



**Role of Power in Supply Chain Performance: Evidence from Agribusiness SMEs in Uganda**

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# 1 Role of Power in Supply Chain Performance: Evidence from Agribusiness SMEs 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

## 1 Role of Power in Supply Chain Performance: Evidence from Agribusiness SMEs 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

### 1 Role of Power in Supply Chain Performance: Evidence from Agribusiness SMEs 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

#### 1 Role of Power in Supply Chain Performance: Evidence from Agribusiness SMEs 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

#### 4 **Abstract**

5 **Purpose:** This paper examined the role of power on supply chain performance in the context  
6 of small and medium sized agribusiness enterprises (SMEs). Contrary to most of previous  
7 studies, which collect and analyze data from one side of a relationship dyad using a focal firm  
8 approach, a matched triad approach was employed in data collection and analysis in this  
9 study.

10 **Methodology:** Empirical data was collected from 150 agribusiness supply chain members  
11 from the maize supply chain in Uganda. Analysis was done using multi-group analysis and  
12 structural equations modelling.

13 **Findings:** Results highlights the differences in the perception of power use and how it  
14 influences supply chain performance. The differences in perception suggest the existence of  
15 power asymmetry amongst supply chain members. This work contributes to the ongoing  
16 debate concerning the use of triad as a unit of analysis as opposed to a firm or a dyad.

17 **Limitations:** This study only focused on one commodity chain in one country, which can  
18 limit the broad application of the findings.

19 **Managerial implications:** A practical implication of the finding is that managers of  
20 agribusiness supply chains should be aware of their power positions and appropriately  
21 influence the supply chain based on their relative power positions.

22 **Originality:** The novelty of this work lies in fact that we assess perception of power amongst  
23 supply chain members in a triadic context, a perspective that has not been adequately tested in  
24 agribusiness supply chain management studies before.

25 **Keywords:** *Power, Triad, Structural Equations Modelling, Agribusiness SMEs, Supply chain  
26 performance*

27 **Type:** Research Paper

#### 30 **1.0 Introduction**

31 The role of power in supply chains presumes a disproportionate distribution of power amongst  
32 supply chain members owing to variations in cost structure, size of the organization capability  
33 and nature of contracts (Belaya *et al.*, 2009; He *et al.*, 2013; Cuevas *et al.*, 2015; Lacoste and

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3 1 Blois, 2015; Rindt and Mouzas, 2015). This implies that supply chain members are  
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5 2 interdependent in a complex supply chain structure (Cai *et al.*, 2013; Chicksand, 2015;  
6  
7 3 Odongo *et al.*, 2016). Supply chain management (SCM) literature demonstrates that power is  
8  
9 4 a vital predictor of supply chain performance (SCP) (Molnár *et al.*, 2010; Nyaga *et al.*, 2013),  
10  
11 5 adoption (Liu *et al.*, 2015), innovation capacity (Kühne *et al.*, 2013), and customer  
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13 6 integration (Zhao *et al.*, 2008).  
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16 7 However, the role of power relations in supply chains is evolving as firms become  
17  
18 8 more complex and multifaceted. Therefore it is important to understand how power is being  
19  
20 9 used by different supply chain members in order to gain control and share profit and  
21  
22 10 ultimately how it affect the supply chain performances (Nyaga *et al.*, 2013; Rindt and  
23  
24 11 Mouzas, 2015). Especially in the context of small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs),  
25  
26 12 power disparity affect firms collaborative behaviors, either due to opportunism or stronger  
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28 13 members taking advantage to appropriate greater value of the relationship (Martin K Hingley,  
29  
30 14 2005; Nyaga *et al.*, 2013; Lackes *et al.*, 2015). Hence this study seek to investigate the  
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32 15 negative and positive effects of power on supply chain performance and how supply chain use  
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34 16 and perceive power (SCM) (Belaya *et al.*, 2009; Liu *et al.*, 2015).  
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38 17 Furthermore, there is a limited research on role of power in SCP in the context of  
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40 18 SMEs (Adams *et al.*, 2012; Sukwadi *et al.*, 2013). Large organizations are often well  
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42 19 equipped and prepared to play the power games in their favor. It is important for the managers  
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44 20 in small and medium sized businesses to get a better understanding of the role of power and  
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46 21 how to deal with it (Gelinas and Bigras, 2004; Matanda *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, this  
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48 22 research has a significant managerial implication in agribusiness sector give that in  
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50 23 developing countries such as Uganda are primarily dominated by small businesses (Matanda  
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52 24 *et al.*, 2016).  
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3 1 In departure from previous studies, this paper makes three additional contributions to  
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5 2 the SCM literature. Firstly, past studies on power in supply chains have focused on its  
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7 3 influence on resource allocation (Pulles *et al.*, 2014); power asymmetry (Nyaga *et al.*, 2013);  
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9 4 commitment (Zhao *et al.*, 2008); relationship strength (Maloni and Benton, 2000); and  
10  
11 5 performance (Crook and Combs, 2007; Molnár *et al.*, 2010). With a few exceptions such as  
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13 6 Molnár *et al.* (2010) and Kühne *et al.* (2013), the majority of these studies collect and analyze  
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15 7 data from one side of a relationship dyad using a focal firm approach. Analyzing a supply  
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17 8 chain at firm or dyadic levels limits understanding the underlying dynamics of the entire  
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19 9 supply chain relationships (Molnár *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2010; Kühne *et al.*, 2013;  
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21 10 Touboulic *et al.*, 2014). Consequently, there is a need to look beyond the dyad and into the  
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23 11 triad as a unit of analysis.

