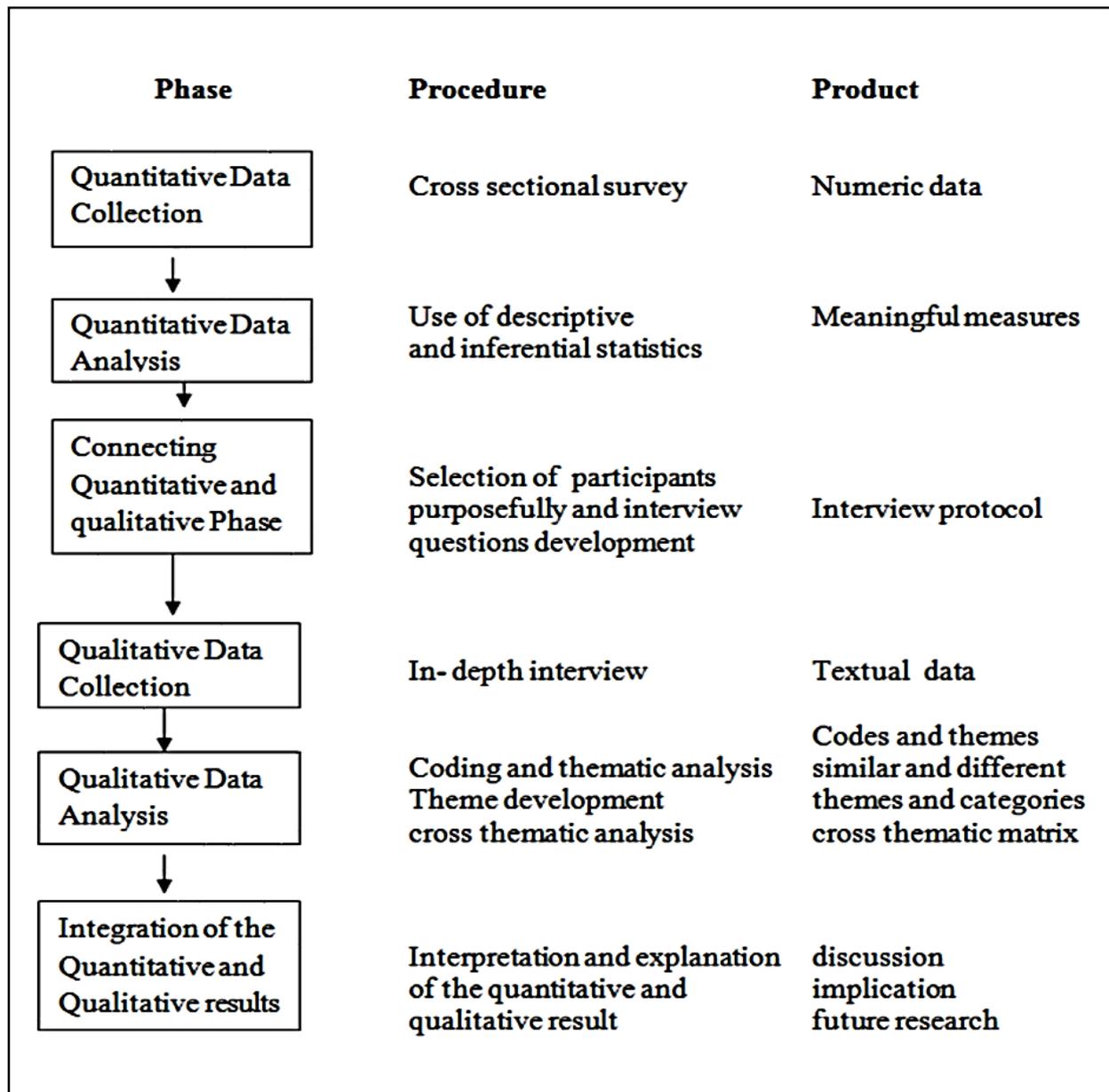
Dependability establishes the shared or common constructs by which research accounts can be assessed. Conformability finds out the degree to which findings of the study can be confirmed by ensuring a degree of replicability in qualitative terms of any study. Credibility through prolonged engagement, triangulation and diversity of data, disinterested peer review, and negative case analysis establishes the believability in the representation and findings generated by the research items, and to eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording (Cohen et al, 2002). In this study, disinterested peer reviews were done during postgraduate presentations seminar. The data was triangulated with multiple sources so that it could be credible.

3.10 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher got clearance from The University of Zambia Ethics Committee before data collection. Then the researcher obtained an introduction letter from the Assistant Dean, Postgraduate, Graduate School of Business at the University of Zambia to enable her to collect data in the field. Before meeting the participants, the researcher requested permission from them in order to distribute questionnaires. The researcher distributed questionnaires to members of staff and lecturers and arrangements were made with them at a convenient time when completed questionnaires could be collected. With interviews, consultations were made with respective heads of departments, and dean of schools in universities, then appropriate dates were set for the interviews to be carried out by the researcher.

3.11 Data Analysis

As discussed earlier, this design consisted of two distinct phases: quantitative followed by qualitative. In this design, a researcher first collects and analyses the quantitative (numeric) data. The qualitative (text) data are collected and analysed second in the sequence and help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results obtained in the first phase. Patton (2002) described the process of data analysis as the organization of what is collected into patterns and categories while looking for relationships and linkages among the descriptive dimensions. Since this study was based on a mixed methods design, both qualitative and quantitative data analysis procedures were considered. Subedi (2016) pointed out that the holistic idea can be shown in the following tabulated form. The researcher managed to secure 60 of the responses from the 60 given out. The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Scientists) was used to analyse the data. Refer to Figure 3.2 which shows how data was analysed using an explanatory sequential design adopted in this study.



Source: American Journal of Educational Research (2016)

Figure 3.2: Data Collection and Analysis Using an Explanatory Sequential Design

3.11.1 Quantitative Data

Quantitative studies demand the participation of a sufficiently large number of individuals who are basically not required to extensively describe experiences and phenomena in the study (Creswell, 2003 & Williams, 2007). The researcher used descriptive statistics to organise the data in such a way that it gives meaning and facilitate insight (Burns & Grove 2001: 499). Numerical descriptive measures provide precise, objectively determined values that can easily

be interpreted and compared (Keller & Warrick 2000: 90). In this study, some data that was collected from questionnaires was analysed through the use of the statistical package for social sciences. The description of the data was done by means of determining representative characteristics such as frequencies, percentages and means. The data was organized and presented by means of frequency distribution tables and graphs.

3.11.2 Qualitative Data

Qualitative data collection is usually dependent on interpretation. This study used the thematic analysis approach. Thematic analysis was used to analyse classify and present themes (patterns) that related to the data. It illustrates the data in great detail and deals with diverse subjects via interpretations (Boyatzis, 1998). In the case of thematic analysis, processed data can be displayed and classified according to its similarities and differences (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

The researcher also ensured that data transcription commenced as soon as data collection began in order to be familiar with the data that will be collected and to allow for possible follow-ups in an event that the collected data lacked clarity. Familiarization and organization is done so that data can easily be retrieved. The researcher read and reread the data in order to have a thorough understanding of the data. After understanding the data, the researcher categorized it into themes. The process of coding, categorizing and developing themes was repeated for each transcript or set of data. All the collected data was grouped under prominent themes that come out. The next step the researcher examined all entries with the same codes and merged these categories into patterns by finding links and connections among categories and finally data was interpreted.

