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Socio-cultural Factors and Organizational Performance in Nigerian Brewery Industry

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ABSTRACT

The specific purpose of this study is to determine the extent to which culture determines organizational performance, to know how government activities affect the performance of Nigeria Brewery, and to examine influences on age, gender, marital status, work experience and educational qualification on organizational performance. The study adopted a survey research design, random sampling technique was used which allowed the respondents an equal chance of being selected. The population of the study consists of customers of International Brewery Plc in Ilesa, Osun state, comprising of; male and female, young and adult which was undefined. The result shows that government policy did not affect the organizational performance and also the organizational performance did not influence government policy. However, the results further showed that demographic information affects the organizational performance. Conclusively, both descriptive and quantitative analyses were used in capturing the general overview and specific impact of socio-cultural factors and organizational performance in International Brewery, Ilesa.

Introduction

One pervasive feature that distinguishes contemporary life from life in the ancient times is the domination by large, formal and complex organizations. Modern man is everywhere in organizations. Man is born into organizations, lives in organizations, works for organizations and even dies in organizations. These organizations have become an inevitable feature of life. An organization is defined as basically a structure for carrying out a particular social activity on a regular basis. This, according to Fulcher and Scott (2007) generally has the following features: specific goal; defined membership; rules of behavior or conduct and authority relationships. Organizations do not exist in a vacuum but in a specific culture or socio-cultural environment. Culture is a concept rooted in Anthropology and Sociology. Once more, Hofstede (2011) defined culture as "the collective programming of the mind and distinguishes the member of one group or category from another". According to Cotgrove (2008), culture is the shared norms and values of a social system which is the most important aspect of a society.

To understand organizational performance, one must know the elements inside and outside organizations known as Environmental factors. This refers to different forces or surroundings that affect business operations. Such forces include customers, competitors, suppliers, distributors, industry trends, substitutes, regulations, government activities, the economic, demographic and social and cultural factors. Others are innovations and technological steadfast and unchanging, it is change itself. Change is inevitable and those organizations unstable, with long-term survivability in question. There are things, events, or situations that occur that affect the way a business operates, either in a positive or negative way. These things, situations or events that occur affect the organizational performance in either a positive or negative ways; they are called driving forces or environmental factors. In contemporary Nigeria business environment, performance of Nigeria companies is predicated on factors such as low-sales, high cost of production, low capital utilization lack of foreign exchange to source needed inputs, poor power supply and low quality of goods and services, among others. These issues have led to lack of proper integration and coordination of various corporate sub systems in Nigerian organizations, resulting in the failure to achieve the stated goals and objectives. Entrepreneur subsumed in the environment with which they interact by importing input and exporting outputs. Thus, the vagaries and the extremities of the environment affect the fortunes of organizations, Upadhaya, and Munir (2014).

However, for my aim in this study, culture is conceptualized as an aggregation of attitudes, values, norms, style, consumption and general world view of life; its perception, expression and utility by a people that identify and distinguish them from other people. Culture is a wide and multidimensional concept that one cannot hope to deal with in its entirety in a single study. This is because culture is divided into two major aspects in Anthropological and Sociological studies. The two major aspects of culture are (i) material and (ii) non-material cultures. Material culture is overt and explicit, such as products of industry, technology, art, that is, every visible or concrete acquisition of man in society, artifacts, such as bridges, pots, cutlasses, hoes, houses, cooking utensils, handicrafts. These are directly observable as the cultural products of any society.

The non-material aspects of culture consist of the knowledge, philosophy, morals, languages, motivation, attitudes, values, and norms shared and transmitted in a society. The non-material includes work values, ethos, ideology and other behavioral traits exhibited at work. These are sometimes referred to as the covert or implicit aspects of culture and are acquired by members of a society. They are not visible or tangible but they are manifested through the psychological states and behavior of a people. The major objective of any organization is to make sufficient profit in order to satisfy stakeholders needs/shareholders' wealth maximization (value added) as pointed out by Pandey (2000). This is in addition to other sub-objectives such as employee satisfaction, being a market leader or being socially responsible. Whatever the objective might be, the higher the sales/ turnover volume the better an organization will be in terms of objective realization.