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27 12 Secondly, relationships are by nature bi-directional, as such, there will be differences  
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29 13 in perceptions and expectations amongst supply members (Molnár *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*,  
30  
31 14 2010; Nyaga *et al.*, 2013; Pulles *et al.*, 2014; Odongo *et al.*, 2016). Positive outcomes for the  
32  
33 15 whole supply chain will contribute to an individual member's success (Medlin, 2006;  
34  
35 16 Gagalyuk *et al.*, 2013; Petrick *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, focusing on one side of a  
36  
37 17 relationship dyad limits our assessment and understanding of perceptual congruence amongst  
38  
39 18 supply chain members (Erin Anderson and Weitz, 1992; Mentzer *et al.*, 2001;  
40  
41 19 Rungtusanatham *et al.*, 2003). As such, focusing on the triad as a unit of analysis will  
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43 20 facilitate our understanding of how supply chain members perceive power use and its  
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45 21 influence on performance (Minna Rollins and Schreiner, 2015).

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49 22 Thirdly, by focusing on agribusiness SMEs in a developing country, this paper departs  
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51 23 from most previous studies that focused on large enterprises in developed countries (Sukwadi  
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53 24 *et al.*, 2013). Agribusiness SMEs participate in several interlinked supply chains which make  
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3 1 supply chain relationships a critical issues for their success (Park and Krishnan, 2001; Adams  
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5 2 *et al.*, 2012; Sukwadi *et al.*, 2013).

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7 3 Using a triadic approach, this paper examined the perception of power use and its  
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9 4 influence on SCP amongst agribusiness SMEs in a developing country context. We  
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11 5 hypothesize that the perception of power use and its effects on SCP may not be shared across  
12  
13 6 a relationship triad. The subsequent section presents theoretical perspective and hypothesis  
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15 7 guiding the study followed by the methodology, results, discussion and conclusions as well as  
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17 8 recommendations drawn from the study.  
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## 20 21 22 10 **2. Conceptual framework and hypotheses**

23  
24 11 This paper uses triadic data collection and analysis to examine a triadic business  
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26 12 relationship. Using a triadic approach is appropriate because it enables access to detailed data  
27  
28 13 than would be got using focal firm approach (Minna Rollins and Schreiner, 2015). To  
29  
30 14 facilitate understanding of this triadic power relationships, this study is grounded on the  
31  
32 15 Resource Dependence Theory (RDT). The RDT propagates that firms depend on each other  
33  
34 16 because it is not feasible to be self-sufficient and cost effective (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978;  
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36 17 Belaya and Hanf, 2011; Wynstra *et al.*, 2015). Hence, businesses collaborate to the use each  
37  
38 18 other's resources and enter into a business relationship (Cai *et al.*, 2013; Murthy and Paul,  
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40 19 2016). Furthermore, the extent to which a member is dependent on another member depends  
41  
42 20 on two important factors, i.e., uniqueness of the resource, monopoly over it. Therefore  
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44 21 managers in small businesses have to make best possible use of resources, thereof power to  
45  
46 22 operate optimally (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). Moreover, perception of supply chain  
47  
48 23 members differs regarding use of power and its influence on SCP (Besser and Miller, 2010).  
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50 24 The RDT is therefore relevant in this study and has been used in previous studies to assess  
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52 25 power relationships in supply chains (Fynes *et al.*, 2005; Adams *et al.*, 2012; Sanfiel-Fumero  
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54 26 *et al.*, 2012; Cai *et al.*, 2013; Chicksand, 2015; Liu *et al.*, 2015). The application of the RDT  
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3 1 in this study is therefore relevant and important in advancing the conceptual and practical  
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5 2 understanding of the role of power in influencing SCP in triadic agribusiness SMEs.  
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#### 10 4 **2.1 Supply chain performance (SCP)**

11  
12 5 We define SCP as the operational measures that improve for each member, as well as for the  
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14 6 whole chain as result of participation in a supply chain relationship (Arzu Akyuz and Erman  
15  
16 7 Erkan, 2010; Molnár *et al.*, 2010; Whipple *et al.*, 2010; Gagalyuk *et al.*, 2013). Previous  
17  
18 8 studies have established that collaborative relationships are associated with improved SCP in  
19  
20 9 terms of cost reduction, increased fill rate, reduced inventory, and improved quality (Molnár  
21  
22 10 *et al.*, 2010; Nyaga *et al.*, 2010; Thomas *et al.*, 2011). Further, the supply chain members  
23  
24 11 requires a positive evaluation of the performance outcomes of a relationship in order to justify  
25  
26 12 continued involvement in collaborative activities (Wang *et al.* (2010).  
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30 13 Even though collaborative behaviors result in mutual gains, it is important to stress  
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32 14 here that these potential gains may not be equally shared among supply chain members.  
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34 15 Previous studies provide evidence of perceptual differences amongst supply chain members  
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36 16 with regard to the nature of relationships and SCP (Molnár *et al.*, 2010; Whipple *et al.*, 2010;  
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38 17 Kühne *et al.*, 2013; Nyaga *et al.*, 2013). (Erin Anderson and Weitz, 1992) showed that  
39  
40 18 perceptual differences can negatively affect the relationships among chain members and  
41  
42 19 results dissatisfaction and conflict. Similarly, while buyers and suppliers both benefited from  
43  
44 20 collaborations, suppliers had a greater feeling of inequality (Corsten and Kumar (2005).  
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46 21 Moreover, supply chain members are likely to possess different sources of power, which can  
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48 22 be used to create a certain level of stability or deterrence (Nyaga *et al.*, 2013).  
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52 23 This study pre-supposes that suppliers, focal firms and customers differ in their  
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54 24 perception of power and its effect on SCP. SCP is measured in terms of efficiency,  
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56 25 responsiveness, quality and chain balance. Efficiency is the best use of available resources  
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3 1 which include measures such as logistic costs and profits (Neely *et al.*, 1995; Aramyan *et al.*,  
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5 2 2007). Logistic cost refers to the operating and opportunity cost items that can be influenced  
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7 3 by logistic decisions and the integration of management practices and activities throughout  
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9 4 the supply chain. Profits are the net positive gains from an investment. Responsiveness is the  
10  
11 5 measure of speed/rate of providing the requested products, hence we considered lead-time and  
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13 6 customer complaints (Aramyan *et al.*, 2007; Molnár *et al.*, 2010; Sukwadi *et al.*, 2013). Lead  
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15 7 time is the total amount of time which elapses between sending/getting and  
16  
17 8 delivering/receiving goods or services (Gunasekaran *et al.*, 2001). Customer complaint is  
18  
19 9 defined as the formal complaints from customers regarding the product. Product quality  
20  
21 10 means safety and attractiveness while process quality is measured by environmental  
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23 11 friendliness (Neely *et al.*, 1995; Chen and Paulraj, 2004; Aramyan *et al.*, 2007). Chain  
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25 12 balance is defined as the understanding of distribution of risks and benefits. Risks and benefits  
26  
27 13 distribution refers to the extent to which business risks and compensations are shared amongst  
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29 14 supply chain members. Finally, supply chain understanding refers to chain members'  
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31 15 understanding of each other's products and processes (Molnár *et al.*, 2010).  
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## 38 17 **2.2 Influence of power on supply chain performance**