3.12 Ethical Consideration

Pera and Van Tonder (1996, p. 4) defined ethics as “a code of behaviour considered correct”. It is crucial that all researchers are aware of research ethics. Ethics relate to two groups of people; those conducting research, who should be aware of their obligations and responsibilities, and the “researched upon”, who have basic rights that should be protected. Ethical issues observed in a study may include “informed consent, right to anonymity and confidentiality, right to privacy, justice, beneficence and respect for persons” (Brink & Wood 1998, p. 200-209).

In terms of the validity of the research design and time the mixed methods research combines quantitative and qualitative research, ethical considerations need to attend to typical ethical issues that surface in both forms of inquiry. In order to have a valid research design, the researcher read widely on mixed method research. Quantitative issues relate to obtaining permissions, protecting anonymity of respondents, not disrupting sites and communicating the purposes for the study, avoiding deceptive practices, respecting vulnerable populations, being aware of potential power issues in data collection, respecting indigenous cultures, not disclosing sensitive information, and masking the identities of participants (Creswell, 2002). Therefore, individuals with diminished autonomy (in this research, each person that completes a questionnaire) were protected by not having their names or any form of identification disclosed in any way. The right to self-determination was guaranteed by ensuring the right of the participant to voluntarily participate in the research or to refuse to disclose information of any kind at any stage of the research.

Informed consent was obtained and the purpose the research was explained to all the participants will take part in this study. Informed consent is “a legal requirement before one can participate in a study” (Brink & Wood 1998, p.200). In this research, ethical considerations such as time spent with the participants, risks to the participants, invasion of privacy, confidentiality and reciprocity were addressed to ensure the quality of the data that was collected. People who declined to participate or who withdrew from the research were not treated with prejudice. All agreements between the researcher and the participants were honoured. Participants were at all times treated with respect and courtesy.

In an explanatory design, researchers may use a large quantitative database for the initial phase of the research. In order to follow up on these individuals with qualitative interviews, there needs to be an identifier linked to the quantitative database. Some individuals may not want their quantitative data released. Using names without permission constitutes an ethical mixed methods issue. As a result, in this study, the researcher made sure the names of the people who participated in this study were kept confidential so that no harm or embarrassment will be done to them. Lankshear and Knobel, (2004) have argued that harm can range from people experiencing affronts to their dignity and being hurt by conclusions that are drawn about them all the way through to having their reputations or credibility undermined publicly. Therefore, participants were referred to by codes or pseudonyms and not names in order for confidentiality to be upheld by such lecturers and heads of departments and members of staff at university.

3.13 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, details on the methodology which was employed in the study have been explained, including research design, study area/site, target population, study sample, sampling techniques, research instruments, validity and reliability, data collection techniques, data analysis as well as ethical considerations. In the next chapter, the findings of the study are presented.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the presentation of the results has been done. These results are based on the data that was collected through questionnaires which were administered to university members of staff, lecturers and heads of departments. The chapter begins with a description of the sample from which the data was collected by giving, demographic details relating to respondents before presenting the findings of each research question. A number of themes emerged from the data that was collected and were aligned as answers to the research questions and detail was added from the quantitative data that was obtained through the questionnaires. However, the analysis was strictly guided by the information which was answering the following research questions:

- i. What is the effect and benefits of strategic alliances in Zambian universities?
- ii. What challenges do strategic alliances face?
- iii. What strategies can be adopted to form beneficial strategic alliances in Zambian?

4.2. Demographic Classification of Respondents

Variables of gender, years in current position and educational level, current University, current position and their departments were inquired in the questionnaire to know the demographic and social features of the respondents. Creating a profile of the respondents would help better understand and address issues with respect to the subject matter.

Two categories, namely gender and years of experience were identified as the most important for the analysis. As seen in Table 4.1, of the 60 respondents, majority (71.7%; n=43) were male and 28% were female (n=17). Of the same group, the majority of them 66.6% (n=40) of the respondents had 0-5 years' experience in their current position, 18 % (n=11) of the respondents had 6-10 years of experience, 10 percent of the respondent (6) had 11-15 years of experience while only 5% (n=3) of the respondent indicated to have 16-20 years of experience in their current position. Table 4.1 presents a summary of frequency distribution of respondent's years of experience. The number of years of experience in this study is a prerequisite to a good understanding in the implementation and engagement in strategic alliance.

Table 4.1: Frequency and Percentage distribution according to gender and years of experience of the respondents.

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender (n=60)		
Male	43	71.7
Female	17	28.3
Years in current position		
0-5	40	66.6
6-10	11	18.3
11-15	6	10
16-20	3	5

The Figure 4.1 below shows the level of education the respondents from the three Universities which denotes that, 80% (n=48) of the respondent (4) indicated to have Masters, 13% (n=7) of the respondents had PHD while 13% (n=8) had Bachelor’s degrees.

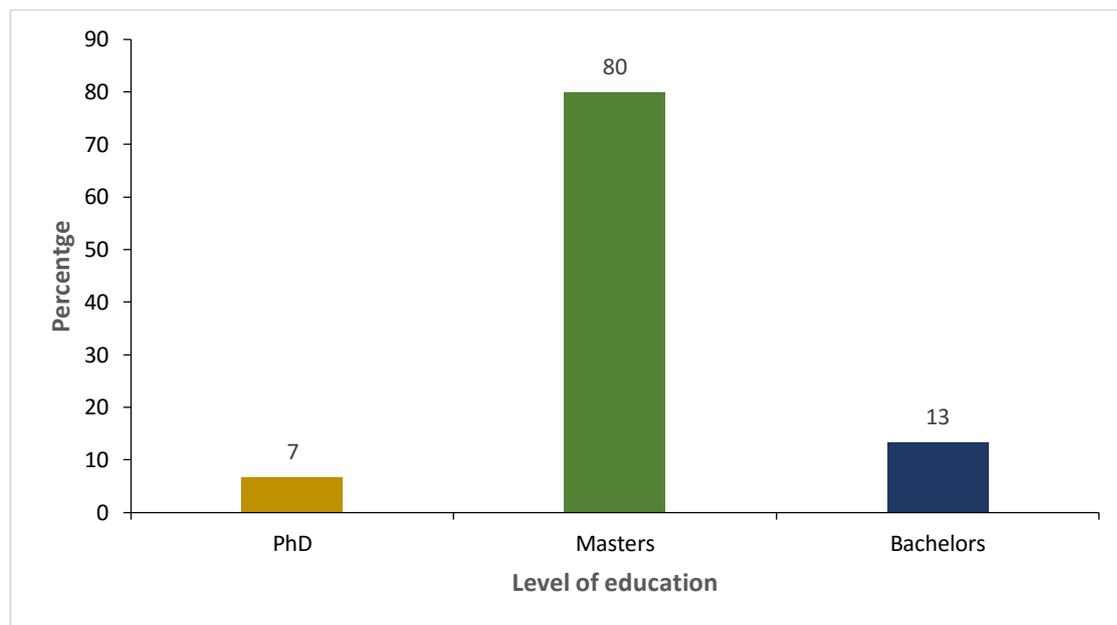


Figure 4.1: Percentage distribution according to the level of education of the respondents

Table 4.2 below shows that majority (37%; n=22) of the respondents were lecturers, 25% (n=15) of the respondents were Assistant Head of Departments, 15% (n=9) were the head of departments, 7 of respondents (12) were Administrators, 7% (n=4) were Librarians and only 5% (n=3) were Registrars. Out of these respondents, the majority of the respondents 40% (n=24) reported to have come from the department of Education, followed by the respondents 30% (n=18) from Social Sciences, 17% (n=10) of the respondents from the department of

Business, 8% (n=5) of the respondents reported to be from the department of Administration while 5% (n=3) indicated to have come from the Library department.