Alcohol is as old as human history and its consumption in different socio-cultural milieus extends beyond the last ten thousand years (Smart, 2007). Its consumption has been considered normal, especially when drunk without outright intoxication in Africa and other parts of the globe. Wine, beer, spirit and other fermented alcoholic beverages were drunk in traditional societies and some of these beverages are still used in this modern era for different purposes. In Africa, these and other alcoholic beverages such as palm wine, burukutu, etc. were consumed for pleasure soon after brewing or tapping (Odejide et al, 1999; Odejide, 2006) and were rarely traded in the market (WHO, 2002). Though alcoholic beverages have been consumed for hundreds of years, the pattern and purpose of consumption vary considerably among societies and even within communities. Excess consumption was not widely tolerated in many societies while few communities permitted it (Willis, 2006). For example, abuse attracted negative sanctions as recorded in the biblical Old and New Testaments (Seller, 1985; 1987). Due to custom and religion belief of some people in Nigeria toward the breweries products especially alcoholic drinks such as Star Larger Beer, Heinekens, Gulder, and Guinness they are prevented from listening to their advertisements and subsequent buying of the products. Precisely, some Christians and Muslims switch off their Television sets during advertisement of these products. This attitude invariably affects the sales /turnover of breweries products both in terms of volume and monetary value.

Statement of the problems

Organizations, all over the place, work inside a particular culture, and it is getting all the more generally perceived in contemporary conversations of hierarchical execution that supervisors and other authoritative professionals need to build up a comprehension of their social settings if their organizations, are to perform successfully. Authoritative specialists keep on being tormented by a great deal of the board issues that have their underlying foundations in the way of life of a general public and those that block progress toward accomplishing elite. Relating Nigerian associations to their particular social settings gave the fundamental inspiration to this examination. Drinking of liquor was socially endured as a component of stylized existences of numerous ethnic gatherings in what is currently known as Nigeria, particularly in networks where it was not taboo by religion before the coming of imperialism (Obot, 2009). A one of a kind component of this region that is presently known as Nigeria was that distinctive privately delivered mixed refreshments recognized ethnic gatherings. In the north, pito and burukutu were normally expended. In the south, palm wine tapped from the palm tree (Obot, 2009) was well known while the local gin privately called ogogoro, kai-kai, akpuru-achia, or Sapele water, refined from the aged palm wine was generally devoured, particularly in the Niger-delta region.

Religion associations in Nigeria, Islam and Christian religion lecture against utilization of bottling works items, and Nigerians neglects to instruct themselves past religions accept that distilleries items are not constrained to just mixed beverages yet non-mixed beverages too, for example, Maltina, Beta malt, Malta-Guinness, Maltex, Fayrous and others which are valuable and consumable for both the Muslim and Christians. Because of these blend emotions and mentalities, this examination is to find out the effect of Nigeria culture on association execution utilizing Nigeria bottling works as a contextual investigation.

Objectives of the Study

1. To know the extent how culture determines organizational performance,
2. Know how government activities affect the performance of Nigeria brewery.
3. To examine influences on age, gender, marital status, work experience and educational qualification on organizational performance

Research Hypothesis

H_1 There is no significant influences on age, gender, marital status, and educational qualification on attitude towards consumption of brewery products

H_2 There is no significant relationship between government activities and organizational performance

H_3 There is significant relationship on age, gender, marital status, and educational qualification on organizational performance

Literature Review

Conceptual Framework

Concept of Socio-Cultural Environment

Wetherly & Otter, (2011) and Felicia et al. (2014), opined socio-cultural environment is described as an environment which consisting of everything that is not contained within the economy or political system. It is a social-cultural system which is made up of collection of activities and relationships through which people engage in their personal and private lives which include population features, age, ethnicity, religion, values, attitude, lifestyles and associates (Wetherly& Otter, 2011). These environmentally relevant patterns of behavior lead to the creation of different cultural values in different societies, some of which influence the decision to create new businesses. Therefore, culture, as distinct from political, social, technological or economic contexts, has relevance for economic behavior and business performance (Shapero & Sokol, 1982; Shane, 1993).

Values

Values refer to cultural conceptions about what are desirable goals or ends and what are appropriate standards for judging actions. They constitute standards by which people evaluate goals and actions (Rokeach, 1973). Also, values refer to convictions about what is right and wrong (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). There is a widespread agreement in the literature regarding five features of the conceptual definition of values: A value is a (1) belief (2) pertaining to desirable and states or modes of conduct, that (3) transcends specific situations, (4) guides selection or evaluation of behavior, people, and events, and (5) is ordered by importance relative to other values to form a system of value priorities (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987).