39 18 Power has been recognized as an important antecedent of SCP (Geyskens *et al.*, 1999). Power  
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41 19 is the supply chain member's ability to influence the perception, conduct and/or decisions of  
42  
43 20 another (Jonsson and Zineldin, 2003). Research indicates that there is always a power  
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45 21 imbalance amongst supply chain members due to the existences of large enterprises with  
46  
47 22 greater power than small ones (Cai *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2013; Martin Hingley *et al.*, 2015).  
48  
49 23 Power imbalances usually arise due to differences in expertise, size, dependence, and the  
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51 24 nature of contract (Martin K Hingley, 2005; Belaya *et al.*, 2009; Gellynck and Molnár, 2009;  
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53 25 Kühne *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2013; Jones *et al.*, 2014).  
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3 1 In the context of agribusiness SMEs in Uganda, processors and wholesalers usually  
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5 2 have more resources (capital) and better access to market information as compared to their  
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7 3 suppliers and customers. This unequal access to resources and information implies that focal  
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9 4 firms have a final say on purchasing decisions such as price, quantity, quality amongst others.  
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11 5 Consequently, there is more power in with the focal firms (processors and wholesalers)  
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13 6 compared to the suppliers and customers. These powerful supply chain members might  
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15 7 assume a greater influence and create some stability along the supply chain. Alternatively,  
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17 8 powerful supply chain members may use their power advantage at the cost of the weaker  
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19 9 members (Belaya *et al.*, 2009; Nyaga *et al.*, 2013; Cuevas *et al.*, 2015; Rindt and Mouzas,  
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21 10 2015). Due to their weak position in the supply chain, the weaker members are most likely to  
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23 11 comply with the stronger members for fear of losing business. It is therefore important to  
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25 12 understand the nature and effects of power in supply chains in order to provide balanced  
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27 13 benefit distributions for all supply chain members (Nyaga *et al.*, 2013).

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32 14 Power bases examines the potential reasons why one member may hold authority over  
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34 15 another. According to French *et al.* (1959), power bases include: *coercive* and *non-coercive*  
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36 16 which indicate the ability of the power holder to mediate punishments or dividends; *expert*  
37  
38 17 power which is the perception that one member holds information or expertise which is  
39  
40 18 valued by another; *referent* power, which is one member's desire for identification with  
41  
42 19 another for recognition by association; and *legitimate* power where one member believes in  
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44 20 the right of the other member to wield influence. Of these power bases, the coercive and non-  
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46 21 coercive dichotomy is the most apparent and widely recognized power bases (Maloni and  
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48 22 Benton, 2000; Bastl *et al.*, 2013).

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52 23 Using the coercive/non-coercive dichotomy, we view power as a mechanism by which  
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54 24 one supply chain member induces a desired action of another supply chain member by  
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56 25 providing/withholding rewards or punishment. Coercive power occurs when a member's  
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3 1 power permits it to affect another member's share of the benefits of a supply chain  
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5 2 relationship. It represents a power struggle driven by force by one supply chain member over  
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7 3 another (Skinner *et al.*, 1992). This power struggle may reduce the level of cooperation and  
8  
9 4 performance; and increase the level of conflict and tension in a supply chain relationship  
10  
11 5 hence reduced SCP (Terpend and Ashenbaum, 2012). Past studies has shown that coercive  
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13 6 power negatively influences SCP. We therefore hypothesize that:

16 7 **H1<sub>a</sub>:** *Coercive power negatively affects efficiency*

18 8 **H1<sub>b</sub>:** *Coercive power negatively affects quality*

20 9 **H1<sub>c</sub>:** *Coercive power negatively affects responsiveness*

22 10 **H1<sub>d</sub>:** *Coercive power negatively affects chain balance*

25 11  
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27 12 Non-coercive power is based on rewards and the belief that another member is able to  
28  
29 13 administer positive rewards and minimize negative rewards (French *et al.*, 1959). Non-  
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31 14 coercive power therefore involves rewards and assistances and increases the value of a  
32  
33 15 relationship through team support, common interests and supporting collective goals (Jonsson  
34  
35 16 and Zineldin, 2003). Previous studies have postulated that non-coercive power has a positive  
36  
37 17 effect on SCP (Zhao *et al.*, 2008; Nyaga *et al.*, 2013), hence, we hypothesize that:

40 18 **H2<sub>a</sub>:** *Non-coercive power positively affects efficiency*

42 19 **H2<sub>b</sub>:** *Non-coercive power positively affects quality*

44 20 **H2<sub>c</sub>:** *Non-coercive power positively affects responsiveness*

46 21 **H2<sub>d</sub>:** *Non-coercive power positively affects chain balance*

49 22  
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51 23 The conceptual framework underpinning the stated hypotheses is presented in figure 1.