Table 4.2: Frequency and percentage distribution according to the current work position of the respondents and departments.

Current Position	Frequency	Percent
Head of Departments	9	15
Assistant HODs	15	25
Lecturers	22	37
Administration	7	12
Registrars	3	5
Librarians	4	7
Department		
Business	10	17
Social sciences	18	30
Education	24	40
Library	3	5
Administration	5	8
Total	60	100

4.3. Research Findings

As mentioned in chapter three, the research followed a mixed methods design specifically the descriptive design. In this design, the researcher starts by collecting quantitative data and then collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results. The researcher identified themes in relation to the research objectives as well as recurrent patterns in the opinions of the study participants and univariate analysis using SPSS was done for the quantitative data where graphical illustration in form of graphs and tables were made. The findings from the members of staff from universities have been presented alongside those from the lecturers and heads of departments. Actual words said by respondents were used as much as possible in the descriptions, while other words have been paraphrased. It is important to note that some ideas presented were interrelated and could fall into more than one thematic section. Both quantitative and qualitative data sets were presented in a sequence.

Research question number one sought information from participants on how they understood the benefits of strategic alliance in the Universities.

4.4 Object 1. To determine the benefits of strategic alliance in the Universities.

Strategic alliances occur when two or more organizations join together to pursue mutual benefits. Partners may provide the strategic alliance with resources such as products, distribution channels, manufacturing capability, project funding, capital equipment, knowledge, expertise, or intellectual property. This form of cooperation lies between mergers and acquisitions and organic growth. Strategic alliances occur when two or more organizations join together to pursue mutual benefits. There are several benefits that could be obtained from the alliance. Some respondents aired their views as follows.

Partners may provide the strategic alliance with resources such as products, distribution channels, manufacturing capability, project funding, capital equipment, knowledge, expertise, or intellectual property (Unza “Participants 1, 3 and 4”, Cavendish “Participants 1, 10”)

The alliance is a cooperation or collaboration which aims for a synergy where each partner hopes that the benefits from the alliance will be greater than those from individual efforts. The alliance often involves technology transfer (access to knowledge and expertise), economic specialization shared expenses and shared risk (Participants 11, 13, 15, 5, 14 and 17).

In order to implement strategic alliances, parties involved must understand its necessity and benefits. A Cross-tabulations was used to examine any differences in the responses between groups of interest in this case which are the universities. The frequencies and percentages for the question responses on benefits of strategic alliances to both students and lecturer for the three universities were as follows: strongly agree had 18(30%); Agree 37(61.7%) and Undecided 5 (8.3%).

On the other hand, the tabulations for the question on the importance of alliances in universities where as follows; strongly agree 46 (76.7%); Agree 10 (16.7) and Undecided 4 (6.7%). The results suggests that the all the participants confirmed that there was an inevitability for strategic alliances has a huge benefits to universities, this is due to the high percentages in responses in affirmative. Table 4.3 presents the summary of the statistics for the responses by participants.

Table 4.3: Summary of the Statistics for the Responses by Participants on the Necessity and Importance of Strategic Alliances.

Are strategic alliances necessary in university?	Frequency	Percent
Yes	55	91.7
No	5	8.3
Total	60	100.0

How do you rate the importance of strategic alliances in universities?	Frequency	Percent
Very important	46	76.7
Fair important	10	16.7
Important	4	6.7
Total	60	100.0

Post hoc comparisons to evaluate pairwise differences among group means were conducted with the use of Tukey HSD test since equal variances were tenable. Tests revealed significant pairwise differences between the means of a public university from the private university, $p < .05$.

A one way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the null hypothesis that there is a benefit of strategic alliances among universities in Zambia. ($N = 60$). The independent variable, collaborative research ($M = 1.95$, $SD = .686$, $n = 60$), student and lecturers exchange ($M = 1.78$, $SD = .585$, $n = 60$), student performance ($M = 2.5$, $SD = 1.213$, $n = 60$), library services ($M = 1.75$, $SD = 1.133$, $n = 60$). The data yields a probability value less than .05 ($p < .05$), that means the data is inconsistent with the null, which states no treatment effect or relationship exists ($H_0: X = Y$). Therefore, we reject the null H_0 : that Strategic alliances in universities in Zambia can lead to greater integration of services and improvement in the delivery of university education in Zambia. The data is inconsistent with the null, therefore, reject the null and declare these results statistically significant.

The assumption of normality was evaluated using histograms (see Figure 4.2) and found tenable for all groups. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and found tenable using Leven's test, $F(2, 27,600) = .138$, $p = .872$. The Anova was significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis and conclude there are significant benefits of strategic alliances in

Zambian universities. However, the actual difference in the mean score between groups was quite small based on Cohen’s (1988) conventions for interpreting effect size.

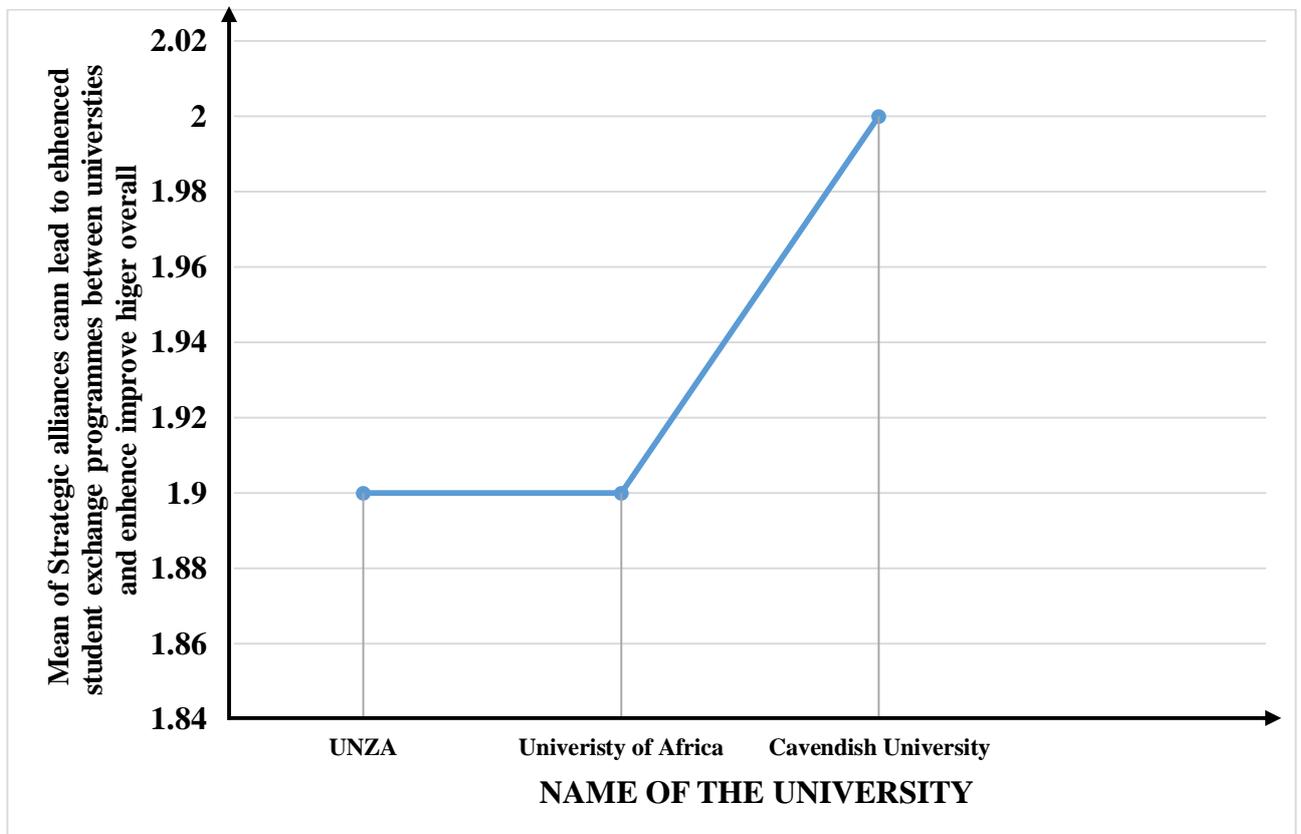


Figure 4.2: Anova analysis of the benefit of strategic alliances among Zambian universities.