Attitude

Attitudes are evaluative statements either favorable or unfavorable concerning objects, people or events. They reflect how an individual feels about something (Robbins and Coulter, 2007). Also, attitude refers to person's enduring favorable or unfavorable cognitive evaluation, emotional feelings, and action tendencies towards some objective or idea (Kottler, 2008).

Religion

Religion is one of the commonly mentioned determinate of the moral values that buttress moral principles. The major world religions teaches that an omniscient God observe human actions and hold people accountable for their actions (Emerson, 2010). Weber (1905) in his work 'The protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism' identified the interconnection between religion and the marketplace. Weber proposed that a relationship exist between certain religious teachings and economic behavior. The belief was that God desired profitability to prove stewardess and that the person who fulfils a calling does not waste time and resources (Koch, 1993). In similar vein, religion is an emotional attachment, a powerful emotive relationship to things (Kirkpatrick, 2005).

Elements of Social Factors

Major agents of socialization (social factors) are family, the peers, the school and the media, reference groups, roles and statuses (Gamba, 2003; Phil, 2010). Reference groups are groups that serve as direct or indirect points of comparison or reference in the forming of person's attitudes or behavior (Gamba, 2003). For example, some people admire business people, musicians, politicians models, and so on. In most cases reference groups contain our heroes and women for instance will tend to enter into entrepreneurship when they see their referents. Also family constitutes the most influential primary reference group that shapes an individual's behavior (Gamba, 2003). Families shape many of an individual's basic values and attitudes including views and religion, politics, education and one's attitudes towards material possession and thrift. Also, families can instill certain values and beliefs into their children, and until they become adults, these continue to influence their decision processes (Gamba, 2003; Tundui, 2012).

Moreover, as the culture is learned behavior, formal and informal education plays an important role transforming cultural values from one generation to another. Thus, education system assists to foster support and encourage those interested in knowing what it is like to run a business (Alwis and Senathiraja, 2003). Therefore, cultural factors and networks available to entrepreneurs can influence not only the choice of activity to be undertaken but also performance of that activity.

Concept of Organizational Performance

Organizational performance refers to the record of achievement of an organization over a period of time (Armstrong, 2001). Boyne, Farrell, Law, Powell and Walker (2003) posit that information on organizational performance is very important to management of any organization. It helps management to ascertain whether the organization is improving, deteriorating or stagnant. In addition, it enables organizations to adjust with a view to improving on its services for the enhancement of its survival and growth. However, there is the problem of evaluating criteria for causes of labor turnover to include job dissatisfaction, lack of organizational commitment, intention to quit and comparison of alternatives. Griffeth et al, observed a relationship between pay, performance and staff turnover in an organization.

Organisational Strategies for Staff Retention

Ansoff (1984) refers to strategy as a set of decision-making behavior in an organization for the purpose of achieving a pre-determined objective. According to Thompson, Gamble and Strickland (2004), strategy is a game plan which management of an organization adopts to stake out market position, attract competent employees and please customers, compete successfully, conduct operations and achieve organizational goals. From the foregoing, strategy could be referred to as a means by which a particular goal of an individual or organization is attained. What the above implies is that for any organization to achieve its goals there is the need to devise certain strategies to facilitate it. Organizations put in place strategies to achieve their goals including the one involving staff retention. Staff retention strategies therefore are means, plan or set of decision-making behavior put in place by organizations to retain their competent workforce for enhanced performance.

Organizational performance is the ultimate dependent variable of interest for researcher's concerned with just about any area of management. Market competition for customers, inputs, and capital make organizational performance essential to the survival and success of the modern business. As a consequence, this construct has acquired a central role as the deemed goal of modern industrial activity. Marketing, operations, human resources (HR), and strategy are all ultimately judged by their contribution to organizational performance. Measuring it is essential in allowing researchers and managers to evaluate the specific actions of firms and managers, where firms stand vis-à-vis their rivals, and how firms evolve and perform over time. Its importance as the ultimate evaluative criterion is reflected in its pervasive use as a dependent variable.