52 24 **Insert figure 1**

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56 26 **3. Methods**

### 3.1 The maize supply chain in Uganda

Data for this study was collected from SMEs in the maize supply chain in Uganda. The maize industry is selected for this study because maize is Uganda's most important non-traditional exports and food security commodity. Maize sector provides a source of livelihood to over 3 million households in Ugandan (MFPED, 2016). Much of the maize produced in Uganda is sold to regional markets, especially in Kenya, South Sudan, Malawi, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, (Ahmed, 2012).

In Uganda, maize is marketed through two major channels, namely the grain and flour channels. The grain channel is the major channel for maize trade and handles up to 75% of domestically traded maize and 100% of exported maize. Participants in the grain channel include farmers, traders, commodity brokers and seed companies. According to Dalipagic (2014), participants in the grain channel include rural and urban SMEs, and large-scale traders, with rural SMEs constituting about 90%. The flour channel handles maize which has been processed into maize flour, animal feeds and human food products amongst others. Participants in the flour channel is dominated by maize millers, who constitute 85% of the SMEs in this channel.

### 3.2 Data collection

Primary data was collected between April 2014 and February 2015. We employed face to face interviews with managers of agribusiness SMEs. A matched triad approach (Kühne *et al.*, 2015) was used in data collection. Using a matched triad approach helped to minimize the chances of sampling bias (Rungtusanatham *et al.*, 2003; Wuyts *et al.*, 2004; Boyer and Swink, 2008). Additionally, the choice of a matched triad approach was done so as to facilitate the subsequent triadic data analysis.

Therefore, each supply chain considered had a triplet of supply chain members (supplier, focal firm, and customer). Data collection always started with the focal firms (FF),

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2  
3 1 which were purposively identified based on their involvement in the maize supply chain as  
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5 2 either a processor or wholesaler. This facilitated the subsequent snowball identification of the  
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7 3 supplier (S) and customer (C) by the FF. Each FF was first asked to identify one of their  
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9 4 important supplier (S) and customer (C) before being asked to indicate their subjective  
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11 5 assessment with respect to their individually chosen supplier (F\_S) and customer (F\_C).  
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13 6 Similarly, each nominated supplier was requested to provide their subjective assessment with  
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15 7 respect to the FF that nominated them (S\_F); and each nominated customer was asked to  
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17 8 provide their subjective assessment with respect to the FF that nominated them (C\_F). To be  
18  
19 9 considered for inclusion, suppliers had to be dealing directly in maize or maize products.  
20  
21 10 Therefore, nominated suppliers who were dealing in services such as transportation or other  
22  
23 11 inputs were left out of the interview process. For customers, the inclusion criteria was that  
24  
25 12 they had to be buying maize or maize product directly from the FF that nominated them. In  
26  
27 13 case of a non-response or a mismatch from one of the nominated C of S, the whole supply  
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29 14 chain was dropped from the interview process. These perspectives of data collection are  
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31 15 summarized in figure 2.  
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### 36 Insert figure 2

37  
38 17 The snowball sampling technique was deemed ideal for the study as little was known  
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40 18 about the underlying dimensions of the study population. As such, the ex-ante identification  
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42 19 of respondents was not feasible (Molnár *et al.*, 2010). At the end, realized 50 matched triads  
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44 20 (150 successful interviews), that is 90% completion rate for the initiated interviews, which is  
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46 21 consistent with the snowball method of sampling. The 50 maize supply chains comprised 50  
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48 22 suppliers, 50 focal firms, and 50 customers. Most (73%) of the responding firms were small  
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50 23 enterprises, who had been in business operations for more than five years. The majority (59%)  
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52 24 was involved in the marketing of maize as flour. The firms were involved in the production,  
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54 25 processing and marketing of maize in form of flour, feeds, seeds and grains (Table 1).  
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**Insert Table 1****3.3 Measurements and scaling**

We adapted the survey measurement items based on similar past studies conducted on power (Kühne *et al.*, 2013), and SCP (Molnár *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2010; Kühne *et al.*, 2013) (see table 2 for statements used). The first section of the questionnaire assessed the supply chain members' characteristics. The second section examined the perception of power use amongst supply chain members, making use of four statements, representing coercive power and non-coercive power sources. The third section assessed perception of SCP, using 11 statements belonging to the four SCP constructs. All items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-neutral, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree).

**3.4 Analysis**

Data was analyzed in SPSS version 21 and AMOS 22. Since the constructs were being used in Uganda for the first time, we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to assess the uni-dimensionality of the scales (Narasimhan and Jayaram, 1998; Zhao *et al.*, 2008). The EFA with principal component analysis (PCA) was done without specifying the number of factors. Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization was used to clarify on the number of factors. Some items were dropped because of cross loadings or low loadings on the respective factors. Cronbach alpha was then calculated for each factor extracted to assess the internal consistency of the extracted components (Janssens *et al.*, 2008). For SCP, four factors with Eigen values greater than one were extracted, explaining 60.17% of the variations in SCP. The four factors generally maintained the original dimensions in which SCP was measured. For power, two factors explaining 87% variation in power were extracted (Table 2).