4.5 Objective two: To establish the challenges of strategic alliance by the participating Universities in Zambia.

To prosper and grow as a franchise, more often than not, there will be a point when it will be necessary to find creative new ways to expand and develop into new markets. Strategic business alliance relationships have grown increasingly popular and serve as a means for both parties to increase their brand awareness and capital, without expending extra time or experiencing significant financial impact.

Personally, Upholding Trust and Honesty is one challenge of strategic alliance. As you may be aware that without a certain degree of trust and honesty, a partnership has no foundation to build on. It is important for both parties approaching an alliance to set their expectations clearly and concisely before the

partnership is solidified. However, cultural differences especially for cross-border alliances lead to widespread differences in managerial philosophies (Participants 2, 3, 14, 15, 17, 20 and 23)

One of the biggest teamwork challenges is lack of commitment. When teams lack commitment, it's an indication that the participants have not fully explored the issues. The idea is not for team members to reach a consensus, but to get buy-in even when some members have reservations and don't agree. Lack of commitment from top management has resulted in failure of strategic alliances in some areas. Moreover, different management styles have been observed to be the contributory factor among others that has led to failure of strategic alliances (participate 22 and 50)

Lack of a clearly defined strategy is a challenge in managing strategic alliances be it in organizations or University alliance, hence there is need to have proper and clear strategies that will strengthen the alliance and for the benefit of all members (participate 4, 6, 44 and 32)

4.6. Objective 3: To establish strategies that can be adopted to maximize the benefits of these alliances.

Strategic Alliance is believed to be the back bone of the Universities. It directly looks into the benefit of both the Lecturers and the students, however, there are some areas that needs to be addressed so as to reach the highest level of benefits to both students and lecturer. Trust building in collaborative leadership is a key which should be premised upon an open process and its encouragement of discussion and dialogue, builds trust. More so, elimination of turf issues in collaborative leadership can help to address turf issues through establishing mutual trust, making sure everyone's concerns are heard, and helping organizations, factions, or individuals find common ground and work together.

All participant in the strategic alliance must have that trust in each other and regard each member of the alliance as equal and have the same qualifications and also by creating a sharing coordinating office to help coordinate (participate 1, 8, 10 and 23)

Maximizing the benefits of the alliance can be attained through having proper strategies when commencing the alliance. Some of the information depicted from the respondents were;

We need to have a specified strategy to promote a learning environment and create regularly contacts with the universities and engage most of the students in exchange program that can increase their participation in the alliance (participate 2, 3, 12,15,16 and 22)

For the benefit of all, we need to ensure professional membership and engage in communication with those that are in other field other academic institutions both locally and internationally (participate 9)

There is need to put strictly rules/measures that must be followed and also electing a team to spearhead most activities for transparency to all members of the alliance and more so, it should be through the ministry of higher education act so that institution of higher education cooperate and share ideals (participate 11, 39, 40, 41 and 50).

4.7. The Effect of Strategic Alliances on Universities in Zambia.

In order to confirm if strategic alliance had an effect on universities in sampled universities in Zambia, respondents gave the following responses; 18 (30%) of the respondents strongly agreed and responded that strategic alliances had an effect and benefited both lecturers and students in universities. While 37 (61.7%) agreed. In addition 5 (8.3%) were undecided. The number in agreement representing over half of the respondents suggests that strategic alliances leads to benefits of both the lecturers and students. Results of responses has been illustrated in summary in Table 4.4

Table 4.4: Responses on the Benefits of Strategic Alliance on Students and Lecturers

Strategic alliance can benefit both students and lecturers	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	18	30.0
Agree	37	61.7
Undecided	5	8.3
Total	60	100.0

The results for the independent variable, students and lecturer benefits ($M= 1.78, SD=.585$), student exchange ($M=1.70, SD= .671$), after conducting the independent sample test the results revealed statistically significant ($t(80) = -9.655, p < .001$). Additionally, student performance through lecturer collaboration ($M= 2.05, SD= 1.21$), library services ($M= 1.73, SD=1.13$), ($t(73) = -7.941, p < .001$). Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a significant positive association between the performance due to lecturer collaboration and strategic alliances in universities; between student exchange and improved library services and infrastructure development and strategic partnership, $r(60) = .87, p < .001$) and moderately negatively correlated between student exchange and infrastructure $r(60) = .41, p < .001$).

The Alternative hypothesis (N_1), N_1 : that Strategic alliances in universities in Zambia cannot lead to greater integration of services and improvement of the delivery of university education in Zambia. The results $p > .05$, suggest that our data is consistent with the null. This results have failed to reject the null and declare these results statistically non-significant. The summary of the statistics are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics: Means and SD's

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Benefits both students and lecturers	Unza	20	1.65	.587
	University of Africa	20	1.95	.605
	Cavendish University	20	1.75	.550
	Total	60	1.78	.585
Improvement in higher education	Unza	20	1.90	.641
	University of Africa	20	1.90	.718
	Cavendish University	20	2.00	.725
	Total	60	1.93	.686
Research and lecturer collaborations	Unza	20	1.95	1.099
	University of Africa	20	1.65	.745
	Cavendish University	20	2.55	1.538
	Total	60	2.05	1.213
Student exchange	Unza	20	1.90	1.210
	University of Africa	20	1.90	1.447
	Cavendish University	20	1.40	.503
	Total	60	1.73	1.133

Results of the Spearman correlation further showed that there was a significant positive association between adoption of strategic alliances and improved benefits in universities in Zambia. Table 4.6 presents descriptive statistics of correlations of variable in this study.

Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics: Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Benefits both students and lecturers	1					
Improvement in higher education	.134	1				
Improve the overall infrastructure	-.317*	.418**	1			
Improved library services	.065	.227	.553**	1		
Research and lecturer collaborations	.111	.872**	.374**	.207	1	
Student exchange	.090	.324*	.338**	.566**	.289*	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

A Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was carried out to evaluate the predictive influence of the variables on the benefits of strategic alliance on universities in Zambia, that is, analysis on benefits for both students and lecturers, lecturer and research collaborations, improved library services and student exchange. Students' alliance benefits; infrastructure, operating environment and cost of goods and services were the variables used to predict strategic alliances variance. Table 4.7 illustrates both unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients of the predictors of tourism growth.

The general regression model was not statistically significant in the three data sets: on nature (private or public), $F(1, 58) = 9.894, p = > .001$, size of the university, $F(1, 57) = 12.417, p = .001$, infrastructure, $F(1, 56) = 6.089, p = .003$ with the three variables explaining about 19% ($R^2 = .438$), of the performance variances. The regression results shows that strategic alliances had a significant impact on the benefits of universities in Zambia. Infrastructure, nature (public or private), infrastructure and status of the university had no statistically significant effect on the implementation of the strategic alliances refereeing to the respective largest and smallest proportions of variance accounted for R^2 . Table 4.7 shows the factors that are affecting the benefits of strategic alliances in universities of Zambia.