The definition of "Organizational performance" is a surprisingly open question with few studies using consistent definitions and measures (see Kirby, 2005). Performance is so common in management research that its structure and definition are rarely explicitly justified; instead, its appropriateness, in no matter what form, is unquestionably assumed (March & Sutton, 1997). It is said that, 10 years after March and Sutton's call to virtue, these assumptions continue largely unquestioned. Reviewing the last 3 years of the journals examined by March and Sutton as well as the Journal of International Business Studies and the Journal of Management, I identified 213 papers-29% of the total published in those journals; that included organizational performance as a dependent variable. The measures ranged from an assortment of financial operating ratios (e.g., net profit after taxes [NPAT] and the return on equity [ROE]) to measures of successful outcomes to broad subjective perceptions of relative performance variously measured. Overall, across the 213 papers identified as including a performance variable, 207 different measures of performance were used. The diversity of approaches was further complicated by variation in the use of single, multiple, and aggregated measures. What stands out from this examination is the lack of clarity in the theoretical definition of performance and the absence of methodological consistency in the formulation of the construct(s) used. Together, these limitations make effective positive scientific comparisons between these papers difficult and normative recommendations hard to justify as having any degree of prescriptive validity and use of the plethora of performance measures available to them. My goal is to reignite the debate surrounding the meaning and measurement of organizational performance with particular emphasis on financial measures and the use of performance as a dependent variable.

The broadening of the domain of organizational performance has implications for both methodological practice and the relationship between academic research and management practice. Stated simply, I may not be measuring the performance to which managers are managing. For example, Boyd, Gove, and Hitt (2005) found that in the papers published by the four leading management journals from 1998 to 2000, performance was the most common dependent and in 38.1% of the cases it was measured using a single indicator. Only 19.6% of these studies used statistically constructed scales that allowed the measurement structure and error to be evaluated (Boyd et al., 2005). I find similar results with single indicators used in 49% of the papers I reviewed. The frequent use of single item measures indicates a continuing need to integrate methodological developments into practice.

Secondly, the debate is critical to establish the relevance and applicability of academic management research. The inability to understand and characterize performance consistently reduces the effect and relevance of management research. Inconsistency leads to a divergence in results, undermining the clarity of the findings and the confidence of researchers and managers alike. With a more coherent understanding of the meaning and measurement of performance, I hope to make a small step toward convergence in understanding the most common dependent variable of interest in our research.

The structure of the remainder of this review is as follows. I began by reviewing the domain of organizational performance. This domain stretches across a diversity of users and uses that make the construct of organizational performance both complex and multidimensional. I then considered the literature on the measures available. Uniting these literatures provides guidance on methodological best practice in measuring performance. An important agenda for further research that seeks to validate these measurement approaches is then suggested.

Empirical Framework

Organisation performance became more central to organization theory when in the late 1950s and 1960s systems models took over from more goal-based ways of thinking about it. Sociologists viewed organisational effectiveness within a systems model that needed to jointly understand the interplay between productivity, flexibility and an absence of organisational strain (Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum, 1957). Today we give much attention to the need for organisations and their leaders to manage in the broad context of strategic and business model change, balanced by concerns about the sustainability of such strategies. Yet from the beginnings of the field of organisational effectiveness, when Katz and Kahn (1966) argued that whilst senior managers could attend to activities associated with internal issues of efficiency from an economic perspective, it was evident that effectiveness was a political judgement made about organisations best viewed externally. The key issue was how to align the two views of an organisation in ways that led to growth, storage, survival and control over the environment. As more systemic ways of thinking about effectiveness took hold,

Friedlander and Pickle (1968) said that organisational effectiveness should be seen as the intersection of profitability, employee satisfaction and societal value, whilst Mahoney and Weitzel (1969) argued that we needed to focus on the level of productivity in, support for, reliability of and utilization of the organisation's business model. Blake and Mouton (1964) saw it needing to focus on the simultaneous achievement of high production and high people centred enterprise, and for Gibson et al. (1985) organisation effectiveness had to be concerned with the alignment of structure, process and behaviour, best judged in terms of short-run productivity, efficiency and satisfaction, intermediate adaptability and development and long-run survival. Today we give much importance to talent management models (Sparrow et al., 2014).