**Insert Table 2**

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3 1 The second stage of analysis involved estimating standardized path estimates so as to  
4  
5 2 assess the causal relationships amongst the constructs using structural equations modelling  
6  
7 3 (SEM). Following James C Anderson and Gerbing (1988), we used a two-step approach of  
8  
9 4 testing a measurement and structural model. A measurement model was built based on the  
10  
11 5 two power and four SCP constructs. The fit indices for the measurement model was good with  
12  
13 6  $\chi^2=94.00$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.005$ ,  $GFI=0.94$ ,  $CFI=0.94$ ,  $RMSEA=0.05$ ; which fall within acceptable  
14  
15 7 limits for a CFA (Hu and Bentler, 1999; Janssens *et al.*, 2008). We then built a structural  
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17 8 model based on the measurement model using the maximum likelihood method. The  
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19 9 structural model was modified through co-varying the error terms on efficiency with quality,  
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21 10 and quality with responsiveness. The modification resulted in a model with good fit indices  
22  
23 11 ( $\chi^2=104.04.54$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.002$ ,  $GFI=0.93$ ,  $CFI=0.92$ ,  $RMSEA=0.05$ ), thus explaining clearly  
24  
25 12 the rationale for the acceptability of the model.  
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#### 31 14 **4. Results**

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33 15 For the pooled sample, results show that coercive power negatively and significantly  
34  
35 16 influenced efficiency, quality and chain balance; hence providing support for hypothesis  $H_{1a}$ ,  
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37 17  $H_{1b}$ ,  $H_{1d}$  (Figure 3). This finding is in agreement with previous studies which suggest that  
38  
39 18 coercive power negatively influences SCP (Sanfiel-Fumero *et al.*, 2012; Terpend and  
40  
41 19 Ashenbaum, 2012; Sheu, 2015). Although positive, the influence of non-coercive power on  
42  
43 20 SCP was not significant and hence  $H_2$  was not supported.  
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#### 46 21 **Insert figure 3**

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48 22 Multi-group SEM analysis revealed differences in the perceptions of power use and its  
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50 23 influences on SCP amongst supply chain members. On the upstream, suppliers perceived the  
51  
52 24 use of coercive power by the FFs to significantly and negatively influence efficiency and  
53  
54 25 chain balance. FFs perceived the use of coercive power by suppliers to positively and  
55  
56 26 significantly influence responsiveness. This outcome is counter intuitive, as literature suggest  
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1 that coercive power negatively influences SCP (Sanfiel-Fumero *et al.*, 2012). This result can  
2 however be explained by the informal nature of business operations in the maize supply chain  
3 in Uganda. In the absences of formal contracts, supply chain members might be forced to use  
4 threats, for example loss of contract, to have partners adhere to desired performance standards  
5 such as delivery time and quality standards. Looking at non-coercive power, focal firms  
6 perceived the use of non-coercive power to positively influence SCP. This results find support  
7 in previous studies such as (Sheu, 2015) which suggests that non-coercive power has a  
8 positive effect on SCP. The results with respect to the supplier was however not significant,  
9 hence inconclusive. Similar studies by (Kühne *et al.*, 2013) in agri-food chains showed  
10 indifference on the influence of non-coercive power on SCP.

11 On the downstream, FF did not consider the use of coercive power by the customer to  
12 significantly affect SCP. Customers on the other hand perceived the use of coercive power by  
13 the FF to negatively and significantly influence quality and chain balance (Table 3). The  
14 perception of customers on the influence of coercive power on SCP finds support in literature  
15 from previous studies such as Sanfiel-Fumero *et al.* (2012) who suggested that coercive  
16 power negatively influence SCP. On the other hand, focal firms were indifferent on the  
17 influence of non-coercive power on SCP, while customer perceived the use of non-coercive  
18 power to negatively influence quality.

### 19 Insert Table 3

20 Concluding, while our pooled sample results generally provided partial support for H<sub>1</sub>  
21 (H<sub>1a</sub>, H<sub>1b</sub>, H<sub>1d</sub>), it did not provide support for H<sub>2</sub>. For the multi-group analysis, we found  
22 partial support for both H<sub>1</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> across the three supply chain members. For H<sub>1</sub>, there was  
23 partial support for H<sub>1a</sub> (S\_F), H<sub>1b</sub> (C\_F), and counter intuitive support for H<sub>1c</sub> (F\_S) and H<sub>1d</sub>  
24 (S\_F). For H<sub>2</sub>, there was no support for H<sub>2a</sub>, while there was partial support for H<sub>2b</sub> (C\_F), H<sub>2c</sub>  
25 (S\_F) and H<sub>2d</sub> (S\_F). The results for the pooled and multi-group analysis support the

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3 1 assumption that there are perceptual differences amongst supply chain members on the use of  
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5 2 power and its influence on SCP.  
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## 10 4 **5. Discussion**

11 5 Although most researchers believe that empirical studies on SCP should collect and  
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13 6 analyze data from at least three firms in a supply chain (Mentzer *et al.*, 2001; Choi and Wu,  
14  
15 7 2009; Wu *et al.*, 2010), only a few have attempted to do this empirically. This paper provides  
16  
17 8 insights into perception differences amongst supply chain members in a triadic agribusiness  
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19 9 SMEs context. The pooled sample results provide partial support H1 ( $H_{1a}$ ,  $H_{1b}$ ,  $H_{1d}$ ). This is in  
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21 10 agreement with previous studies which show that use of coercive power has negative effects  
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23 11 on SCP (Sakano and Johnson, 1993; James R Brown *et al.*, 1996; Zhao *et al.*, 2008; Terpend  
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25 12 and Ashenbaum, 2012; Nyaga *et al.*, 2013). The results underline the informal environment in  
26  
27 13 which agribusiness SMEs operates in Uganda. Because business relationships are non-  
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29 14 contractual and based on trust, exercise of power will only serve to discourage supply chain  
30  
31 15 members from continuing in a business relationship. In practice, if one member perceives that  
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33 16 another member is being coercive, it is most likely to retaliate by declining to make specific  
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35 17 required adjustments or collaborate in joint relationship activities. The implication is that  
36  
37 18 agribusiness managers need to control their use of coercive power, as it may be  
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39 19 counterproductive to their performance in the long run.  
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44 20 The multi-group analysis revealed differences in perception amongst supply chain  
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46 21 members on the use of power and its influence SCP. While the perception of suppliers and  
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48 22 customers on the use of coercive power is in line with previous studies, there were deviations  
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50 23 when it came to the different performance parameters. For suppliers, efficiency and chain  
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52 24 balance were significantly influenced by a partners use of coercive power, while for  
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54 25 customers, quality and chain balance were critical. For focal firms, the use of coercive power  
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3 1 by the supplier significantly influences responsiveness. This difference in perception reveals  
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5 2 that critical SCP parameters vary from one member to another.