Table 4.7: Multiple Linear Regression Results: Unstandardized and Standardized Beta Weights

Model	B	β	P
Nature (private or public)	.187	3.156	.003
University size	.187	.314	.001
infrastructure	.251	.478	.000
University status	-.227	-.335	.001

Note. The dependent strategic alliance benefits. $R^2 = .216$, $R^2 = .350$ and $R^2 = .438$ and Adjusted $R^2 = .216$, $R^2 = .35$ and $R^2 = .438$. B = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient and β = Standardized Beta Coefficient

A positive result from a chi-squared test indicates that there is some kind of relationship between two variables but we do not know what sort of relationship it is. You need to use summary statistics to discuss what the relationship is. A Pearson's Chi-Squared test was carried out to assess whether benefits of forming alliances and strategic alliances could lead to improvement to universities were related. There was significant evidence of an association, ($\chi^2(34) = 29.470$, $p > 0.001$). 87% of respondents compared to 12% of respondents. The results reveal that the p value is less than 0.05 and therefore we can reject the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent and there is therefore some relationship between the variables. The results from the chi-square test have been presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Results from the Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.470 ^a	34	.689
Likelihood Ratio	35.418	34	.401
N of Valid Cases	60		

a. 52 cells (96.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .12.

4.8. Chapter Summary

In chapter four, the research findings of this study based on the research questions and research objectives have been presented. The findings that were arrived at both through the qualitative and quantitative data sets strongly suggested that all the sampled universities are implementing strategic alliances in their respective institutions and that participants were implementing strategic alliances with less difficulties. Some university members of staff indicated that there were facing a lot of challenges as they were implementing strategic alliances. In the next chapter, the researcher discussed the findings of this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the findings for this study have been presented. In this chapter, the study findings will be discussed. The purpose of the discussion is to interpret and describe the significance of the findings in light of what was already known about the research problem being investigated, and to explain any new understanding or insight about the problem after taking findings into consideration. The discussion is based on the findings presented in chapter four as well as the theoretical framework guiding this study and other related literature in chapter two. Hence, in this study, the findings are discussed in relation to themes. Effort has been made to reflect, validate and broaden current knowledge and philosophy on the strategic alliances: an evaluation of the benefits for *Zambian Universities*. This had helped the researcher to interpret and outline what findings meant to the study.

5.2. Benefits of strategic alliance in the universities

Often, when alliance cooperate on a project for instance in a research, they exchange skills that are not for sale. Typically, one partner possesses technological expertise and the ability to keep abreast of rapidly evolving technological developments. What that partner needs from the other partner or partners is capital, large distribution systems, marketing expertise, service networks and credibility in the marketplace. Each partner therefore, provides the other with vital resources and uses the partnership to extend its skill set into new areas. This study observes that strategic alliance brings about access to acquiring resources. This was evident from majority of respondents affirmed that, through strategic alliance they gain access to other universities resources be it infrastructure, computer laboratories et cetera.

Interestingly, these findings are in tandem with the resource based theory proposed by Barney (1991) and Peteraf (1993) who highlights the critical role played by resources. The scholars contend that strategic Alliances are considered as a mean to access to unavailable resources and develop jointly new ones. Firms are bundles of resources and their competitive position is defined by their own resources endowment. Markets are often incomplete and imperfect and therefore it is not easy for firms to acquire the needed resources. Such resources, indeed, may be not perfectly tradable or even not tradable at all. Therefore, universities decide to form or

enter into a strategic alliance for filling their gap of resources. They share resources with partners and identify the most optimal configuration that maximizes the value of such resources. Resource based view identifies complementary resources as a key factor for alliance success

More so, the study reveals that strategic alliance has really helped in providing the much needed information and thereby, improving University relationships. This is in agreement with Chan and Wong (1994) who argues that companies enter into strategic alliances to acquire strategic capabilities rapidly which are needed for global competition. Global competition needs global scale efficiencies, local responsiveness, and worldwide learning simultaneously. A firm cannot single-handedly possess all these resources and strategic capabilities in order to attain global competitiveness.

The study revealed that strategic alliances in universities of Zambia aims at building synergies where each partner hopes that the benefits from the alliance will be greater than those from individual efforts. According to Isoraite (2009), many firms are knowledgeable in some areas especially their core business areas and lack expertise in other areas. Forming a strategic alliance can lead to access to knowledge and expertise in an area that a university lacks. Further reiterates that knowledge is an intangible resource critical in the university gaining competitive advantage. The information, knowledge and expertise that a university gains can be used for other projects and purposes (ibid).

Strategic alliance partners should be selected based on their expertise in the operation and their culture fit with the institution. The aspect of culture fit was not a factor in the process of choice consideration before universities in Zambia went into partnership. Management of the strategic alliance project should constantly ensure that requirements are met and potential problems are identified early enough to be resolved. The firm must create a management structure that will work with the new organizational arrangement (Elmuti and Kathawala, 2001; Roth and Magee, 2002).

Institutions tend to consider their strategic alliances to be successful when the benefits generated by the alliances were greater than the costs of developing the required resources and capabilities through internal development or acquisition. Effective and good communications among the partners has also been noted in this study as one key area in the effectiveness of strategic alliances. Without effective communication, alliances will inevitably dissolve as a

result of the doubt and mistrust which accompany any relationship that does not manifest good communication practices (Hsieh, 1997).

In order for strategic alliances to succeed, their performance must be continually assessed and evaluated against the short- and long-term goals and objectives. This view is not the case of Zambian universities. Reviews have not been common in most partnerships among institutions of higher learning. Instead, alliances are only revisited when contractual obligations have been flouted by the collaborating partner involved. In order for the feedback monitoring system to be successful, it is important that the goals of the alliances are well-defined and measurable. The ultimate mission of any industrial firm is to enhance its competitive position and maximize shareholder wealth (Porter, 1985).

As a result, industry-university alliances are valuable to industry if they help the firm achieve these goals. One way these alliances contribute to the attainment of these goals is through advancing new technologies. Thus, many corporations evaluate the success of such alliances largely on the level of technological outcomes generated as a direct result of the partnership (Santoro, 2000). According to Cyert and Goodman (1997), success in university and industry alliances in particular is often measured in terms of the number of new products, publications, patents, students trained, students hired and new enterprises started, as well as some intermediate results.

Further, this research has established a positive response in the importance of strategic alliances by respondents and further affirmed the necessity of their existence in the higher education sector. The attitude and views of major players in the implementation of these alliances is vital as established by this study, hence, portrays many benefits its existence.

5.3. Challenges of strategic alliance by the participating Universities in Zambia

This study discovered that upholding trust and honesty is one of the challenge of strategic alliance. This finding is not in agreement with principles and values of strategic alliances. From what is known that, without a certain degree of trust and honesty, a partnership has no foundation to build on. It is important for both parties approaching an alliance to set their expectations clearly and concisely before the partnership is solidified. In the similar study conducted by Aalbers (2010) contends that trust is assumed to lower transaction costs mainly in an uncertain environment and, as such, it is a valuable source of competitive positioning and advantage. The concept of trust is gradually receiving attention in studies on strategic alliances.