Many of the debates today about the importance of, but also limitations of, talent are echoed in a finding by Lieberson and O'Connor (1972) which showed that leadership succession in large corporations bore only a limited relation to performance. Indeed, organisational effectiveness as a topic had its beginnings in the contribution of individuals to organisational success. Similarly, coming from a selection perspective, it was argued that the success of such talent and therefore measurement of organisational effectiveness was best seen in terms of an "ultimate criterion", such as productivity, net profit, mission accomplishment or organisational growth. But organisational effectiveness requires the satisfaction of multiple constituencies each having an influence on the priorities against which organisational performance should be judged. Many of the debates we have about this today trace back to the 1970s, when more critical voices first began to be heard.

For Hirsch (1976), a socio change, balanced by concerns about the sustainability of such strategies. Yet from the beginnings of the field of organisational effectiveness, when Katz and Kahn (1966) argued that whilst senior managers could attend to activities associated with internal issues of efficiency from an economic perspective, it was evident that effectiveness was a political judgement made about organisations best viewed externally. The key issue was how to align the two views of an organisation in ways that led to growth, storage, survival and control over the environment. As more systemic ways of thinking about effectiveness took hold, Friedlander and Pickle (1968) said that organisational effectiveness should be seen as the intersection of profitability, employee satisfaction and societal value, whilst Mahoney and Weitzel (1969) argued that we needed to focus on the level of productivity in, support for, reliability of and utilization of the organisation's business model. Blake and Mouton (1964) saw it needing to focus on the simultaneous achievement of high production and high people centred enterprise, and for Gibson et al. (1985) organisation effectiveness had to be concerned with the alignment of structure, process and behaviour, best judged in terms of short-run productivity, efficiency and satisfaction, intermediate adaptability and development and long-run survival.

There were four ways of answering these questions. By the 1980s, the first 30 years of thinking about organisational effectiveness had been shaped by shifts in the expectations of the public and the areas of management attention. There were four ways in which people thought about organisational effectiveness and judged its desirability. As a forerunner to today's balanced scorecard thinking, the first answer was that "it is all relative", so ask the main stakeholders as consumers of the organisation's performance to each evaluate against their own criteria, and use a collated set (Connolly et al., 1980). The second answer was a "power" one, which argued that there are dominant coalitions at any one time who negotiate what the performance outcomes should be (Goodman and Pennings, 1977), this negotiation reflects the relative power each has in terms of control over strategic resources (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978), and these demands have to be met in order to ensure the survival of the organisation.

The third answer took a "social justice" perspective (Rawls, 1971). Arguing that social values determine organisational effectiveness, and place limits around what a society can seek and the means by which it is attained, effectiveness must be judged by the extent that it ensures equal distribution of key resources for self-respect such as liberty, opportunity, income and wealth. The yardstick of organisational effectiveness was that the organisation passes the "regret principle" (Keeley, 1978) – i.e., it seeks to minimize any level of regret that its constituents have over participating in the organisation. The fourth and final way of thinking about organisational effectiveness was to see itin evolutionary terms. What is effective at one time becomes ineffective at others as the context changes, so effective performance is that which increases the adaptability of the organisation – the ability to satisfy a continual process of divergent definitions of effective organisational performance over time (Zammuto, 1982).

Today, in the wake of a global financial crisis, we question and challenge the direction of business development and the financial and economic models that drive it. Such challenges again follow an important intellectual heritage. By the late 1980s, concern was growing over the failure of management and narrowness of the criteria used to organisational effectiveness in practice, triggered mainly by challenges to US competitiveness and poor growth in productivity. It was Hitt (1988) who first noted the dual problem of there being a discrepancy between actual organisational health and reported health in financial metrics, being created by an over reliance on financial measures of performance and short-run profits on the one hand, but an equal reluctance of academics to link any measures of organisational effectiveness to their own research, ignoring or working on assumed models of effectiveness. Accounting determined measures such as return on investment, assets, equity or assets and earnings per share were highly inter-correlated but were subject to distortion, and did not take account of risks to the reported finances. Whilst capital asset pricing models, or shareholder return models, were argued to be a more reliable longer term way of thinking about organisational effectiveness from a financial perspective, looking at the securities market and adjusting the returns based on the risks and capturing long-run performance potential, these too reflected a narrow stakeholder base. For Hitt (1988), the financialisation of organisational effectiveness measures was still creating sealed boxes and closed loop thinking in addressing the problem. At this point, as there is again now, there was a shift towards thinking about organisational effectiveness by design. This question is as live today as it was then. From an organisation design perspective (Butler, 1991), organisations were seen as being constrained by their environments and therefore had to set the criteria for effectiveness via "performance norms" underpinned by essential values. It was accepted that there may be competing or contradictory norms, but management have the crucial task of translating the norms into an "internal ideology" which provides the foundations for decision making and actions (Huber and Glick, 1993). Themes of information and organisation design also led us into risk and management cognition and from this the mind-set and capital of top talent. Hodgkinson and Sparrow (2002) argued the importance of mental models of senior managers.