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7 3 Contrary to previous studies (Molnár *et al.*, 2010; Terpend and Ashenbaum, 2012),  
8  
9 4 focal firms perceived the use of coercive power to positively influence performance. This  
10  
11 5 could suggest the existence of power asymmetry amongst agribusiness SMEs. This could be  
12  
13 6 the case where there are few suppliers, supplying maize with specific quality requirements to  
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15 7 focal firms. Since only few suppliers can meet these quality requirements, suppliers have the  
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17 8 power to choose which FF to sell. Hence suppliers can use this power to leverage benefits for  
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19 9 themselves.

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23 10 Focal firms perceived the use of non-coercive power to have significant positive  
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25 11 effects on responsiveness and chain balance. This is in agreement with previous studies  
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27 12 (James R. Brown *et al.*, 1995; Nyaga *et al.*, 2013), which reported a positive association  
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29 13 between non-coercive power and SCP. This suggests that the use of rewards and incentives is  
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31 14 a strong signal from a member that they value that relationship. By implication, supply chain  
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33 15 members need to consider providing incentives, such as rewards and bonuses to their partners.  
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35 16 Such incentives will make partners feel they are appreciated and can result in a positive view  
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37 17 of the relationship. Customers perceived non-coercive power to have a significant negative  
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39 18 effect on the quality. This result is counter intuitive. However, it finds support from a study by  
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41 19 Kühne *et al.* (2013), who concluded that higher levels of non-coercive power use was  
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43 20 associated with low levels of innovation capacity in European traditional food chains.

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47 21 Comparing the downstream and upstream, our findings suggest that different  
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49 22 performance aspects are perceived differently in the two sides of the supply chain. For  
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51 23 instance, while responsiveness is an important factor in the upstream, quality is an important  
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53 24 factor in the downstream. This actually reflects the actual situation in the maize supply chain  
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55 25 in Uganda. In the upstream, there is an need for faster delivery of products so that processing

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3 1 can be done on time. On the downstream, customers are always demanding for quality  
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5 2 product, hence the importance of quality. On the other hand, chain balance appears to be  
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7 3 critical in both upstream and downstream. This finding underpins the fact that relationships  
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9 4 are bi-directional in nature, as such supply chain members will have differences in  
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11 5 perceptions towards business relationships. For agribusiness SME managers, it is essential to  
12  
13 6 understand how their business partners perceive the business relationships. For successful  
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15 7 business relationships, focal firms should take effort to understand their relative power  
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17 8 positions with respect to both the suppliers and customers (Lacoste and Blois, 2015). This is  
18  
19 9 because high levels of power asymmetry leads to more adversarial relationships, as the more  
20  
21 10 powerful partner will tend to be more assertive in the business relationship (Tretyak and  
22  
23 11 Radaev, 2013). Additionally, a lack of understanding of relative power positions of chain  
24  
25 12 member may lead the supply chain members to build and use wrong strategies towards its  
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27 13 business partners. Besides showing the differences and similarities between the upstream and  
28  
29 14 downstream, our results also highlight the importance of business relationships to  
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31 15 agribusiness SMEs performance (Adams *et al.*, 2012).  
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## 39 17 **6. Conclusions**

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41 18 Results of this study give justification to the use of triad in studying supply chain  
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43 19 relationships. Pooled sample results could not reveal the underlying differences in perception  
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45 20 amongst supply chain members; which were clearly brought out when multi-group analysis  
46  
47 21 was conducted. Consequently, a triadic analysis exposes the underlying dimensions of a  
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49 22 supply chain better than a dyadic or firm level analysis.  
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52 23 By collecting and analyzing data at the supply chain level, this paper advances the  
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54 24 empirical understanding of supply chain relationships. Theoretically, the results of this paper  
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56 25 contribute to the ongoing debate in the supply chain management literature that a firm or a  
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3 1 dyad is heavily influenced by the network in which it operates. This research also advances  
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5 2 the resource dependence theory, and builds on previous work by testing the role of power in  
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7 3 supply chain performance in an agribusiness SMEs context that has received limited attention  
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10 4 in literature. It further contributes to theory by empirically testing the model in a developing  
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12 5 country in Africa.

### 6 7 **Managerial implications**

8 Several implications can be drawn from this research. First, managers of agribusiness SMEs  
9  
10 9 should be aware of their power positions and use appropriate influences based on power  
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12 10 positions in a supply chain. Since coercive and non-coercive power have contrasting effects  
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14 11 on SCP, it is important that both power source and power target recognize the presence of  
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16 12 power and reconcile their supply chain strategy to take into account power influences. For  
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18 13 managers, this implies that being open about their power positions with supply chain  
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20 14 members can help to improve on the performance of each member as well as the performance  
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22 15 of the whole supply chain.

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24 16 Secondly, SMEs in agribusiness would greatly benefit from trust and relation benefits,  
25  
26 17 this implies that SMEs managers can enhance their positional advantage through realizing a  
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28 18 better performance in the supply chain. Building a mutually beneficial relationship is critical,  
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30 19 however, that requires a some level of commitment and understanding from all stakeholders.  
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32 20 This can be attained by viewing the relationship as an investment wherein a supplier or a  
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34 21 customer should be viewed as an extension of the SMEs. It is up to the focal firms to convey  
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36 22 this approach to their suppliers and customers.