Trust is assumed to guard against unscrupulous behavior, thereby stimulating an environment. However, cultural differences especially for cross-border alliances lead to widespread differences in managerial philosophies at stimulates knowledge and skills exchange to take place.

The study noted cultural differences especially variations in managerial philosophies to be an impediment to the operationalization of strategic alliance. Cultural differences will definitely exist among global organizations that are seeking strategic alliances. Corporate cultures may however be different among organizations that are from the same nation. This barrier may be overcome through learning and flexibility. According to Hofstede (1984), there are five cultural dimensions. These dimensions includes: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism vs. collectivism and femininity vs. masculinity, and long term orientation. These dimensions distinguish members of one national group from another. Cultural differences especially for cross-border alliances lead to widespread differences in managerial philosophies.

Surprisingly, the study reveals that one of the biggest teamwork challenges is lack of commitment. When teams lack commitment, it's an indication that the participants have not fully explored the issues. The idea is not for team members to reach a consensus, but to get buy-in even when some members have reservations and don't agree. Lack of commitment from top management has resulted in failure of strategic alliances in some areas. Moreover, different management styles has been observed to be the contributory factor among others that has led to failure of strategic alliances.

The results are shockingly similar to Schweitzer (2014) who reveals that alliance leaders have impact on how the teams interact and their effort of working together towards achieving the objectives and goals of the alliance. Ineffective communication between partners may lead to dissolution of an alliance resulting from mistrust or doubt between parties. Effective communication will build and maintain relationships in strategic alliances. Transformational leadership supports organizational learning and effectiveness of teams.

The findings of this research also indicate that respondents largely felt that poor strategy was a key challenge that eventually led to failure of strategic alliances. This revelation amplifies Kathawala (2001), who in a McKinsey study found that 70 percent of strategic alliances fail due to poor strategy. According to Kathawala (2001), top management need to articulate a clear link between expectations of where the industry's profit pools in the future will be, how the alliance will capture a larger share, and how the alliance fits in the plan.

According to Schweitzer (2014), the success of the strategic alliance will rest on its ability to create trustworthy relationships and manage any conflict that may arise. Resistance to change has to be proactively managed to prevent conflict in the organization.

In addition, cultural differences becomes a challenge in strategic alliance when two partners have essentially different goals, time approaches, languages and assumptions. Institutions of higher education are involved in creating and spreading knowledge, while others might focus on business services in a highly competent business environment (Ervin et al., 2002; Woo, 2003). As Cyert and Goodman (1997) discovered, most university entities frame their time in terms of meeting quarterly goals and other short term engagements whereas other higher institutions have time frame with longer horizon and relatively not well defined. In addition, the partners have different organizational cultures, languages and values that pose communication problems (Kock et al., 2000). Some Universities typically do not comprehend how work is allocated in other partner universities or how university budgets are handled. University partners, on the other hand, do not understand the real market forces, time demands, and the incentive structure of the institution.

Differences in objectives further pose a challenge in alliances. The very nature of the final objectives of these two institutions may be dissimilar. Most universities insist on applied research that results in a marketable product or service along with new innovative processes or approaches to problem solving. The university or faculty member uses basic research more often to work towards contributions to knowledge in the form of new concepts, models, empirical findings, measurement techniques and other related objectives (Ervin et al., 2002). Even after the successful innovation of a desired output, there is a lack of coordination in taking these findings to the marketplace.

Cyert and Goodman (1997), argue that, even under successful alliances, there are many obstacles for moving from prototype to commercial services. The possible reasons could be first because some university researchers typically lack the motivation and skill to move beyond the prototype and also due to the lack of understanding from the institutional side of the explicit and inferred knowledge inherent in the prototype.

Other external factors institutions operate under a variety of external unexpected changes (i.e. mergers and acquisitions within the industry, and economic turmoil) and internal readjustments like reorganizations and corporate downsizing. Since many alliances between higher educational institutions are involved in researching fundamental problems that are expected

not to be resolved in the very short term, projects are undertaken within a long-term relationship. Roth and Magee (2002) suggest that a five-year timeframe and commitment is necessary to ensure sufficient stability to support work in long-term research. This kind of external shock is common in university alliances.

Other problems in strategic alliances several reasons are also given for the under-performance and failure of strategic alliances. The most common reasons include a break down in trust, a change in strategy, the value did not materialize, the cultures did not mesh very well and the systems were not integrated. According to a study conducted by the Financial Times (1999), the main reason strategic alliances fail to meet expectations is “the failure to grasp and articulate their strategic intent”. This reason is generally true for most strategic alliances, including university alliances, which fall in a relatively narrow category and demand rather careful attention due to their nature and complexity.

While there are natural synergies in university alliances, there are also areas of likely conflict. Universities have their own public roles and expectations (i.e. they are mandated to create and disseminate knowledge for the broad benefit of society). They are also expected to make knowledge freely and widely available through education and publication as they enjoy non-profit, tax-free status and receive public funding. On the other hand, other universities survive in contested market places where they compete for customers and investors. They need advantages over their competitors in order to provide growth and profits for their owners and employees. The need for competitive advantage extends to the institution’s requirement for a relevant return from university research investments that can, for instance, be effectively commercialized in the market place (Kock et al., 2000; Roth and Magee, 2002).

5.4. Strategies that can be adopted to maximize the benefits of these alliances.

In probing what approaches would be idea to exploit benefits of alliances, the most prominent view by respondents as results disclosed that strategic alliance must excise trust among each other and regard each member of the alliance as equal. These results were similar to that of the study conducted by Lewis (1992) who contended that many alliances have failed due to the lack of trust causing unsolved problems, lack of understanding, and despondent relationships and therefore, alliances need to form and enhance trust between individuals of the alliance.

It was observed that building learning relationships and communication would be one of the strategies that can help to maximize the benefits of the alliance. In the literature conducted by

Hamel (1994) also suggested that for the alliance to be effective and function well there is need for developing a learning relationship as it should involve the commitment of the top management in the alliance in order to ensure the success of the learning process and the alliance. The study further showed that there is need to create regular contacts and. Literature suggest that knowledge creation in the organization would depend on the mechanisms or techniques designed and used to acquire learning (Hamel and Prahalad, 1994; Beamish and Berdrow, 2003)

This study furthermore indicated that there is need for evaluation forms that would help in the performance of the alliance. This would be used to obtain feedback on teaching performance as well as to review the performance of the alliance and the programs through internal and external benchmarking, where the partner would ask another university to evaluate the marking system for the top up program examination papers.

5.5. The Effect of Strategic Alliances on Universities in Zambia.

In order to confirm if strategic alliance had an effect on universities in sampled universities in Zambia, the majority more than half of the respondents were in agreement that strategic alliances had an effect and benefited both lecturers and students in universities. While almost the same number agreed suggesting that strategic alliances leads to benefits students due to lecturer's collaboration.

The results for the independent variable, students and lecturer benefits, student exchange were statistically significant meaning these variables had a positive effect on the dependent variable of the study. Additionally, student performance through lecturer collaboration, library services were also statistically significant. Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a significant positive association between the performance due to lecturer collaboration and strategic alliances in universities; between student exchange and improved library services and infrastructure development and strategic partnership, and moderately negatively correlated between student exchange and infrastructure. What these results suggest is that the relationship between these variable was strong in how they affected each other and the dependent variable.

A Multiple Linear Regression Analysis carried out to evaluate the predictive influence of the variables on the benefits of strategic alliance on universities in Zambia, included analysis on benefits for both students and lecturers, lecturer and research collaborations, improved library services and student exchange. Students' alliance benefits; infrastructure, operating

environment and cost of goods and services were the variables used to predict benefits of strategic alliances variance.