Finally, from the late 1980s onwards, we began to the systemic relationships among HRM practices and their relationship to specific approaches that organisations could use as they strove to gain competitive advantage (Schuler and MacMillan, 2006; Schuler and Jackson, 1987). This perspective argued that HRM practices could not be chosen based on technical merits alone. Rather, it should be in terms of their ability to facilitate strategy implementation. From an organisational effectiveness perspective, a key point of interest was to understand how HR practices might be differentiated in relation to intermediate strategic performance outcomes, such as innovation, cost (efficiency and effectiveness) or quality. Contingency models were used to identify the essential role behaviours that needed to be engineered amongst employees, with HRM practices configured and packaged differently to support these role behaviours. By the late 1990s, researchers began to use an architectural metaphor to highlight the locus of value creation in strategic HRM (Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Lepak and Snell, 1999; Wright et al., 2001; Wright and McMahan, 1992; Becker and Huselid, 2006; Kang et al., 2007). The language of HR architecture was used to reflect a combination of systems, practices, competencies and skills needed to develop and manage an organisation's strategic human capital (Becker and Huselid, 2006).

As this work developed, research began to focus on the different intermediate strategic performance outcomes (e.g. innovation, customer centricity, lean management) that were central to organisational effectiveness. These performance outcomes were understood to emphasise different internal business processes in terms of competitive advantage (Lepak and Snell, 2002). Hence, an important agenda is one of understanding the skill sets that become critical for value creation across these different outcomes. Similarly, we need to understand which sets of skills, competencies, and knowledge and delivery mechanism enable the HR architecture to exert strategic influence over the execution of organisational strategy (Jackson et al., 1989; Barney, 1991; Wright and McMahan, 1992; Huselid, 1995). An example of attempts at more strategic application would be talent management, defined as the process through which employers anticipate and meet their needs for human capital (Cappelli, 2008). Coming from a strategic talent pools perspective, research notes that decisions around talent are rarely optimal (Boudreau, 2010 Boudreau and Jesuthasan, 2011). For Cascio and Boudreau (2014), the answer to these problems is to use a risk optimization, management and mitigation framework to look at HR strategy and strategic workforce planning (SWP). Human capital strategies have to be built on the reduction of uncertainty, elimination of bad outcomes and insurance against bad outcomes. Whilst cautioning against the illusion of predictability, this might still include efforts at increased precision in predictions about future supply and demand for skills, or the application of quality-control tools to important HR processes (such as talent management) to achieve the same "low-defect" rigour seen in engineering and operations processes.

Flowing from such developments, another important area of research now is to show how organisational effectiveness can be aided by practices associated with human capital management. The word capital reflects a concept from economics which denotes potentially valuable assets (Nahapiet, 2011). These include a number of evolving practices. One of these is human capital (or workforce) analytics or accounting, which typically blend techniques such as forecasting principles and scenario planning to create forecasts of the current and future workforce. This in turn is evolving towards SWP, which attempts to identify the characteristics of human capital needed to achieve important strategic objectives, and create insight into relative value of specific talent to the execution of an important strategy, alongside necessary investments and actions needed to avoid any loss of value. What should be evident from all the historical perspectives outlined above is that they all bring cross-disciplinary insights into the process of linking people, performance and organisational effectiveness. We see now the need to combine perspectives from decision sciences, supply chain management, operations management, consumer behaviour, innovation, strategic management and its attention to the resource-based view of the firm, dynamic capabilities, business models and strategy as practice. We see a broadening of analysis beyond human capital into related interests in social capital.