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38 23 Thirdly, use of rewards and incentives (**non-coercive power**) is a strong gesture from a  
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40 24 member that they value that relationship. Hence, supply chain members may need to consider  
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42 25 providing incentives, such as awards, bonuses or performance incentives to their **supply chain**

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3 1 partners. Using incentives make partners feel appreciated and can result into a positive view  
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5 2 of the relationship. **However**, both researchers and managers in agribusiness SMEs should be  
6  
7 3 cautious of the recommendation that use of non-coercive power have a positive effect on the  
8  
9 4 quality. Finally, SMEs in the agribusiness sector need to limit the use of coercive power by  
10  
11 5 investing in the relational variables in order to improve efficiency, chain balance and  
12  
13 6 responsiveness.

### 7 **Limitations and future research**

8 Some limitations of this study are worth mentioning. Firstly, the study only focused on one  
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10 9 commodity chain in one country, which can limit the applicability of our findings. Future  
11  
12 10 studies could assess power perceptions across different commodity chains and countries to  
13  
14 11 understand if there are differences in perceptions. The second limitation arises from the use of  
15  
16 12 the matched triad approach of data collection. While ideal for studying a triad, this approach  
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18 13 is difficult to operationalize in the field especially where there is no established database for  
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20 14 SMEs. Future studies could replicate similar methodologies where businesses are more  
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22 15 formalized.  
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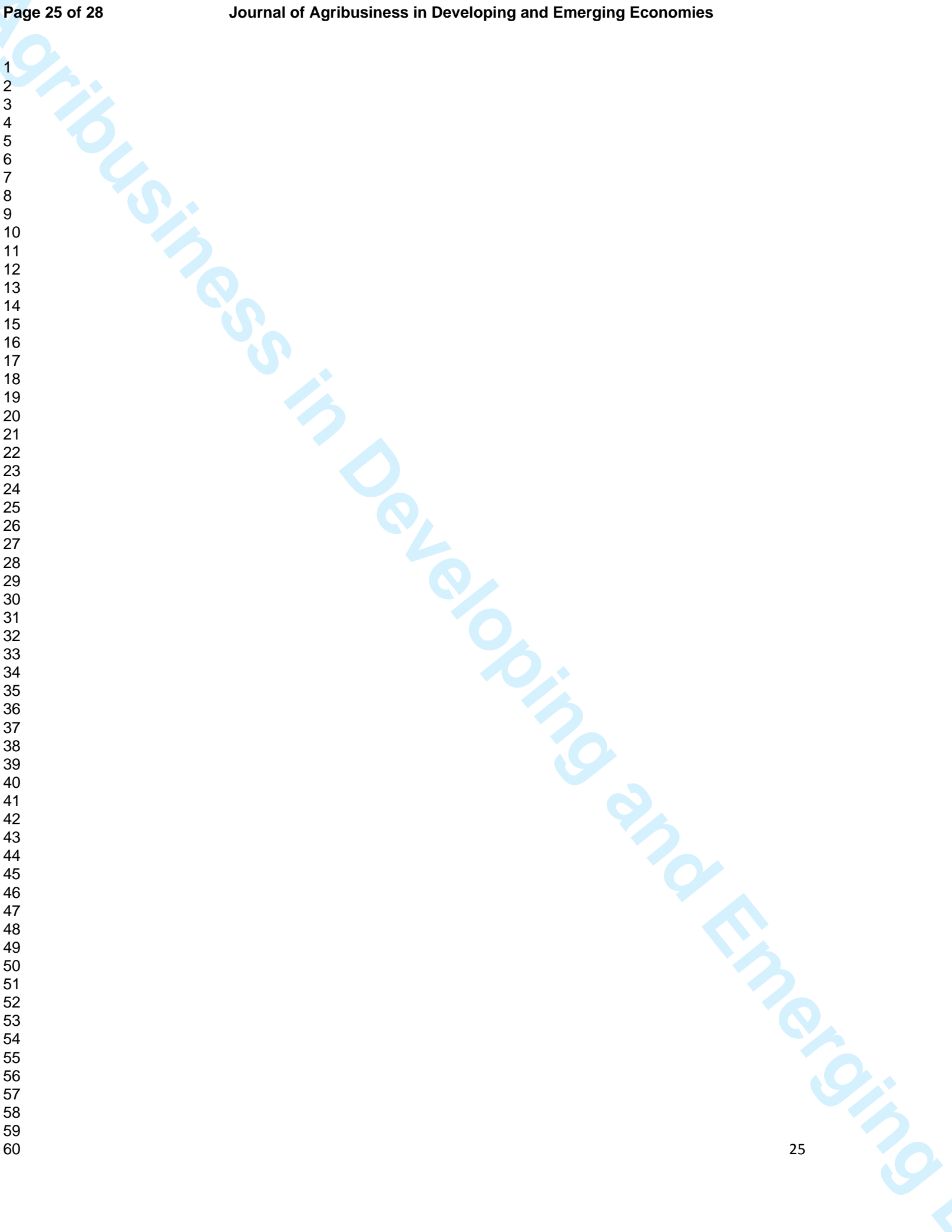
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## List of Table

**Table 1: Profile of the sample (%)**

Categorization	Supplier	Focal firm	Customer
<i>Business age</i>			
≤ 5 years	10	12	10
6-10 years	22	24	32
11-20 years	62	50	46
>20 years	6	14	12
<i>Business size*</i>			
Micro	32	16	22
Small	68	78	77
Medium	-	6	4
<i>Product type</i>			
Flour	14	82	82
Feeds	50	4	2
Seeds	-	14	12
Grains	36	-	4

\*1-4=micro, 5-50=medium, >50=medium sized enterprises,  
Classification based on number of employees (MTIC, 2014)