The general regression model was not statistically significant in the three data sets: on nature (private or public), size of the university, infrastructure with the three variables explaining about 19%, of the performance variances. The regression results shows that strategic alliances had a significant impact on the benefits of universities in Zambia. Infrastructure, nature (public or private), infrastructure and status of the university had no statistically significant effect on the implementation of the strategic alliances refereeing to the respective largest and smallest proportions of variance accounted for.

5.6. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the findings of the study have been discussed. The discussion was done under themes emerging from the findings of the study which are informed by the objectives and conceptual framework. The themes presented what the study established from the findings. These emerging themes were that; strategic alliances has been considered to attribute to benefits in the provision of higher education in Zambia. However, the evaluation of strategic alliance among the three universities which were under study reveals that is a positive high correlation between lecturer collaborations and student exchange in strategic alliances. In the next chapter, conclusions of the study and some recommendations based on the research findings were made.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher presented the summary of the main research findings which answered the research questions and finally recommendations are given. Furthermore, the study's recommendations and some suggestions on areas for future research have been presented. The aim of this study was to investigate and evaluate the benefits of strategic alliances on universities in Zambia.

6.2 Conclusions

Institutions enter in to strategic alliances to become more competitive especially in the global scene. Institutions can reorganize their market position by acquisitions, mergers. In all of these strategic institutions reorganizations aim to benefit from the competitive advantage and good will of another firm. Strategic alliances are becoming an important form of business activity in several industries, mainly in view of the recognition that firms are competing on a global field. Strategic alliances are not a solution for every company and every situation. However, through strategic alliances, firms can increase their competitive positioning, increase chances of entry to foreign and new markets, and share the risk and cost of key development projects.

Strategic alliances are therefore, a means through which companies can achieve broader corporate co-operations without actually being legally bound together. As shown in this study, companies enter into strategic alliances mainly to diversify into new market opportunities. This provides access to new opportunities as compared to starting from the beginning. The respondents seemed to agree with this based on the response they gave in the questionnaires. The benefits from the strategic alliance will come in the form of sustainable competitive positioning and higher profitability compared to other firms within the same industry.

Despite the benefits, strategic alliances comes with challenges of cultural differences perpetrated by different management styles. Cultural differences make the processes of the strategic alliance to have nonstop conflict. When the challenges to the strategic alliance are not addressed in time, they often result to the downfall of a strategic alliance in the long run. The progress of the strategic alliance has to be constantly monitored and evaluated to ensure that

the challenges are addressed before they lead to failure. It is thus important as institutions plan to enter into strategic alliance to analyze opportunities and challenges before agreement.

6.4 Recommendations

In view of the results of this study and the conclusions drawn, the following recommendations were made;

In relation to the achievement of competitive positioning through various types of strategic alliances, the study recommends that universities should consider entering into strategic alliances with both local and international universities so as to achieve competitive positioning. This trend has proven to be effective and believed to be yielding results according to the literature quoted in this study.

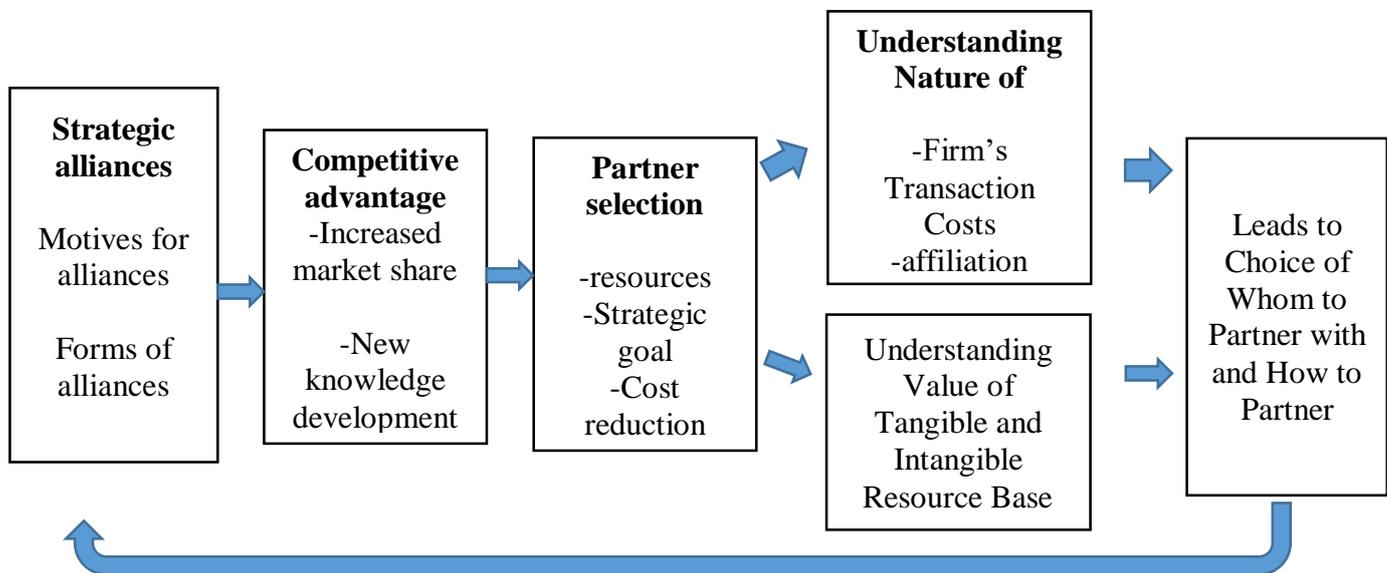
In addition, this study recommends that for the benefits of Strategic Alliances to be prominent, universities should enter into markets using strategic alliances as the main entry strategy. This is due to the quick entry into the market enabling firms to experience growth education globally. Technological companies should especially be brought on board into entering into strategic alliances with universities because of the highly turbulent nature of the environment they operate in.

When planning a partnership arrangement, it is important for senior managers in a college of further education to take into account the imperfections of the marketplace; government policy; the role that Local Education Authorities, local chambers and learning and skills councils play; the motives of senior managers employed by institutions of higher education; the benefits associated with formal partnership arrangements; and the importance of forming strategic alliances with educational institutions which have a similar or the same value system. In order to be successful, a partnership arrangement needs to be viewed from a relational stance, and managers need to be committed to building long-term working relationships which are based on trust, loyalty and mutuality.

In view of the challenges of Strategic Alliances, this study further recommends that alliance partners should be carefully and thoroughly screened so as to reduce conflict arising due to differences in culture as well as incongruence of management ideologies. The universities

working together should ensure congruity in their goals and objectives, review the highlights of the alliance on a regular basis, as well as have clear channels of communication.

Figure 4.5 presents the general model of the subject under study.



Source: field study, 2019

Figure 4.5: The General Model for Strategic Alliance Benefits

6.5. Recommendation for further studies

This research has focused on an evaluation of strategic alliances in selected universities of Zambia. Due to limited time and resources, it could not establish whether there exist a collaboration between universities and business corporations among universities in Zambia. The researcher highly recommends that upcoming researchers could launch an inquiry in the stated area of area of study. Future, the prospective researcher could also focus on the effect of strategic alliances in attaining sustainable competitive positioning and general profitability of the alliance.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Informed Consent Form for Participants



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA, GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

Please read this document carefully. Sign your name below only if you agree that you should participate in this research and if you fully understand your rights. Your signature is required for your participation. For you to sign on this form, you must be a lecturer, member of university administration or work in the stated industry. If you desire a copy of this consent form, you may request one and we will be very happy to provide it.