Materials and Methods

Research Design and Population

The research design adopted for this study was the survey research design method because the samples being studied were only observed and not manipulated or controlled. The target population for the study comprises of workers and customers of international breweries plc in Osun State. In reality, it is be practically impossible to cover the entire workers and customers of International Brewery Ilesa, Osun State. Therefore, a sample size is required. A sample size is said to be a specimens of the real in the case of total population. The sample size is to be determined after serious consideration of the extent to which the sample can be a fair representation of the whole population. In order to minimize time and money, the opinion of sampling this would be restricted to the totality random selection of workers and customers in International Brewery.

Sample Size

The purposive stratified sampling technique was used to select respondents. The research used one hundred and fifty (150) questionnaires for the analysis of data collection.

Method of Data Collection

The two methods of data collection- primary and secondary were utilized in this research work.

Testing of Hypothesis

Research Hypothesis 1: There is no significant influence on age, gender, marital status, and educational qualification on attitude towards consumption of brewery products

Table 1: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis of Age, Gender, Marital Status, Educational Qualification and attitude towards consumption of brewery products

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.141[a]	.020	-.013	.46450

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.527	4	.132	.611	.656[b]
	Residual	25.892	120	.216		
	Total	26.419	124			

a. Dependent Variable: Attitude towards consumption of brewery product

b. Predictors: (Constant), Educational Qualification, Marital Status, Sex, Age

From table 1 above, R squared is 0.020 which indicated that Age, Gender, Marital status, Educational qualification 0.20% of the total variation to the attitude towards consumption of brewery product of the respondents. With $F(4,120) = 0.611$, $p>.05$, with an R^2 of .020. We conclude that there is no joint significant relationship Age, Gender, Marital status, Educational qualification and the attitude towards consumption of brewery product.

Research Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between government activities and organisational performance of workers in International brewery Ilesa, Osun state

Table 2: Summary Table of Pearson, r Correlation showing the relationship between Government policy and Organisational performance

	n	M	S D	df	R	p
Government policy	125	3.7720	.58303	124	-.006	.949
Organizational performance	125	2.0820	.51858	138		

Correlation is insignificant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The result in table 2 above revealed that Government policy was insignificantly but slightly negatively related to organizational performance [r (125) = -0.006, p>0.05]. Therefore, hypothesis two was supported by the result of the study, and it is subsequently accepted. Thus it is concluded that government policy has slightly negative but statistically insignificant relationship with Organizational performance among workers of International brewery Ilesa, Osun State.

Research Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between government activities and organizational performance of workers in International brewery Ilesa, Osun State.

Table 3: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis of Age, Gender, Marital Status, Educational Qualification and attitude towards consumption of brewery products

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.376[a]	.042	.113	.54912

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.966	4	1.491	4.946	.001[b]
	Residual	36.184	120	.302		
	Total	42.150	124			

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Educational Qualification, Marital Status, Sex, Age

From table 3 above, R squared is 0.042 which indicated that Age, Gender, Marital status, Educational qualification 0.42% of the total variation to the attitude towards consumption of brewery product of the respondents. With F(4,120) = 4.946, p>.05, with an R^2 of .042. We conclude that there is joint significant relationship Age, Gender, Marital status, Educational qualification and organizational performance.

Conclusion and Recommendation

In this study we used both descriptive and quantitative analysis in capturing the general overview and specific impact of socio-cultural factors and organizational performance in international brewery Ilesa. Multiple regression model was used to estimate empirically the effect of socio-cultural factors on organizational performance. Our findings indicate that there is a poor performance of women caused by, immobility of women for business purposes, poor attitude and support from the society members including husbands. Generally, that there is no joint significant relationship Age, Gender, Marital status, Educational qualification and the attitude towards consumption of brewery product. This implies that the socio-culture did not affect the consumption of the brewery product. Lastly it was tested that there is no significant relationship between government activities and organizational performance of workers in International brewery Ilesa, Osun state. The findings reveal that the government policy did not have anything to do with the organizational performance. The policy of the government did not have relationship with the corporate performance.

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are hereby made:

1. Our communities should look at some aspect of our culture that is against entrepreneurial development for necessary modification.
2. Those cultural values that impact positively on entrepreneurial development like the issue of age grade etc should be encouraged tremendously by our community leaders.
3. Government should use tariff and other incentive schemes to attract investors and encourage entrepreneurial activities.

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