**Table 2: Exploratory factor analysis for SCP and power**

Construct	Factor loading	Eigen values	Cronbach's alpha
<i>Supply chain performance</i>			
<i>Efficiency(EFF)</i>			
Doing business with this XX helps my company to lower transport costs significantly	0.81	1.79	0.58
Doing business with this XX helps my company to maintain acceptable profitability	0.49		
Doing business with this XX helps our company to significantly reduce transaction costs	0.76		
<i>Quality(QUA)</i>			
Doing business with this XX contributes to reducing customer/consumer complaints	0.53	1.58	0.52

Doing business with our XX helps my company to manage product safety	0.75		
Doing business with our XX helps my company to produce more attractive products	0.72		
<i>Responsiveness (RES)</i>		1.45	0.45
Doing business with this XX helps my company to reduce lead time (time from sending/getting the request till reply)	0.68		
Doing business with this XX enable our company to deliver products on time	0.78		
<i>Supply chain balance (BAL)</i>		1.19	0.24
Doing business with this XX contributes to a more balanced distribution of risks and benefits along the chain	0.76		
Doing business with this XX helps my company to better understand other chain members' interests	0.70		
<i>KMO=0.68; Bartlets tests of sphericity: <math>X^2=219.11</math>; <math>p=0.000</math></i>			
<b>Power</b>			
<i>Coercive power (CP)</i>		1.04	0.97
We cannot be sure that this XX will not retaliate on our company (e.g. terminate contract, lower prices) when we do not accept their business proposal	0.97		
We cannot be sure that this XX will not neglect our interests (terminate the contract without any notice) even if we fully meet the conditions detailed in the contract with them	0.97		
<i>Non-coercive power (NCP)</i>		2.07	0.97
Our company receives benefits from this XX when we regularly meet their requirements (e.g. financial support, market information)	0.73		
This XX rewards our company without requiring specific behaviour in return (e.g. financial support, better prices)	0.92		
<i>KMO=0.56; Bartlets tests of sphericity: <math>X^2=118.57</math>; <math>p=0.000</math></i>			
<i>Note: in the interview process, XX would be replaced with Supplier, customer and Focal firm to represent the F-S, F-C; and C-F and S-F context respectively.</i>			

**Table 3: Standardized path estimation for sub-group specific estimates**

<i>Paths and perspectives</i>			<i>Estimates</i>			
			<i>S-F</i>	<i>F-S</i>	<i>F-C</i>	<i>C-F</i>
Coercive power	→	Efficiency	-0.61***	0.43	0.25	-0.20
Coercive power	→	Quality	0.02	-0.58	-0.20	-0.73***
Coercive power	→	Responsiveness	-0.16	0.22***	0.00	-0.04
Coercive Power	→	Chain balance	-0.07*	0.23	-0.36	-0.55**
Non-coercive power	→	Efficiency	0.22	0.67	0.47	0.06
Non-coercive power	→	Quality	-0.01	-0.24	0.04	-0.45*
Non-coercive power	→	Responsiveness	0.20	0.16*	0.73	0.16
Non-coercive power	→	Chain balance	-0.01	1.16*	0.14	-0.11

*Note: 1. \*, \*\*, \*\*\* indicates significance at 0.05, 0.01 and 0.00 respectively*

*2. F=focal firm; S=supplier; C=customer*

*3. S-F=suppliers perception about the focal firm; F-S=focal firms perception about supplier; F-C=focal firms perception about customer; and C-F=customers perception about focal firm*

List of figures

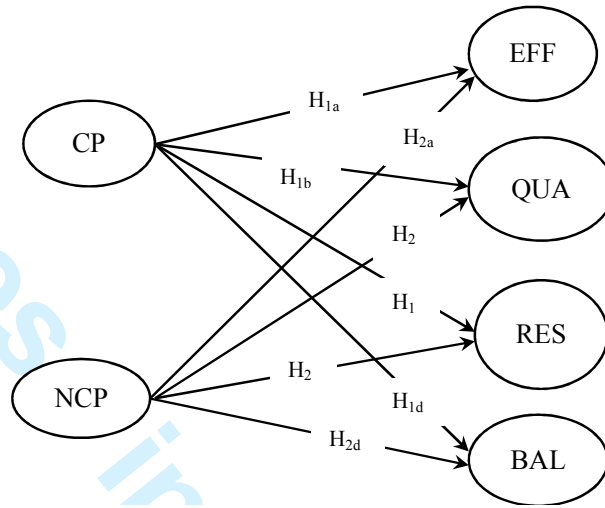


Figure 3: Conceptual framework and hypotheses

CP=coercive power; NCP=non-coercive power; EFF=efficiency; QUA=quality; RES=responsiveness; BAL=chain balance

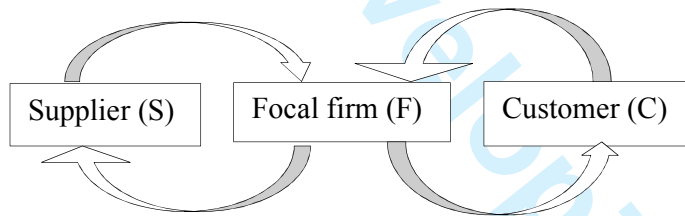


Figure 2: Relationship directions considered in data collection and analysis

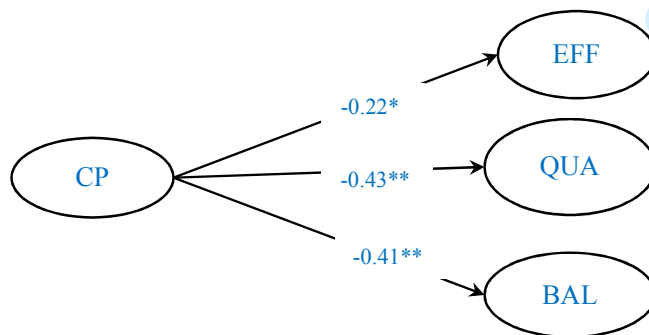


Figure 1: Significant paths for the pooled sample

CP=coercive power; EFF=efficiency; QUA=quality; BAL=chain balance