Dear Respondant,

My name is **Tisiye Mtonga**, a Masters student from the University of Zambia currently undertaking research.

Description of the Study: You have been randomly invited to participate in this study on the **strategic alliances: an evaluation of the benefits for Zambian universities**. The aim of this study is mainly to investigate the trends of alliances in the Zambian universities and their benefits specifically in Lusaka district. The study will also attempt to inquire into the challenges affecting the implementation of alliances. The study will furthermore provide an evaluation of their performance and additionally propose answers to the vital questions which will lead in the filling up of the gap that is in the provision of higher education which has a major impact on quality of education.

Safety of the study:

We wish to assure you that, during and after the tasks, this study does not pose any physical, mental or other risks to you. The nature of the tasks is that you will be required to answer certain industry related questions. This, therefore, requires your consent which is a very important step in this study.

Time Involvement:

Some time may be lost from your work schedule as it is necessary that you are fully explained to how this study will be conducted. In addition, there is a questionnaire for you to which are expected to respond. This is very important as well because we need to get information from you regarding the status quo in the strategic alliances among universities. Secondly, you will also be withdrawn from your busy schedule for a couple of minutes when being interviewed.

Activities for the respondent

Responding to a questionnaire and interview

Foreseeable Benefits:

We cannot guarantee that you and you will receive any direct benefits from this study. However, as a participant, you will have an opportunity to contribute to the improvement higher education sector, a contribution that will benefit this nation a great deal. You will also learn one or two other things about your industry which educationists and researchers are interested in.

Participant Rights:

- Participation in this study is purely voluntary so if you decide to withdraw yourself at any point, you may freely do so, and there will be no consequences for that decision. However, we are very interested in working with you.
- All personal identifying information about you will be kept confidential and the data sheets will be kept in secured lockers in accordance with the standards of the University of Zambia Research and Ethics Committee. If the results of this study are required for publication as we hope to do, your identity will still be kept very private. This is the standard way of conducting this type of research.

- Feel free to ask any question so that you fully understand this whole important activity.

Signatures:

I,..... (respondant) to(name of firm) have read and understood the above information. My signature testifies that I understand the nature of this study, consent process and management of confidentiality as indicated above. I also understand that I can withdraw myself at any time during this study.

Signature of participant's parent:.....

Phone Number:.....

Date.....

Name of Witness:.....

Signature of Witness:.....

Phone Number:.....

Date.....

Name of Researcher:.....

Signature of Researcher:.....

Phone Number:.....

Date.....

Contacts For further clarifications about this research, please you may contact the following person who is my supervisor in this research.

Dr. M.K. Banja,

Graduate School of Business,

University of Zambia,

P.O. Box 32379,

Lusaka, Zambia.

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for the respondents

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DEANS OF FACULTIES, REGISTRARS, HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS AND SENIOR LECTURES ON STRATEGIC ALLIANCES.

FOR
OFFICIAL
USE ONLY

INSTRUCTIONS:

Do not write your name in this questionnaire. Kindly answer all the questions.

SECTION A: PERSONAL AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. State how long you have been in your current position

1. 0-5 2. 6-10 3. 11-15 4. 16-
20

2. Name of the University where you lecture:

.....
.....
.....

3. State your current position in the University:

.....
.....
.....

4. State the department you belong to

.....
.....

5. State the course/s you offer

.....
.....
.....
.....

6. State the highest educational qualification you have attained:

.....
.....

.....
.....

- 7. How do you rate the importance of strategic alliances in universities?
 - a. Very important
 - b. Fairly important
 - c. Important
 - d. Not important

- 8. Are strategic alliances necessary in universities?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

SECTION B: JOB PERFORMANCE ON Strategic Alliances in Universities.
INSTRUCTIONS: Write brief explanations in the spaces provided.

9. What is your understanding of Strategic alliances in universities?
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

10. State your role in the strategic alliances at your
University.....
.....
.....

11. What are the benefits of developing strategic alliances in the
universities?
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.....
.....

12. What techniques do you employ to ensure effective strategic alliances with other universities?

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13. Comment on the benefits you have acquired through the strategic alliances from other universities

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14. Comment on the challenges your university has faced in terms of these strategic alliances with other universities

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.....

15. In your view, should Public and Private Universities be limited to such strategic alliances.

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.....

16. If the answer is yes for question (14) explain:

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.....

17. State the major challenges of strategic alliances members of staff face at your University

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18. What other issues are important in the use or development of strategic alliances

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19. What measures can be put in order to overcome challenges that come developing strategic alliances

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.....
.....

20. How can Strategic alliances be implemented and integrated in the University?.....

.....

SECTION C: OVERAL PERCEPTION OF THE PROS AND CONS OF STRATEGIC ALLAINCES

The following statements relate to your perception of strategic alliances (Please choose one answer for each statement by ticking the appropriate box).

FOR
OFFICIAL
USE
ONLY

Statement	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	There is a case for strategic alliances between universities in Zambia				
2	Strategic alliances can benefit both students and lecturers				
3	Strategic alliances can lead to improvements in higher education in Zambia				
4	Strategic alliances can help improve the overall infrastructure of the universities in Zambia through synergies				
5	Strategic alliances can interfere with individual universities' integrity, innovation and performance				
6	Public universities have better infrastructure than private universities				
7	Strategic alliances should be only between universities of equal status in size and ranking				
8	Public universities should not enter into partnerships with private universities as this could lower their standards				
9	Private universities should not enter into partnerships with public universities as this could lower their standards				
10	Smaller universities should not partner with big universities whether private or public				
11	There is a lack of good modern infrastructure in public universities				
12	There is a lack of good modern infrastructure in private universities				
13	Strategic alliances can lead to improved library services by the universities in partnership				
14	Strategic alliances can lead to improved student performance through lecturer collaborations				

15	There is no evidence that strategic alliances between universities improve performance					
16	Strategic alliances between universities cannot work in the Zambian context					
17	Strategic alliances can lead to enhanced student exchange programmes between universities and hence improved higher education overall					
18	Alliances can lead to loss of independence and uniqueness between universities					
19	Do you think alliances might lead to some universities stealing each other's ideas and innovations?					
20	Do you think strategic alliances might make some universities to be reluctant to invest more in suitable infrastructure since they can get same services from partner universities?					

**FOR
OFFICIAL
USE
ONLY**

We have now come to the end of this questionnaire. I wish to thank you for finding time to participate in this exercise.

Appendix 3: Approval Letter



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES

Great East Road | P.O. Box 32379 | Lusaka 10101 | Tel: +260-211-290 258/291 777
Fax: +260-1-290 258/253 952 | Email: director@drqs.unza.zm | Website: www.unza.zm

Approval of Study

26th April, 2019

REF. NO. HSSREC: 2019-JAN-013

Tisiye Mtonga
UNZA - GSB
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

Dear Mtonga,

RE: "STRATEGIC ALLIANCES: AN EVALUATION OF BENEFITS FOR ZAMBIAN UNIVERSITIES"

The University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB has approved the study noting that there are no ethical concerns.

On behalf of The University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB, we would like to wish you all the success as you carry out your study.

In future ensure that you submit an application for ethical approval early enough.

Yours faithfully,

Dr. J. Mwanza

BA, MSoc, Sc., PhD

CHAIRPERSON

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE IRB**

CC: Director Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies
Assistant Director (Research), Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies
Assistant Registrar (Research), Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies
Senior Administrative Officer (Research), Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies